     This book presents a design for the training of all school personnel for effective
cooperation when auxiliaries (paraprofessionals) are introduced as members of the
multilevel, multifunctional educational team. Major chapters discuss (1) institutional
setting for team training, (2) concepts of adult learning with implications for training,
(3) needed competencies and possible training processes, (4) the experimental
approach as central to team training, and (5) evaluation of the training program.
Focus is on procedures and models for inservice team training of persons of
different competencies, but implications for preservice education are also discussed.
Appendixes include: suggested design for state work conference in auxiliary
personnel; possible functions of auxiliary personnel; report on auxiliary personnel in
Minneapolis Public Schools; report on the training of teacher aides in eastern
Kentucky; abstracts of auxiliary utilization programs in Berkeley, California, and
Detroit, Michigan; guide for training educational assistants in the elementary schools
of New York City; curriculum content areas for auxiliaries and for teachers; stages in
small-group development; multimedia aids on auxiliary personnel; resources for
intensive short-term training; bibliography of manuals, guides, and supplementary
materials for trainers; bibliography on adult learning. (Related training materials are
SP 002 900, SP 002 902, and SP 002 974.) (JS)

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a learning team: teacher and auxiliary

By Gordon J. Klopf
Garda W. Bowman
Adena Joy

Training concepts, processes and models
to enable a team
with members of widely differing
background, competencies
and experiences
to meet the individual
learning needs of children and youth

prepared by
Bank Street College of Education
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About Bank Street College of Education

Founded in 1916 as a private, non-profit institution for research in the learning process and experimentation in early childhood education, Bank Street identifies as its central purpose the study and improvement of the educational life of children, each one as an individual. The training of graduate teachers, supervisors, and specialists is the core of its program. The College maintains its own laboratory school for children, as well as centers for children and their families in low-income areas. Other major undertakings are research in education and human development, field services to school and community, and the preparation of professional literature and multi-media.

A two-year national Study of Auxiliary Personnel in Education provided data on which this volume and the accompanying training materials were based. Consultations with educators throughout the country provided additional substantive material.

The term "Auxiliary Personnel" is used to denote employees who, though lacking the traditional requirements for the education profession, perform auxiliary functions as defined by Webster's New World Dictionary, i.e. they "help, assist, and give aid and support" to the learning–teaching process. While this may not be the ideal term, it is more positive than "nonprofessional" or "paraprofessional" and more inclusive than "teacher-aide." The latter generally refers to the entry level alone, not to assistants and associates; and to only one type of educational function—teaching—not to other functions such as counseling, library services, and home-school relations, in which assistance is needed.

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PREFACE

This training design, so-called, is no final set of guidelines or "how to" prescriptions which give the answer. Its objective is to enable teacher educators, administrators, and those responsible for staff development in schools and colleges to review some of the concepts and processes which appear pertinent to the authors and to the varied but experienced group of advisers, and to examine some examples of how these concepts and processes have been enacted in specific situations.

The major emphasis is upon learning, rather than teaching. This approach is based upon recognition of the salient fact that when there is no learning, there has been in fact no teaching. Moreover, learning does not cease as the child leaves the classroom. Learning takes place in the street, in the alley, in the home, before the television set, in the supermarket, in the park, in the hallways, in the poolroom, and in the houses of detention for juvenile offenders. Life crackles with learning opportunities. The school must com-

pete for the child's attention while offering him a curriculum which has changed only slightly during a half century of gargantuan social change. The school frequently offers an irrelevant curriculum within a highly structured, repressive environment unrelated to the world of the child.

If, in such an environment, a bored or nonresponding child does not read at grade level, he has customarily been written off as a failure. Today parents are saying that it is the schools which have failed. School people respond by saying that many children come to school each day lacking the basic physical care and emotional stability which make learning in an academic setting possible. Parents and school people then ask together whether society has failed.

Meantime, children and youth are learning that: 1) material possessions have high value as status symbols; 2) many of the youth of today are denied legitimate means of access to these material rewards; 3) illegitimate means of access to these same possessions are all too open to these youth, and 4) violence is an immediate and often successful recourse for acquiring possessions, settling an argument, attracting attention, or, for that matter, surviving in the streets of the inner city.

For each group to blame the other for what children and youth are learning and what they are not learning appears of little avail. Instead, a team approach may be needed, in which school and community, as partners, plan not only for the students but with the students.

The goals of such a team concept are: first to establish rapport and mutual trust between school, home and child; then to create a learning environment in the school which is rich, varied and alive; next, to analyze each student's behavior within the environment so as to identify his needs, his interests, his anxieties, his goals—conscious and unconscious—his learning style, his modes of attacking a problem, and his apparent feelings toward self and others. The final step in the process is to restructure the environment, while providing the medley of supportive services that are needed, as the learner meshes his strivings to an educational task which is consonant with his goals, and at the same time replete with opportunity

for his growth and development. This process, to be maximally effective, must be repeated ad infinitum, with continuous feedback from analysis and incessant restructuring of the environment as new needs and new potentials are identified.

Obviously, the learning environment thus conceived is more than four walls and some equipment. It includes all that the child sees, hears, feels and experiences—including the people with whom he interacts. Still more obviously, the structuring of the environment to meet individual needs would be difficult, if not impossible, for one person to accomplish all alone in a classroom of 30, or even with as few as 15 children.

Hence, differentiated education requires differentiated staff. This does not refer merely to levels of authority within the school hierarchy. It refers to differentiation in life experience as well as work experience, thus bringing to the school environment variety and vigor. When the team includes persons from the community served, there is closeness to the lives of the students themselves which enriches and enlivens the school climate.

Such a team goes far beyond the concept of "team teaching," i.e., m... than one certified teacher cooperating in the instruction to a given group of students. This team starts where all education is centered—with the students.

This publication, which we refer to in the body of the book as "a design," will attempt to spell out various ways in which the training of a highly differentiated team may be developed.

gave us the necessary support to move ahead were John Niemeyer, Elizabeth Gilkeson, Richard Hinze, Carl Memling, Robert Bentley, Harry Morgan, and Peter Sauer.

The opportunities the authors have had in recent years to study and design programs for the training and utilization of auxiliary personnel were provided through support from the Office of Economic Opportunity. The specific leadership included Sanford Kravitz, Stanley Sallett, Martha Grosse and Gerson Green. We are also greatly indebted to the creative and realistic leadership of Donald Bigelow in the Office of Education, Bureau of Educational Personnel Development.

For the present publication and related training materials appreciation goes to Don Davies, Associate Commissioner of Education, United States Office of Education. In the whole area of the professional development of educational personnel today he is a man who is not playing at little games, but who has enabled the theory, design and the accompanying enactment of training programs to enlarge, diversify, and intensify as they respond to the dynamism and the demands of a changing society.

David Bushnell, Bernard Yabroff and Marc Matland of the Bureau of Research in the Office of Education provided the needed support, with a fine spirit of inter-agency cooperation. Their involvement was more than merely financial but included a sensitive awareness of the need for such a collection of training materials.

This publication was written as part of a seven month contract with the Office of Education for a collection of multi-media training materials dealing with the participation of auxiliary personnel within the school team. Included in the collection of materials for team training in addition to this volume are:

1. **Audiovisual Materials**

   a) A 26½-minute 16mm black and white film entitled "TEAMS FOR LEARNING," which portrays teacher-auxiliary teams in action in four communities. The film is multi-purpose, but

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is designed primarily as a training tool. It presents effective and cohesive teams, analyzing their ways of functioning together.

b) Two film clips, three and five minutes respectively, which focus on different perceptions of auxiliaries in a school situation. They are particularly suitable for discussion of similar experiences in small training groups and/or role playing of possible solutions. They present some negative viewpoints, and some issues which must be faced.

c) A 13-minute filmstrip in color, with synchronized recordings, entitled "I AM A TEACHER AIDE," which deals in some depth with an aide's perception of her work.

2. **Written Materials Available** (In addition to this training design)

a) Pamphlet—Summary of this training design
b) Directory of Institutions of Higher Learning Offering Programs for Auxiliary Personnel
c) Annotated Bibliography
d) Discussion guides for the film and filmstrip.

We trust these multi-media training materials will be of some value to planners and directors of team training programs for auxiliaries and the professionals with whom they work.

Gordon J. Klopf
Garda W. Bowman
Adena Joy

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

> The structure of my recent Happenings (the earlier ones were somewhat different) is that which I find typical of most classical arts. They tend to be simple in outline, very often threefold and circular; that is to say the conclusion is very often an inversion of, a variation of, or a continuation of the beginning—a kind of resolution, if you want. . . . However, if this is classical, it is not because I have derived the structure from the classical arts, but rather because I have seen these movements in nature, such as the seasons, the circling of the stars, and in the cycle of a man's life.
>
> **Allan Kaprow**

Educating individuals to function as a team might be conceived of as a kind of "Happening," not in the sense of a casual, unforeseen, undirected occurrence, but rather in the deeper sense of an experience which is related to the structure of the life span of the individual as he moves into a new web of interaction. To develop

the implications of such a happening, the web or organism, itself, needs to be authentic and there must be congruence between saying and feeling, words and behavior. All these considerations lead to the prime essential in a training situation—trust formation—the development of genuine belief in one another.

A new dimension in today's school, which highlights the need for trust formation, is that persons with a wide range of backgrounds, competencies and experiences are engaging in the educational enterprise together. Another new and salient aspect of training-for-partnership in the American school of the sixties is that many of the trainees are mature adults who are being asked to change deeply embedded attitudes, beliefs and modes of behavior. Teachers are expected to revolutionize their classrooms. Auxiliaries move into a strange and supposedly erudite milieu. Both auxiliaries and teachers are now asked to subordinate their personal needs and satisfactions to the common goal of creating a learning environment which is relevant to the cataclysmic times in which we live, and which permits the child to fulfill his total self.

Essential to the task of training adults to work and learn together is that the trainers know more about learning, itself, particularly the needs of the adult as a learner. It would be inconceivable for a teacher education program to omit from its curriculum an analysis of child development. However, training programs for adults are frequently planned and enacted without reference to the characteristics of the adult who is being asked to become self-renewing, inquiring, and to take on new competencies. This design will therefore explore various aspects of adulthood—needs, performance and potential for change—which are salient to a program leading to the development of new competencies and new modes of interaction.

This design for training is based upon seven premises about training adults of widely differing backgrounds and competencies to function together as a team.

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Premise 1   The purpose is to involve all school personnel as well as parents and students in a productive partnership toward mutually agreed upon educational goals in order to meet the individual learning needs of children and youth.

Premise 2   Such a partnership requires motivation and commitment by the participants, and at least the beginnings of self-knowledge.

Premise 3   New input of knowledge, skills, and understandings will be needed by all—administrators, supervisors, teachers, ancillary personnel (such as guidance counselors, school nurses, librarians and social workers), auxiliary personnel, parents and students—with both content and procedures adapted to differing needs, capacities and responsibilities.

Premise 4   Training-for-partnership is a process—not a preconceived curriculum—which evolves out of the observed and felt needs of the participants with emphasis upon self-direction and self-evaluation as they, together, search for better ways of enabling children and youth to learn.

Premise 5   The pivotal factor in the process is the opportunity for developing competency through simulated or actual experience, with immediate feedback. The process is essentially inductive, not deductive.

Premise 6   Analysis of experience starts at the unit level where a teacher–auxiliary team works together, and extends into the larger arena involving several teams, school-wide or system-wide—all learning from one another. The same process of starting at the unit level and extending out in ever-widening circles of involvement

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applies to work in teaching, counseling, library services and home–school relations.

Premise 7   The process is continuous, proceeding through cycles of experimentation involving:
a.   Setting goals;
b.   Planning cooperatively to meet goals;
c.   Enacting the plan;
d.   Reviewing the experience in an atmosphere of free and open communication;
e.   Analyzing one's own and each other's behavior in terms of educational outcome;
f.   Changing the approach, the behavior or the situation as indicated by the feedback;
g.   Trying again and reviewing the experiences again —until the potential contribution of each team member is recognized and sound working relationships are not only established but maintained.

In the following chapters, a design is developed with many variations but a consistent theme. The focus is upon the training of all school personnel for effective cooperation when auxiliaries are introduced as members of the educational team. The concentration upon team training of persons of differing competencies as they begin to work together necessarily involves an analysis of change **within the school** system. This does not preclude concern about an equally exigent need for change—and perhaps the most fundamental of all—the need to change the philosophy and practice of professional development in **colleges of teacher education.**

This book indicates how schools and colleges can cooperate in providing inservice training to expand the concept of the teacher as the only adult in a self-contained classroom. A more potent type of collaboration would be for colleges of teacher education to accept and promulgate the team approach in preservice training so that schools can then extend and apply the concept.

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This is the goal. Meantime, this book addresses itself to the immediate and emergent need—to help multi-level, multi-functional teams operate cohesively and effectively in the schools of today so that children and youth may learn.

The concepts presented here apply to both teacher education and inservice training for school personnel. The procedures may vary. The ultimate goal connects both and all types of education.

In essence, this design is predicated upon a belief that adults continue to learn and develop throughout the life cycle. The heart of the task for the educator, then, is to take what is known about adult learning and apply it to the goal of developing a viable partnership in the task of enabling children and youth to learn. Finally, they need to recognize the reality of processes which facilitate movement toward that goal.

Havighurst expressed the essence of this approach when he said: "Living is learning, and growing is learning. . . . The human individual learns his way through life."

CHAPTER TWO

INSTITUTIONAL SETTING FOR
TEAM TRAINING

> As things stand now, modern man believes—at least with half
> his mind—that his institutions can accomplish just about any-
> thing. . . . To my mind there is an appealing—or appalling—inno-
> cence to that view. . . . The institutions are run by men. And
> often those who appear most eager for change oppose it most
> stubbornly when their own institutions are involved.
>
> John V. Lindsay

Training-for-partnership presupposes that a multi-level, multi-
functional team operation is, in fact, possible within a given school
system. Often this is a rather naïve assumption. The enactment of
such a program requires more than researching, studying, knowing
and understanding by the participants.

At least a modicum of structural and attitudinal change is neces-
sary before auxiliary personnel can participate as members of the

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team, not merely as errand girls or boys and clerks to "free the professionals to use themselves more productively." Once the required changes have been effected and an expanded team is in operation, a circular relationship may be developed so that institutional change becomes both precursor and outcome. Analysis of the role of the auxiliaries, the prelude to their involvement, may induce assessment of all roles and relationships within the school system. The auxiliaries, once introduced, may enliven the process as they react to the ongoing life of the school from new perspectives.

The success or failure of a program of training-for-partnership may depend upon the extent to which school administrators accept and implement the concept of flexible roles, determined not merely by the pi.. vious training and status of the participants, but primarily by the learning needs of children and youth in each situation. In such an atmosphere, each member of the team may contribute in his own way to educational goals that are clearly understood and mutually undertaken. The team, in fact, becomes more than the sum of its parts. It has a life of its own. Its task has meaning and reality.

THE RATIONALE FOR AUXILIARY PARTICIPATION

To describe a cohesive team composed of widely divergent individuals is simple. To achieve it is far more complex. This requires thought and experimentation in new approaches to decision making. One of the first steps is to establish the rationale for the participation of auxiliary personnel—the least trained and the most unpredictable element in the educational team.

One question that is often asked in the initial planning stages is: "What is the one, overriding objective for employing auxiliary per-

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sonnel—is it to create jobs for the poor; is it to relieve the shortage of professional manpower; is it to make the job of teachers more manageable; is it to link the school and community more closely; or is it to provide more personalized education for children and youth in a more flexibly structured classroom?"

The answer is that the **prime concern is for the child as a learner.** However, the introduction of auxiliary personnel may serve all the purposes listed above as they relate to and enhance the quality of education. It may also help to develop a more effective relationship between school learning and out-of-school learning.

It should be remembered that school is not the sole educative agent. The question is not **whether** the child learns, but **what** he learns. He is not one person from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. and an entirely different being for the remainder of the day, even though his behavior may be affected by the variables in the two situations. His learning, growth, and development stem from the totality of his life experience. The school, therefore, cannot separate itself from all the other factors in the learning environment, including the community served by the school.

PLANNING

The initial thrust for the utilization of auxiliary personnel may come from one concerned individual, from an informal group, or from a formal resolution of a teachers' union or association, a parents' association, a local board of education, the trustees of an institution of higher learning, the board of a community action agency, or a community-wide committee representing all these groups and other relevant agencies and organizations. Whatever the momentum may be, a planning period is helpful for drawing

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up a comprehensive program, based upon a survey of educational needs, the functions which must be performed to meet those needs, the competencies that will be required by those who perform the functions, the existing resources—both human and material—and finally the new input that is needed to mount the program.

Even in the earliest and most tentative stages, it is advisable to involve as broad a spectrum of the community as possible, plus those who will be primarily responsible for implementing the program.[1] The advisers might be approached informally, at first, so that they will feel free to express doubts and concerns which need to be surfaced. At the appropriate time, those who have expressed deepest interest and who will be most directly involved might be asked to serve on an Advisory Committee. Not only broad representation but personal commitment is of supreme importance.

The proposed program can be translated into, a working plan of operation, when funds have been made available. The requirements of the funding agency necessarily affect the design, but only sources which are congruent with the fundamental purposes of the program should be approached.

The first few months of the program may well be considered a pilot operation. Feedback from research and evaluation is essential, not only for program modification but also for identification of high potential or high risk among the trainees.

The Advisory Committee may be used during the trial period and thereafter as a mechanism for ongoing dialogue among the various groups concerned with productive use of auxiliaries and with the establishment of a career ladder. Creative compromises are likely to occur when the following factors are operative: balance of power, mutual respect, and willingness on all sides to give a bit.

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[1] Involvement is broadened when a state-wide or city-wide Work Conference on Auxiliary Personnel is held. (See Appendix B)

INSTITUTIONAL SETTING FOR TEAM TRAINING

SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT

Selection criteria are determined by the objectives of the program and the needs of the student population to be served. They may be modified to some extent by the requirements of the funding agency. If poverty funds are used, only low-income auxiliaries may be considered. However, no matter what the funding, the employment of auxiliaries from the neighborhood served is vitally necessary in economically depressed areas, so that a child may relate to someone who has shared some of his own life experiences, someone who speaks his language or dialect, someone who can blend the worlds of home and school into a continuity.[2] In more affluent areas, the low-income auxiliary may broaden the child's vision of the world and its people by providing contact with someone of a different background.

It is assumed first that the applicant will be literate, but there are usually no academic requirements at the entry level. In fact, requiring a high school diploma may eliminate the very people who are needed to link home and school more closely. Second, it is assumed that health requirements will be met and third, that applicants will be willing to abide by the rules and regulations of the school. Fourth, and most important and difficult to predict, is that amorphous quality—i.e., possessing the personal characteristics which are deemed essential for wholesome and constructive relationships with children and youth. No one need be or should be employed simply because he is poor.

In an attempt to assess these characteristics, evaluators would do well to place heavy emphasis upon interviews, simple role-playing procedures, and observations of applicants in contacts with

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[2] In Detroit, a teacher commented: "We thought 'hard core unemployables' would be a bad influence on the children, but just the reverse was true. They prodded the kids on with 'Don't let what happened to me happen to you'."

children, wherever possible. It has been found that selection procedures which minimize or eliminate written tests are most effective in assessing the latent potential of low-income applicants, many of whom are less comfortable with the written word than with the spoken word. It is important to "screen in" rather than "screen out" those who have thus far lacked opportunity or incentive to develop their full potential.

It is highly recommended that special efforts be made to recruit male auxiliaries so as to provide a role model with whom male students may identify. In Macon County, Alabama, children clustered admiringly around a male aide who had just returned from Vietnam. In Detroit the male aides were seen as making a unique and highly desirable contribution.

Parents of children enrolled in the school may, as auxiliaries, help to make the style of life in home and school more consistent in a twofold manner—first by the very presence of someone whose manner and way of speaking seem more natural and familiar to the child, and second by stimulating more support of learning in the home.

Parents who, through experience as auxiliaries, understand the educational goals of the school may also help to interpret them to neighbors. In the lower East Side of New York City, parents, as reading assistants, had a definite impact upon communication between home and school. In Minneapolis, the technique of employing "school critics" was utilized. They frequently and usually become strong supporters of the school—a dangerous but potentially a most effective process.

High school students may be recruited in a work–study program leading to a diploma coupled with eligibility for employment as auxiliaries in the schools. It was found in Cardozo High School in Washington, D.C. that slow readers who had managed to reach high school level showed remarkable progress in their own

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reading ability when they taught reading to children in the elementary grades. In Minneapolis, a similar project was seen as having the added advantage of providing an "in house" recruitment of future aides and professional staff. The long range plan is to start the aides in a cooperative work–study project, carry them through to graduation, give them employment as full-time aides, and then continue the education program leading to professional certification.

POSSIBLE FUNCTIONS OF AUXILIARIES

A dual role for the auxiliary is to be desired, with part of his time assigned to routine tasks (i.e., **manipulating things**) but an increasing proportion of his time devoted to support of the learning–teaching process (i.e., **working with children and youth**).

Functional analysis is a continuing process, which implies role **development** rather than merely role **definition**. The competence of each member of a team will change and develop, as will the capacities of the students and their concurrent learning needs. Hence roles will vary not only from school to school, and class to class within a given school, but also from time to time as the situation changes. The competencies and confidence of the auxiliaries increase, and the relationships between the teacher, the auxiliary, the supervisor or trainer, the students and the parents continuously evolve.

Despite the overarching need for accepting role development as a continuing process, based on observation and analysis, some limits are necessary to prevent the under-utilization or over-utilization of auxiliaries—a floor and a ceiling to what functions the auxiliaries are expected to perform. Within these limits, authority should be delegated to the teacher to utilize the auxiliaries as their

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competence and the circumstances dictate. The training of the professional is therefore critical because of his responsibility for role development: both his own role and that of the auxiliary. If teachers are not centrally involved in this process, the results tend to be barren and artificial.

Flexibility and innovation in role development appear to make life more interesting for both teachers and auxiliaries, and hence make learning more interesting for students.

The functions which may be performed by auxiliaries are numerous and varied. They include support for the learning–teaching process in all its facets. Specific illustrations are presented in Appendix C.

It is important to exclude from the auxiliary's role any functions which might usefully be performed by the students. The introduction of these new partners in the educational team should enhance rather than diminish the decentralization of responsibility. When students share responsibility and help one another, learning is facilitated for both the helper and the one who is being helped, as indicated in the Washington, D.C. experiment cited above.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT

If auxiliary personnel are to become a stable and accepted part of the school system rather than merely a temporary addition, the jobs, not the people, should be institutionalized. This means the establishment of an occupational track, with budgetary provision for each step in the career ladder, and with gradually increasing responsibility and decreasing supervision. The steps leading to the professional level and beyond have been developed in several viable alternate routes by various school systems. One such route is:

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INSTITUTIONAL SETTING FOR TEAM TRAINING

1. Trainee
2. Aide
3. Assistant
4. Associate
5. Apprentice or Student Teacher
6. Teacher or other professional, such as Counselor, Librarian.
7. Training Coordinator (Usually a master teacher assisted by an "auxiliary–trainer," i.e., an auxiliary who helps train other auxiliaries.)

This model is based primarily upon the career ladder that has been developed in New York City. For those who seek to coordinate school and college training for advancement, educational requirements may be part of the design, but tests of proficiency are a preferred route for growth on the job. In New York City in April, 1968, 240 aides were receiving training toward high school equivalency and 828 assistants were enrolled in a college course which was included in a work–study program leading to an A.A. degree. By January, 1969, requirements, job description and compensation for associate had been established. Another interesting model of career development is the Minneapolis Plan. (See Appendix D.)

If the concept of career development is to apply to the total educational enterprise, boards of education need to give proper attention to a variety of administrative decisions. It is necessary to establish:

1. Fixed line items in the budget at each operational level;
2. Annual salary with tenure, increments, social security, sick pay and other fringe benefits;
3. Alternate routes within and from auxiliary roles to differentiated and increasingly responsible professional roles, i.e., career development throughout the school system at all levels.

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4. Academic and inservice training for vertical advancement from one level to another, as well as for lateral[3] or diagonal[4] transfer.
5. Explicit statements of staff differentiation at various levels up to and including professional roles and functions.

In many instances, a school system will be the sole or major agency which seeks out the poor and trains them for jobs. If this is the case, the system should make it possible to increase the range of occupational alternatives both within and outside the field of education. The school district might assume responsibility not only for developing an in-system career or promotional ladder but for working with other agencies in the public or quasi-public sector to provide out-system career lines. Most urban school districts could articulate their vocational and adult basic education programs with career development of their auxiliary personnel. Districts should be encouraged to establish formal and informal channels of communication with institutions of higher learning (and vice versa) for the purpose of developing programs for adults seeking to improve or acquire skills and knowledge basic to occupational or social mobility or to engage in intellectual or cultural pursuits.

The development of work–study programs for advancement within the school system should be a joint responsibility of the board of education and local institutions of higher learning.

Without joint planning, the road from an elementary education to professional certification is so long and difficult that few low-income auxiliaries could hope to travel the whole journey. Career development becomes an empty phrase devoid of meaning unless the required training can be secured without undue hardships and pressures emanating from minimal funds, heavy family and work responsibilities.

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[3]Lateral transfer means transfer from one category to another, such as from classroom to library, without change in the level of employment, such as aide, assistant.
[4]Diagonal transfer means transfer from one category to another and simultaneous advancement in the level of employment.

Ideal arrangements include academic credit for both work experience and inservice training, as well as stipends or released time for the required course work at the degree granting institution. Such an arrangement calls for subsidy from the local school system or the state or federal government—preferably all three. The contribution of "hard funds" gives status and continuity to the program as a unique and essential contribution to education, rather than as a temporary adjunct which serves to perpetuate traditional approaches.

In Minneapolis, where aides were perceived as contributing to change, rather than as providing "more of the same," a January 1969 report indicated that the most significant growth was not merely the quantity of aides (more than trebled in four years) but rather in such areas as:

"1. The school's commitment to the institutionalization of aide service as a permanent staff position in the school system. (This has become a major tool in the redirection of the schools as a responsible and leading social force.)

