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ABSTRACT

A STUDY IN TEACHER AIDE EXPECTATIONS, SATISFACTION, EFFECTIVENESS AND TASKS PERFORMED

By

Zeno Bernel Katterle, Jr.

There is a need for research which attempts to describe and relate the position of teacher aide to various crucial variables. Several constructs and postulates from role theory and the discipline of complex organizations were used as a basis for formulating this study.

Problem

The study was primarily designed to examine the degree of role consensus between the teacher and aide in the classroom setting and to determine if that consensus was related to tasks performed by the aide, rated effectiveness of the aide, and rated job satisfaction by the aide. Secondly, the considerations of job description and supervision, recruitment and selection, training, rewards and incentives, and evaluation were described to ascertain whether or not these might be related to variations in the patterns of response.

Hypotheses Tested

1. An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will express higher job satisfaction than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

2. An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will be rated as more effective than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

3. In a significant percentage of cases, a task will or will not be performed in accordance with the agreement between the task expectation held by the aide and the task expectation held for her by the teacher.

Sample

Three Michigan school districts were selected for the study. The three samples included all the aides and teachers working with the aides in the school surveyed. Principals were also surveyed in order to compare their response patterns with those of the aides and teachers.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used to measure task expectations, job satisfaction, rated effectiveness, and tasks performed. A 50 item task checklist with five intensity responses was the means for measuring expectations. Two six point rating scales were constructed to measure satisfaction and effectiveness. A checklist was provided for indicating tasks performed. An interview schedule was developed for collecting data to describe the aide programs.

Analysis of Data

Simple correlations at the five per cent level of confidence served as the statistical test for measuring the relationship between task agreement and satisfaction and task agreement and effectiveness. Simple percentage scores were used for measuring the relationship between task agreement and tasks performed. Mean and standard deviation scores were used to analyze task response patterns.

Conclusions

The analysis of data for the three districts revealed no significant relationship between level of task agreement and satisfaction or effectiveness. There was a significant positive relationship in all three cases between task agreement and tasks performed.

The average effectiveness rating scores for the three districts were 4.34, 4.56 and 4.79. The average satisfaction rating scores were 5.08, 5.18 and 5.39.

When the 50 tasks performed were keyed to five major categories, the three samples showed essentially the same ranking. In the order of most to least performed, the categories were supervisory, clerical, instructional, housekeeping and technological.

Evidence of administrative provisions seemed to be related to overall effectiveness, satisfaction and nature of the response patterns.

A STUDY IN TEACHER AIDE EXPECTATIONS,
SATISFACTION, EFFECTIVENESS AND
TASKS PERFORMED

By

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Need

The use of teacher aides is a rapidly expanding phenomenon. The current number has been estimated to be as high as 200,000 with up to one and a half million expected by 1977.¹ A recent National Education Association Research Division survey revealed that almost one in four public school teachers has assistance from an aide.² Twenty-nine per cent of the schools questioned in a survey by the magazine Nation's Schools reported the use of aides.³ Dr. Don Davies, Associate Commissioner for Education, U.S. Office of Education, stated at a Conference on the Use and Role of Teacher Aides in February, 1969, "I can't think of another development in American education in the last fifty years that has taken

¹F. Riessman and A. Gartner, "New Careers and Pupil Learning," CTA Journal, Vol. 65 (March, 1969), 6-9.

²"Teacher Aides in the Public Schools," NEA Research Bulletin (Washington, D.C.: Research Division of National Education Association, March, 1970), p. 11.

³"27 Innovations No. 20 Aides-Paraprofessionals," Nation's Schools, Vol. 79 (April, 1967), 73.

hold so quickly and so pervasively."⁴ Clearly the use of aides in the classrooms of America is a significant development worthy of extensive study and research.