"2. An increasing commitment of local and state funds as well as variety of federal funding for the programs." (See Appendix D.)

A work–study program has the added value of cooperative planning and instruction by schools and institutions of higher education. The collaboration of the school's training personnel (who provide close touch with the reality situation in the local schools) and of the professors (who provide knowledge of national research and experimentation) is most valuable.

The college entrance requirements should also be examined with a view to considering life experience, i.e., the total profile of the applicant rather than academic records as schools now present them.

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This refers not only to acceptance of students at the undergraduate level, but also at the graduate level.

One caveat that should be borne in mind is that the emphasis upon providing opportunity for upward mobility should not indicate any lack of respect for the dignity and validity of every task at every level. The jobs available at the entry level need to be meaningful in terms of the basic goals of education so that the person who feels more comfortable remaining an aide can make a real contribution to the ongoing life of the school. Upward mobility should be possible but **not compulsory.** Advancement should be related to both desire and ability.

The principles of adult learning are relevant to career development, particularly the tendency of adults to resist continuing education. Teachers and administrators feel their status challenged, while many auxiliaries will have had inadequate basic education and there may have been a long hiatus in their learning experience. There may be some sensitivity on their part about their need for basic education. For all these reasons, motivation should be considered in every program. Increments and change in title for sequential jobs in an occupational track provide concrete evidence of progress, so necessary for the adult returning to an academic milieu—the school—in which he may have experienced little success as a youngster.

PLACEMENT

When the framework within which an auxiliary can work and grow has been established, and the new personnel selected, place-

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ment is the next challenge. Experience indicates that the following procedures are worthy of consideration:

1. **That careful teaming of professionals and auxiliaries be made with understanding that placements are not necessarily permanent.** It is made clear that a certain number of changes are expected, they can be carried out without hurt feelings when personalities appear to clash.

2. **That the desire or lack of desire of professionals for participation in the program should be considered,** wherever possible. In many school systems, such as in Detroit and Minneapolis, it is believed that auxiliaries should never be assigned unless requested by a teacher, after the latter has been thoroughly briefed on his responsibilities. However, in schools where saturation programs are instituted, such voluntary action by teachers is not feasible.

3. **That the auxiliary** (after a period of preservice training which includes a practicum experience in several roles) **be given an opportunity to choose the particular role he would like to perform,** such as: classroom aide, general school aide, library aide, counselor aide, home–school partner. Specialized training in the role he has chosen would ensue. An alternate method is to recruit specifically for each role. In some situations this may be preferable to a deferred choice of role.

4. **That racially integrated teams be developed, where possible.** In Huntsville, Alabama, the interracial teams sometimes consist of a black teacher and a white aide, and sometimes vice versa.

5. **That final placement follow a period of actual work experience on a trainee or probationary basis.** It is important that, if lateral transfer is indicated, choices be made available among

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several other meaningful activities. Since many "entry-level" aides are completely unaware of the roles to be filled, real job selection is often better handled by lateral transfer after a period of inservice training to determine proper placement.

6. **If, after mutual exploration of the possibilities, employment outside the school system appears the best course of action, vocational counseling and placement assistance are essential.** For the low-income person, particularly, it is more shattering to raise hopes which end in frustration, than to have no hopes or expectations. This does not mean that all who attempt to become classroom aides will be effective in that capacity. However, it does mean that there is an obligation of the employing institution to give the person who has been motivated to self-development every chance to find meaningful employment of some kind.

7. **That a classroom aide should work with one or at most two teachers.** There is little hope of a team approach or of effective utilization of the services of a person whose work is scattered and diffuse. The teacher who knows an aide is to be with him for only a few hours a week saves a routine task for that period and there is no relationship to the students nor involvement in the learning–teaching process. Aide utilization in the rural schools of eastern Kentucky illustrates the fact that when aides are shared by more than two teachers, the functions assigned tend to be primarily clerical. (See Appendix E.) The key role of the principal is illustrated by the rare exceptions to the prevailing use of auxiliaries in eastern Kentucky, i.e., in schools where the administration supported creative roles for paraprofessionals.

The teacher who expects an aide for at least half-a-day every day, has an opportunity to plan with his helper for varied and creative activities. The half-day arrangement reduced the amount of inactivity and increased the number of meaningful

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assignments in Berkeley, California. (See Appendix F.)

8. **That time be scheduled within the school day for each professional–auxiliary team to review their experiences and plan together.**

9. **That the right of incumbents to advancement be protected** as new projects with new types of recruitment and placement are initiated.

SUPERVISION AT VARIOUS LEVELS

The initial support for any innovation frequently comes from top management with the involvement of the community to be served, although top-down initiation is being challenged today.

An all-important step is to enlist the understanding and support of the principals, who are basically responsible and accountable for the developments within their schools. The principal has the task of orienting the entire school staff, the parents and the students. (See Appendix G for staff orientation in Detroit.) He then needs to establish competent and continuing supervision at various levels in the organization.

Two interesting variations in approach to supervision have been developed in Detroit and Tucson respectively. In the former city, a coach, who serves as a trainer–counselor–coordinator, was assigned to each school in which thirty or more aides were employed. The coach not only supervises the aides' activities but also serves as liaison with the school authority—an advocate and guide. The fact that there is one person to whom to turn, one person whose job it is to work with and support the aides, has proved of inestimable value. The aide feels more secure; the teachers, too, have

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someone to mediate difficulties which might occur; and communi-
cation is greatly facilitated. (See Appendix G.) In New York City,
this role is assigned to an auxiliary-trainer, who has the title of
educational associate. The utilization of auxiliaries to train and
counsel other auxiliaries is a most significant development.

In Tucson, Arizona, the supervisor of several teacher–auxiliary
teams serves not only as trainer and counselor but also participates
directly in the learning–teaching process. This personal involve-
ment creates a bond between the program assistant (as the super-
visor is called) and the classroom team, since they share knowledge
of each child and can plan together from this common base of
understanding and experience. In Tucson the students, too, are
given an important role as committee chairmen. Each committee
is assigned an instructional task and the student-chairman activates
the group to accomplish its goals.

The consultant role of the supervisor is discussed more fully in
subsequent chapters. The perceptiveness, competence and contin-
uing support of the supervisor are essential for initiating and main-
taining effective team functioning.

EVALUATION OF AUXILIARY PARTICIPATION

Evaluation and program analysis by outside consultants, as well
as ongoing self-evaluation by the participants, need to be built in-
to every program. A salient feature of planning and administration
is to insure continuing emphasis upon and support of the evaluative
process. Evaluation may cover such factors as role development,
staff development, training programs,[5] auxiliary utilization, or the

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[5]Evaluation of training is discussed at greater length in Chapter Six. This section is con-
cerned with the administrator's responsibility for the inclusion of evaluation.

impact of auxiliaries upon all roles and relationships in the school. **Whatever its immediate focus, the ultimate research goal is to assess the impact of the program upon the learning of children and youth.**

The scope of the evaluation design will vary in terms of the size and complexity of the program. The availability of funds is another controlling factor. A sophisticated research design requires adequate support either through a grant which will permit a sub-contract with a research corporation or through cooperation with an institution of higher learning, or support from the research division in large city systems.

The evolving nature of the program itself should be reflected in the evaluation processes. Evaluation is viewed as contributing to programmatic change and improvement. It is a developmental, not an "ivory tower" approach. To this end the following factors merit consideration by those who formulate research designs:

1. **That evaluation processes specify the objectives of the program, the techniques and procedures to be used for data gathering, and the personnel who will be involved in the evaluational processes.** Such processes should be included at initial and exploratory stages, and further along in the implementation of the design.

2. **That there should be provision for continuing revision of objectives and program in the light of the findings.**

3. **That the processes for evaluation include a variety of procedures** such as interviews, questionnaires, testing, and in particular, procedures for process observation and analysis. That such evaluation processes be scheduled periodically and not restricted solely to pre- and post-testing.

4. **That control groups be established,** wherever possible, **for comparison purposes.**

5. **That all the participants in the program** (including the auxiliaries, teachers, parents, and administrative personnel) **be involved in the evaluational process.**

6. **That the results of the evaluation process be fed back to the participants in the program as an integral part of the inservice program,** so as to encourage self-evaluation, objective analysis as to outcome, and recommendations for programmatic change and improvement.

TYPES OF TRAINING

Since the members of a multi-level, multi-functional team come to the common endeavor with widely differing competencies, planners sometimes question the feasibility of joint training programs. A solution to this dilemma lies in scheduling separate training for each type of participant as well as joint training.[6] There is no sharp dichotomy between these types of programs since many of the content areas overlap and require treatment in joint and separate sessions.

Still another dichotomy exists between preservice and inservice training. However, the same principles apply to both. The length, scope and nature of the orientation required in each situation will depend upon many factors, for example: the degree of acceptance of the concept of auxiliary participation within a given school, and

[6]New York City is experimenting with both joint and separate training for teachers and educational assistants. (See Appendix H.)

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apparent competence of the new personnel at the time of employ-
ment. The focus in this training design is upon inservice training,
but it is recognized that in each situation orientation will be essen-
tial. In many situations, brief and nonacademic preservice training
has proved of value. In orientation, as in all other aspects of the
training program, both joint and separate training are fulcral to
the functioning of a multi-level, multi-functional team. In Appen-
dix G, the Detroit orientation program, which emphasizes the role
of the principal, is described.

The concepts and procedures which undergird all types of team
training, joint and separate, preservice and inservice, are discussed
in the ensuing sections of this design, with full realization of the
need for adapting both the content and the procedures to each type
of participant.

SUMMARY

If auxiliaries are to do more than augment and perpetuate exist-
ing educational practice, it is necessary to reassess many long held
and sacrosanct assumptions and modes of interaction.

The approach developed in this chapter is based upon five
premises. There is increasing evidence in research to support these
premises. They provide a framework within which the introduction
of auxiliary personnel may be catalytic rather than merely supple-
mentary to what is. They are:

1. That the involvement of persons with a wide range of skills,
    training, experience, background, and potential may provide a

better learning environment than the assignment of all educational tasks in a classroom to one person who, alone, must attempt to meet the individual needs of many students.

2. That participation in the learning–teaching process of persons from the neighborhood served by the school, particularly parents, may increase home–school–child interaction.

3. That broad community involvement in planning educational programs may contribute materially to the social relevance of such planning—i.e., relevance to the needs, interests and real concerns of the school population.

4. That the opportunity of career development for auxiliaries may serve to motivate them in two distinct but interrelated ways: a) in terms of their personal growth and ability to cope with life situations; b) in terms of their increased competence on the job.

5. That the establishment of a new career line for auxiliaries may foster career development for the total educational enterprise, with new leadership roles at various occupational levels and increased motivation for professional growth throughout the system.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTS OF ADULT LEARNING WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING

> Despite the uniqueness of each individual and the different ways and varied environments in which they are raised, all persons are endowed with physical make-ups that are essentially alike and with similar biological needs that must be met. . . . Each individual requires many years to learn adaptive techniques and become an integrated person; he depends upon a culture and a society to provide his essential environment; he relies upon thought and foresight to find a path through life and therefore becomes aware of the passage of time and his changing position in his life cycle.
>
> **Theodore Lidz**

The adult is an organism that is constantly changing. He is responding both to changes in his environment and to physiological changes within himself. The response may be one of adjustment or confrontation, conformity to or impact upon the environment, or a combination of these coping behaviors. As he responds, he is at-

tempting to achieve a clear and consistent identity and to find his own path through life.

The individual who is involved in training adults has a responsibility, therefore, to understand the developmental stages and learning patterns of adulthood. If the auxiliaries and teachers must understand the children and youth with whom they work, then it is equally incumbent upon the trainer to understand his trainees, both in their infinite variety as individuals and in relation to those factors which may be generalized. However, the authenticity of adulthood has received meager regard from educators. Developmental stages of children have been repeatedly studied and categorized but the analysis seems to terminate with the last stage of adolescence as if no further development takes place, thereafter. Most of the resources on adulthood are conjectures of those who have worked with the mentally ill or neurotic, or are replete with religious and moral implications.

Yet, today adults are being challenged, and not infrequently, with the necessity for making drastic alterations in their attitudes and behavior in response to irrevocable social forces. It is imperative, therefore, to understand the stages of adult development throughout the life cycle: to know, for example, how long and under what conditions adults may continue to learn, to grow and to change, and under what conditions they tend to become impotent or to stagnate. The implementation of this knowledge in training designs needs to be the impelling task for educators as they enable adults to learn.

However, if educators are to encourage other adults to change, they must first accept the possibility of change in their own approach to teaching. Traditional teaching procedures used in the college classroom and for inservice training appear to educators to be logical because they have themselves evolved and espoused them. But the convolutions in the national arena, where there is struggle for both national and individual survival, demand experi-

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mentation with more relevant and effective paradigms for change.

Although the empirical evidence on developmental stages in adults and concomitant theories of how learning takes place is not extensive, some concepts have been developed by researchers.[1] Some of these ideas have direct relevance to the training of all adults including young adult drop-outs who may return to the school environment as auxiliaries. Other concepts presented below have relevance to the mature adult, such as an older woman who returns to work after her children have grown. All, however, are subject to infinite variation, in terms of individual capacities and life experiences, in terms of the totality of the person. All concepts should be applied with respect for the adult's need to be a part of the description of himself and of prescriptions for his further development. The training components which emerge as major needs in the education of the adult apply in some measure to all education. However, they are crucial for the training of adults, who need opportunities for:

1. Becoming committed to learning and to the development of new competencies;
2. Becoming aware of self and of others' perceptions of self;
3. Gaining new knowledge, concepts and techniques which are perceived as relevant to their needs and situations;
4. Experiencing and practicing new behaviors and skills.

Relevant concepts and training implications follow for each of these components.

A. COMMITMENT TO LEARNING AND GROWTH

Relevant Concepts

Perhaps the most difficult task in adult education is to break

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[1] See bibliography in Appendix N.

through habitual and rigid reactions. The adult's tendency is to avoid that which is strange and strenuous, to be less enthusiastic and less curious than children and adolescents. As persons grow older, they are usually less willing to risk failure. For this reason, they need to anticipate a high probability of success before they will initiate change—particularly those who have experienced many frustrations and disillusionments. They also are inclined to benefit from longer exposure to motivating factors because their reaction time is slower.

Moreover, adults tend to solve present problems in terms of what they have done or known in the past. This often results in their having ready-made answers and thus appearing to do little creative thinking. However, when given new information or faced by new problems, many adults appear to be quite capable of generating new answers.

Another factor in adult resistance to change is the paramount influence of the culture. An adult's commitment to learning will be dictated largely by what he perceives to be normative expectations in his environment. When the expectations of the culture in which a person is working or living are for continuing growth and accomplishment, both men and women tend to maintain alertness and ability to change. On the other hand, competence may quickly diminish when there is no longer a demand for it. This is repeatedly demonstrated by the fact that many persons appear to "age" rapidly after retirement. Another example is that the assumption that good jobs would be unavailable to Black men has operated as a self-fulfilling prophecy to produce many Black men whose abilities have not been developed and who are deemed "unemployable."

Within a school system, it should be the expectation that both children and adults are learners. However, this is not generally true and many teachers take courses because they have to for advancement and tenure, not because they perceive of themselves as learn-

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ers or accept the fact that they need to learn. It is frequently the rigidity of those in the establishment with which the trainer has to contend. Auxiliaries want to survive in their new role. The assignment of a meaningful task after years of frustration and despair may be sufficient motivation for learning and development. This reaction is consonant with the concept, confirmed by recent research in the field, that the direction of interest in adults is toward that which is pragmatic, specific, tangible, and perceived as useful to them. This concept is contrary to the impression which currently prevails that adults respond progressively with more comprehension and interest in theoretical constructs.

Implications for Training

The demand of potent community groups and pugnacious parents, expressed through boycotts, demonstrations and desire for control, instill an element of drama, not planned or structured by the trainers. Educators are being challenged to refrain from externalizing the blame for school failures. Previously unquestioned assumptions about who does what, about stratification, about decision-making, about "top-down" policy formation are all being challenged. The more the outcries strike the solar plexus of the educational establishment, the more commitment to change may become a reality. The fact that man could devise a procedure to go to the moon but be unable to provide relevant learning processes for all children is a shock which may provide the needed stimulus for new approaches to learning. If the national scene today does not provide the motivation, then cultural shocks will have to be designed to shake the equilibrium and the expectations of those in the establishment. Parents' committees evaluating teachers' performance are such cultural shocks. Beginning a training session in a prison or home for delinquents, or in ghettos of poverty are often cultural shocks which jolt the trainee into seeing the need for change.

Usually, the more people have at stake in a program, the more committed they become. When one has great responsibility accompanied by high status and rewards, he will usually be more committed than another who has little responsibility, low status, and slight monetary rewards. It might be expected, therefore, that auxiliaries would be less committed than teachers and administrators. However, there are individual differences as well as many other situational variables which affect the commitment level. Adults are far more subject to individual variation than are children at various stages of development because of the vast range of divergent influences to which they have been exposed.

Commitment to the goal of enabling children and youth to learn involves another kind of commitment—that of the adult seeing himself as a learner, as a self-renewing, inquiring, growing person even at a mature age. The thrust of team training, based on this premise, is to encourage the entire staff of the school to "see itself, its programs, and its population as all operating within a learning community. The learning process should be as continuous and open-ended for adults as it is for children."[2]

Membership in a small group usually induces feelings of commitment to fellow members. Also, group expectations of openness in its members will strongly motivate them to be experimental and to see themselves as learners in perpetuum.

Finally, the more actively teachers and auxiliaries participate in planning and operating their training program and their classroom activities, the more committed they are likely to be in instituting changes and making them succeed. Thus, small group membership and involvement in planning and executing a program will usually promote commitment.

[2]Abel, Harold, John Loughary and Lorraine Smithberg, "Personnel Development for Follow Through," Task Force funded by U.S.O.E., 1967.

CONCEPTS OF ADULT LEARNING

B. AWARENESS OF SELF AND OF OTHERS' REACTIONS TO SELF

Relevant Concepts

The adult's web of circumstances and behavior may become so fixed that only marginal adjustments can be made unless the individual himself becomes aware of his fixations and has some desire to understand and change them. There is almost no entry into the viable center of an adult except when he himself opens the way.

There tends to be a greater turning inward by adults. This may take the form of self-centered preoccupation with physical comforts and security, but can also be channeled into the service of increasing awareness of one's own behavior and its effects on others.

Once an individual has broken through a circle of defensive self-protection, he can develop an ever-increasing openness to experience and new knowledge. He can penetrate his own inwardness. He can respond to the questions: "What am I like?" and "How do others perceive me?" He can realize that he makes choices and has responsibility for choices.

A study of cultures has shown that those with higher self-evaluation are more ready to accept change.[3] This is probably equally true of individuals, for there appears to be positive correlation between flexibility, ego-differentiation[4] and self-satisfaction.[5] In other

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[3]Soddy, Kenneth and Mary C. Kidson. *Men in Middle Life*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., Tavistock Publications, 1967, p. 408.

[4]Neugarten, Bernice L. et al., *Personality in Late and Middle Life: Emperical Studies*. New York: Atherton Press, 1964, p. 16.

[5]Soddy, p. 415.

words, the more positive is a person's self-image, the more likely it is that he will have enough flexibility to adopt a variety of role functions and to make corresponding adaptations in his behavior.

Implications for Training

If a person's ability to learn is related to his self-image, it becomes extremely important that a design for training foster personal development. Trainees will need to be encouraged to interact with one another, to receive feedback on how others react to them in a work situation, and to get to know themselves better. A sense of self-satisfaction and competency ensues when a person feels autonomous, significant to others, and comprehensible to himself.

Auxiliaries could be expected to come into the program with an inadequately developed "set" for learning. They are likely to feel insecure both in the classroom and in the training sessions, and to express this indirectly through various kinds of resistance. They may act withdrawn, hostile, critical or stupid, when in reality they are simply trying to adjust to the first stages of getting ready to learn.

Preservice training, in particular, should avoid avalanching the auxiliaries with everything they need to know about the school. Orientation periods might better concentrate on helping participants begin to understand themselves, the general functions to be performed within a school, and the unique contributions each will have to make.

The many readjustments which must be made when auxiliaries are brought into the classroom can be either a liability or an asset. If teachers and auxiliaries are overwhelmed by facts, directives,

regulations, and the like, they will in all probability react with rigidity and rejection. But if they are supported in seeing the challenge and opportunity in a novel situation, they may respond with creativity and enthusiasm.

A small group experience may be of value in this connection, in that it can make possible the establishment of mutual trust which in turn promotes self-examination and the giving and receiving of feedback on how one is perceived by others. Therefore, it seems axiomatic that a training program should include continuous small group interaction sessions with skilled leadership in which an atmosphere of free and open communication is fostered. In addition, there is often need for individual counseling and support for individuals who have difficulty in handling certain aspects of the process of gaining self-knowledge and in coping with reality.

Processes involving encounter and confrontation might be used to provide the thrust that is sometimes required for the opening of the self to insight and awareness. An educational setting differs from the therapeutic in that the focus of concern is upon work-related interactions in the classroom and in other groups, rather than upon the personal problems of the individual. The emphasis is upon becoming aware of one's performance and how this is determined by such factors as goals, interests, and beliefs. Personal problems will, in some cases, be another determining factor which must be taken into account, but these are not central for the interaction group. The distinction between these approaches is discussed more fully in Chapter Four.

Feedback concerning the trainees' classroom performance which is so essential to self-evaluation can be gained through use of video taping, observation by trained persons, as well as by parents and by the students themselves, or by intervisitation of teachers and auxiliaries in several classroom situations. Increasingly, participants will learn to observe and report on their own behavior, which should supplement but should not replace more objective observa-

tion and feedback. Trainees may need to look at them.selves with some depth through group counseling and small group interaction.

C. GAINING NEW KNOWLEDGE, CONCEPTS AND TECHNIQUES

Relevant Concepts

Adults will naturally continue to act and believe in the same old ways until they are convinced of the superiority and practicality of some new information or technique. A considerable weight of knowledge is required therefore to produce even a small degree of movement. New concepts and principles will be more readily understood and accepted when presented in concrete terms and related to pragmatic goals.

It has been suggested that "rigidity in behavior may be in considerable part the result of a cognitive factor rather than one of affect or attitude."[6] Evidentally, adults are generally well-disposed toward becoming involved in new learning provided they can perceive the importance or relevance of the new cognitive input.

A related finding is that the more intelligent and better educated a man is the more easily he can adjust to the change.[7] This is due in part to his having a positive attitude or "set" toward learning, made up of habitual patterns for receiving new knowledge, and confidence in his ability to incorporate it adequately.[8]

Creativity may increase with age if conditions are conducive to

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[6]Birren, James E. *The Psychology of Aging*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, p. 189.

[7]Soddy, p. 415.

[8]Birren, p. 234.

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an individual's seeking new answers which are germane to his problems.[9] A crisis or radical alteration of the life pattern will often have the salutary effect of inducing novel and spontaneous responses—such as the introduction of auxiliaries in a school setting.

Implications for Training

On-the-job or in-the-group learning is best suited to the deliberate, concrete and pragmatic thought processes of many adults. They may learn educational principles most readily through the analysis of individual students and specific events. Also, relevant films, well planned field trips, and skillful demonstrations are effective.

A didactic approach may be suitable for certain information and for contrast. In general, however, the more cognitive and theoretical the presentation the less easily it is assimilated by adults. They learn most readily when affective as well as cognitive response is elicited. The learning situation needs the informality and warmth of atmosphere which allows each person to react fully and as himself. This can rarely happen in a large lecture hall and is most likely to happen in a small group or seminar situation in which there is emphasis on participant involvement in goal setting. Adults respond when learning situations respect their identity, their uniqueness—**the person.**

In a program of training-for-partnership this means that auxiliaries and traditional school personnel alike may be expected to resist, at the outset, information, ideas and practices which are new to them. This need not be seen as due to either stupidity or perverseness, but rather to the fact that adults, having a background of knowledge and experience and sets of values and beliefs which are much larger than a child's, need more time and motivation for in-

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[9]Neugarten, p. 16.

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tegrating new information. Their eventual acceptance of new knowledge, concepts and t٠ ٠hniques will depend in large part upon whether they feel that the new input is relaٖed to their own living and that they are given some choice in their acceptance or rejection of the ideas presented. To accomplish this end, training needs to depend heavily on the participants themselves for the selection and presentation of new content.

D. EXPERIENCING AND PRACTICING NEW BEHAVIORS AND COMPETENCIES

Relevant Concepts

The adult must be able to do, to try, to act, to choose, to be. He must have opportunities ٠o be deeply involved in the reality of life. Idealogical cant is not enough. More is needed than hopes and dreams.

Adults are less prone than the child or the adolescent to rush into situations. They tend to react more slowly, requiring time for contemplation, for integrating the new with the old, for tryng out new behavior in a controlled and nonthreatening environment. They are seldom willing to risk public failure. They have too much to protect —particularly t٠ e teacher or administrator who may be status conscious. They need feedback on their performance in the experimental situation and a collaborative atmosphere in which to practice new methods, to analyze their effٖctiveness, and to try again for as often as necessary to achieve positive results.

Implications for Training

One of the problems in the learning of human relations skills

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is that there are few reaction-free environments in which to practice, such as for skill in typing or golf. However, the small group, once again, may be a useful vehicle. Here the members are granted permission to experiment, to make mistakes, and to seek help.

To a certain extent, though to a lesser degree, the classroom can be a laboratory for trying out new procedures and new styles of interpersonal interaction. This is a continuing process involving trial and retrial, after each analysis. When teachers, auxiliaries, supervisors and administrators are all involved in the learning process, there is likely to be a more receptive atmosphere for all attempts at innovation and incorporation of new behavior.

Training situations may be planned with the specific intent of providing new experiences, as when trainees go into inner-city neighborhoods in order to interact directly with the persons they are studying about. This is particularly important for the teacher, since presumably the auxiliary will in most cases come from the community served. Rather than just observing a model, trainees may become actively involved, e.g., playing games, doing art work with children, or helping youth build a swimming pool.

Auxiliaries may well have difficulty understanding theoretical reasons for educational practices, but they come to accept and understand new ways of behavior when they see things work out day by day in the classroom. Teachers may cling tenaciously to traditional methods until they observe the actual operation of another method and assess the results for themselves.

The introduction of auxiliaries into the school may attract attention, but intensive and perhaps dramatic approaches will be needed in order to reach the feelings and values of the trainees. Simulated experiences are not as valuable as real ones but are more potent than those read about in books or listened to in lectures. Role playing and socio-drama provide interesting and revealing methods for approximating real life and gettng some notion of the feelings and

reactions of others. Case studies, tapes, slides, and brief film clips on a single issue are other media for near encounter with real experience and for assessment of methods and results.

Simulation has the value of being nonthreatening. It may provide a quasi-experiential base for the initial stages but should lead on to self-evaluation of actual experience.

SUMMARY

Despite the multiplicity of influences in the life of an adult—far more divergent and prolonged than the influences upon children and youth—some factors in adult development appear to be generalizeable. Research on the developmental stages of adulthood and concomitant theories of how learning takes place are not extensive, but concepts have emerged which have tremendous implications for programs of staff development.

One concept has been well substantiated by research: that structuring and restructuring the personality can continue throughout the life cycle. The concept of the adult's continued capacity for change provides the rationale and the fundamental dynamic for the education of adults. However, some contravening tendencies have been identified and need to be considered, such as their propensity 1) to become increasingly inflexible, 2) to cling to familiar modes of behavior which appear to them to be effective, 3) to fear risking failure, 4) to respond to the expectations of their culture or subculture, as perceived by them, 5) to be less curious and enthusiastic than children and youth, 6) to develop a shield of self-protection, 7) to reject new principles and practices which are not concretely and obviously related to their own pragmatic goals, 8) and, most importantly, to require respect for their uniqueness as persons and for their ability to enter into the planning and enactment of their own learning and development.

CONCEPTS OF ADULT LEARNING

These and other tendencies of adults, though subject to infinite individual variations, suggest that a program of staff development should provide opportunities for:

1. Becoming committed to learning and to the development of new competencies.
2. Becoming aware of self and of othe⸱s' perceptions of self.
3. Gaining new knewledge, concepts and techniques which are perceived as relevant to their task and situation.
4. Experiencing and practicing new behaviors and skills.

The major challenge of the whole educational task is to those in administrative and supervisory roles, the ones who have the power to initiate, support or stifle innovation. There must be rigorous investigation and open-minded experimentation in order to extend what is known about adults and children, to uncover the realities of the educative process, and to relate them to the exigencies of our times.

CHAPTER FOUR

NEEDED COMPETENCIES AND POSSIBLE TRAINING PROCESSES

> We must all be born again
> atom by atom
> from hour to hour
> or perish at once beyond repair.
>
> **Chief Justice Holmes**

When auxiliary personnel are brought into the school, everyone needs to be prepared for change. Within the strange arena of the school, auxiliaries may experience a blizzard of conflicting impressions which they will need time and assistance for sorting out, such as shock at what they consider lax control contrasted with excitement at new and important responsibilities. Teachers, on the other hand, may feel as if strangers were trespassing on

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their private terrain, and they will need both assurances and new ways of behaving. A design for training-for-partnership must provide for recognition and analysis of conflicts as well as for the development of appropriate and effective ways of attempting to handle them. Actually, conflict may be a significant vector in the dynamics of the process.

The introduction of a new role into any system will produce widening ripples of reaction. No one will be able to function as he has in the past; he must discover and define new functions in a new kind of system. This is a complicated and often wounding venture, in which each person seeks to transform and at the same time protect his own identity. Planners of training will need to allow much time, therefore, at the outset and periodically throughout the school year, for consideration of roles and functions.

The sovereignty of teachers in the classroom has been traditionally inviolate. Analysis of the possible reassignment of some of their functions has not been required since, obviously, they did everything that needed to be done. But now their functions are being divided among many people—specialists, consultants, volunteers, auxiliaries, parents and students—and increasingly to teaching machines as well. Each function should therefore be analyzed in terms of its objectives, its relative importance and the competencies required for its performance. Assignments need to be made on the basis of current skills with recognition that new competencies may be developed as the training program evolves. Too often the assignment of functions is permitted to occur at random or in response to the most aggressive demands. Planning together of all persons involved will usually yield more compatible and permanent solutions.

Moreover, it should be recognized that a team operation does not merely entail a reassignment of old functions, but rather a whole matrix of tasks and responsibilities, requiring new competencies and new training responsibilities.

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NEEDED COMPETENCIES AND TRAINING PROCESSES

The creation of a training design will require decisions as to:

1. **What new competencies the trainees will need,** in order that administrators, supervisors, teachers, ancillary personnel[1] and auxiliaries may function effectively as teams in meeting the learning needs of children and youth.
2. **How to develop the needed staff competencies in each school situation,** with procedures differing not only from school to school but also from time to time within a given school, as capacities grow and relationships are clarified.

WHAT NEEDS TO BE LEARNED BY WHOM

An examination of the competencies needed by all the members of the team as well as those special competencies required for each type of trainee may help administrators and trainers to anticipate and plan productive procedures to mount the program, while maintaining openness to alternative patterns as the participants become familiar with the training goals and become more and more involved in the planning.

The competencies needed by all the team members would be developed primarily in joint training sessions. Those competencies which each type of participant—such as administrators, teachers and auxiliaries—will need as he enters into a collaborative approach to education would be developed primarily in separate sessions where the input and discussion are geared to the level of previous training and the varying roles and functions of each type of participant.

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[1]Ancillary personnel are professionals, other than teachers, who are specialists in such fields as guidance, social work, and library service.

NEEDED COMPETENCIES AND TRAINING PROCESSES

Competencies Needed by All Team Members

Among the most significant competencies that will be needed by all participants in team training are:

1. Ability to understand the growth and learning processes of children and youth as well as adults, and to develop approaches which enable learning to take place.
2. Ability to relate positively to children and adults in ways that reflect respect for others and at the same time inspire respect for the trainees.
3. Ability to develop open and honest relationships with a wide range of people of various age levels and with different backgrounds and life experiences.
4. Ability to work with others in enlarging the students' understanding of the surrounding world and helping them achieve mastery of relevant cognitive and social skills.
5. Ability to understand and respond to the educational and social dynamism of a changing American society.

Differentiated Competencies

The special competencies required for each type of trainee to enhance his contribution to a team of persons with highly differentiated roles are:

For Administrators and Supervisory Personnel

1. Ability to reassess status and stratification—who does what in a school setting.
2. Skill in staff development, using a consultative process, and

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supporting interaction among members of the staff.
3. Skill in orchestrating a team operation and supplying administrative support to new roles and approaches.
4. Skill in working with Boards of Education, parent-advisory groups, community organizations, and "pressure" components of society.
5. Understanding of social, political and economic forces of society.

For Teachers and Ancillary Personnel

1. Skill in analyzing one's own role in an evolving team situation, with recognition of the added leadership function as professionals are called upon to organize all resources, human and material, to meet the needs of individual students.
2. Skill in utilizing the other members of the team in identifying individual needs and in structuring and restructuring a learning environment which is relevant to the needs, interests, desires and expectations of the students.
3. Skill in recognizing the potential in auxiliaries assigned to assist them, and in helping to develop that potential.
4. Skill in function analysis so that roles will evolve as new needs emerge and new capacities are developed by various team members.

For Auxiliaries

1. Skill in relating to others in a learning environment, involving understanding of the goals, structure, organizational patterns, roles, channels of communication and staff responsibilities as they exist, and a realization of new potentials for learning as they team with others.
2. Understanding of the successive stages of human development and of the relationship of the school experience to the physio-

logical, intellectual, social and artistic development of children and youth.

3. Skill in fostering a two-way flow of communication and interpretation between home and school so as to reduce home–school alienation and avoid the negative impact upon learning which ensues when the child may be torn apart by conflicting values and divergent child rearing practices.

4. Skill in developing a multiple role, including a) the ability to share routine tasks which must be performed; b) understanding of the learning process so as to contribute directly to the total development of children and youth.

5. Ability to cooperate with other team members without unwarranted doubts and suspicions.

6. Capacity for personal development both in relation to the school setting, and in relation to the total society: its tensions, trends, and potential reciprocities.

7. Specific skills related to the learning–teaching process, including: observation, listening, small group leadership, and organizational skills; skills in both method and content which facilitate learning directly; and mechanical skills which support learning indirectly.

8. Skills in basic communication, as needed, such as: a) **reading:** increasing reading rate, reading to find the main ideas; b) **writing:** taking messages, outlining and organizing materials, writing reports; c) **oral skills:** improving diction, sharpening auditory discrimination, speaking on the telephone, expressing oneself in a group.

9. Understanding the requirements of the world of work, including such areas as: attitude toward holding a job, promptness, personal grooming, responsibility, and establishing rapport with co-workers.

Once the areas of needed learning have been outlined, the next step is to determine which training processes will be most appropriate. Methods used for training not only need to take into ac-

count the requirements for bringing about change in adults, but also need to be commensurate with the methods which teachers and auxiliaries will be encouraged to use as they enable students to learn.

PROCESSES OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The process of staff development does not operate on a linear plane. It is a dynamic constellation of interacting forces. A training program which enables adults to acquire new competencies is a matrix of experiences based on the organizing perspective of the architects of the design and the needs of the participants.

The processes to be employed in a program of staff development relate to its objectives. The integration of theory, principles, and concepts with illustrative programs, cases, practices and techniques should not be like a pinwheel with sparks flying in all directions but reflect organization and planning not only by the project director but by all of the trainers working as an organic team and, finally, by the trainees as they become more and more involved in the planning. The determinants of what the processes should be in a program of staff development must be analyzed with care and skill. The needs of the individuals as seen in terms of the objectives of the particular learning setting require clarification.

Some questions which arise are: Which objectives require experience-oriented training (See Chapter Five, pp. 66-90), and which require content-oriented training? (See Appendix I for content areas.) What role is each individual preparing to assume? What functions need to be performed? What aggregates of systems and subsystems affect the particular situation in which the trainee will perform these functions? Who are the trainees? What are the

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skills and competencies of the persons in leadership roles? What will the total length of the program be, and over what time span is it to take place? What is the setting of the training and what are the resources and facilities available? Does the problem of financial support obfuscate the realization of the right resources?

The range in duration and intensity of training is very broad. Limited goals may call for a six-week, two-week, or one-week institute with participants involved much of the day in an intensive set of experiences. If the goal is to develop a complex set of new competencies the duration needs to be at least a year with points of intensity involving several days during the year and weekly sessions to give continuity and support. The design might begin with a four- or six-week institute followed by meetings once or twice a week, with three-day sessions four times during the year, and a two-week institute at the end of the year.

One-day, two-day, and three-day workshops and seminars may serve to stimulate and even teach some very simple skills and techniques but they cannot be seen as providing opportunities for comprehensive staff development. However, even workshops of this short a duration need opportunities for the participants to practice some limited skills under supervision. They certainly should see some live demonstration situations and meet frequently in small groups.

Weekly sessions of several hours in length are effective ways for continuous staff development; monthly sessions are better than none. These should stimulate the school personnel to take related training through courses or workshops at institutions of higher education. It is the aim of a number of federal agencies that schools and colleges will begin to work jointly on professional development and not see such a separation between preservice and inservice training. Both agencies have a particular contribution to make to training and need to work jointly on designing programs in colleges and inservice programs in schools.

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The trainer must be seen as an orchestrator. He integrates the content with the process and uses program approaches which are particularly suited to certain kinds of content in terms of his goal for the total design and the particular competencies which are needed.

The varied designs for programs and arrangements of staff development activities are described in many ways. There follows a taxonomy of different kinds of training activities. Usually none exists by itself but includes a number of procedures and processes; all, however, require particular skills and understanding on the part of the trainers.

A TAXONOMY OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

1. **Various Structures for Training Programs**
   Seminar
   Course
   Workshop
   Conference
   Institute
   "Carousel"

2. **Group Procedures for Presenting Information and Ideas**
   Lecture, talk or speech
   Discussion
   Panel
   Forum
   Symposium
   Hearing
   Media presentation
   "Happening"

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3. **Individual or Very Small Group Procedures for Dealing With Information or for Self-Exploration and Development**
    Consultation
    Dialogue
    Encounter
    Confrontation
    Counseling
    Sensitivity training, "T" groups
    Reading and writing experiences

4. **Individual or Group Procedures for Experiential Learning**
    Case study, role playing and other simulation techniques, such as creating multi-media environments
    Demonstration
    Practice in real situation
    Diagnosis
    Re-enactment after analysis

DEFINITIONS OF VARIOUS STRUCTURES FOR TRAINING PROGRAMS

The terms seminar, course, workshop, conference, and institute are frequently used interchangeably, but the words do imply specific kinds of activities. Current usage suggests the following definitions.

Seminar—In settings outside of institutions of higher education, a seminar implies a small group meeting of one or more sessions to study in depth a particular topic or process. It is ordinarily more theoretical than situation-oriented.

Course—This term suggests an organized approach to a subject, meeting at set periods usually for a time span of weeks or months,

although it may be concentrated in an intensive week-end session. In institutions of higher education, courses with limited enrollment in which discussion is stressed are usually called seminars.

Workshop—This term is generally used to indicate that the participants will be actively involved in analysis, exploration, and/or experimentation. It may be only one or two sessions within the framework of a conference, but generally the term connotes a training experience for a relatively small group that lasts for several days or weeks 'and is characterized by intensive involvement of the participants.

Conference—A gathering of a large number of people to provide information and sometimes to share experiences is generally called a conference. It does not usually aim to develop skills or competencies and ordinarily lasts one, two or three days.

Institute—A cluster of training experiences such as lectures, discussions, demonstrations, field trips, interaction groups, and experiential activities is generally called an institute. The participants are expected to acquire some new competencies. The duration may be anywhere from a day or two to several weeks or a year.

"Carousel"—This is a recently coined term to describe a series of simultaneous activities. The participants may have to select one of them or, if the activities are repeated, they may rotate from one to another with an opportunity to cover many or all of them, depending upon the time span.

DEFINITIONS OF GROUP PROCEDURES FOR PRESENTING INFORMATION

Lecture, talk or speech—This term refers to a verbal presentation

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by a single person who is an authority or expert on a particular topic and has organized his material so it is relevant for the particular audience. When this process takes the form of reading a paper, the presenter needs some assurance that this style of presentation will be accepted by the audience because of its levels of interest, involvement, and expertise. Most lecture presentations are more effective when there is time for a discussion period to follow the formal presentation. If the topic cannot be discussed in the large group session, then there should be opportunity to discuss it in groups following the general session. There are research findings which indicate that the response of an audience is of higher quality when films, slides and other visual techniques are used to supplement verbal presentations.

Discussion—When different points of view are expressed in a calm and deliberative fashion, rather than argumentatively, the process is called discussion. However this process is used with casual indifference by many trainers with the result that the participants are disgruntled with the experience and state that they gained nothing from it. Leading a good discussion is an art which requires knowledge of human behavior and interaction patterns of people in groups. It also requires the ability to enable a collection of people to have a mutual exploration of a topic or problem, extend their learning and understanding of it, or come to some possible solutions. The leader has all the rights of a group member to make contributions to the discussion but his main tasks are recognizing and encouraging participants, asking questions which will affect the thrust and direction of the discussion, and summarizing.

The technique of the buzz group whereby a large audience is quickly broken up into small groups to discuss some aspect of a lecture, a film, or a panel is an effective means of increasing participation in large groups. The program may be so structured that a single comment or question from each buzz group is then fed back to the total group and reacted to in some fashion by the speaker.

Panel—A panel presentation involves a small group of individuals

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discussing a topic before an audience with audience participation during the latter part of the time span.

Symposium—This format provides for a presentation by each speaker before the panel interacts.

Forum—This term is used in much the same way as a panel presentation but technically it indicates a large amount of audience discussion with not more than one, if any, initial presentations.

Hearing—This is also similar to the panel presentation, but the audience has come together chiefly to react and respond to a particular program or project which may have been presented before the hearing or may be presented at the hearing itself.

Media Presentations—Audiovisual materials are usually referred to as media presentation, although technically multi-media include written materials. Open-ended audiovisual materials are valuable: brief film clips which present a single issue, a film strip, or a more comprehensive film which can be stopped at intervals to discuss alternative ways of dealing with the situation portrayed. These materials provide an opportunity for analysis of others' experience which may be less threatening in the early stages of team work than analysis of one's own experience. This may lead eventually to self-evaluation.

The materials should be multi-purpose and offer the trainer the possibility of adapting them to his particular group.

Note: See Appendix K for available resources.

"Happening"—When an exercise is not imposed on a person but rather is an event in which he is a primary participant, it is sometimes referred to as a "happening." A "happening" is spontaneous and creative, yet is by no means random or chaotic. It has an "organized structure of events" designed to evoke significant meanings and experiences which are "not exactly like life but derived from it," according to Allan Kaprow.[2]

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²Michael Kirby, *Happenings*. New York: E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc. 1965.

DEFINITIONS OF INDIVIDUAL OR VERY SMALL GROUP PROCEDURES FOR SELF-EXPLORATION AND SITUATION ANALYSIS

Consultation—The term means a whole range of activities which are used to enable a person called the consultant to assist another individual or small group of individuals become more competent in a particular situation. Consultation is seen as the pivotal process in staff development, and is therefore discussed in more depth in Chapter Five.

The taxonomy of terms presented earlier differentiates the process of consultation from the group processes of dialogue, encounter, confrontation and counseling. As the process of consultation is defined here, it uses the techniques of dialogue, encounter, confrontation, and may use counseling. The consultation process, however, has a quality of its own which is differentiated from other approaches.

The consultant role may be performed by an administrator, a supervisor, a trainer or a counselor. It may be enacted by a person on the school staff or by a specialist from outside the system. The real consideration is not who performs the role but that it is, in fact, performed by someone, and that the consultant has both skill and understanding of the consultees and of the situation.

Dialogue—This is an exchange between two, three, or four individuals for the mutual exploration of an idea, a situation, a problem, or a task which is central to the group. The role of the group leader may be enacted by a consultant, but it is usually performed by the person who initiates the session.

A dialogue may last for an hour or two at the most. It may be part of a series of meetings with different consultants brought to it

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for particular kinds of input. It may move towards the resolution of, or the approach to a task. It is the ultimate of the peer handling of an issue or topic. It gives a major emphasis to exploration and not resolution, to the raising of questions rather than specific answering. The consultant does not play the facilitating role unless he is asked to do so, but shares in the giving and exchanging of information and experiences. The discussion does not get "personal" but rather stresses the expression of different points of view concerning the issue which is being explored.

Encounter—This is a meeting of two or more individuals but usually not more than eight who come together to face a situation in terms of themselves, as highly differentiated individuals in the situation. Encounter groups are very fashionable today as a quasi-therapeutic experience, close to what some social scientists call sensitivity training or group counseling. The process defined here arises out of the need of a situation for a group of people to face their real selves as they deal with a mutual problem. Out of the encounter should come some realistic appraisal of the role of individuals in relationship to a situation. It differs from the process of consultation and dialogue in that the participants deal not just with their mutual concern from a problem solving, task-oriented, or situational approach, but with the person or persons involved in the situation.

The encounter provides an opportunity to communicate feelings, to be angry, to be sympathetic, to be sensitive, to respond with conviction of a deep, personal nature, to reflect passion and concern, to experience people as they are. The participant does not play an assumed or defensive role; the facade is down; he is a real person and does not deny self. He listens to what others are trying to say, and to what they are saying.

The underlying ethic of the encounter is that individuals sense that they have the opportunity to "square" with each other. The initiator or leader of the group may be the facilitator if no one as-

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sumes that function. The group tries to prevent attacking, but if and when it does occur, the recipient is encouraged to respond, to clarify misperceptions, and to state his feelings about what he sees as a verbal onslaught.

When the encounter is of a single session duration or when there may be severe time limitations, a sensitive leadership role is particularly necessary. The leader, however, must expect and deal with questions concerning his own motivation, knowledge, prejudices, or "hang-ups."

Confrontation—This is a planned activity to mount a direct challenge to the behavior of another individual initiated by someone who understands the person, the conflict, and the quality of the relationship. Factors of time and urgency as well as the skill of the initiator and the ego strength of the confrontee are all determinants of the effectiveness of a confrontation. The process is used when no other seems to create movement or change in the person. The individual appears to have incongruities in his action and perception of self. The confronter sees the person using illusion, fantasies, and perhaps even life avoidance behaviors and he believes these need to be faced to bring about some insight.

There may be some real dangers in using confrontation. Can the confrontee handle the attack? Will the process really reintegrate his perception of self and his action? Does the confrontee operate from what he considers a position of honesty and integrity for himself? If he is functioning outside the limits of the situation, does he know what the limits are before he is confronted about them? Have other less direct and threatening processes been used prior to the confrontation? Is the initiator ready for the crisis or hostile behavior and negative attitude that may result from the directness of his observations?

Men are facing confrontation every day of their lives. Self-confrontation and meeting the challenges of others are part of the

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fabric of living. In many ways the technique of confrontation is a more authentic and honest one than the less direct and more sophisticated interaction process. The user must always keep in mind, however, that the behavior of the consultee may not change and that the interpersonal dynamics may become so strained that the helping situation is destroyed completely. Carl Sandburg's words are a warning: "Hard words wear nailed boots."

Counseling—The literature and divergent points of view on counseling are so prolific that it only appears necessary here to differentiate counseling from the other processes described. Its goal is similar to the others in that it aims to help the individual to be more self-actualized, and to function more effectively in his life situation. Counseling processes cover a wide range, such as: information giving, advising, confronting, or nondirective approaches. They all tend to function at the personal level and aim to assist the consultee in acquiring more insight concerning his behavior. The processes of psychotherapy and psychoanalysis go even more deeply into the psyche of the individual. These processes are not an integral part of a staff development program.

Most individuals in staff development roles do relatively little counseling but more frequently give advice. The knowledge about a person that a counselor needs and seeks is frequently just as important to the consultant as he functions in a more problem centered style, but unless his role is designated as that of a counselor he seldom carries on a continuing counselor relationship. If the consultee or trainee appears to need therapeutic counseling, a referral is made or suggestions given to the individual to seek some professional assistance.

Both vocational and personal counseling are often needed in a new careers program. For many auxiliaries their entry into a productive role in the school will constitute a new way of life with attendant adjustments to be made on the job and at home, the formation of new relationships and a new self-image. If auxiliaries are

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to achieve the desired upward mobility, they will often need assistance in planning and carrying through a program.

Teachers, also, may find their adjustments difficult when another adult is introduced into their classroom, or when they are called upon to work in partnership with persons from different cultural backgrounds. Moreover, they, too, may wish to improve their skills or work toward an advanced degree, and will welcome assistance and encouragement from the school.

This individual help can best be provided by persons who have knowledge both of human relations and of auxiliary programs. Usually such persons will be members of the school staff although there are advantages of objectivity and confidentiality to be found in consultants who are not part of the system. In some instances, experienced auxiliaries might be able to assist in the counseling functions. Common life experiences and cultural background may foster open and free communication.

Sensitivity training, "T" groups—These terms are used to describe what might be called group counseling, since the process of helping individuals become more self-actualized and function more effectively in life situations described above on a counselor–consultee basis is in sensitivity training enacted by the group. The leader plays a nondirective role but reinforces the use of encounter and confrontation by the group members. Emphasis is placed upon creating awareness in the individual of how he is perceived by others—an important aspect of all procedures for self-exploration and development, but one that is particularly stressed in sensitivity training.

Reading and Writing Experiences—The terms are self explanatory; the range is extremely broad, since the experiences are molded by both the situation and individual capacities and needs. For the auxiliary, these experiences may include practice in basic communication skills, accompanied by remediation.

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DEFINITIONS OF INDIVIDUAL OR GROUP PROCEDURES FOR EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Simulation techniques, such as case study or role playing—Whether it be by the written word, by the use of multi-media, computers, or by the spontaneous, live acting-out of situations, simulation techniques present an image or semblance of reality which is based on actual experience, and hence evoke discussion that is essentially pragmatic and functional. Since a simulated experience is less threatening than one in which the trainees are participants, it is conducive to candid and genuine responses. Moreover, it is possible to repeat the experience as often as necessary to try out different strategies with immediate feedback. It is possible through simulation to try out some complex and potentially dangerous educational practices without committing oneself.

Demonstration—When a group of individuals is permitted to see an actual situation either in the real setting or in a theatre-in-the-round or on the platform, the experience is called a demonstration. The use of varied kinds of media can provide for demonstrations without the live characters actually having to be present. Demonstrations are most meaningful when there is immediate analysis and discussion by the observers.

Practice in real situation—This term is virtually self-explanatory. Moreover, the theme of experiential learning runs through this design in its totality. It might be said once more that a training program is greatly strengthened by being based in a real work situation. The school provides a natural laboratory for learning, an opportunity to organize or illustrate new understandings or knowledge, and to try out new attitudes and behavior.

Diagnosis—When using the school experience as a laboratory, diagnosis has a two-fold meaning: 1) diagnosis of the learning needs of

children and youth—primarily the role of the teacher and one that is being increasingly stressed in the educational world, today, and 2) diagnosis of how the team functions and how the contribution of each team member is utilized in meeting the students' needs.

Re-enactment after analysis—This term, too, is self-explanatory and is inherent in the concept of the school as a laboratory. The whole process of experiential learning—the practice, diagnosis and re-enactment—is described in Chapter Five.

INCLUSION OF TOTAL EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Since the ultimate objective of the training program is to enable all school personnel to increase their effectiveness, individually and collectively, in meeting the individual educational needs of children and youth, the total learning environment of both the pupils and the adults becomes relevant to the design for training-for-partnership. Concern is centered not only on the students' "learning" and the adults' "teaching" but also, and perhaps more importantly, on each person's interests, his social interactions, his perceptions and experiences. The area of training is not just the school, but extends into the community. Occasional workshops or informative meetings and some planning committees may include parents and persons from other agencies which influence the lives of the participants.