Several convergent forces are primarily responsible for the current rise in the use of teacher aides:

1. The critical gap between the need for and availability of trained professionals
2. The development of more complex educational concepts and technology
3. A new awareness of the special learning needs of young children
4. The "new career" concept for job entry into certain human service occupations by under-educated adults
5. The newly available sources of aid provided by various pieces of federal legislation.⁵

In addition to the catalyst of convergent forces, a rather widely acknowledged rationale for the use of aides in schools has been developed. The rationale is primarily predicated on the need for individualized instruction for the student, but is also seen as a direct

⁴Don Davies, Measuring Educational Progress, Proceedings of the Conference on the Use and Role of Teacher Aides, Albuquerque, New Mexico, February 10-11, 1969, Prepared by the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory (Albuquerque: June, 1969), p. 1

⁵Garda W. Bowman and Gordon J. Klopff, New Careers and Roles in the American School (New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1968), p. 6.

benefit to teachers, other professionals, the aides, administrators, family life, and the community at large.⁶

The use of aides as an aspect of differentiated staffing in schools has been vociferously proclaimed as a means for bringing about a substantial change in the structure and manner of operating the school establishment. If fully implemented, it will require a new way of thinking about teaching, learning, and the school.⁷

Many noted educators do not view the new education as a probability, but definitely as the way of the future.

Roy A. Edelfelt, Executive Secretary for NCTEPS has written:

Educators in the future will perform a variety of tasks, some of which exist in schools today and many which will be newly defined as teachers roles are differentiated. Roles will be identified and classified in terms of degrees of difficulty, responsibility, and needed artistry, and in terms of background of the people who assume specific kinds of tasks.⁸

To realize its full potential, the introduction of large numbers of aides into school systems will affect organizational structure and processes and the interpersonal relationships among all employees. Mechanisms

⁶Ibid., p. 9.

⁷Roy A. Edelfelt, "Preface," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teacher Roles (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1969), p. v.

⁸Ibid., p. 118.

of control, regulations, policies, work processes, evaluation, training, recruitment and reward systems as we currently know them will all change in form and function.⁹ The factors of authority, status and power relationships must be considered or more problems will be created than solved.¹⁰

The use of teacher aides as an integral part of the school systems of the nation and its probable and potential effect on those systems has been stated. The need for investigation and research into the topic has been shown. Research is needed which relates the use of teacher aides to sound social science theory and evidence. A review of the current literature reveals very little research on teacher aides which meets these criteria. An article in the Review of Educational Research succinctly states:

Funds made available by recent federal legislation have enabled many school districts to employ such personnel (teacher aides and other nonprofessionals) for the first time. There has appeared simultaneously a plethora of descriptive and hortatory articles suggesting ways of using nonprofessionals, but few studies have been done on the subject.¹¹

⁹Peter Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 185.

¹⁰Robert E. Ohm, "Toward a Rationale for Team Teaching," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 9 (March, 1961), p. 1.

¹¹Raphael C. Nystrand and Frederick Bertolaet, "Strategies for Allocating Human and Material Resources," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 37 (October, 1967), p. 456.

It appears that a fundamental point of departure is to study some aspect of the role of the teacher aide, particularly as the role is viewed by the teacher and the aide. In addition, to have further significance, those viewpoints are related to actual performance, job satisfaction, and rated effectiveness. The viewpoints are measured in terms of role expectations. If it is demonstrated that a convergence of role expectations has a relationship to performance, satisfaction and effectiveness, this would facilitate an understanding of the effect of aides on the school system and contribute toward utilizing their full potential.

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the degree of role consensus between the teacher and aide in the classroom setting, and to determine if that consensus is related to actual performance, rated effectiveness, and job satisfaction. Secondly, there is an attempt to ascertain whether or not the answer to the primary purpose of the investigation might be affected by certain organizational characteristics.

Scope and Limitations

This study is designed around five basic dimensions which are appropriately applied to the use of role

theory.¹² These include the level of the object to be discussed, the object who exhibits the behavior, characteristics studied, type of cognition, and the context.

The approach is at the level of first order cognitions. These are cognitions or mental mapping structures maintained by the observer about a real world event. The cognitions may be judged as accurate or inaccurate. In this case, the cognitions studied are the expectations held by the teacher and aide of the tasks to be performed by the aide.

The object of discussion is the teacher aide. The subjects, those persons holding the expectations, are the teachers, aides, and principals. In this case, the aides are both a subject and object, because aides may hold expectations for themselves as aides. The study includes only those aides assigned to assist directly in the classroom setting. The cognitions studied for accepting or rejecting the basic hypotheses are limited to teachers and aides, because these two positions appear to be of primary importance in the total universe of possible respondents. The principals are included to determine if, as a group, their expectations for aides

¹²Bruce J. Biddle, "Bibliographies on Role Terms, Role Conflict, and the Role of the Teacher," Studies in the Role of the Public School Teacher (Series 1, Vol. B; Columbia: University of Missouri, 1961), Chapter 1.

are similar to the expectations of the teachers and aides sampled.