The "curriculum" of such training will seldom be found in books but will grow out of the immediate concerns and problems of the participants. Facts and knowledge needed for problem solving will be sought in response to the needs of participants and those observed by trainers.

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Education which is related to daily living will usually have a strong and lasting impact. As the adults in the training-for-partnership program are helped to become aware of their own learning experiences they tend to become more alert to the ways in which children may be helped to learn. This concern for the total environment and total experience of persons adds reality and vitality to the training design.

Cooperative learning by all persons involved in the student's education is highly desirable albeit somewhat rare. The introduction of auxiliaries into the school system increases the need for and the advantage of cooperative learning and joint training. In many cases only the auxiliaries are involved in training, whereas they are actually co-learners with teachers, administrators, and ancillary personnel and should be recognized as such in the training design. The inclusion of parents, maintenance staff and students as part of the educational team, which is even more unusual, may be fraught with difficulties yet can add a meaningful dimension to training.

If auxiliary personnel are to add significantly to the growth and development of the students, they must become integral components of the educational team. It is important that the school not only verbalize their inclusion as members of the staff but that this concept be carried out in all planning and training which involves them. Equally important is the inclusion of teachers in the planning and administration of auxiliaries' program. When participants function as partners in the planning and implementation of their training, the program is more apt to be related to their true needs and problems, and to be seen by them as worthwhile and relevant. Furthermore, persons involved in the development of a program are more likely to be committed to its success and to their own participation in it than if it is presented as a preconceived package.

If principals, supervisors, teachers, auxiliaries and ancillary personnel are all to be involved in the planning of the training design, the format will of necessity be unique to each school. Procedures

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selected may differ considerably to fit individual school needs while still implementing the general objectives outlined above. Furthermore, it is to be expected that the nature and structure of the training will undergo change as it develops during the course of the year. As participants define their goals, identify their needs, analyze feedback and determine desired change, they will usually evolve new and better ways of conducting their education. Custommade, indigenously inspired programs are to be encouraged. They will be kept on-the-track and develop creatively through the skill of the trainer.

The process of planning and guiding an educational program for adults will provide learning opportunities for the development of human relations and leadership skills among participants. The collaborative problem solving involved in planning is itself educative and becomes a tool for growth. In the Follow Through Program in Macon County, Alabama, when a team of three—teacher, teacher-assistant and teacher aide—reviewed their experiences and planned together every day after the children went home, the experience was perceived by them as the most significant aspect of their training. The persons most active and effective in this aspect of the training program may well become the future trainers within the school.

SCHEMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF OBJECTIVES AND PROCEDURES

Specific Training Objectives (as developed in Chapter III)	Possible Procedures for Achieving Objectives
1) Commitment of trainees to learning and to the development of new competencies	▪ Trainees' participation in the planning and decision-making ▪ Fluid agendas and schedules

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- Use of multi-media such as brief, open-ended film clips to provoke discussion geared to problem solving
- Reinforcement of effective action by feedback from group and continuing supervision
- Involvement in research on impact of team on children's learning, with possible "Hawthorne effect"
- Presentation of research findings on crises in society and education
- Demonstration of commitment by trainers, administrators, supervisors and teachers in their own attitudes and behavior

2) Awareness of self by trainees and of others' perceptions of self

- Interaction in small groups, with highly competent leadership, utilizing dialogue, encounter or confrontation, as needed
- Individual and/or group counseling

3) Gaining of new knowledge, concepts and techniques which are perceived by trainees as relevant to their needs and situation

- Didactic input in seminars, workshops
- Use of simulation techniques
- Observation of demonstrations
- Reading and writing experiences

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4) Experiencing and practicing new behaviors and skills	▪ Scheduled time for each team to meet, review experiences and plan together
	▪ Small group sharing of experiences
	▪ Intervisitation between classroom and schools
	▪ Clinic-type diagnosis of individual's experiences and possible new approaches
	▪ Re-enactment after analysis
	▪ Competent and continuing supervision in a consultative style
	▪ Recording or video-taping of trainees' own experiences to induce self-evaluation

SUMMARY

The first task in mounting a training program is to determine what competencies need to be developed in whom. The next task is to decide which processes are most appropriate for developing such competencies in each particular school situation. These decisions should be reached cooperatively by all who are involved in meeting the individual learning needs of children and youth.

In the vast array of methods that are available, an experiential approach appears to be most appropriate for the training of teachers and auxiliaries together. However, didactic input may be needed in separate training sessions for the various types of trainees.

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The presentation of new knowledge and ideas may also be requested by a small interaction group as specific needs are identified. Hence, the various methods in the preceding taxonomy may at one time or another appear appropriate, but essentially a situational rather than a highly personal approach is indicated. Moreover, when teachers and auxiliaries have experienced the value of such training they may be motivated to use the same approach or an adaptation of it in working with children and youth.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH AS CENTRAL TO TEAM TRAINING

> In order to understand the struggles of men, we must first join in them.
>
> **Jean Paul Sartre**

Although the member of a team working in a learning situation, whether he be a teacher, supervisor, or auxiliary, must acquire certain basic information and knowledge as well as skills in a training program, he must have, as a core aspect of team training, an opportunity to deal with processes of interaction. Individuals may be well informed and highly skilled in the performance of specific activities and still not function as members of a team or contribute significantly to the education of children in a team situation. Therefore two primary foci of team training are: 1) developing new modes

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of interaction, and 2) analysis of actual experiences in the learning environment. In both these aspects of training, it is the **experience** rather than any specific **subject matter** which becomes a major vehicle for stimulating change and growth—a vehicle which is particularly appropriate for persons who bring to the training situation different levels of knowledge and understanding of subject matter, but all of whom bring to it the same need to develop new roles and relationships.

In the previous chapters it has been pointed out that exposure to new knowledge, concepts and techniques, no matter how relevant they may be, is not enough. In addition, adults and particularly adults of widely differing competencies training together, need new commitment of self to continued learning, new self-insights, and opportunities for practicing, analyzing and incorporating new behaviors. In attempting to provide all this, a training design needs a central core of experiential learning and must be related to the total individual in his real life situation.

In this chapter two approaches will be discussed as they relate to the team training of teachers and auxiliaries together: 1) the small interaction group which stresses commitment and self-exploration as a team learns to function together, and 2) the laboratory approach to the learning-teaching process, involving practice, analysis and restructuring of experience.

These two approach: have many factors in common. They may, in fact, be combined in certain training situations. Inevitably, they will interlock in many ways. There is an essential difference, however, which lies in their respective goals. The interaction group aims to develop new roles and relationships through self-exploration and analysis of how the team functions. It is concerned primarily with the adjustment to a new situation—the introduction of auxiliary personnel into the school setting.

The laboratory approach, on the other hand, focuses not so

much on how adults interact but rather on how, through their inter-action, they enable children and youth to learn.

These two experiential approaches will be developed in some depth and illustrated in this chapter with particular reference to their relevance to the training of all school personnel for auxiliary participation.

SMALL INTERACTION GROUP

The use of interaction rather than an informational or didactic approach is illustrated by the training program for aides and teachers-with-aides in Berkeley, California in 1967-68. One of the first issues confronted—i.e., whether the joint training meetings should be held on Tuesday, which the teachers preferred, or on Wednesday, which was preferred by aides—was argued with some bitterness and without resolution. In training meetings for teachers and aides separately, the participants were asked to look for the reasons for their strong feelings and their inability to reach a decision.

The aides concluded that they feared being "pushed around" and for this reason had not even listened to the teachers. There-upon, they sent a representative to the teachers' meeting to sug-gest a compromise. Teachers, evidently feeling less free to talk or to maneuver, insisted that administratively imposed responsibili-ties precluded their meeting at any time other than Tuesday, or accepting the aides' compromise suggestion.

These training sessions were not concerned with reaching a decision on the meeting time but rather with examining **what was**

going on between and among aides and teachers which was making it difficult to reach a decision. In this instance, the responses of the two groups suggested that at the outset of the program aides felt more ready than teachers to examine the processes of interaction. A possible reason for the reluctance of the teachers to modify their position may have been that the introduction of the aides into their classrooms required such fundamental changes in their traditional modes of interaction that they felt seriously threatened, while for the aides the entire situation was new and they had no built-in patterns of behavior to protect and maintain.

A valuable aspect of the interaction group is that it provides, naturally and inevitably, for affective as well as cognitive learning. This was illustrated in one trʾ ning situation where a teacher at first explained that her inability to express criticism or personal feeling stemmed from her upbringing in an Oriental culture. However, by the end of the school training year this teacher was able to acknowledge that her constant teasing remarks to the trainer were her way of letting out hostility toward authority, which she had always repressed, even from herself. Thus, the continuous experience within the training group of assessing interpersonal interactions had made it possible for her to learn something about her own feelings, and, breaking through a deeply imprinted taboo, to express negative feelings.

Teachers and aides alike underwent affective change during their role playing of a meeting of "hill" and "flat" parents discussing integration of the schools in Berkeley. A poverty-area parent gave such a realistic portrayal of a wealthy matron that the Black guidance consultant said to her, "Why don't you have all that poise and confidence when you are playing yourself?" One aide, playing a poor mother, stereotyped the role by assuming a strong accent. White observers were embarrassed and confused by this; some Black persons objected to her portrayal but others supported her contention that she had not distorted the facts. Teachers disappointed the aides, and to a certain extent themselves, by being

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unable to enter into role playing with either the spontaneity or dramatic ability of the aides. This circumstance led to joint discussions of value differences in the middle- and low-income cultures with some teachers deploring the apparently necessary concomitance of "up-tightness" in the middle class

Culture Shock

Since a certain amount of "up-tightness" or rigidity is characteristic of adulthood, there is often value in some kind of "shock" experience as a prelude to change in adults. Unless the rigidities and defenses are shaken up a bit there is not opportunity for new learning to get a foothold. Shock should probably be deliberately introduced only by an experienced human relations specialist who has the skill to handle any possible negative consequences. However, in an auxiliary program there is little need to **introduce** shock for it is already inherent in the situations when auxiliaries and professionals are brought together in a working and training program. Culture shock expresses itself in such things as a principal saying that "Nobody ever knows where the aides are" or a teacher saying "There's no use explaining what I'm doing, she doesn't understand," or an auxiliar. aying "They don't care enough about our kids to make them behave."

Rather than deploring and seeking to eradicate these negative reactions, the trainer does well to utilize them as priming for the beginning of change. Whenever people are exhibiting much affect and irrationality, one may assume they are undergoing a certain amount of shock. Nothing is gained by arguing with these expressions of feelings or presenting facts to counter them. What is needed is an opportunity to articulate the feelings, then to examine them and to try to understand what they are in fact really expressing. The first weeks or even months of a training program may be

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very explosive, but if all participants are given an opportunity for self-directed examination of what they are doing, the end result is likely to be more successful than if there had never been a ripple of emotional reaction.

The process of change is always slow. Training programs need to provide for this slowness. This means that "results" should not be expected, or tested for, in anything less than a school-year period. The participants' reactions to the training may be measured along the way, but identifiable effects will always be difficult to document. Furthermore, since adults need time for contemplation, a program for adult change must be structured to be continuing and to extend over a period of many months in order to allow for contemplation and assimilation. Weekend or short term seminars have their place in training but should be expected to perform introductory or stimulating functions rather than bring about basic behavioral or attitudinal change.

Clarification of Goals

Commonality of purpose is essential in a learning situation. Each person always has some kind of purpose even though it be unarticulated. In the training situation participants are encouraged to examine their desires and motivation, and to make manifest their basic objectives in the program. It is probably better to have a member acknowledge that he attends meetings only because required to do so, than to have him pretend an interest and involvement which is not real and could impede the progress of other members.

Most trainees will need help at the outset in knowing and expressing their true interests and hopes for their experience in the training program. They will tend to reiterate the familiar phrases of the establishment, for example: "to learn new improved

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teaching methods," "to increase communication." These are probably not their primary motivations which are more likely to be such desires as "to find out what others are doing," "to express feelings about an experience."

When participants cite only "official" goals for their training they tend to complain repeatedly, "What are we supposed to be doing?" "What's this all about?" Such comments indicate that group members still need to delve into their **own** motivations and to establish their own goals—not what they are "supposed" to do, but what they want to do. The trainer may need, periodically, to bring group members back to a consideration of their purposes and responsibilities for their own behavior.

Goal clarity is essential to a training program in order that there be standards by which progress can be measured. Individuals resist change which has been dictated by someone else; they find it much easier to change in response to their own self-set goals and standards. If several people are able to arrive at mutual or cooperative goals, the added factor of group support gives momentum to change.

Thus, the setting of goals is not a mere exercise but a crucial aspect of training. It is both difficult and threatening for many people to examine their motivations and take a position regarding their future intentions. This difficulty is compounded when persons of different backgrounds and degrees of competence are trained together. For this reason the trainer may play an important role in giving encouragement and support, while continually reminding participants of their responsibility for designing their own future.

Agenda Building

An agenda, though apparently innocuous, is actually a powerful

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tool which can be used to frustrate or enhance democratic procedures. Often the agenda is planned by the administration or by a few "top" individuals. Not only have they decided beforehand what areas are to be covered during a meeting but they do not disclose their intentions and the membership is in the dark as to what is coming next. Even when democratic discussion seems to be encouraged, its impact is weakened through manipulation of the agenda. For example, a three-day conference to organize a national council on new careers was completely restructured by the participants, themselves, because they rejected an agenda prepared by the convening group in which there was inadequate representation of new careerists.

Every person in a group should be able to have some control over the agenda, that is, some voice in what will and will not take place. This may be accomplished in a variety of ways. One important consideration is that the method is not too time consuming, as it is possible for a group to spend the entire meeting time deciding how to spend the time. However, if this does happen, it provides a rich experience for later analysis of what was going on and what was causing the stalemate.

Sometimes agendas are built by asking members to hand in their suggestions before the meeting, or to make them at the end of the previous meeting. A specifically limited time may be set at the beginning of each meeting for listing suggestions on a board and determining their respective rankings. Committees may be asked to handle the agenda, perhaps rotating the responsibility. Some groups may decide they wish to have no formal agenda; however, this does not eliminate "agenda building" in the group, in the sense that in one way or another decisions are made as to what content areas will be discussed. Frequently it becomes a role of the trainer to keep the members aware of how democratic or undemocratic they are in their agenda building.

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THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH

Observation and Feedback

The most significant strategy employed in the small interaction group is that of **observation followed by feedback.** Every participant is an observer of himself, his interactions with others and his reactions to events. He both gives and receives feedback. As a person moves continuously through this process, he can hardly avoid gaining new insights into himself, improving his understanding of others, and making some changes in his behavior and attitudes. What this means is that a person begins to look at himself objectively, often for the first time; he also notes his interactions with and differences from others. Through feedback received, he learns what effect his behavior has on others and how they perceive his motivations and interests. With this new and vital information available to them, most persons will voluntarily undertake to make some changes in their behavior and attitudes.

It is usually the responsibility of the trainer to introduce the group members to methods of observation. He may use himself as a model and make observations on his own behavior. Another effective way to do this is to designate one or several of the perceptive and alert persons in the group as "process observers," giving them a briefing or dry run on factors to be observed and ways of reporting. Through practice they will develop skill; other group members will then begin to pick up and utilize the techniques of observing and reporting on how things appear to them.

Process observation reports made by aides in an interaction group in which both teachers and aides participated, included such statements as: "Everyone seemed interested, but just a few of us did most of the talking. I talked too much, myself." A teacher reported: "I noticed that as soon as we got close to talking about any real problem, we'd shy away from it. We'd talk about safe things like whose turn it is for hall duty." Such reporting stimulated others

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to get into the act: "It didn't seem that bad to me. I think every-body said something, and we got down to the nitty gritty on this business of where we go for coffee breaks. Aides and teachers don't go together because we want to relax, we don't want to talk shop." Another teacher responded: "You call that nitty gritty? I call it making excuses."

The procedure of observing an experience while it is being ex-perienced, and then reflecting back upon it in order to analyze and understand it, is at the heart of the experiential approach to train-ing. It is important that participants avoid being dogmatic but speak rather in terms of how things were perceived by them, with the implicit recognition that each individual's perception is limited and therefore partial. One can argue endlessly about the "truth" but there is no argument about "how things look to you."

The value of a training session depends to a considerable degree upon the value of the experience or the data available for analysis. One of the behind-the-scenes roles of the trainer is to provide what-ever structure may be necessary to insure that group meetings af-ford meaningful experiences. The best material is usually that im-mediately at hand—the daily experiences within the training group or within the work situation in the school. This can be made more concrete and manageable by the use of graphs and charts. Material such as a chart showing that aides spent the highest amount of their time in manipulating things rather than relating directly to students ignited heated but relevant discussions of roles.

Giving support to the individual and guiding the direction of analysis and feedback are important functions of the skilled trainer. It is a mistake to assume that only positive interactions are pro-ductive. Expression of negative feeling is both necessary and salu-tary. With experience and the assistance of the trainer, partici-pants will learn not only to handle negative feelings but to use them creatively. The trainer will need to help members cope with group criticism if and when it becomes too penetrating or hostile.

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Sometimes an individual counseling session immediately after a session gives the needed support at the crucial moment.

The purpose of observation and feedback is to stimulate one's self-awareness and to motivate and implement desires for change. The process is not complete, however, until one does something about the new perceptions he develops.

The Emergence of New Attitudes and Behavior

The final, "pay-off" stage in the training cycle is the application in actual practice of new behavioral or attitudinal modes. Group members will have set goals and recognized their implied standards; they will have observed interactions with adults and children, and fed back information tot each other. As a result of these cooperative endeavors, some individuals will be ready to initiate change or to accept group norms which presuppose experimentation in new attitudes and behavior.

One soft-spoken and shy teacher had a well-planned schedule for her aide which was frequently disrupted because the aide was chronically late. The teacher felt it was impossible for her to criticize the aide by saying anything about her tardiness. Group members helped her to see that she might discuss the reasons for the problem without being judgmental. She did this, and reported to the group with pleasure that she had learned that the aide had eight children, that it was understandably difficult for her always to get off to work on time, and, therefore, the teacher no longer expected or planned for her prompt arrival and was no longer irritated by her lateness. Some group members were not satisfied with this solution, so the cycle of observation, feedback and experimentation continued.

Many months of such interchange were required to bring about change in the disparate disciplinary methods advocated by teachers and aides. At the beginning of one training program an aide said: "Teachers use psychology but we believe in making children mind." Teachers spoke of children "needing attention," "telling us they have a problem." Gradually, however, teachers did begin to be more concerned with what they preferred to call "setting limits;" while aides began to look for children's "needs" or "problems" and no longer to perceive them as misbehaving children.

The areas which group members choose for experimentation or implementation will vary from school to school; those most closely related to their everyday needs and interests will be most productive of change and growth. In most cases they will be matters related to the classroom, to individual children, to staff relationships, to school procedures or curriculum, behavioral problems, parental concerns or community issues. Personal problems may be handled more helpfully through avenues other than the small interaction groups. However, in instances where such problems are interwoven with school affairs, it may be appropriate for the training group to discuss them, if it is recognized that group involvement in personal problems can be hazardous and requires the guidance of a skilled psychologist or counselor. Occasionally an appropriate practitioner might be called in to assist in the handling of specific situations.

When each teacher and auxiliary team meets together in private planning sessions, the performance of the team members will be facilitated if they follow a pattern of mutual goal setting, experimentation, observation and feedback. It is more difficult to be open and honest in interactions in such an intimate confrontation than in a group situation. However, once the participants have learned to "level with one another" in the training group, they are often able to transfer this approach to their individual team functioning in each classroom or other task-oriented situation.

THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH

The experiential approach to training suggested here pre-supposes considerable planning and structure. Much as in the ed-ucation of children and youth, the leaders plan carefully and make materials and activities available in order that the participants may interact cooperatively and accept responsibilities for their own edu-cation. The trainers in such a program walk a fine line between encouraging autonomy and providing guidance. Unproductive pro-grams are usually either too unstructured or too tightly controlled. On the other hand, when an environment conducive to creativity has been provided, people will usually become involved and growth will take place.

Learning Through Evaluation

An integral part of experiential training is systematic evalu-ation by the participants of their group performance. At the close of each meeting or periodically, they may be asked either to verbalize or respond to a checklist about their reactions. At first these ques-tions are simple:

- What did you like best about today's meeting?

- What suggestions would you have for improving the meetings?

As members grow in understanding and perceptiveness, the questions can be more probing and analytical:

- Who seemed best able to understand others?

- What factors appeared to impede progress today?

In order to answer such questions, participants have to learn to observe, analyze and interpret what is happening in the group. This post-meeting reaction exercise becomes one way of promoting in-sight and self-analysis.

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Developmental Stages in Group Learning

The possible stages of progress in small group interaction are charted in the following diagram, but it should not be expected that progress will always be smooth and forward moving. Groups may go backward as well as forward, and many will remain on some plateau for a considerable period of time. (See Appendix J for definition of terms and the theoretical constructs of the Schein and Lewin models.)

Interpersonal Processes	Attitudinal Change	Learning Cycle
(Schein's Model)[1]	(Lewin's Model)[2]	
Behavior	Unfreezing the	Discomfort of
Emotion	old attitude	cognitive input
Norms	Changing	Attitudinal
Goals	Refreezing the	readjustment
Values	new attitude	Increased interpersonal competence

The ways in which a group may be expected to function and develop will be illustrated from the experiences of one group of teachers and auxiliaries in Berkeley, California, where the participants had two years' experience in the classroom and in weekly discussion meetings. Events in this group will be analyzed in terms of developmental stages presented above.

[1]Edgar H. Schein, et al. *Personal and Organizational Changes Through Group Methods: The Laboratory Approach.* New York: Wiley & Sons, 1965. p. 272.

[2]Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflict.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1948.

STAGES IN GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Date	Event	Developmental Stage
Sept. '66	Both joint and separate meetings of auxiliaries and teachers are well-ordered and polite. Participation is fairly well distributed. Teachers say aides are helpful. Aides say roles are interesting; they feel needed.	Frozen. Discomfort covered. Lack of trust and security.
Oct. '66	Aides are angry, loudly vocal about poor discipline. A few do all the talking but others murmur assent. Some teachers try to explain theories of self-discipline, attention-getting behavior, etc. In general, teachers say little.	Unfreezing beginning. Auxiliaries react with emotional expressiveness. Teachers react cognitively, are withdrawn. They appear to be struggling with normative discontinuities.
Dec. '66	In separate meetings, teachers attack principal for poor organization and lack of support. Auxiliaries attack teachers as superficial and lacking in understanding.	Unfreezing continues. Both teachers and aides are emotionally expressive. More trust developing, hence they dare to attack "power" figures (when they are not present.)
Feb. '67	Teachers and auxiliaries together draw up a list of "rules" and "regulations" which they present to the principal.	Normative agreement in one area, and cooperative action. However, they expect changing to be done by the principal.
April, '67	Aides protest way language	Change taking place in

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	is taught; do not accept teachers' explanation of why they do not always correct mistakes. Teachers agree to remove from bulletin boards any work which has mistakes in grammar or spelling.	teachers' behavior and aides' attitudes. Values discussed.
June, '67	Aides organize block meetings to discuss school integration. Teachers interested but do not participate actively. There are still occasional outbursts from aides about poor discipline.	Aides setting, carrying out goals; adopting new behavior; on plateau in relation to discipline. Teachers making little behavioral change.
Oct. '67	Aides perceive students as now much better behaved which, they say, is due to presence of the auxiliaries. Teachers agree behavior is improved, but attribute this to several causes, only partially to auxiliaries.	Refreezing in some areas. New attitudes, behavior being adopted. Events perceived differently from previous year. Teacher and auxiliary norms still differ.
Jan. '68	Aides enter enthusiastically into role playing of middle-class parents' fears about integration. Teachers are restrained; several express disapproval of role playing.	Aides showing trust, openness, adopting new attitudes and behavior. Teachers still need unfreezing in some areas.
Mar. '68	Teachers and aides' discuss reasons for different reactions to role playing. Aides say they have nothing to defend, that they have less need than teachers to protect status. Teachers admit to middle-class "uptightness."	Changing self - perceptions. Some desire to change behavior. Value discussion, some sharing of values.

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June, '68	Results of forced-choice instrument on values are presented. Teachers are surprised that aides' values are so close to their own. Some teachers deplore their tendency to stereotype the aides. Aides tend to believe they are closer to teachers' values than the instrument indicated. They speak of "what we used to think was poor discipline." "We are much wiser now."	Value examination and sharing. Self-insight, attitudinal and behavioral change. Refreezing stage. Increased interpersonal competence.

Characteristics of Trainers for Interaction Training

The skill needed for performing this catalytic role is acquired through specialized training and experience. Although a person may be considered to be a good teacher, administrator or guidance consultant, he is not necessarily equipped to be an effective trainer. Furthermore, in order to assure greater objectivity, at least in the initial stages of training, it is often preferable to have the trainer brought in from outside of the schools involved unless there is need for someone who has a "feel" for the special situation. Therefore it is likely that local districts will need to turn to the social science departments of nearby colleges and universities to find competent leadership.

Characteristics which trainers have acquired from their knowledge and years of experience are:

1. Knowledge of processes which he is being asked to implement.
2. Fundamental knowledge of the social sciences.
3. Ability to analyze and assess persons and situations.

4. Ability to be open and clear in communication of ideas and feel-
   ings.
5. Ability to facilitate openness and self-examination in others.
6. Skill in performing supportive and enabling functions.
7. Personal flexibility and nondefensiveness.

Training for Trainers

In order to maintain an atmosphere of openness and self-direc-
tion in a school or a college there is need for continuing interaction
training, and to accomplish this, the educational agency may need
to develop its own team of trainers, made up of administrators,
teachers and auxiliaries. The use of auxiliaries as part of the train-
ing team is a recent and significant development.

Basic to the theory of interaction training is the principle that
one learns most effectively through his own experience, followed
by reflection on that experience. Therefore, the training of trainers,
following this precept, is accomplished by having trainers partici-
pate as trainees in interaction groups. In addition, they are exposed
to theories of small group process and human behavior, either
through didactic presentations or through pertinent literature.