The characteristic under study is behavioral in nature; that is, events bound in time consisting of meaningful action taken by the aide. This is in contrast to studying a feature such as a physical characteristic or trait the object may possess. There is a limitation in the sense that actual behavior is not studied. Rather, the study measures expectations, which are cognitive, of the tasks to be performed by the individual assigned the position of teacher aide. When the aide is asked to designate tasks actually performed, this measure relies upon the ability of the aide to recollect accurately past behavior. The other dependent variables of effectiveness and satisfaction are also measured by asking for mental impressions recorded on arbitrary point scales.

Tasks are the dimension of performance related to expectations. This is in contrast to another dimension such as behavioral processes. Tasks represent a fundamental and explicit level of analysis. The study does not include every possible task, but a selected number for each major category of tasks which might be performed. The object is to discern if there is a pattern of consensus and is not to find an inclusive list of agreed upon task expectations.

The context is limited to the expectations for task performance in the elementary school classroom. This is

construed as being any location in which the teacher is directing and responsible for the activities of a regularly assigned group of students within the hours normally established for classroom instruction. Limiting the setting to the classroom is based on the assumption that patterns of behavior tend to have less variance within settings than they do between settings. The elementary school is the level of inquiry because the probability is greater that a wider range of task expectations exists at the lower grades than at any other level in the school system. Also, it would be difficult to select and state tasks which could be used to measure both elementary and secondary levels within the same instrument.

The testing instrument is a close-ended type of questionnaire. This is the choice because a sufficient number of studies exist which provide a sufficient listing of probable tasks to be performed by classroom aides. In addition, the responses are more readily comparable. The source of categories and tasks for the questionnaire are all derived from a review of literature.

The samples of teachers and aides are limited to three school districts. This means that findings must be used cautiously when generalizing to the total population of teachers and aides. The use of three districts, as opposed to studying one district, should give a better

indication of what might exist in the general population. The relatively recent advent of large numbers of aides being hired by school systems will undoubtedly result in a change in role definitions over the next few years. The permanent value of this study is not so much the particular items of consensus, but the usefulness of role analysis for the study of teacher aides and its implications for realizing the full potential of employing aides. The study should also give some indication of the possible effects of certain administrative considerations on the nature of the aide program.

Hypotheses

Three basic hypotheses are investigated. The description of population tested, questionnaire of task expectations, design, and analysis of results are all discussed in Chapter III of this study. The hypotheses are also restated in test form. The basic hypotheses are as follows:

1. An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will express higher job satisfaction than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

2. An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will be rated as more effective than an aide who is not in agreement.

3. In a significant percentage of cases, a task will or will not be performed in accordance with the agreement between the task expectation held by the aide and the task expectation held for her by the teacher.

Definitions

The following list of definitions is derived primarily from the writings of Biddle,¹³ Gross,¹⁴ Stogdill,¹⁵ and Jacobson.¹⁶ When necessary, the term is particularized to suit the requirements of this thesis.

Teacher aide--auxiliary staff personnel who operates as an assistant in a team with the elementary classroom teacher. For the purpose of this study, the aide must have been hired and paid for the services provided.

Elementary school classroom--any location in which the elementary teacher is directing and responsible for the activities of a regularly assigned group of students

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958).

¹⁵Ralph M. Stogdill, Leadership: A Study of Role Expectations and Performance, Studies in Naval Leadership (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1953).

¹⁶Eugene W. Jacobson, W. W. Charters, Jr. and Seymour Lieberman, "The Use of the Role Concept in the Study of Complex Organizations," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 7 (July, 1951), 3.

within the hours normally designated for classroom instruction.

Position--the location of an actor or classification of actors within a social structure which is associated with a set of expectations.

Expectations--an evaluative standard applied to an incumbent of a position. All expectations for a particular incumbent of a position are known as a set of expectations. For this particular study, the standard for expectations is the tasks associated with the position in question.

Tasks--the particular activities to be performed by a role incumbent which contribute to the overall achievement of organizational goals.

Task accomplishment--the correspondence between a list of tasks to be completed and those actually completed.

Role--the behavioral model defined by the set of expectations applied to the incumbent of a particular position within an organization.