An expedient way for a school or college to develop its own
trainers is to utilize the first year of training-for-partnership as an
opportunity for training of trainers. Several individuals who have
abilities for and interest in such a role, could be designated early in
the program and in addition to the regular training activities, they
could engage in extra leadership, team sessions, and could become
familiar with the literature on leadership theory and practice. This
may involve designating a chairman and a process observer for each
group and holding additional meetings with this "leadership team"
which not only enhance their effectiveness within their designated

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groups but also help them develop overall leadership and training skills. The following year they may be able to take on more responsibilities for their school's inservice program. Thus, any school which plans for it and allows some extra time, can train both teachers and auxiliaries to become future trainers. (See Appendix L for Resources for Intensive Short-Term Training of Trainers in Interaction Techniques.)

THE LABORATORY APPROACH

Essentially, the laboratory approach relates learning and change to the immediate scene and to the real-life experiences of the participants. The essential components are 1) shared experience followed by 2) assessment of the experience which leads to 3) restructured experience. The training process is not productive unless it includes each of these three aspects. Experience is not, of itself, educative; assessment of experience can be frustrating and even debilitating if not followed by an appropriate change in behavior and attitudes. When groups of persons do move in continuous cycles of these three stages they are almost always making positive changes in the direction of mutually adopted goals.

Simulation

Experiential learning may start with the use of simulation techniques. The format may be to analyze a written case story, a role playing situation, or computerized simulation. Analysis of others' experience may be less threatening in the early stages of team train-

ing than analysis of one's own experience. Another value of simulation techniques is that it is possible to repeat the presentation after discussion to reveal the accuracy or inaccuracy of various perceptions of what had taken place. This is not possible with live role playing which, however, has other values such as the possibility of reversing roles, and thus helping the role players put themselves in the other person's skin, so to speak. Role playing also provides immediate feedback as to a variety of solutions to a given problem, which can be tried out, one after another.

The analysis of simulated experience provides the model of objectivity which tends to be transferred to self-evaluation as the trainees move into actual practice.

Demonstration

Another step in the laboratory method is demonstration. Like simulation, demonstration is less threatening than actual experience. It lends itself to group diagnosis, so that mind strikes fire on mind, as the demonstration is dissected. A film, slides, or a video tape may be utilized instead of a live demonstration. These audiovisual aids lack the vitality and freshness of a live demonstration but they have the value of being infinitely repeatable so that exactly the same situation may be viewed again after discussion.

Practice in a Real Situation

The culmination of experiential learning is experimentation in an actual work situation. The objectivity and breadth of perspective needed for the diagnosis of live experiences require both group and

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individual procedures. In clinic-type sessions under competent leadership, trainees may exchange ideas, work out possible solutions to learning problems, and give feedback and support to each other as they experiment with and incorporate new ways of performing their educational task. However, the heart of the process is consultation with an individual or a small working unit, after the consultant, who may be a supervisor or a trainer, has observed the team in action. Each team member may alternate between observing the impact of their own or others' behavior upon the learnings of children, discussing their reactions with and gaining insights from each other and from the consultant, and returning to their own tasks for further experimentation—a continuous process of experience, reflection, and restructuring of experience.

Since the consultant—possibly a trainer or supervisor acting in a consultant style—is so indispensible in the laboratory approach, the consultation process is described below: its goals, the characteristics required, and some aspects of the process.

The Consultation Process

The ideal consultant can move freely among processes permitting his own skill and the situation to determine his behavior. The process of consultation is perhaps the most sophisticated of all since it requires the consultant to have the insight required in all the processes, but to use them in relation to consultation because he is convinced that approach will be the most enabling in the situation.

The major goals of a consultation are to help a consultee understand the situation; to recognize himself in the particular environment, his strengths and needs; and to help him help himself as he relates to a task or set of functions.

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A consultation enables an individual to learn concepts and acquire information, to enact a role, to gain competencies and skills in a face-to-face interaction with a person, the consultant, in relationship to a situation.

The consultation is an interview process between two, three, or at the most, four individuals. Those designated as consultees are all involved in a particular situation, problem, idea, or task. The marked difference in the actual technique of consultation is that it focuses the interview on a problem, an idea, a situation, or another person or persons in the situation rather than on the consultee himself. The exchange of information about the matter moves towards a genuine peer relationship. The consultant attempts to see the situation from the perceptual framework of the consultee, but generally does not enter the private inner world of the consultee.

An eternal verity is that the process of consultation cannot be separated from the reality of the role and authority status of the consultant and how this is both communicated and perceived.

Here are some characteristics of the person serving as consultant:

1. Belief in others with a positiveness and genuineness that builds a trusting relation;
2. Competency as a diagnostician of the persons in the situation;
3. Sympathy for others, ability to comprehend feelings and perceptions of others;
4. Sense of concreteness, capacity for being specific;
5. Ability to reduce anxiety;
6. Responsiveness to clues in behavior of others;
7. Ability to understand motives and needs of person in a situation;
8. Ability to deal with a person in terms of an idea, situation, or problem;

9. Skill in working with people from their specific strengths;
10. Ability to facilitate, enable;
11. Interest in learning and communicating this interest to learners;
12. Openness to others and their ideas;
13. Awareness of the dynamics of any social interaction and the related systems and subsystems;
14. Ability to search out relevant and pertinent factors;
15. Authenticity in style, knowledge, and conviction.

Some aspects of the consultation process are:

1. Consultant begins interview with a spirit of warmth, respect, and openness;
2. Consultant clarifies who he is and why he is present, if necessary;
3. Consultant solicits response and listens;
4. Consultant facilitates clarification and definition of situation—goals, issues, needs, and problems;
5. Consultant shares relevant knowledge and experiences as situation calls for it;
6. Consultant makes pertinent referrals for specific kinds of assistance;
7. Consultant eventually enables possible solutions and approaches to arise from mutual interaction.

SUMMARY

Introduction of a new role such as the auxiliary into a system will cause many repercussions. All persons within the system, both old and new, will be confronted by the need to change; some will welcome change, some will accept, but many will resist. **A training program, therefore, starts with the assumption that most individu-**

als will need to be helped to make changes, and it also utilizes conflicts and resistance to change as part of the focus of training. An educational program which does not do this but launches at once into the presentation of information and pre-designed procedures, may often lack vitality and make little impact upon the everyday behavior of the partcipants.

A fully developed training program places major emphasis upon preparing individuals to become active participants in the change process, and upon facilitating the continuous application within their work assignments of their understandings of themselves and of the conditions which promote learning. It requires small group training in which the participants are encouraged to interact more honestly and congruently with one another and also a laboratory approach with shared experience, feedback, reflection and guided re-enactment of experience.

If people of differing competencies and life experiences are to function effectively as a team, they will need the challenge and support of other persons who meet regularly in small groups as well as continuing supervision and consultation. This experiential training is seen as undergirding unit meetings for team planning; workshops with administrators, ancillary personnel and parents; as well as didactic instruction and skill training. All are important and interrelated. All are designed to help individuals utilize their natural processes of thinking, feeling, and interacting with others. Once a group of persons has learned how to interact honestly and perceptively with one another, they tend to become more spontaneous and creative in their interactions with students. They may also incorporate this way of perceiving and acting into other parts of their living.

CHAPTER SIX

EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

The proper study of mankind is man.

Alexander Pope

GOALS DELINEATE THE AREAS OF EVALUATION

A design for research and evaluation is largely dictated by the goals of the program. Training activities need to be evaluated in terms of whether or not they aid trainees in achieving their goals. Therefore, since the primary goal of auxiliary participation is to improve the education of children and youth, the evaluation might well be concerned with measuring improvement in the performance of students who had auxiliaries in their classrooms compared with

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those who did not. However, this would require a longitudinal design which controls numerous variables and secures quantifiable hard data. To add to the difficulties of this kind of measurement, the achievement tests currently available are generally inappropriate for measuring progress of children in inner-city schools. Therefore, unless a system is adequately equipped to handle rigorous research, it is usually preferable to confine the evaluation to some of the immediate goals which can be handled more readily.

Behavior and attitudes related to objectives may be informally examined by evaluators, and subsequent changes described. Standards of improvement need to be established, based on broad goals which the participants have chosen during preplanning periods. As goals may change during the course of the training, the standards may also undergo adjustment. However, in order to secure information on initial attitudes and behaviors for base line data, it is necessary to establish some goals at the outset of the program, around which to organize the evaluation design.

The effectiveness of a training program should be evaluated both in terms of its internal operation and also in terms of the degree to which positive or negative changes in behavior take place in the children or youth with whom the trainers work or in the community. When the objectives of the training program are to clarify roles and functions and to improve relationships on the job, evaluation must necessarily include assessment of the impact of the team upon student morale and student learning.

However, evaluating the effectiveness of the training program is not the same thing as evaluating the effectiveness of the use of auxiliaries, although they are so closely interrelated. Auxiliaries might be very effective even though the training was not; participants might have a positive attitude toward the training without its having affected their behavior in the classroom. Caution must be exercised, moreover, in assuming that training is the variable responsible for more effective team functioning and heightened

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student morale and learning. Even where a control group which had no training is used, there are still many uncontrollable variables which might have been operative, such as the personalities of staff members, characteristics of the curriculum, events in the community and even peculiarities of the weather.

To isolate the factor of training in the evaluative process it is necessary, therefore, to establish measurable goals, expressed in behavioral terms.

DESCRIBING BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

Two different areas of behavior might be examined: behavior within the actual training sessions and behavior within the classroom or elsewhere on the job. Group behavior has been analyzed in a number of different ways depending upon what was considered important and relevant.[1] The widely used Bales' Interaction Process Analysis scale,[2] which abstracts those interactions related to group problem solving, might be profitably used in an auxiliary training-for-partnership program although it requires extensive training of observers. Simple observation forms may be devised which deal with such things as the distribution of leadership functions, extent of member participation, number and nature of decisions reached, and other matters judged to be of importance to the group. If such observation is done at the beginning of the program, at the end, and once or twice during the interval, it is possible to describe certain changes in behavior which may be due in large part to participation in the training group.

[1]Karl E. Weick, "Systematic Observation Methods," in Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson (eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology*, rev. ed. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley, 1967.

[2]Robert F. Bales, *Interaction Process Analysis: A Method for the Study of Small Groups.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1950.

Much work has been done in devising methods for observation of classroom behavior, but very little of this is concerned with the activities of auxiliaries. However, the methods and many of the categories used with teachers and pupils may be applied to auxiliaries. Items included for observation will be those related to program goals. For instance, if one goal is to increase the auxiliaries' frequency of interaction with children, then instances of such behavior would be coded by the observer.

A simple observation form, in Appendix M, makes it possible to quantify the behavior of teachers and auxiliaries as it relates to project goals. Since the major value of the auxiliaries was seen to be their understanding and rapport with the children and their potential for individualizing instruction, the behaviors observed were divided between those related to handling educational content directly with the pupils, nonacademic interaction with pupils, and routine or nonpersonal activities. This yielded data which could be used for an objective description of these aspects of behavior in the classroom and could indicate the degree and nature of change in behavior over time.

Trainers used charts and graphs of observation information to give feedback to the teachers and auxiliaries on what was going on in their classrooms. Not only did this promote lively and relevant discussion in meetings, but it led, in several cases, to marked changes in the classroom in the direction of making better use of the auxiliary.

The more that the participants can be involved in the designing of evaluation, the carrying out of the observation and the interpretation of the results, the more genuine and useful the procedure is likely to be. Such involvement tends to meliorate the threat of being evaluated. Evaluation and research can be incorporated into the training program so that they become an integral part of the learning process rather than treating evaluation and research as an extraneous and often resented aspect of the program. The use of

evaluation and research data during a training program may not only deepen the level of the discussion but may also have an impact upon administrative procedures as to utilization of auxiliaries.

One group of auxiliaries was so intrigued with the diagrams of classroom behavior, which were shown to the group anonymously, that they suggested they would like to try to reproduce, on blank graph paper, the pattern they thought was operative in their own classroom. With only a few exceptions, their estimates were essentially accurate. Several teachers brought their aides with them when they discussed their own classroom pattern with the consultant, and together worked out plans for improvement. For those individuals who were able to make use of it, the feedback of observation data proved very useful.

Descriptions of auxiliary and teacher activity can also be secured with checklists which are filled out by them and by other school personnel.[3] These might be administered during preservice training to be marked in accordance with the participants' expectations. They would serve as a basis for group discussion of teacher and auxiliary responsibilities. If administered later in the program, such checklists may give an indication of the direction in which roles and functions are being developed. The results may also be compared with the goals of the project to determine the degree to which objectives are being achieved.

Checklists secured from various types of participants in a program also yield significant information in regard to differences in perceptions of roles and of the objectives of the program. Trainers will find that such material, when used anonymously in a group and in individual consultation, provides valuable feedback for self-analysis and self-direction among participants. Administrators will also find it useful as it reveals areas in which adjustments may be needed.

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[3] A suggested activity list is included in the appendices to the report of a Study of Auxiliary Personnel in Education by Garda W. Bowman, and Gordon J. Klopf, entitled *New Careers and Roles in the American School.*

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DESCRIBING ATTITUDINAL CHANGE

Attitudes are usually considered more difficult to measure or even to describe than are behaviors. One problem is semantic: it seems to be easier to agree upon words to describe behavior than attitudes. What one person might describe as a cooperative attitude another might call compliant or even covertly hostile. Furthermore, even though the attitude may be clearly delineated, it is still impossible to know if the individual does in fact actually hold the attitude he says he does. This will become a problem in situations where respondents feel insecure and lacking in autonomy. This may be true even where there is complete confidentiality for the data, because individuals who have become accustomed to suppressing or denying their beliefs and feelings may be expected to continue to do this when they fill out an attitude test.

Related to this is the function of "response set" which needs to be taken into consideration. Persons who have never taken an attitude test, or who are new in the situation, or who believe their employment depends upon their answers, are apt to answer all questions in more positive terms than persons who are secure and experienced in the testing situation. The opposite may also be true. For this reason, validity is generally greater in comparing intra-group scores. For instance, to interpret auxiliaries' higher ratings of the training program to indicate that they liked it better than did the teachers, is less valid than to interpret auxiliary scores which were lower at the end than at the beginning to indicate that their attitude toward training became more negative. Even in this instance, however, their own "response set" may have changed as they became more sophisticated, so one cannot be sure that a lower attitude score necessarily means a more negative attitude.

If allowance is made for the limitations indicated above, it is possible to secure valuable information through the periodic adminis-

tration of attitude instruments. This is particularly desirable in connection with interaction process meetings where the membership involvement may be secured early and maintained through regular evaluative activities. Short, informal evaluation sheets may be passed out at the end of every meeting or at frequent intervals. These evaluations are probably most useful for the direction of the daily program but viewed over time also provide valuable research data. More formal and comprehensive attitude scales may be used at the beginning and end of the program which will produce quantifiable data from which evaluative descriptions can be made of the program's success.

Many other types of attitudes might be examined. If it is hoped that the training program will increase cross-cultural understanding and decrease misinformation and prejudice, instruments may be secured or devised which will tap such information and indicate change over time. (However, it would be difficult to demonstrate that it is the training program alone which is responsible for this change.) If standardized tests are used, it may be possible to measure the degree of such factors as social awareness, authoritarianism, and the amount and direction of change.

The participants' perceptions of the organizational climate of the school could be measured, and the degree of change determined if given at a second period in time.[4] Concepts of educational theory, social norms and values held by the auxiliaries and teachers may be tapped, compared and change measured. The individual's self-image or coping ability and other psychological factors could be measured.

The attitudes to be measured would depend upon the particular goals and interests of each school, as well as the facilities for conducting a research program. It is often better to do a simple descriptive evaluation which is well within the capacities of the district

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[4]Stern and Steinhoff's Organizational Climate Index.

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than to undertake objective measurement, because, if not properly handled, the results would be meaningless.

SUMMARY

Evaluation designs which actively involve participants and are systematic in procedures, may produce valuable data describing processes of change and growth in an experimental or new situation. The significance of the teachers', auxiliaries' and administrators' changes in attitudes and behaviors may be greater than any yearly fluctuations in the achievement scores of students. Self-evaluations, although they may substantiate no hypotheses, are useful in affecting the change and growth which the evaluation attempts to measure. Each person associated with the process of education can contribute to the broadening of empirical knowledge about the ways of learning.

CONCLUSION

Existence is no more than the precarious attainment of rel-
evance in an intensely mobile flux of past, present and future.

Susan Sontag

True to the new dynamism in American education, team train-
ing for auxiliary personnel and the professionals with whom they
work has evolved as a kind of megastructure—to use an architec-
tural term. A megastructure is a building made up of multiple small
units that may be repeated, used serially, as accretions, or in high-
ly creative varieties of modules. For this open-ended collection of
units there is always a containing framework, a functional ration-
ale which integrates the small parts. A megastructure is sometimes
known as "endless architecture" or "action architecture." It is
violently anti-establishment and anti-formal. As Ada Louise
Huxtable describes the megastructure, "It has 'clip-on' parts for
'plug-in' cities. Dig it? It's the Scene."

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The analogy to an open-ended and continuously evolving training program is clear. It may appear, at first, that a multifarious range of activities is suggested here, but there is a cohesive ordering of concepts and processes which presents a transcendent spirit and point of view.

The basic precept is that the ultimate goal of team training is the education of children and youth with recognition of their affective as well as their cognitive development. The training program required to meet this goal does not treat the human agent as merely a coefficient of technological destiny—but as a person, a human being with an identity. Such staff development recognizes new organic components in the social system of the school—teams of administrators, supervisors, teachers, ancillary personnel, auxiliary personnel, parents and students permitting their roles and functions to arise from the environment, with sensitive awareness of the web of human needs, strengths and limitations.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Aide means the first or entry level position for auxiliary personnel—"entry" in the sense of entering a new career at the lowest level.

Ancillary Personnel means professionals, other than classroom teachers, who provide specialized educational services—such as counselors, librarians, curriculum specialists.

Assistant means the second level position for auxiliary personnel, with higher requirements, more responsibility, and less supervision.

Associate means the third level position for auxiliary personnel, with proportionate increase in requirements and responsibility and appropriate decrease in supervision.

Auxiliary means an employee of a school system who, though lacking the traditional requirements for the education profession, performs auxiliary functions as defined in Webster's New Dictionary, i.e., to "help, assist, and give aid and support to" the learning–teaching process. Such school personnel may be at the aide, assistant or associate level, so that "auxiliary" is the umbrella term covering various levels of job classification. It also covers various areas of activity, such as assistance in the classroom, library or counseling office.

Auxiliary Personnel is the plural of auxiliary.

Career Development means the process whereby employees at each occupational level are enabled to move laterally, diagonally or vertically within the system with appropriate training available at each level. This term refers to all employees. It presupposes the formalization of budgetary and personnel procedures to provide sequential stages of an occupational track.

Experiential Training means training which is based on actual experience rather than abstract theory. Two aspects of **experience-oriented training** are discussed in this volume: 1) **the laboratory approach,** and 2) **interaction training.** Both these aspects are defined below in discrete terms, although they are often combined and interwoven in a single program:

1) **The Laboratory Approach** means analysis of supervised work experience in clinic-type sessions followed by re-trial, continuing analysis and still another re-trial, as needed.

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2) **Interaction Training** means training in which the process of interaction among the participants rather than any specific subject matter becomes the vehicle for learning. This requires that the trainees have an opportunity to interact within a small group, meeting regularly, with emphasis upon goal setting by the participants, free and open communication, analysis of how the participants interact within the group and in their work situation, leading to self and team evaluation.

Institutionalization means the incorporation of auxiliary personnel as an integral part of the school system, with effective utilization, stable employment, increments, fringe benefits and opportunity for advancement.

Work-Study Program means training based on two principles: 1) stipends or released time for training, and 2) academic credit for work experience.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX B, PART I

SUGGESTED DESIGN FOR STATE WORK
CONFERENCE ON AUXILIARY PERSONNEL

(This design may be adapted to regional or city wide conferences.)

CALL TO THE CONFERENCE

The main purpose of the conference is to develop recommendations to guide state policy in career development of auxiliary perso:·:el in education.

There is properly a great concern for the most effective use of auxiliary personnel in schools. There is an apparent need for state policies and procedures to assist school systems and institutions of higher learning as they plan together for auxiliary training and utilization. In fact, state guidelines are required for funding under the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA), as well as joint planning by schools and universities.

Since state policy is enhanced when communities are involved in its formulation, it is essential that the State Education Department invite teams from all regions of the state to participate in developing recommendations. The teams might include school administrators, teachers, auxiliaries, parents, representatives of institutions of higher learning, and personnel from community action agencies.

SPONSORSHIP

The sponsorship of the official state agency is essential. Co-sponsorship may be developed with appropriate institutions.

PURPOSES

The major purpose of a conference is to involve community leadership

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in state planning for the training, utilization, and career development of auxiliary personnel in education.

To achieve this fundamental aim, the inclusion of teams of school, college, and community agency personnel from all regions of the state is essential. It is necessary for these teams to share ideas and experiences, formulate specific recommendations for state policy in this area of concern, and establish, where possible, local planning groups with which continuing state liaison could be maintained.

PARTICIPATION

Selection Criteria

Criteria for selection of participants are based upon the need for multiple representation: 1) from various geographical areas; 2) from both urban and rural areas; 3) from the different institutions and agencies which need to be involved in the planning; 4) from various types of personnel within those institutions and agencies; and 5) from those at various stages in program development, so as to profit by the experience of those who have worked out a comprehensive plan of operation and to guide and encourage those who are still in the preliminary stages. Other selection criteria include imagination, competence, and cooperation of participants, and the extent of their influence within their respective fields of operation.

Participation of parents from the boards of local CAP agencies is an important dimension, but this indirect method of securing parent participation may be only partially successful. The inclusion of a parent, per se, on each team is recommended. It is also valuable to include representatives of boards of education on each team.

Selection Process

A planning committee is a vital necessity. It is highly important that the planning committee include representation from all regions and all types of participants, i.e., school administrators, teachers, auxiliaries, parents, and representatives of institutions of higher learning and local CAP agencies. Wherever possible, the regional representatives on the planning committee should be designated as the team leader for his region.

It would be advantageous for the planning committee to discuss selection criteria, in terms of the conference goals, and then submit a proposed list of invitees and alternates to the State Education Department which would make the final selection with the advice and cooperation of the co-sponsoring institution of higher learning. An additional step is recommended, time permitting, that the local superintendent of schools be consulted before

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a principal, teacher or auxiliary from his district is invited, rather than being informed of the action by receiving a copy of the letter of invitation, together with a request that he authorize travel to the conference.

Telephoning to interpret the goals and the importance of the conference is crucial, particularly in a relatively new area of operation, and in a situation involving expenditure of local funds for transportation. The team leader serving on the planning committee, working closely with the liaison person from the State Education Department, may prove helpful in this connection.

To provide more representation from those regions in which there is most interest and activity in the training and utilization of auxiliary school personnel, it is helpful if the number of teams from each region be differentiated.

Participants other than team members may include discussion leaders, resource persons, and recorders for the work groups, observers from other states, government consultants and staff of sponsoring institutions. Ideally, the proportion of team members should be at least two-thirds of the total registration. A small number of consultants and observers would keep the work groups small and manageable.

FUNDING

In some communities, local foundation support may be sought. Another alternative is to charge a high registration fee which will defray some of the overhead. Keeping the number of consultants low would also serve to cut the budget.

PROGRAM

Basic Structure

To provide a structure for the discussion, three types of sessions are suggested. The rationale and composition of each type of session follow.

Focus Sessions—Plenary sessions for input from national experts and local practitioners.

Task Groups—(broad geographical representation)—small groups to formulate specific recommendations for state policies and procedures in various areas of concern, such as, planning, selection, role development, training, career development, and evaluation.

Team Meetings—(each from a given region)—small groups to analyze needs

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and resources in their respective regions and to plan local action for implementation of conference recommendations which appear relevant to local situations.

INPUT FOR EACH TYPE OF SESSION

Focus Sessions

Rationale for Auxiliary Utilization

It has proved useful for the following concepts to be stressed in a brief overview of national programs.
1. The prime value of auxiliary personnel is to provide more individualized education for children, with the added but subordinate value of providing meaningful employment for low-income persons with untapped potential.
2. The role of the auxiliary is two-fold: both that of relating to individual children in ways that assist affective development so necessary to learning, and that of performing nonprofessional routine tasks which free the professional to use himself more effectively in educational services to children and youth.
3. Team training of both the auxiliaries and the professionals with whom they work is essential for effective auxiliary utilization.
4. Career development with both stability of employment and opportunity for upward mobility through work-study programs are crucial, requiring cooperative planning by school systems and institutions of higher learning.

Program Possibilities Under EPDA

A presentation of the goals and guidelines of this important legislation, stressing the necessity for a state plan is valuable.

Panel Presentation by Local Practitioners

A highlight of a conference may be the input from those who have actually developed programs, expressed from the viewpoint of school and college administrators, teachers, auxiliaries, and parents. It would be an improvement in program planning, however, if small groups met early in the conference and if more time proportionally were devoted to this type of dialogue. The selection of these panelists is critical since they speak more strongly than any of the experts. It is of paramount importance that the experiences reported reflect the overall philosophy of the planning committee.

Task Groups

Objectives

The task assigned to these groups is to develop specific recommendations

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to guide state policy in various areas of concern, all related to the effective utilization of auxiliary personnel in the schools. The first session may be exploratory, but at the second session the task groups should have to decide on content and priorities, and be required to hammer out the actual wording of their recommendations.

The areas of concern in which recommendations need formulation might be:

1. Preplanning
2. Recruitment, Selection and Placement
3. Training
4. Auxiliary Functions in Classroom—Early Childhood and Elementary Education
5. Auxiliary Functions in Classroom—Secondary Education.
6. Auxiliary Functions in Relation to Guidance
7. Auxiliary Functions in Home-School Interaction
8. Career Development
9. Team Approach
10. Exploring the Need for Certification
11. Evaluation and Research

(See Part 2 Appendix B for suggested questions under these areas.)

Procedures

At the first exploratory session, free-flowing discussion may bring forth a wide variety of ideas and experiences. The "Suggested Questions" are indeed just that—suggested. They are seen as a take-off platform, not an instrument-guided flight.