Role performance--a pattern of behavior exhibited by an individual as the occupant of a position.

Formal organization--an organization which has been formally established for the explicit purpose of achieving certain goals.

Effectiveness--the rated success of a subject's performance of a set of tasks associated with a particular position.

Satisfaction--the sense of rated contentment a subject feels about his performance of a set of tasks associated with a particular position.

Theory

Role theory is moving toward a position of greater importance in the social sciences. It can be viewed as one of the common concepts or links among many different social science disciplines.¹⁷ The major difficulty with the present status of role theory is one of agreement upon a set of common definitions. An initial task in understanding any particular writing is to first ascertain the meanings of the various terms related to role theory which are used by the author. The confusion is alleviated in some measure because the various authors are talking about the same phenomena. The discussion is about the patterns of behavior which are common to a set of social actors and the cognitive phenomena which underlies these patterns.

To understand behavior you must understand the interaction among people in any social system. Expeditious interaction is reliant upon some common agreement as to what behavior should be associated with any position in the system. This allows one actor to anticipate action from any other person holding a particular position. The

¹⁷Biddle, op. cit.

prescribed performance of any person in a given position is what is meant by role. Role is regarded as the unit element in human relations. The relationship between units is inferred by the actions of two or more role incumbents.¹⁸

People form together in social collectives known as organizations. These collectives have a structure of social relationships and a system of shared beliefs and orientations. The relationships are differentially distributed into a status structure. The beliefs associated with each position make up a set of expectations for any individual holding that position. Social organizations emerge wherever men live together. For certain collective efforts to achieve specific goals, a formal organization is purposely constituted.¹⁹ The public school system is such an organization.

For an organization to function effectively, in the sense of achieving its goals, there must be a minimum of compliance with the expectations for the various positions. Though the expectations are not the sole determinant of individual actions in the organizational setting, they do provide for a gross understanding and prediction of behavior. Individual variation will be noted for each

¹⁸ Everett K. Wilson, Sociology: Rules, Roles and Relationships (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1966), p. 35.

¹⁹ Blau, op. cit., p. 2.

individual case because of variation in personalities and needs.²⁰ Before expectations can result in a measure of prediction of behavior, there must be a considerable degree of consensus among the people affected by the organization as to what the expectations are for the various positions. For it is the synthesis or fusion of these various expectations which helps determine any one individual's behavior.²¹ In addition to consensus being related to actual performance, most theorists feel there is also a relationship between job satisfaction and rated effectiveness.²² These various interrelationships make the concept of role a very important analytic sub-unit.

The introduction of aides into the classroom lends itself to understanding and analysis through the use of role theory. If the full potential of using aides is to be realized, there must be a high degree of consensus as to the role expectations for any individual holding the position of aide in a school classroom. Lack of consensus will most likely result in confusion, low

²⁰Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Administrative Theory in Education, ed. by Andrew Halpin (Chicago: University of Chicago, Administrative Center, 1958), p. 153.

²¹E. Wright Bakke, "Concept of the Social Organization," in Modern Organization Theory, ed. by Mason Haire (New York: Chapman Hall, Ltd., 1959), p. 45.

²²Biddle, op. cit., Vol. D, p. 88.

effectiveness, and low job satisfaction. The teacher and the aide are the two most important positions where a clear and mutual understanding of the aide's role must exist. The teacher is the primary reference for the aide to understand what expectations are in effect.

The purpose of this study is to examine the degree of role consensus between teacher and aide in the classroom setting, and to determine if that consensus is related to actual performance, rated effectiveness and job satisfaction. Performance tasks are used as the dimension for measuring the degree of role consensus. The support of the basic position of this study has direct implications for the recruitment, selection, training, and reward of the classroom teacher aides.

Overview

The pertinent writings relative to this thesis are divided into the categories of role analysis, formal organizations, and the teacher aide, all of which are reviewed in Chapter II. Under the topic of role is included a review of the development of supportive theory, the problem of definitions, several major contributors, and the specific application of role analysis to education. The review of formal organizations is to give insight into a particular kind of setting for the use of role analysis. The organizational considerations of compliance, constraints, task definition, recruitment,

training, reward, and evaluation are all briefly treated. The discussion of teacher aides includes the areas of recent developments, rationale for using, and major related studies and projects.

After the literature is reviewed, the next consideration is the development of the instrument for measuring task expectations and an interview schedule for describing the organizational considerations given the aide program. The primary sources for the questionnaire are a number of related studies and proposed job descriptions for teacher aides. The instrument is in the form of a close-ended questionnaire which is divided into five categories of selected tasks. One open-ended question is included to ascertain if there are major factors present which the use of the interview schedule does not reveal.

Questionnaires given the aides request not only the tasks the aides expect to perform, but a separate check list of the tasks actually performed. The aides are also asked to indicate a level of job satisfaction by checking a scale of satisfaction. The teachers are requested to rate the aides' success in actual performance by checking a scale of job effectiveness.

After the questionnaire has been developed, the interview schedule is constructed to gather information about the organizational variables of recruitment, hiring,

training, policy, regulations, and rewards for each of the three districts sampled. A number of sources from the sociological field of complex organizations are used to provide background for constructing the interview schedule.

The next step is one of administering the questionnaire and completing the description of organizational variables. The data gathered are then analyzed in relation to the basic hypotheses and the general patterns of responses for the various groups of aides and teachers in the three samples studied. Comparisons are done within and among the three districts.

A detailed description of the instrument, sample measured, organizational variables, measurable hypotheses, and the analysis of data comprise the content of Chapter III.

Chapter I included a description of the need, purpose, hypotheses, definition of terms, theory, scope and limitations, and overview. The next chapter includes the review of literature.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is divided into three major categories: role theory; complex organizations; and teacher aides. Role theory was used to establish a framework for developing hypotheses and analyzing the position of the teacher aide. The study of complex organizations was included because the position of teacher aide is found in a complex organizational setting. The review of literature devoted to the topic of teacher aides gives the development and the current status of this dissertation's primary subject.

The three major categories include both theoretical and empirical studies. Selection was made to give a balanced representation and also for particular emphasis to the hypotheses proposed in this dissertation. Some studies are included in more than one category.

Role Theory

The review of role theory is subdivided into a brief history and current considerations of role theory, role as an analytic framework for complex organizations, general

conclusions and frameworks, and the use of role theory to study educational systems.

Brief History and Current Status

Neiman and Hughes provided an often cited and systematic survey of the literature from 1900 to 1950 related to the concept of role. Shortly before 1900, social psychologists began to emphasize the concept of self as the basic element in the development of the personality in a process of symbolic interaction and to stress the importance of the individual's attitude toward himself as it is determined by the attitudes and expectations of others toward him. The philosopher, William James, is credited as being one of the first to develop a concept of the social self. The social self was depicted as one of the four constituent elements of personality. The self was seen as growing by virtue of a dialogue with others. The social self varies depending upon the particular reference group. We may have as many selves as we have membership groups.

John Dewey extended James' notion of social self with a particular stress on the importance of language as the basic means for social interaction. George Herbert Mead in his book, Mind, Self and Society, combined James' idea of the social self as the product of the mental images of a person conceived by other members of his group; Mark Baldwin's idea of the circular response or the

"dialogue of self and others"; and Dewey's emphasis on language as the basic element in the process of social interaction. Mead added a fourth idea of his own, "taking the role of the other" to complete the fundamental theoretical framework within which all subsequent studies of social roles have developed.²³

Another early formulation of role theory is the "Looking Glass Self" concept proposed by Charles H. Cooley. The concept was used to describe a process of personality formation. The process consists of three stages: (1) imagination of how we appear to others; (2) imagination of how we are evaluated by others; and (3) a feeling of pride or mortification.²⁴ This process implies that the self is a reflection of social opinion. Both Mead and Cooley were concerned with how the self arises as a product of social interaction. Mead's description is the more explicit.

The anthropologist, Ralph Linton, to whom many subsequent authors acknowledge their indebtedness, composed several frequently quoted statements of role definition:

²³L. J. Neiman and J. W. Hughes, "Problems of the Concept of Role--A Re-Survey of the Literature," Social Forces, Vol. 30 (December, 1951), pp. 141-142.

²⁴Charles H. Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order (New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1902), pp. 81-90.

A role represents the dynamic aspect of a status. The individual is socially assigned to a status and occupies it with relation to other statuses. When he puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect, he is performing a role. Role and status are quite inseparable, and the distinction between them is of only academic interest.²⁵

In a later book, The Cultural Background of Personality, Linton further amplified the concept of role. "It thus includes the attitudes, values, and behavior ascribed by the society to any and all persons occupying this status."²⁶ The role becomes the dynamic aspect of a status, dynamic in the sense of a behavioral expectation and not actual performance. This is a normative view of the social system and is a logical means by which an anthropologist could describe various cultures.