It is suggested **that there be no formal presentations.** The resource personnel—such as speakers from the focus sessions, project directors from other states (to lend perspective), and consultants from government and various disciplines—should be available as needed but should **not** dominate the scene. The true dynamism will be sought in the teams of school personnel, college and university representatives, and community leaders from every region of the state.

The second session should of necessity be more structured, since specific recommendations will be formulated at that time. It is recommended that the last 15 to 20 minutes of this session be devoted to a feedback by the recorder of the recommendations on which there was apparent consensus. A group decision should be sought as to which of them (possibly limited to five) will be reported by each group.

Recommendations

Specific recommendations might emerge from each task group. However, progress can be blocked by overcrowding in a popular session. It is recom-

mended that no task group exceed 20 persons. Suggested questions for discussion are helpful but need not be adhered to rigidly. Consideration might be given to assigning the same agenda to all groups—i.e., to formulate recommendations for state guidelines. Restriction to certain aspects of the guidelines to each group may not be entirely satisfactory.

Team Meetings

It is valuable if these teams are asked to consider at their first session the needs and resources of their own geographical areas as they relate to auxiliary utilization. At the second session, having participated in the task groups, the teams will be ready to consider the extent to which these discussions and the resultant recommendations apply to their own geographical areas. They can begin planning ways in which the recommendations that do seem to apply may be implemented in their respective geographical regions.

Procedures

It is advisable that the team leaders be responsible for assignment of their team members to the various task groups. They should attempt to distribute the members so that each geographical area will be represented at and receive feedback from every task group, insofar as possible. The capacity of individuals should also be considered in making assignments. The team leaders may do some preliminary planning in advance of the conference, but the final assignments should be confirmed at the first team meeting.

It is suggested that the time for the first session be relatively brief, so the first order of business will have to be the "nuts and bolts" decision of assigning the team members to the various task groups. The discussion of the needs and resources in the respective regions will have to follow. This discussion would be helpful to the team members, in terms of what they may be able to contribute to the formulation of recommendations in the task groups, and also in terms of what kinds of information and ideas they need to bring back to their own teams.

At the second session the main thrust should be to plan local action. It is recommended that the leader avoid general discussion of the rationale for auxiliary utilization, focusing instead upon team planning.

If the leader perceives the need for free and frank discussion in a small group, he may limit the number of observers.

RECOMMENDATIONS ON ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE

1. At least three months are needed for planning and executing such a conference, so that local boards of education will have time to consider the

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request for transportation expenses of team members from their school systems.

2. The registration should not exceed 200, of which at least two-thirds (122) should be members of local teams.
3. The team representation is essential.
4. There should be representation of every geographical region of the state on the planning committee.
5. The team leaders should serve on the planning committee and should agree in advance to recommend possible team members from their regions, to follow up personally after the written invitations have been sent, and to organize follow-up meetings in their region to consider conference recommendations.
6. The major proportion of the time may well be devoted to the work groups and relatively less time to focus sessions. The work groups should begin meeting early in the conference agenda.
7. The most appropriate size is no more than 20 persons in each work group.
8. There should be a significant involvement of the unions and professional associations, as well as members of local Boards of Education and trustees of institutions of higher learning among the participants.

POST-CONFERENCE ACTION

It is of utmost importance that a task force or writing team be appointed by the State Education Department to review the recommendations of the conference, and to prepare proposed State Guidelines on Career Development of Auxiliary Personnel in Education. These guidelines should be sent to the team leaders in draft form for discussion at local meetings, revised in accordance with feedback from these meetings, and sent to the State Commissioner of Education for his consideration.

It is important that post-conference team meetings be held in as many regions as possible. In some regions, representation on the teams may be broadened to include some persons who were unable to attend the conference. In others, existing organizations may be used with the team members serving as catalysts to channel the conference recommendations to appropriate leadership in the community.

It is helpful if co-sponsoring institutions of higher learning and/or school systems and other appropriate resources can provide consultant service upon the request of conference participants.

Consultation should be available from State Education Department for follow up.

APPENDIX B, PART II

SUGGESTED QUESTIONS FOR TASK GROUPS IN STATE WORK CONFERENCE ON AUXILIARY PERSONNEL IN EDUCATION

1. Preplanning (Community Involvement and Financial Planning)
   a. What sectors of the community need to be involved in preplanning?
   b. What are the possible values and functions of an Advisory Board, representative of the school systems, institutions of higher learning, community action agencies, parents and potential auxiliaries?
   c. What are the various sources of funding—local, state, federal—and the appropriateness of each of these to specific situations?
   d. How can provisions be made for increments, fringe benefits—such as retirement, hospitalization, sick pay, and liability.
   e. How should the need for auxiliary school personnel be interpreted to the school board, to the broader community, to the school faculty and staff?

2. Recruitment, Selection and Placement
   a. How do sources of recruitment vary in relation to the purposes of the program and the type of persons sought?
   b. How can those most in need of help (i.e., the "hard-core poor") be reached?
   c. What are the merits of "screening in" those who are ordinarily "screened out" even of poverty programs?
   d. Are there minimum criteria for selection of auxiliaries, and how do they vary?
   e. How does a system establish priorities for assignment of auxiliaries in the target areas—degree of deprivation, age levels of pupils served, teacher load, curriculum areas?
   f. How can teachers and auxiliaries be "matched" to facilitate success in working as a team?

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3. Training
   a. How would the emphasis of preservice training differ from that of inservice training?
   b. What resources may the school system utilize and how will responsibility for training be shared?
   c. What strategies should be utilized for including the professionals with whom the auxiliaries will be working in the training so that the concept of working together as a team can be developed?
   d. How can the two basic principles of a work-study program be realized for auxiliaries, i.e., 1)stipends for training, and 2) academic credit for work experience?
   e. What is the value of a practicum in preservice training and how can analysis of actual work experience be utilized in inservice training?
   f. What is the need for group and individual counseling and how should it be developed?
   g. How can both professional and auxiliary roles be enacted so that all personnel perceive themselves as learners?

4. Functions of Auxiliaries in the Classroom: Early Childhood and Elementary Education.
   a. What are conceptual differences between role development and role definition and what does each contribute to auxiliary utilization?
   b. To what extent should each situation determine the functions of auxiliaries rather than predetermined classifications?
   c. How is the "professionality" of teachers protected?
   d. Can functions of auxiliary be categorized as
      (1) those which relieve the teacher to teach?
      (2) those which are directly related to learning-teaching process? Who makes such decisions? Is a dual role for auxiliaries desirable?
   e. What are some of the illustrative functions in each category?

5. Functions of Auxiliaries in the Classroom: Secondary Education
   (The questions listed in 4. above apply to this group but should be slanted to identify the variables in respect to secondary education.)

6. Functions of Auxiliaries in Home-School Interaction
   a. What models have proved viable?
   b. How can the schools handle anger of the parent-aides against the school and develop loyalty to the school without alienating the aides from their neighbors?

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7. Guidance
    a. What models have proved effective?
    b. Can auxiliaries under the supervision of counselors help children who are deemed disruptive in a classroom, by listening to their woes and trying to involve them in some interesting activities?
    c. What are the major difficulties and possible values to bear in mind?

8. Career Development
    a. What are the possible stages in career development and what are the academic requirements at each level?
    b. What opportunities for continuing education are now available?
    c. What more are needed?
    d. How can aides who pass high school equivalency examinations be helped to get into college, and whose responsibility is this?
    e. How can two-year college programs be articulated with four-year college programs to facilitate transfer?
    f. What system could be devised so that auxiliaries who wish to enroll in a college program would be able to work half-a-day and attend classes for half-a-day with stipends?

9. Team Approach
    a. What are the values of a team approach in a school system, involving administrators, teachers, ancillary personnel (other professionals such as guidance counselors) and auxiliaries?
    b. How can this approach be implemented in both training and school operations?
    c. What is the role of the supervisor in relation to the team?

10. Certification
    a. What states have developed state certification for aides?
    b. Is there a need for certification?
    c. What are the possible dangers of establishing certification rapidly?
    d. Should certification apply to the various stages in a job sequence?
    e. Should auxiliaries be given a civil service rating?
    f. Should municipalities provide special permits or licenses for all?
    g. How does the organization of a union for auxiliaries affect this situation?
    h. Should some consideration be given to satisfactory completion of preservice courses in determining job status?

11. Evaluation and Research
    a. How can evaluation be built into each program for training and utilization of auxiliary personnel?

b. What types of pre—post testing and experimental—control group testing are needed to validate various impressions as to the impact of auxiliary utilization on: students (both cognitive and affective), teachers, auxiliaries, parents, the school system, home—school interaction, the community?

c. What instruments are available for evaluating the training and utilization of auxiliaries, and how have they been used, such as: process observation forms, written questionnaires, interview schedules?

d. What other types of evaluation and research are needed?

POSSIBLE FUNCTIONS OF AUXILIARY PERSONNEL

1. **Assistance in the learning-teaching process** such as: helping the slow learner at his seat-work; listening to a child tell a story; interesting a restless child in some available activity; taking charge of a small group which is working on a special project assigned by the teacher; talking quietly to a child who is upset. (These were among the functions of the auxiliary deemed most important in a Summer Institute conducted by the University of California at Riverside, in which the objectives of the Institute were to help auxiliaries "to listen, relate, support, inspire, and to serve as 'trouble-shooters'.")

2. **Home-school interaction** such as: visiting parents of children who are new to the school to welcome them to the school community; talking with parents about the school's goals and how they can relate this information to the children's homework; listening to parents who wish to say what they feel about their child's education and what they expect or want from the school; answering calls from parents and greeting those who visit the school; giving simple information which may be requested by parents, or referring them to the appropriate person within the school in response to more complex demands; helping to plan and organize parents' meetings.

Note: It is important that information about the home situation which may affect the child's adjustment in school be reported to the appropriate person—teacher, counselor, etc.

3. **Assistance to the counselor** such as: greeting persons who come to the counselor's office and making appointments, if necessary; talking to parents of children who have been absent or to such children and their parents together; listening to children who have been sent to the counselor's office because the teacher believes they are too upset to remain in the classroom, and perhaps involving them in some diverting activity while waiting for the counselor. (In Berkeley, California, a "cooling-off" room staffed by auxiliaries was set up where children who appear to disrupt the classroom may have some individual attention and interesting activities.)

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4. **Library assistance** such as: helping children find books and other materials; helping them look up information in a book; reading stories to a group of children; filing and cataloguing books.

5. **Assistance in language laboratories and computerized instruction** such as: helping children for whom English is a second language; explaining to children the operation of machines and other forms of programmed instruction; helping pupils understand their own learning needs as revealed by the machines. (Bilingual reading assistants in the lower East Side of New York worked with children from Puerto Rico and Oriental children, with the result that some who had never joined in class discussion before now participate, and some who had never spoken of school at home, who had, in fact, avoided the subject when questioned, now bring up the subject with their parents.)

6. **Assistance in special programs in art, music, theatre and social studies** such as: using the skills of auxiliaries who are gifted in music and painting; conducting field trips to museums, walks around the community, and visits to local hospitals, police stations and fire stations; collecting materials for special projects and experiments.

7. **Research assistance** such as: interviewing pupils, neighborhood persons with tape recordings; tabulating simple data.

8. **General school services** such as: typing, running a duplicating machine; filing; preparation of materials and displays; keeping health and attendance records; checking supplies; checking playground equipment for safety; operating equipment such as film projectors, slide projectors, tape recorders; taking charge of pupils on various occasions such as during lunch, in hallways, on the bus; assisting in preparation of food and maintenance of the plant.

REPORT ON AUXILIARY PERSONNEL IN MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Report by Frederick Hayen

The Minneapolis Aide Program was initiated in 1965 with 200 teacher aides in 16 elementary schools and 7 secondary schools. This rather modest beginning has expanded in numbers to its present level of 700 aides in approximately half of the 100 schools in the city. The greatest significance in this rather remarkable growth, however, has not been the increase in numbers of aides, but rather in such areas as:

1. The schools have made a commitment to the institutionalization of aide service as a permanent staff position in our school system. This has become a major tool in the redirection of our schools as a responsive and leading social force.

2. An increasing commitment of local and state funds as well as a variety of federal funding for the programs.

3. An increasing recognition that aides from the neighborhood link the school and the community it serves in important and meaningful ways. Aides are interpreters of the school to the community—and of the community to the school. Though all aides perform this function, our school social worker aides probably do more of this than any others.

4. A recognition that training and education which is provided at all levels, from adult basic education through selected university work, has value beyond the improvement of service skills.

Aides are recruited from the neighborhood without restriction as to education or previous work experience. Educational levels vary from those without a high school diploma to those who have been in college. Training is adjusted to the educational level of each aide and the program provides for upgrading as the aide progresses in both experience and training. The program: 1) Carries the school district's commitment to permanent em-

ployment upon successful completion of the two-year program; 2) Has the potential to continue successful participants to the professional staff level; 3) Is more than the manpower concept of the matching of a worker to a job; 4) Incorporates the development of the job itself through promotional steps based on training, life experiences and work experience.

This program, further, has the potential to meet the needs of new school staffing patterns; to change the patterns of teacher education and most especially to provide future professional staff personnel from a population that has normally provided little or no professional staff to our schools. All of this is being accomplished within the framework of a new and creative instructional service to children.

The service provided by aides is not limited to peripheral non-instructional activities. Teacher aides in Minneapolis and throughout the state of Minnesota are allowed to become involved in the instructional program of the school. The decision level and depth of involvement of each individual aide is left to the judgment of the supervising teacher. This places the responsibility in the arena of the classroom rather than superimposing a static guideline for all teachers and all aides. This policy dictates the necessity for training the professional staff to properly utilize the aide service. Most of this training must be done by the school district since universities and colleges are not prepared for this role. They probably can never fulfill this need because of their remoteness from the schools and the developing nature of this new service. Minneapolis schools have been and are currently involved in the training of their professional staff along with the aide staff in combined clinics and workshops.

In Appendix O there is a diagram which shows the linked stages through which an aide progresses. It must be understood that there is no clear-cut role definition for the various stages of an aide's progress since progression is developmental and depends on job performance as well as training progress. Generally speaking, however, the higher an aide moves up the ladder, the more significant is his direct involvement with children in the instructional program.

There are also no clear-cut credit requirements from either the local training programs (skill training and job orientation) or from the university program. The initial upgrading from Aide I to Aide II implies only a school year of satisfactory experience and acceptable progress within the training program in which the aide is engaged. An Aide I is paid $2.00 per hour and an Aide II is paid $2.46 per hour.

Graduates of the two-year work and training program will be offered a school year contract at approximately $5,000 per year. The range of the contracts offered will be from approximately $4,200 to $6,500 depending on the level of training accomplished and a demonstrated competence to perform a meaningful service.

To understand the flexibility with which a range of factors are built in, consider the following:

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1. Though there are set stages for upgrading, exceptions ·· ? made by promoting aides earlier than their "time in grade" warrants. Some aides are currently being promoted to the "Career Aide" level, almost nine months in advance of the timetable. Others are being advanced to Aide II before their first year is completed. In addition, full credit is given for equivalent experiences in other agencies.

2. A number of aides are being employed as Cultural Education Specialists to assist individual staff members at the University of Minnesota in making the course work more relevant and meaningful. This employment is in addition to the aides' service in the schools; however, adjustments are made in the workweek of each aide to compensate for some of this added employment.

3. Several aides are being trained in roles which provide assistance to the administrative staff of the school system. Coordinating a school's aide staff and advising the school and administrative staff on community concerns are also a part of this role.

4. Those aides who are in training at the University of Minnesota, also receive 2 quarter hours of University credit for their aide work experience in the schools.

5. Professional staff personnel are provided to assist teachers and aides on the job and to coordinate the aides' work experience with the training program.

Future programs, which will begin in September of 1969, are being designed to provide continued education for successful New Career graduates. The primary purpose of these programs is to accelerate the professional education program of the aides and encourage their continuation to the professional degree. At least one of these programs is being developed with the cooperation of suburban school districts. It is our intention to give our New Career graduates an option on these programs or to accept the full employment contract with the Minneapolis Public Schools.

A REPORT ON THE TRAINING OF
TEACHER-AIDES IN EASTERN KENTUCKY

Report by Milan B. Dady

This paper is a composite report of three separate training programs for teacher-aides which have involved the professional staff of Morehead State University; namely the demonstration–training program funded under a grant from OEO, a two-week training program conducted in Elliott County of Kentucky in August of 1968, and a two-county teacher-aide training program presently being conducted. In addition to the training programs described herein, consultant services have been provided the regional schools on a one, two, or three day basis.

It should be pointed up at the outset that the two major problems jeopardizing the continued employment of teacher-aides in eastern Kentucky (auxiliaries employed from Title I funds in eastern Kentucky are commonly referred to as teacher-aides) are the institutionalization of the aides according to guidelines that are recommended universally and their career development. A major limitation in the institutionalization of the teacher-aides is the lack of a sufficient number of aides to provide adequate classroom services for every teacher. In the schools of eastern Kentucky, the ratio of teacher-aides to teachers runs from one to four and as high as from one to ten with one to six seemingly being an average. Career development is hampered because of a lack of permanency in the teacher-aides' employment. Teacher-aides are employed on a year-to-year basis with no guarantees for the future. Obviously, the temporary outlook on teacher-aide services is shared by administrators, teachers and teacher-aides. Presently, only funds received from the State Department of Education through Title I of E. S. E. A. are earmarked to finance the employment of teacher-aides. Consequently, teacher-aides in the same school system usually receive the same amount of money regardless of their qualifications, the services they perform, and/or the number of years they have been employed. Until state and local tax funds are appropriated to finance the employment of teacher-aides, there is little likelihood that conditions will change in eastern Kentucky.

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Teacher-aides perform a variety of tasks in the schools. The three duties most often assigned to them by teachers are the checking, scoring, and grading of children's academic work; the preparation of duplicated materials; and the manufacturing of bulletin board displays. There is a common belief among the professional staffs and the teacher-aides in the schools that these services are of supreme importance to teachers since they are now able to spend more time with the children. In a few classrooms in eastern Kentucky, teacher-aides help children with their classwork, read and tell stories to them, help them with reference materials, provide supervision and help to children involved in remedial work, and listen to children's stories and problems. Teacher-aides also serve as full-time assistants to special personnel, such as the librarian and reading teacher; secretaries to the principals; dispensers of school supplies, ice cream, candy, milk, etc.; helpers at lunch and snack time; menders of children's clothes; substitute teachers; and as general handy persons around the schools.

Process-observers, who were employed to gain insight on the utilization of teacher-aides in selected schools in eastern Kentucky, noted that their predominant use was for clerical purposes, either in relation to the classroom or for the school as a whole. According to the process-observers, the most common clerical duties performed were typing, mimeographing, and grading papers. They also reported that another common function was managing, which involved such things as caring for the audiovisual equipment; organizing the straightening up of classroom furniture, book collection, etc.; and such housekeeping duties as dusting, emptying wastebaskets.

In a further effort to gain insight into the ways in which teacher-aides were being utilized, a group of aides assigned to schools in eastern Kentucky were contacted. They were asked to keep an accurate record of the time devoted to the various tasks assigned to them during a one-week period. They were asked to respond to three questions designed to solicit their opinions about teacher-aide assignments. Usable responses from forty-two teacher-aides were received and tabulated.

According to the responses received from the aides, they typically spent seven hours per day, five days per week, at their assigned school. This time included an average lunch period of thirty minutes which most aides reported they spent eating lunch in the same room used by the pupils, a practice which conformed with their own preference.

When asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the manner in which teacher-aides were utilized in their school, the respondents generally reported that they were placed where they were most needed for good purposes. They expressed a belief that teachers were appreciative of the services performed by the teacher-aides. However, one teacher-aide indicated the school did not know how to use aides, and two other aides objected to being used as cleaning ladies.

In another opinion question, the aides were asked to outline apparent ad-

vantages of their services to the classroom teachers with whom they worked. An advantage most often listed was the increased teacher time freed for work with children needing individual help. Other comments referred to teachers needing to spend less time correcting papers, preparing reports, and on the typing and reproduction of tests and work materials, thus being able to spend more of their time to improve teaching, to work with slow students, and in the evaluation of student needs and efforts. Still other teacher-aides spoke of assisting teachers at recess, during lunch, and in the preparation of instructional materials and bulletin board displays.

In the third opinion question, the aides were asked to list disadvantages to the classroom teacher resulting from the utilization of aides. While most responded "none," a few identified interruptions of the class by aides wanting more work assignments, self-consciousness of teacher at having another adult in the room, children's lack of acceptance of the aide and the confusion resulting from split assignments among several teachers as possible disadvantages.

Tabulation of the time that the teacher-aides reported spending in various assignments disclosed the following average distribution for the work week involved in the study:

Area	Average Time Reported	Percent
Classroom Responsibilities	24 Hrs. 25 Min.	72%
Clerical Responsibilities	5 25	13
Monitorial Responsibilities	2 40	8
Own Lunch Period	2 30	7
	35 Hrs.	100%

While teacher-aides reported spending an average weekly assignment of twenty-four hours and twenty-five minutes (72%) in classroom responsibilities, it was ascertained through on-the-spot observations that the teacher-aides in the selected schools spent more than half of their time outside the classroom. Further analysis of the responses noting classroom responsibilities indicated that the aides were assigned predominantly to checking tests and homework and to preparing or duplicating seat work, and other instructional materials. Nearly thirty-seven per cent of the time reported being spent in classroom responsibilities was devoted to such duties, a figure which represented almost one-quarter of the aides' total work week.

The information concerning the work assignments of teacher-aides in eastern Kentucky has been compiled from three entirely separate studies in which different school systems have been involved. The remarkably close correlation between the results obtained from each study seems to indicate that the composite report submitted in this paper is accurate.

As has been stated previously, the career development plan for teach-

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aides is not yet in the talking stage. Job titles and lines have not been institutionalized. All auxiliaries are retained on the teacher-aide level with all aides receiving the same amount of money for their services. A discussion of career development is a basic part of every training program, (even one-day workshops) and teacher-aides are very much interested. Administrators in eastern Kentucky refuse to tackle the problem until the state legislature guarantees the employment of auxiliaries in the schools. A concern of teachers is how much of a graduated scale can we have for auxiliaries when many teachers with college degrees are making 5,000 to $5,500 a year? In eastern Kentucky, the paraprofessional program would probably be dropped immediately if the teacher-aides organized a union, or if they attempted to form a separate organization for themselves.

To better understand the teacher-aide trainees in eastern Kentucky, batteries of standardized tests have been administered and scored. Due to the lack of adult norms, however, the scores have been computed from the norms normally used to compare the achievements of adolescents in the twelfth year of the secondary schools or in the first semester of the freshman year in college. Observations of the trainees while in training and on-the-job seem to indicate that if adult norms were available for the intelligence tests, the trainees might have scored higher than the reported scores. Results of the testing are reported below.

OEO Demonstration-Training Program—(37 trainees—36 women and 1 man):

Ages:
Highest Age 51 years
Median Age 20 years
Lowest Age 18 years

College Qualification Tests: (Percentile Rankings)

Numerical:
Highest Score 80 Percentile
Median Score 20 Percentile
Lowest Score 1 Percentile

All Sections:
Highest Score 65 Percentile
Median Score 15 Percentile
Lowest Score 1 Percentile

Davis Reading Test: (Percentile Rankings)

Comprehension:
Highest Score 95 Percentile
Median Score 24 Percentile
Lowest Score 1 Percentile

Speed:
Highest Score 93 Percentile
Median Score 22 Percentile
Lowest Score 1 Percentile

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APPENDIX E

Otis Intelligence Test: (I.Q. Scores)

Highest Score 119 I.Q. Score
Median Score 100 I.Q. Score
Lowest Score 75 I.Q. Score

Present Training Program—(81 trainees—all women):
Ages

Highest Age 60 Years
Median Age 33 Years
Lowest Age 17 Years

Otis-Lennon Intelligence Test:

	I.Q. Score	Percentile
Highest Score	107	62
Median Score	86	15
Lowest Score	63	1

At the present time, it is futile to attempt an assessment of the in-school educational benefits resulting from the utilization of teacher-aides in the schools of eastern Kentucky. However, a sociological phenomenon outside the school seems to be emerging in communities where women from disadvantaged families are being employed as teacher-aides. For the first time in their married life, many of these women are having opportunities to get out of the home, dress and act like middle-class women, and communicate with people outside their immediate family. As mothers and grandmothers, these women are developing new attitudes toward schools, teachers, and society in general. Unlike the men from disadvantaged homes working on federal programs, who retain their identity by keeping their long-established grooming and dressing habits, the women employed as teacher-aides come to school dressed like the women teachers. As one observes and works with the women teacher-aides from the disadvantaged homes in eastern Kentucky, he becomes convinced that they are assuming the dominant role in their household, such as the chief bread winner and the person who is determining the importance of education for their children.

At Morehead State University, twenty-five topics have been identified as being essential to the training programs for teacher-aides in eastern Kentucky. Depending on local conditions, topics for one-, two- or three-days workshops are selected from the list. In all training sessions, however, attention is addressed to the first three topics:

1. Human Growth and Development of Children
2. Team Approach to Training and Working
3. Career Development of Auxiliaries
4. Introduction to Auxiliary Programs
5. Desirable Characteristics of Auxiliaries

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6. Self-Improving of Auxiliaries in Etiquette, Dress, and Grooming
7. Discovering the Learning Characteristics of Adults
8. Techniques of Group Discussions
9. Working Relationships Between All Personnel in the Schools
10. Benefits from Using Disadvantaged Persons as Auxiliaries
11. Understanding the Role of the Teacher in American Society
12. Improving Home-School Relationships
13. Preparing Display Materials, Such as Bulletin Boards, Charts, Graphs, Maps, and Posters
14. Becoming an Audiovisual Technician
15. Introduction to Clerical Skills
16. Assignment of Monitorial and Routine Duties to Auxiliaries
17. Health and Safety in the Schools
18. How to Conduct a Home Visit
19. Preparing and Scoring Tests
20. Working With Children Individually or in Small Groups
21. Introduction to Teaching
22. Introduction to Reading Instruction
23. Introduction to Arithmetic Instruction
24. Sociological Conditions Affecting Learning in the Classroom
25. Self-Improvement of Auxiliaries in Basic Learning Skills

ABSTRACT OF AUXILIARY UTILIZATION PROGRAM IN BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

Report by Karl Openshaw, Adena Joy and Jerome H. Gilbert

PURPOSES

1. To enhance the possibility that children from low-income families will succeed in school by bringing parents and teachers into a working relationship within the school, with the goal of modifying positively the behavior of all three—pupils, parents, and teachers.
2. To promote recognition and understanding by parents and teachers of each other's reward and restraints system and ways of meeting children's development.
3. To establish lines of communication among the school staff, the children, and their parents not otherwise involved in the program.
4. To increase the sensitivity of the school faculty toward the life style, concerns, child rearing patterns, and the language of the community by means of summer preservice and a continuing inservice education program for teachers and aides.
5. To increase the relevance of education in terms of occupational mobility and personal development for parents employed as aides so that they, in turn, may pass on to their children their enhanced view of education.

PROGRAM HIGHLIGHTS

The program was developed in four schools in West Berkeley—an area of lowest income in the Berkeley Unified School District. Only one of these schools, Columbus University Laboratory School, was studied intensively. Seventeen parents of children in the Columbus University Laboratory School were employed as aides in that school. Of these, 14 were assigned to work in the classroom, one in the library, and two in the guidance learning center. Under the direction of the guidance consultant the two guidance aides helped upper grade children (grades three through six) who had difficulty meeting the demands of their teachers, classmates, and their school environment. The

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14 teacher-aides, under the direction of the teacher, spent most of their time in skills training with individual or small groups. They also relieved the teacher of some nonteaching tasks, improved communication with parents, and helped develop plans for parent and community involvement in the schools.

The schooling of the aides ranged from tenth grade to two-and-a-half years of college. In age, the aides ranged from 25 to 60. Their average income for 1965–66 had been $3,214. Eight had received unemployment or welfare assistance. All were black except one Mexican–American married to a black man. All had participated as aides in a pilot project in 1966–67.

TRAINING

Summer 1967

In the summer of 1967, the principal, five teachers, and five teacher-aides worked as a team to rewrite the previously developed reading program. The teachers and the principal wrote a guide, a supplement to the guide, and several hundred learning experiences for the program. The teacher-aides produced games and other work materials.

Inservice Training 1967–68

The preservice training was brief because all aides had been employed in the program in the previous year. The inservice meetings were held weekly for two hours after school, with stipends for both teachers and aides. The inservice program consisted of four components: 1) Career development for aides; 2) group meetings of teachers and aides; 3) training of teachers and aides to help children improve their skills in reading; and 4) team leader training (i.e., training of trainers).

The career development component is premised, in part, upon assessment of the aides' interests, potential, and proficiencies, expansion of their knowledge of the job opportunities available inside and outside the school system, and facilitation of the aides' enrollment in college or other training programs. Aides are encouraged to rise on the educational career ladder or to enter other occupations, in part, so that more parents from the low-income school community can be included in the program. Career development courses for the aides in the project schools were conducted at Merritt Junior College in Alameda County. Aides received one hour's pay for attending each two-hour session at high school, college, or occupational training courses.

The content and process for the group meetings of teachers and aides evolved in response to feedback from the program analysis. Unique features of the inservice education model as it developed were: 1) Discussion of empirical data concerning the utilization of aides in the classroom and of situa-

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tional case studies (see next section "Design for Program Analysis" for methods of data collection); and 2) the encouragement of self-assessment through "sensitivity training." Feedback proved to be a means of focusing teacher and teacher-aide interaction on real concerns in a nonthreatening way.

The purposes of the training program for both teachers and aides were characterized in the project description as: 1) reflection on the learning–teaching process as it is carried on in a school setting with particular reference to curriculum and classroom expectations; and 2) learning more about each other's values, world views and modes of child rearing as they influence teaching and learning.

For the aides, there were some differentiated objectives: 1) to further career development by increasing their awareness of the range of occupations available to them, and the training required for each; and raising the level of their aspirations, both in terms of occupations and education; and 2) to promote and facilitate community action.

To facilitate informality and to maximize participation, four subgroupings were formed with four teachers and the aides assigned to each of them. The basic plan was to meet in subgroups except for special occasions when the entire group would be convened. Once a month, all aides met together for career development programs. The teachers had no meeting on that day.

The team leaders also met periodically with a specialist in group process for leadership training.

The designated leaders of the small groups—three teachers and the guidance consultant—met for two hours every week together with representatives from aide programs in the other three schools.

Summer of 1968

The principal, six teachers, and six aides reconstructed the kindergarten program. The principal wrote a guide to help teachers account for the conditions prerequisite to learning in their instructional plans and teaching. The principal and the kindergarten teachers developed a sequence of behavorial tasks and the teachers devised several hundred learning experiences which should promote proficiency in the accomplishment of these tasks. Some teacher-aides constructed kits of materials, games and other activities for the program while teachers revised several hundred learning activities for the reading program and teacher-aides reproduced them and constructed games and other materials for the reading program. In these ways, parents as aides, and teachers worked together to improve programs of instruction for children.

DESIGN FOR PROGRAM ANALYSIS

The behavior of the aides and teachers in the class was recorded through

classroom observations. The classroom observation form dealt with two general areas of aide and teacher activity: interaction with children and manipulation of materials. There was an additional category of "inactivity" where teacher or aide did not appear to be engaged in any task. Sometimes apparent inactivity is, in fact, observation. The difference between apparent and actual inactivity was taken into consideration. Record was kept also of interaction between teacher and aide. The activity of both teacher and aide was recorded each minute for a 30-minute period. Six successive observations were made in each of 14 classrooms at different periods of the day for each observation.

Communications with and involvement of parent-aides were assessed through observations of weekly inservice meetings. Community involvement was assessed through other out-of-classroom activities.

Forms were developed for training meeting observations, which focused on content, member participation, leader distribution and decision making. Other forms developed were: response to meetings forms for both aides and teachers, structured interviews with aides and with teachers, and forced-choice questionnaires formulated from statements by teachers and aides regarding the values of the aide in the classroom.

PRINCIPAL FINDINGS REGARDING AIDE UTILIZATION

The principal change in the utilization of aides over a period of time was a reduction in inactivity and noninstructional tasks, which was as high as 28% on the first observation and had been reduced by the final observation to 9%. Meantime aides' interaction with pupils gradually increased. At midpoint, aides spent 27% of their time in pupil interaction and by the end of the project 37% of their time. The picture presented by the final averages of aides' interaction with children for only 37% of the time, while working with things or being inactive 62% of the time suggests that they were not generally involved in the learning–teaching process.[1] However, there are great differences between individual scores. Some teachers had their aides interact with pupils more than 50% of the time; some for nearly 70%.

There appeared to be significant differences between the instruction-focused teachers (i.e., high in instructional time) and group-focused teachers (i.e., high in monitoring and supervising time) when correlations between teacher style and aide utilization were made. In general it appeared that group-focused teachers used their aides more effectively than the instruction-focused teachers. The effectiveness was assessed in terms of the value system underlying this study, which stressed a high proportion of pupil interaction, a subordinate proportion of routine tasks, and as low a proportion as possible of inactivity. The inactivity rate for the aides of the group-focused teachers was

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[1] 1% of the aides' time was spent in interaction between teacher and aide.

lower, and the pupil-interaction rate was higher than the rates for the other group.

Other factors which affected aide utilization, particularly the increase in the interaction between aides and pupils, were: 1) Programmatic changes incorporated by the project director as a result of feedback from analysis (i.e., each aide served two teachers rather than working on a one-to-one basis, so that the relatively short time they—teacher and aide—had together was more carefully planned); 2) the modified inservice training which stressed sharing of experiences and self-evaluation in the inservice education (see following section, Modified Inservice Training Model); and 3) the gradual evolution of a modus operandi through experimentation, analysis, feedback and joint planning by each teacher—auxiliary team.

MODIFIED INSERVICE TRAINING MODEL

As a result of feedback from the data analysis and the subsequent suggestions from participants, the approach to the inservice training was restructured. Teachers and aides met separately every other week on the assumption that they would be more free in discussion under such circumstances. The process observer's profiles of the teachers' and teacher-aides' classroom behavior were used as subjects for discussions as well as data derived from interviews and questionnaires. This information made teachers and aides more aware of how they were perceived by others and helped them assess their behavior and feelings. The discussions were conducted in groups of aides alone, teachers alone, combined groups of teachers and aides, and in meetings of the process observer with a teacher and her aide or with the teacher by herself.

Role playing, another innovation in the second term, led to discussion of better handling of some questions as well as better ways of presenting self. Still another change was that a process observer was selected to supplement the chairman's task-oriented leadership. The four chairmen and four process observers constituted a leadership team which met for special training with a consultant in group dynamics.

These examples indicate the nature of the restructuring of the inservice training, out of which evolved a program emphasizing the use of data analysis as feedback for discussion, and the encouragement of self-assessment by the participants—the two elements identified as unique in the program as it finally developed. Both these components of training appear effective for increasing understanding, communication and acceptance of new roles and relationships within a school system.

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IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROGRAM

1. To initiate a program for the utilization of aides is a difficult and delicate operation, which calls for a) restructuring of preservice education for teachers in which they learn to share with aides their responsibilities to children in the classroom; and b) new training approaches and techniques for the preparation of auxiliary personnel.
2. Since the perceptions and abilities of aides and of teachers are major determinants in the success of any program of aide utilization, great care must be exercised in the selection process.
3. Some type of individual observation and evaluation with opportunity for feedback and discussion of specific cases holds great promise for improvement of utilization of auxiliary personnel.
4. Continuous, intensive inservice education for all school personnel is essential, with the leadership for such education residing in persons not directly responsible for the school program.
5. Released time for planning by teachers and auxiliaries should be included in the school schedule each day.

The implications listed above are stated definit.vely because they are based upon analysis of data. In addition, a more impressionistic analysis of the total project resulted in consensus by school personnel, community leaders and program analysts that the utilization of parents of children in a given school as aides in that school apparently makes an important contribution to improving home–school communication.

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ABSTRACT OF AUXILIARY UTILIZATION PROGRAM IN DETROIT, MICHIGAN

Report by Lawrence Alexander and Aileen Selick

RATIONALE

The expansion of roles in modern education seems almost limitless, but at the point where the child or youth comes in contact with the educational system—the classroom—little significant change has taken place. And significant change must take place now if schools are to meet the demands of a society in transition.

All too frequently teachers do not change in any meaningful way because they cannot change. The daily demands of their jobs—emotional and physical—and the frequency with which these demands occur, often prevent teachers frc 'oing anything much beyond surviving. Improvement in the teaching of ⸀ pils, the only improvement that has any real value in the whole busineess of education, will not come until the teacher's role has been made manageable. The use of auxiiliary personnel promises to be an excellent opportunity to make that role more manageable.

Moreover, the chain reaction which was touched off by a police raid on July 23, 1967 became one of the most destructive civil disturbances in this century. Clearly something had been done to stimulate a total community rife with fear, bewilderment, disorganization and disenchantment. Shortly before this crisis, the Detroit Public Schools recognized the importance of developing new jobs which were accessible to persons unable to compete in the existing job market.

The convergence of these two needs for the improvement of the teaching of pupils and for the creation of separate channels of job development and job experience led the Detroit Public Schools to enter into the Concentrated Employment Project, for which funds were available from several federal programs.

PROGRAM HIGHLIGHTS

The school system created 165 auxiliary personnel positions in five

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schools, all situated in the special impact area. All enrollees were required to live in this area and to be unemployed or underemployed. All enrollment services were assumed by a special program of the Mayor's Committee for Human Resources Development, including preemployment counseling.

The age range of those employed was 19 through 60 years. Fourteen were male and 151 female, despite special recruitment and preferment in the selection process for male auxiliaries. Past criminal records did not disqualify applicants except for persons convicted of sexual crime or those with any allied prison record involving children. Several males and females with prison records were employed and proved to be competent auxiliaries. During the first five months following the late start of the project, only 20 persons were terminated, of whom 12 were released for reasons of health.

One of the project schools was an elementary school, three were junior high schools and one was a senior high school. There were three classifications of auxiliaries: service aides, neighborhood aides and classroom aides. The staff included a part time director, a coordinator and five coaches (one for each school). The coaches acted as trainers, counselors, supervisors and advocates of the auxiliaries and generally as liaison between the auxiliaries and the school system. They were responsible in dual fashion to the principal of the school and the project director. The coordinator and the five coaches were selected by a procedure designed to include community participation in the decision making.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

The directive for the creation of an Advisory Committee reads as follows:

"American public education is based upon a partnership of citizens and school personnel. Throughout our history, both on the national and local stage, citizens have played a major part in the origin, development and support of public education. Citizens have been and still are the custodians of our American heritage. . . .

"The Urban Area Employment Project affords a significant opportunity to strengthen this policy, emphasizing the basic goal of partnership in educational leadership, through the establishment of an Advisory Committee specially charged with the provision of sound advice to the school system in the development and implementation of auxiliary personnel into the educational process.

"This Advisory Committee shall be composed of eleven members representing: each of the four MCHRD target areas (4); the coaching staff of UAEP (1); the administrative staff of the schools in UAEP (1); the teaching staff of the schools in UAEP (1); the Michigan Employment Security Commission

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(1); the auxiliary training staff of the UAEP-Bank Street (1); the trainees in UAEP (2).

"Personnel Practices Subcommittee shall be formed by the Advisory Board of UAEP for purposes of assuring the best possible employer-employee relationship and of affording staff participation in the formulation and revision of established practices."

In actual practice, these groups functioned on a monthly basis in formal fashion and sometimes daily in a less formal way. Representation of total groups (i.e., teachers, auxiliaries, administrators) is difficult to achieve on an equitable basis without increasing the membership of each committee. There were opportunities (regularly scheduled) for project principals to meet, for project coaches to meet, and to some degree for school faculties to share with delegates, but adequate representation from each classification and school placement of auxiliaries has not been achieved. Because of the critical nature of these boards and the degree of commitment of the Detroit Public Schools to their meaningful function, efforts are being made to strengthen this representation and recommendations for future projects will include careful consideration of procedures which will ensure the opportunity for interaction of auxiliaries.

INITIAL ATTITUDE TOWARD PROGRAM

Most staff viewed the "invasion" of large numbers of aides with apprehension. Few understood the program. Generally negative attitudes existed toward "unemployables." Administrators were concerned about extra work loads. Many school people felt defensive toward a community in ferment. Aides viewed the school as the symbol of the establishment—a symbol of previous failure. Aides lacked confidence in their own ability.

PROGRAM ORIENTATION

Principals were selected for experience and administrative skill and, most importantly, for previously demonstrated flexibility. The assistant superintendent was involved in the planning at an early stage. He contacted the region superintendents and set up a meeting with the region superintendents, principals and project director. Principals or assistant principals from each school met with the project director and coordinator. Planning meetings were held with 10 to 15 representatives from each of the five schools, including the principal, department heads, lunchroom manager, custodian, school counselor, school–community agent and some senior teachers. There were meetings for participants from each school with the coach assigned to that school to discuss

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the program in more detail and identify problems unique to each school. Principals and coaches then met to plan initial stages of program within each school. The aides and principals met for the first time at a Christmas party organized by the aides. Workshops followed for entire staff of each school at which the principal presented the program and invited discussion which proved to be valuable as catharsis.

OPERATION OF THE PROGRAM

The aides were assigned tentatively for the first four weeks to teachers and counselors who had volunteered to participate in the program. Staff members were assured the aide would be reassigned if the team did not appear to function well. At first, in each school, a small cadre of teachers volunteered to accept aides. When news of the advantage of having aides was communicated through the school, other teachers "t ok the plunge." In all schools after the second week there were more requests for aides than could be filled.

In the high school, groups of aides were assigned to department heads. Pools of aides were developed for teachers who did not have an aide specifically assigned. Assignments were worked out on a case by case basis by the coach in each school.

There was an opportunity for aides, too, to participate in the selection of roles they would perform, i.e., as classroom aides, neighborhood aides or service aides. The classroom and neighborhood aides had more responsibility and higher compensation. The functions of the service aides were largely clerical, monitorial and housekeeping. There were increments for all trainees at regular intervals in five steps to the maximum salary. Those who preferred starting as service aides also had the opportunity to apply for transfer to classroom aide or neighborhood aide after a period of work experience.

TRAINING

The objectives of the training program were twofold: to teach skills that would be useful in the school and in the world of work, and to teach how to be responsible members of a working force. It should be emphasized that each school should develop its own task descriptions to meet its own particular requirements and each teacher should apply these task descriptions to the particular aide and the needs of his pupils. As the situation changes over time, the changes should be reflected in the job descriptions and in training objectives.

The preservice training covered a ten-week period, 40 hours weekly. Inservice training was conducted from 3:00 to 4:30 during the aides' workday.

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Together the coordinator, coaches and director were primarily responsible for conducting what amounted to sensitivity training and for calling in speakers as needed to meet expressed needs. The coordinator conducted the large group meetings while the coaches worked arbitrarily with small groups of (30). Informal discussions included career guidance.

It was suggested that in the future the preservice program should begin with two weeks devoted exclusively to orientation subjects. The remaining eight weeks should be organized so that in the morning the aides could continue their academic work and in the afternoon they could spend time in the schools getting on-the-job training.

Such a curriculum would have several advantages: 1) it would reduce the amount of unused time; 2) it would permit feedback and interaction between their school experiences and their academic studies; 3) it would assist in developing more realistic attitudes regarding their roles in the school; 4) it would allow the aides to apply abstract principles to actual situations and even more importantly, to abstract principles from analysis of experience; 5) it would provide an opportunity to revise the training program to conform to the requirements of the school; 6) it would facilitate the operation of aide-teacher workshops, which should begin as early as possible in the training period; and 7) it would facilitate realistic planning on the part of teachers and administrators in developing new and better ways of incorporating aides in the schools.

IMPACT OF THE PROGRAM

The Detroit Program had been in operation for less than four weeks at the time of this initial report and it was too early to be able to identify any impact of the program that is likely to have any permanence. Nevertheless, all the participants stated that the most obvious effect was the decrease in disciplinary problems in all parts of the school. They all were convinced that this would ultimately have a salutary effect on the educational process. As one teacher put it: "Just keeping the kids out of the halls and in the classrooms ought to have some effect on their education."

This point of view is acceptable if combined with the evident fact that teachers have more time to teach in their classrooms, due to the assistance of the aides, and feel more relaxed because they have to spend less time paying attention to disciplinary problems. The effect of the latter situation was specifically mentioned by a number of principals. They said that the morale of the staff had never been higher.

In evaluating the effect of future aide programs, one should not expect immediate evidence of increased pupil achievement. Immediate effects in discipline can be obtained. However, scholastic gains can only occur after the

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aides are integrated into the school system and basic modifications in instructional techniques have been introduced and tried.

SUMMARY OF IMPLICATIONS

1. The Detroit Urban Area Employment Project showed that a sample of 165 unemployed inner-city people can be successfully introduced into primary and secondary schools. These people, who were considered "unemployable," a label connotating inability to learn usable work skills, demonstrated the falsity of this stereotype and showed a high level of personal discipline and resourcefulness.

2. Observations of the Detroit program convinced the author that an auxiliary aide program can contribute to raising the achievement level of pupils and can provide an adequate career ladder for the aides. However, in order to attain these objectives, financial support for a program should be planned in at least five-year modules. Such support will guarantee the continuity and stability necessary to permit integration of aides into a school and allow orderly evolution of new school procedures based on experience.

3. The Detroit program demonstrated that a large number of aides, amounting in some schools to one-third the size of the regular staff, and an equal number at the elementary schools, can be successfully integrated into ongoing school functions if adequate provision is made to handle the additional administrative duties and responsibilities of the program. In the Detroit program this was accomplished by adding a coach to the principal's staff.

4. The procedure of assigning aides to staff members on a voluntary basis had many advantages which largely contributed to the successful introduction of the program: a) It increased the probability that teachers who volunteer will be willing to develop techniques for effectively employing the aides in the educational process; b) it insured that teachers having negative attitudes toward the program will not be assigned aides; c) it provided a method of rapidly demonstrating the usefulness of aides.

5. Negative attitudes toward the program were modified by arranging for catharsis in staff meetings and opportunities for the aides and the school staff to meet and work together before the aides began working. These meetings were supported by specifically designated budgetary funds.

6. Special classes, workshops, and seminars for career development of the the aides were successfully introduced due to provision of adequate budgetary support of equipment, personnel, and space.

GUIDE FOR TRAINING EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANTS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

By Rose Pernice with the assistance of Marion Armstrong

Auxiliary personnel have been introduced into the school system to improve pupil learning and provide meaningful employment for a disadvantaged population.

Training is essential to ensure the effective functioning of the new classroom team (teacher and educational assistant) in the learning–teaching process. The training program must be sequential. A special curriculum and appropriate material must be developed, and ongoing evaluation incorporated into the program. The training of auxiliary personnel is viewed from a broad-based new careers approach and must involve the classroom teacher as a learner along with the auxiliary.

OBJECTIVES

Major goals for the training of the classroom team are:
1. To utilize the day-to-day classroom experiences as the basis for increasing skills and developing seminar topics.
2. To stimulate and encourage the development of new roles and new modes of interaction.

The successful training program, therefore, should result in the following outcomes: greater pupil achievement; positive pupil self-image; better school–community relations; improved teacher morale and decreasd staff turnover; and an interest in teaching on the part of traditionally excluded minorities.

SPECIAL COMPONENTS

The career-oriented training of educational assistants includes remediation and counseling by the staff of City University, and courses on the college level.

The Board cf Education Trainers will be responsible for the following.

Initial Orientation

An initial service training period of two weeks duration is suggested for new educational assistants. The daily schedule should be divided into two sessions—one-half day of group training and one-half day of guided observation and limited classroom participation.

The auxiliaries receive orientation to the school system and specific training in selected classroom tasks. During this time, essential background data on each educational assistant is gathered.

Inservice Training

Regularly scheduled sessions (the minimum equivalent of one day per month) should be provided for new and incumbent educational assistants consisting of:
1. Generic Training—which includes the theoretical principles derived from the auxiliary's role in the classroom (e.g., psychology, child development, etc.)
2. Skills Training—which stresses skills acquisition related to the specific classroom tasks the auxiliary performs.
3. Human Relations Training—or team training, which focuses on role perceptions, and interaction with others.

Participation of Professionals

Professional personnel (supervisors and classroom teachers) should receive basic orientation regarding the new careers movement in education.

The heart of the program, however, for the successful utilization of educational assistants depends upon ongoing team training involving both the classroom teacher and auxiliary assigned.

METHODOLOGY

Staff Trainers

The most effective trainer of auxiliaries and the teachers with whom they work should have: 1) Familiarity with tasks the educational assistant will be expected to perform; 2) background in early childhood education; 3) skills in group techniques; 4) information about the new careers movement; 5) knowledge of, and rapport with, the members of the community to be served.

Techniques

Current studies indicate that paraprofessionals in the human services

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should be trained principally in small groups of 12 to 15.

While a variety of techniques may be utilized, an activity-centered approach which stresses the "learn by doing" principle is strongly urged. Whenever possible, both theory and application should be included in each session.

The techniques below are suggested as especially relevant to the training of auxiliary personnel. The trainer, however, as an experienced teacher, should supplement these methods with those in her own repertoire.

1. Demonstrations
2. Workshops
3. Role Playing—A few educational assistants act out their own and others' roles in a given setting. The behavior elicited becomes the basis for discovering the feelings of others, developing alternative responses, and evaluating the reactions.
4. Job Simulation—Selected educational assistants are required to play a part that is limited to a typical classroom task. Other participants are asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the performance. Self-confidence and job competency are developed by providing a secure setting for experimenting with new patterns of behavior.
5. Seminars
6. Multi-Media—Utilization of wide variety of audiovisual materials emphasizing a multi-sensory approach to learning.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

Initial Service Period

1. Orientation—To assure the educational assistant's rapid adjustment to the school and classroom, the training during this period should include the following minimal essentials:
   a. Overview of the New Careers Movement
   b. Orientation to the School System
      (1) Organizational patterns
      (2) Professional staff, etc.
   c. Personnel Matters
      (1) Benefits
      (2) Other business
   d. Elementary School Program
      (1) Physical plant
      (2) Routines, etc.
2. Samples of Session Breakdown
   Session   I   Welcome and Introduction
                   Administrative Details (personnel matters, etc.)

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Question and Answer Period

Overview of the New Careers Movement

Session II **Orientation to the School System**

Organization and Professional Staff, etc.

Elementary School Program (physical plant, routines, etc.)

Demonstration and Practice (miscellaneous record keeping)

Session III **Early Childhood Structure (K-2)**

Physical Set-Up

Daily Program

Routines

Demonstrations and Practice (rexographing, etc.)

Session IV **The Role of the Educational Assistant**

Role Expectations

Job Description

Training (projected design and schedule, needs as perceived by educational assistant.)

Inservice Period

This material has been developed in response to suggestions from educational assistants, teachers and supervisors. It should be considered suggestive rather than prescriptive. Trainers must be flexible enough to respond to the suggestions of the participant.

Emphasis on counseling and guidance is implicit throughout the training of all auxiliary personnel.

1. Curriculum Outline
   a. Understandings (Generic)
      (1) Philosophy and Goals of Education
      (2) Child Development
      (3) Learning–Teaching Theories
      (4) Sociological Factors
   b. Early Childhood Curriculum
   c. Skills
      (1) Clerical
      (2) Monitorial
      (3) Basic
   d. Human Relations
2. Session Brakdown

Although the opening date of school is uncertain,[1] 16 training sessions are outlined on the basis of two meetings per month, for the period from November through June. (Half-day sessions of alternate weeks are recommended.)

[1]Uncertainty was due to teacher's strike.

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The following is a suggested model for the inservice training of educational assistants assigned to kindergarten, first and second grades.

Session   I   **Early Childhood Structure**
Orientation to Classroom Organization (areas of interest, room arrangement and equipment)
Distribution and Discussion of Guidelines for Classroom Observation
Demonstration and Workshop (selection and preparation of illustrations, picture files, picture dictionaries and bulletin boards.)