The status concept of role is utilized by Robert K. Merton to explain behavior in a bureaucratic structure. "In such an organization, there is integrated a series of offices, of hierarchized statuses, in which inhere a number of obligations and privileges closely defined by the limited and specific rules."²⁷ At a later date, Merton developed the concept of "role set." Role set is predicated on the idea that any social position is made up of a cluster or set of interrelated roles.

²⁵Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936), p. 114.

²⁶Ralph Linton, The Cultural Background of Personality (New York: Appleton-Century, 1945), p. 77.

²⁷Robert K. Merton, "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality," Social Forces, Vol. 18 (May, 1940), pp. 560-568.

The development of role concepts by sociologists puts the emphasis upon interaction situations. The concern is not only with how a person ought to behave, but how in fact he does behave. The sociologist, Davis, defined role as, "how an individual actually performs in a given position, as distinct from how he is supposed to perform, we call his role."²⁸ Parsons defines role in a similar manner:

A role . . . is a sector of the total orientation system of an individual actor which is organized about expectations in relation to a particular interaction context, that is integrated with a particular set of value-standards which govern interaction with one or more alters in the appropriate complementary roles.²⁹

Leonard S. Cottrell stressed the dynamics of personality development and defined role as a basic factor in the socialization process:

Role: an internally consistent series of conditioned responses by one member of a social situation which represents the stimulus pattern for a similarly internally consistent series of conditioned responses of the other(s) in that situation.³⁰

²⁸Kingsley Davis, Human Society (New York: The Mac-Millan Company, 1949), p. 90.

²⁹Talcott Parsons, The Social System (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951), pp. 38-39.

³⁰Leonard S. Cottrell, "The Adjustment of the Individual to His Age and Sex Roles," American Sociological Review, Vol. 7 (October, 1942), 617-620.

Sargent, also a psychologist, stresses individual perceptions and says, "a person's role is a pattern or type of social behavior which seems situationally appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group."³¹

Newcomb³² and Hiller³³ as social psychologists recognized the importance of focusing on the individual and his behavior in a socio-cultural matrix. Hiller proposed that social and personality structures are essentially concurrent and equivalent. Performance in those organizations which require high allegiance and devotion such as the family and occupation is more likely to affect the self-concept and the total self-image than performance in organizations which are normally less important. For Newcomb, role is a central concept which links the disciplines of psychology and sociology for consideration of problems which demand both frames of reference. Newcomb recognized the distinction between the concepts of prescribed role and role behavior, expected and actual performance.

³¹Stansfeld Sargent, "Concepts of Role and Ego in Contemporary Psychology," Social Psychology at the Crossroads, ed. by John H. Rohrer and Muzafer Sherif (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), p. 360.

³²Theodore M. Newcomb, Social Psychology (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 280.

³³E. T. Hiller, "The Social Structure in Relation to the Person," Social Forces, Vol. 16 (October, 1937), pp. 34-44.

The foregoing discussion has provided a brief overview of the early development of role concepts and how these initial efforts have been reshaped and translated into the unique perspectives of several social science disciplines. Until the last 10 to 15 years the concept of role has been defined in a holistic manner. More recent investigation suggests that the ideas to which role refers might better be treated as a family of related concepts.³⁴ The next series of studies reviewed gives an idea of the current status of inquiry into role theory.

Bates in his consideration of role expressed a concern with the limitations of concepts as defined which do not allow for analysis of structural change and dynamics. Social position should be seen as made up of a number of roles associated with certain sets of norms. As an example, the position of father includes the roles of teacher, spouse, provider and disciplinarian. The conception allowed Bates to formulate propositions about the internal dynamics of a social position. In any culture there exists a limited number of roles which are combined in various ways to compose a limited number of positions. Within any position there tends to be a strain toward consistency or adjustment between the various roles composing a position.

³⁴ Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, op. cit., p. 324.