Session   II   **Child Development**
Characteristics of the Young Child (4- to 6-years old)
Early Childhood Programs (objectives, classroom routines)
Demonstration and Practice (manuscript writing)

Session   III   **Child Development**
How Young Children learn (play: exploration, experimentation, manipulation)
Activities and Materials (house play, block corner, etc.)
Demonstration and Workshop (puzzles, table games, "realia," etc.)

Session   IV   **Intellectual Growth and Language Development**
Readiness for Learning (motor and sensory development, experiential background, concept development)
Listening and Speaking Skills (methods, materials, activities)
Demonstration and Workshop (finger plays, felt or flannel board, story telling)

Session   V   **Language Arts**
Reading Readiness (auditory and visual discrimination, comprehension skills, getting and expressing ideas, literary appreciation)
Methods, Materials, Activities
Demonstration and Workshop (manuscript writing, lotto, miscellaneous games)

Session   VI   **Language Arts**
Beginning Reading (approaches, materials, activities)
Demonstration and Workshop (Basal Readers, experience charts)

Session   VII   **Language Arts**
Integration (speech and writing activities, other curriculum areas)
Teaching English as a Second Language (methods, materials, activities)
Demonstration and Workshop (story telling, puppets, etc.)

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Session VIII   **Guidance and Discipline**
Principles and Practices (methods, materials, activities)
The Role of the Educational Assistant (teacher support, relationships with parents, etc.)
Demonstration and Participation (role playing and other techniques)

Session IX   **A Multi-Media Approach to Learning**
Learning Theories
Integration of Curriculum Areas (emphasis on language arts)
Methods, Materials, Activities (physical arrangements, programmatic provisions)
Demonstration and Workshop (film and slide projector, tape recorder; connecting box and earphones)

Session X   **Math**
Topics Covered (knowledge, concepts, skills, understandings)
Techniques, Materials, Activities
Demonstration and Workshop (toys, "realia," environmental objects)

Session XI   **Science**
Topics Covered (knowledge, skills, understandings)
Methods, Material, Activities
Demonstration and Workshop (blocks, water, "realia," etc.)

Session XII   **Music**
Objectives (learnings and materials, expression and appreciation)
Demonstration and Workshop (instruments, rhythms, songs)

Session XIII   **Art**
Objectives of Work–Play Period (learnings and materials, expression and appreciation)
Demonstration and Workshop (poster, fingerpaints, collage, clay, etc.)

Session XIV   **Social Studies**
Course of Study (objectives, understandings, concepts and skills)
Related Learning Activities (integration of curriculum areas, community relations and resources, emphasis on language arts)
Demonstration and Workshop (finger plays, dramatization, etc.)

Session XV   **Health and Safety**
Learnings (knowledge, skills, attitudes, practices)

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	Adult Responsibilities (routines, records, referrals)
	Demonstration and Workshop (charts, games, etc.)
Session XVI	**Evaluation**
	Knowledge and Skill Acquisition (inservice training, class-room experience, suggestions for further training)
	Role Fulfillment
	Discussion of Summer and Fall Plans (employment/study)

MATERIALS

Specially designed materials have been prepared to implement the suggested scope and sequence. These will be forwarded to you under separate cover. Trainers are expected and encouraged to supplement these with teacher-made materials.

The following is a partial listing of sources that may be contacted for visits (demonstration or regular programs), speakers, and appropriate materials.

New York City Board of Education

1. Bureau of Audiovisual Instruction—miscellaneous materials (films, tapes, etc.)
2. Specialists—Supervisors of Early Childhood, Audiovisual Instruction, Community Coordinators, etc.
3. Publications (Refer to Early Childhood curriculum bulletins)

Outside Resources

1. Public Library
2. Local Health Center
3. Neighborhood and community agencies, etc.

THE TEAM APPROACH

The development of a team approach in education requires cooperation, sensitivity, leadership, flexibility and commitment. It may be described as concentric circles of teams within teams—the classroom team, the total school team, and the home–school team—with the child at the core.

The fulfillment of each child's potential depends upon the effective functioning of the classroom team (professional and paraprofessional) mobilized to a common goal.

Within the structure of the school the varied resources and talents of the total school staff (administrative, pedagogical, etc.) must be meshed to serve the special needs of children from disadvantaged communities.

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The successful educational process cannot be directed by an isolated school operating as an independent institution. The broader goals of socially and personally relevant education can only be achieved as a result of the shared function of a home–school partnership.

Team Training

Through flexible scheduling, new and incumbent teachers and auxiliaries should be trained jointly for a minimum of one 50-minute period per week (Special Circular #17, 1968–69, dated October 11, 1968).

Joint training of the classroom teacher and educational assistant is an essential ingredient in the team approach to the learning–teaching process. (In fact, federal guidelines for funding mandate it!) The successful classroom team operation depends upon the ability of the teacher and auxiliary to learn new roles and develop new styles of interaction. A variety of experiences may be necessary to stimulate and encourage such growth. Appropriate activities might include: weekly one-to-one conferences (classroom teacher and educational assistant); monthly joint meetings (small groups of teachers and educational assistants); alternate week peer interaction groups (teachers separately, educational assistants separately).

Areas of Concern

Team members must learn new skills, attitudes and understandings. The following topics are suggested for exploration and development:
1. Role Concepts
   The teacher's changing role
   The educational assistant's developing role
2. Overlapping Duties and Responsibilities
3. Individual Needs and Differences—talents, interests, contributions, etc.
4. Cooperative or Team Planning
   Daily and long range (class trips, cooking, etc.)
   Development of materials
   Role of the educational assistant in lesson development
   Parent relations—contacts, activities, etc.
5. Analysis of The Teaching Process and Functions
6. Cooperative Evaluation of Team Efforts
   Goals for children
   Goals for adults

The Role of The Trainers

This most important aspect of training, the joint participation of professional and auxiliary, involves a special constellation of attributes on the part of the trainers. The following appear necessary for trainers:

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Recognition of the importance of interpersonal relations
Openness to communication
Knowledge of how adults learn
Ability to stimulate attitudinal and behavorial changes
Ability to serve as a catalyst in synthesizing team spirit
System know-how

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

The ramifications of such agents for change, in education and the wider society, are limited only by our own resourcefulness, imagination and creativity.

CONTENT AREAS

Since there are a number of new compentencies and modes of behavior which school personnel involved in auxiliary utilization will need to acquire, some specific suggestions are made below on what is needed in this type of training for auxiliaries and teachers.

FOR AUXILIARIES

Foundations of Social and Behavioral Sciences

Human Growth and Development

The successive stages of child development studied in relation to interaction with children in the classroom and in relation to auxiliaries' own children; the learning process; how abstract thinking develops; how children absorb and express meaningful experiences; how they develop and expand their capacities; how spontaneous play serves as a mechanism for learning and release; how mastery of skill and knowledge is related to basic drives; and how attitudes and values take shape.

The School as an Institution

1. Brief history of the school as an institution in America; basic purposes of the school: To promote intellectual, mastery, socialization, acquisition of cultural and traditional values, independent thinking, physical health and emotional stability, self-definition, leadership, mastery of skills and prevocational development.
2. The structure and organization of the school as a means of implementing its objectives; the legal framework of education in the relation between the schools and federal, state, and local government; an analysis of the school system as an institution and its relation to the community; the school board and parent organizations' educational policy, authority and decision making; analysis of roles in the school system; relation of administration to faculty; forces of educational change and the process of decision making; review of relevant regulations, policies, handbooks and guidelines.

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3. The relation between the school's structural system and its means of promoting child learning and growth; the classroom as a social system; teacher-child interaction and the learning–teaching process; the organization of the school curriculum to promote sequential task mastery; teaching techniques and variations between one-to-one relationships, one-to-small group teaching, and one-to-large group teaching; relationship of teaching to counseling; the relationship between the team approach and the learning–teaching process; parent–teacher interaction; the purpose and techniques of conferencing; measurement and evaluation of learning and growth; techniques of reporting pupil progress.

Man and Society

Social, cultural, political and technological changes in the twentieth century; their impact upon the city's underlying structure and upon rural America; class stratification; ethnic and racial divisions; interest groups and power groups; the family as the primary group; the network of social, health and educational services and activities; the relation of the individual to the forces and fabric of the society today.

Job Related Skills

Skills to Use with Groups of Children

1. **Reading–Communications:** Auxiliaries will learn the basic principles of the reading and phonics system being used by the school in which he will be working. Further, auxiliaries should be taught the fundamentals of story-telling, picture book presentation, or oral reading. Auxiliaries may learn to read stories into tape recorders for children's listening experiences. Auxiliaries may learn the use of hand puppets to encourage children's communication.

2. **Mathematics:** Auxiliaries will learn basic number concepts appropriate to the age group with which he will be working. Fundamental constructs, such as equivalency, conservation, and reciprocation should be taught to all auxiliaries. Auxiliaries may learn to use number lines, number boards, games, flash cards. They should become familiar with purpose and uses of standard math materials used in the schools, such as Cuisenaire rods, geo boards.

3. **Social Studies:** Auxiliaries will learn to use basic social studies materials: maps, charts, graphs (not for those in preschool and primary grades). Procedures for observation and reporting may be taught: How to take notes and develop a card index and filing system. The degree to which these relatively simple skills will be stressed will depend upon the needs of the particular groups of participants, the grade levels to which they will be as-

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signed, and the expectations of the teacher with whom they will be working. Auxiliaries will also learn the purpose and process of field trips. They should have the opportunity to experience taking such trips, both by themselves for their own educational value, and with children, in which they enact their role as auxiliary.

4. **Science:** Auxiliaries will be introduced to the scientific method of inquiry so that they can develop an appreciation for the kind of thinking which children will be learning in science. They should have the opportunity to participate in some simple scientific experiments, to observe them, keep records, make hypotheses, and test their conclusions. Through such experiments they should become familiar with the common scientific equipment used in classrooms, learn the proper names for such equipment, and develop skills in making equipment from commonly obtainable articles.

5. **The Arts:** Auxiliaries will learn the uses of various art media and will have an opportunity to explore those media themselves. They will be given experiences in singing, use of rhythm instruments and bodily movement. These experiences and discussions will help them understand the place of art in the classroom and how to assist the teacher in appropriate ways. Auxiliaries should learn to operate a record player and a tape recorder as part of this program.

6. **Lettering:** Participants will learn basic manuscript printing. They will use lettering in making bulletin board captions, making experience charts, filling out registers, writing on the chalk board, making name tags and labels, making flash cards, making transparencies for overhead projectors, making maps and charts, etc. They may also learn to make cut-paper letters for bulletin boards and displays, or to use the stencil for lettering for duplication on mimeograph or ditto machines. Knowledge of proper formation of manuscript lettering will make it possible for auxiliaries to work directly with children and to serve as a model for them.

7. **Operation of Audiovisual Equipment:** Participants will learn the principles involved in the operation of all audiovisual equipment used in schools: film projector, opaque projector, tape recorder, strip projector, slide projector, overhead projector, and record player. Once the principles involved are understood, the participants should have an opportunity to operate a variety of such equipment so that they will become proficient with the different models which will be used in the classroom. Simple repairs, such as changing burned out bulbs and splicing broken films or tapes, should be taught.

Skills to Use with Individuals

1. **Observational Skills:** Auxiliaries should be taught to develop their observation of children's behavior. They can report observations, especially changes in the children, to the teacher. The teacher can then use these

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obsrvations to supplement his own as he diagnoses the children's learning needs.

2. **Listening Skills:** Auxiliaries should learn to develop the skill of listening to children so that they can identify the children's concerns and interests. This time together will often form the basis for a working relationship between the auxiliary and the child. The auxiliary can also report any information gained to the teacher.

Organizational Skills

Auxiliaries should be taught those fundamentals of classroom organization which are used in the school where they will be working. Each auxiliary should learn what supplies are available, where they are located in the classroom, how they may be obtained from outside the classroom, what the teacher's practices are in distribution to the children. Further, the auxiliary should be taught what the teacher's expectations of child behavior are: how children are to be seated, how they line up, how they get their outdoor clothing from the closets, how they are to move through hallways, what the opening and closing routines are, what jobs the children are expected to perform. Knowing this, auxiliaries can reinforce teacher expectations with the children.

Operation of Office Machines

Auxiliaries may be taught the operation of office machines used in the school: typewriters, mimeograph and ditto machines, Xerox equipment. Auxiliaries should learn to prepare stencils for duplication as well as how to operate the machine. While most auxiliaries will not have enough time in this program to learn to become proficient on the typewriter, typewriters should be available for auxiliaries to practice on.

Basic Education for Auxiliaries (Remediation)

There may be need to strengthen the auxiliary's personal development in areas of need which have been identified for individuals. These areas usually vary from person to person. However, it may be anticipated that there would be some commonality in any group, which may become the basis for group learning. Individualized training may be arranged where needed.

Examples of areas which might be covered in group lessons are:

Communication and Study Skills—including such areas as reading (increasing reading rate, learning to scan, reading to find main ideas, recalling sequential orders; writing (taking messages, making reports of observations, outlining and organizing materials); oral skills (speaking on the telephone, improving diction); improving listening skills (following directions, sharpening auditory discrimination).

Entering the World of Work—including such areas as personal groom-

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ing, attitude toward holding a job (promptness, reporting anticipated absence, establishing rapport with co-workers).

Advancing in the World of Work—including aptitude testing and counseling on career opportunities.

FOR TEACHERS

New Roles and Relationships

The expanded role of the teacher-leader will be considered. Teachers will be encouraged to reexamine what they do in the classrooms to promote learning. Teachers will decide what only they should do and what an auxiliary may do under the teacher's supervision, and what the auxiliaries may do by themselves. The teacher will then be encouraged to consider what supervision he will have to assume to become a teacher-leader—that is, the coordinator of the work of other adults in the classroom.

Teachers will also need to consider how best to utilize their own time, when released from certain routine duties.

Most teachers have had very little opportunity to work as a supervisor of adults. Teachers will have to learn how to plan with the auxiliary, how to assign responsibilities to him, how to hold conferences with him for planning and evaluation, how to create an atmosphere in which the auxiliary can truly feel and become someone who helps the children to learn.

Further, the teachers should be encouraged to understand the career development possibilities for auxiliaries and to obtain information so that they may counsel the auxiliary on how to advance within the school system.

Special Learning Needs of Various Subcultures

The focus is to develop knowledge of and understanding about the cultural background of the children and the auxiliaries with whom the teacher works. This is based on the premise that differences in life experiences, response to social forces, and expectations between teachers from more privileged backgrounds and low income students often create barriers to communication and learning.

Many teachers do not recognize these different styles of learning and focus only on the absence of the expected style, thereby missing the strengths of the children and spending a great deal of energy in trying to make the children respond in the accustomed way.

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APPENDIX J

STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT IN SMALL GROUPS

Groups go through or get stuck in developmental stages in much the same way that people do. The classic sequence for attitudinal change is that of Kurt Lewin: Unfreezing, changing and refreezing.[1] Unfreezing takes place where there is disequilibrium, lack of confirmation and a degree of guilt-anxiety, which predisposes a person to consider the possibility of change. At the same time, however, he will need some feeling of security and reduction of threat if he is to venture into a new situation.

When a person feels discomfitted but relatively safe, he will be prepared to change and will seek new information either through scanning his interpersonal environment or by identifying with a model who embodies the desired attitudes and behavior. In the refreezing stage, the individual practices and integrates new responses into his relationships with others and his self-image. He might then begin the cycle all over again.

Schein describes the learning cycle as consisting of the discomfit of cognitive input, affective attitudinal readjustment and behavioral change toward increased interpersonal competence.[2] Like Lewin, he starts with a dilemma or some disconfirming information which pushes the individual toward attitudinal adjustments which are prerequisite to the behavioral change which may follow. This, in turn, will generate new knowledge which may cause further discomfort initiating a new learning cycle. Sociologists have delineated five levels of interpersonal processes as being different and distinct: Behavior, emotions, norms, goals, and values.[3] The individual within the group, and therefore the group as a whole is seen to progress from the relatively primitive levels of behavior and emotion to the more sophisticated ones of norms and goals, and ultimately to values.[4]

At the behavioral level are overt acts. These are obvious and almost

[1] Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflict*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1948.

[2] Edgar H. Schein, et al, *Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods: The Laboratory Approach*. New York: Wiley, 1965.

[3] Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, (eds.), *Toward a General Theory of Action*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951, pp. 3-29, 53-76.

[4] Theodore M. Mills, *The Sociology of Small Groups*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc, 1967, pp. 57-9.

everyone is aware of and responds to them. Emotions include the drives persons experience, the feelings they have toward one another and about what happens. Almost everyone has such emotions but they are often not obvious and, therefore, not taken into account. Norms have to do with ideas of how persons should act, think, feel and express feelings but for the most part these are not understood from person to person unless specifically communicated through action or verbalization.

Goals deal with the group's projected intentions and plans for reaching them. They result from communication between members and presuppose commitment to the group. Values are ideas about what the group is, what it would be desirable for it to become, and how this might come about. These would emerge as a result of a rather high level of abstract verbalization as well as the sharing of meaningful experiences.

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APPENDIX K

MULTI-MEDIA ON AUXILIARY PERSONNEL

These resources are in addition to the collection of materials prepared by Bank Street College of Education for the U.S. Office of Education, which are listed in the preface.

AUDIOVISUAL AIDS

"The Quiet Revolution"—a 28-minute, 16mm color/sound film, produced by TEPS, NEA. A dialogue between Dante and Virgil, this film looks at instruction and the changing role of the teacher, working with auxiliary personnel and media to form a new partnership in the school. Available from NEA/AV Studios, 1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

"All Working Together"—a 30-minute film presented originally as a television program on "Perspectives for Learning" in cooperation with KQED–TV San Francisco; presented by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. A discussion of the involvement of auxiliary personnel is illustrated by filmed scenes of the Columbus Demonstration School of the University of California and the NEA. Dr. Jerome Gilbert, a reading program specialist and a guidance counselor describes team planning and feedback between grade level meetings and the advisory council. Auxiliary aides have increased communication between home, school, and community, involving all who can have an effect upon education.

"Teacher Aide Training Film"—a 33-minute, 16mm sound film. Made for the Office of Economic Opportunity under Grant #CAP66-9620; Jerome H. Gilbert, Ed.D., Project Director; by Berkeley Unified School District, 1720 Oregon Street, Berkeley, California. A filmed conversation between teacher aides and parents, noting the aides' help in closing the gap between parents and teachers. Through the aides, teachers and parents realize coincidence in interest in the child. Over the school year, teachers and aides learned from each other, in a professional way, helping each other become aware of the needs of their children.

"Teachers' Aides—A New Opportunity"—a 16mm black and white documentary about a summer institute for teacher aides conducted by Garland Junior College. The film was prepared for the Office of Economic Oppor-

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tunity. The focus is upon child development. It portrays individualized education in the practicum of a preschool program, with particular reference to aide–child interaction.

"More Different Than Alike"—a 35-minute, 16mm color/sound film. A filmed record of innovative practices in education, recorded in five case studies involving media and auxiliary personnel to improve instruction. Available from NEA/AV Studios, 1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

A ¼" tape recording of a teacher aide reading class at the Columbus University Laboratory School at Berkeley, California. Sixteen teacher aides in a weekly meeting summarize the year's work. Notable has been the change of attitudes from apprehension to trust, between teacher and aides, and between aides and pupils, together with improved community–school relationships.

APPENDIX L

RESOURCES FOR INTENSIVE SHORT-TERM TRAINING OF TRAINERS IN INTERACTION TECHNIQUES

There might be an intensive, short-term training period for trainers during the summer or in the fall immediately preceding the auxiliary training or team training program. Leadership for such a training institute might be secured through the U.S. Office of Education; institutions of higher learning, such as: Bank Street College of Education, Howard University, University of Michigan, University of California, Wayne State University; national groups, such as: New Careers Training Laboratory (New York University, 184 Fifth Avenue, New York City), National Training Laboratory (National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.), National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S.A. (475 Riverside Drive, New York City), National Urban League (55 East 52nd Street, New York City), Anti-Defamation League (315 Lexington Avenue, New York City), National Conference of Christians and Jews (43 West 57th Street, New York City), American Jewish Committee (165 East 56th Street, New York City), Esalon (San Francisco, California), Kairos, Rancho (Sante Fe, California), and Western Behavioral Sciences Institute (La Jolla, California). This list is illustrative, not inclusive. The resources are multiplying rapidly in response to a growing demand.

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORM (Minute-by-Minute for 30 Minutes)

Class _____

Date _____

Time

	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30

TEACHER

CONTENT
  Instruction (assis-tance to)
  Monitoring
  Informal Activity

INTERACTION WITH PUPILS
  Supervision
  Reprimanding
  Doing For

ROUTINE TASKS
  Clerical Tasks
  Managerial Tasks

INACTIVITY

TEACHER-AIDE INTERACTION

AIDE

CONTENT
  Instruction
  Monitoring
  Informal Activity

INTERACTION WITH PUPILS
  Supervision
  Reprimanding
  Doing For

ROUTINE TASKS
  Clerical Tasks
  Managerial Tasks

INACTIVITY

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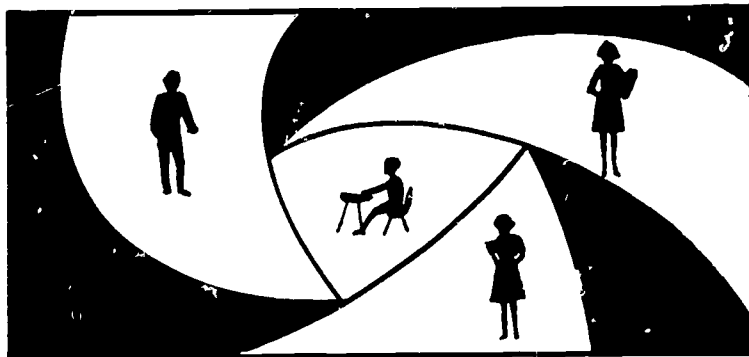Williams, Richard A. and Claudine G. Wirths. **Li/es Through the Years.** New York: Atherton Press, 1965, 297 pp.

APPENDIX O

DIAGRAM OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN MINNEAPOLIS

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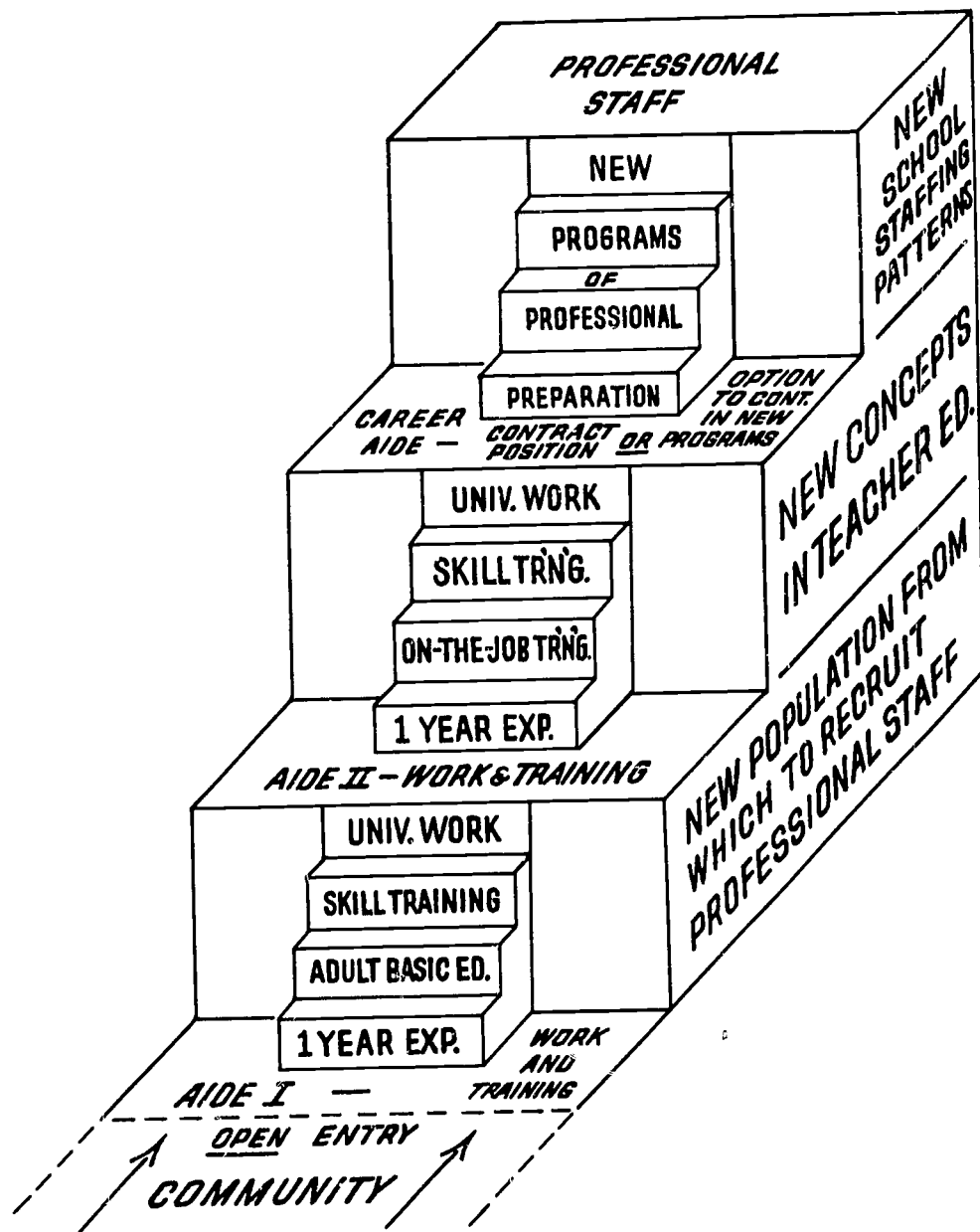
For information on how to order this and
other training materials, contact:

Mr. Michael Neben
Bureau of Educational Personnel
    Development
U.S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202