Bates also pointed out that no role exists without a paired reciprocal role which is a part of a different position. Two positions tend at any given moment to be tangential to each other at one and only one point. Only one role is active at a given moment and others are latent. Bates postulated that factors which determine which roles are active at any given moment are (1) the personalities of persons occupying the positions, (2) the characteristics of the situation in terms of physical setting, temporal context with respect to previous situations, social setting, etc., and (3) the entire structure of the group in which the action is taking place.³⁵

Role theory has at times been combined with other bodies of theoretical consideration to give an even more potent tool for interpreting social behavior. Such an attempt has been made by Cain in synthesizing role and reference group therapy. She distinguished between effective, those who have the ability to persuade or encourage the focal person to accept their definitions or sets of expectations, and ineffective role definers. The self is also seen as playing a part as effective or ineffective role definer for incumbent. Reference groups vary between positive and negative and the amount of power available to each. Cain suggested the following classification of

³⁵Frederick L. Bates, "Position, Role and Status: A Reformulation of Concepts," Social Forces, Vol. 34 (May, 1956), pp. 313-321.

reference groups in a descending order or potency as regards their effect on ego: identification groups; normative reference groups; and audience groups. These can be placed into the categories of either interactive or comparative groups. There is a hierarchy within each classification which varies in actual situations with the variables of centrality, visibility, legitimacy, likelihood of sanctions, personality of focal position incumbents and group cohesiveness. These considerations help to solve the critical problem for theory of what determines relative potency of groups. The problem of what determines the person's identification with a group was dealt with by suggesting the factor of ego's perception of the dependence of the group on him and the dependence of ego on the group. As stated by Cain:

. . . the power of counter positions within the reference group categories is largely a function of the degree of interdependence between the counter-position and himself perceived by ego, and that this holds true both as regards the long term hierarchy of power and also in particular situations where there may be a temporary shift.³⁶

Goode, writing in The American Journal of Sociology, pointed out that recent social analysis of role has widely supplanted the term "status" even among writers who assert a formal distinction. In commenting on this shift in definitions he stated, "Consensus with respect

³⁶Maureen E. Cain, "Suggested Developments for Role and Reference Group Analysis," The British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 19 (June, 1968), 191-205.

to a concept grows from the social processes in a community of scientists who work on similar problems" and "as research continues, almost all the various definitions of role and status used in past generations will be discarded."³⁷ Goode also pointed out that conformity to a set of norms is not a simple function of norm commitment. It is a relationship of general direction. The individual's emotional commitment to an adequate discharge of his role duties, and thus his behavioral consistency, derives ultimately from his experiences of censure and reward in his role relationships.³⁸

Williams observed that there is an imposing set of empirical and theoretical evidence as to the fruitfulness of conceptualizing leadership as associated with differentiation of roles based on functional problems. To test this notion, Williams studied a small rural agricultural community in the Southwestern part of the United States. Activities were divided into instrumental roles and expressive roles. It was found that different leadership types tended to associate with either instrumental or expressive subsystems. Interestingly enough, the results indicated that decisions were made about problems relative

³⁷William J. Goode, "Norm Commitment and Conformity to Role-Status Obligations," The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 66 (November, 1960), p. 247.

³⁸Ibid., p. 253.

to each subsystem without emergence of authoritarian leadership. A collegial structure existed which made decisions marked by a high degree of consensus and tolerance. Goals were attained without administrative specialists. The results tended to support those who maintain that power mobilization is a technical requirement depending upon the administrative arrangement of a social organization rather than a functional requisite.³⁹

As more attempts are made to formulate and test hypotheses based on role theory, a need arises to develop appropriate research methodologies. An initial attempt to spell out operational requirements on role research has been proposed by Rushing. He made the observation that, "Despite the abundant literature on the subject of role, the operational procedures required of empirical analysis have yet to be given explicit and detailed consideration."⁴⁰

Role is based on the assumption of the existence of a counter role. This is a complementary consideration. One of the methodological implications is the need to sample not only the position incumbents, but "others" for

³⁹Virgil Williams, "Leadership Types, Role Differentiation, and System Problems," Social Forces, Vol. 43 (March, 1965), pp. 380-389.

⁴⁰William A. Rushing, "The Role Concept: Assumptions and Their Methodological Implications," Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 49 (October, 1964), p. 47.

their expectations of the position. The sampling should include position members who actually interact. A further requirement is the necessity of describing the context for the expectations described. Social norms and uniform behavior which are related as independent and dependent variables, necessitate independent observations of each. Finally, the researcher must remember that consensus or conflict cannot be assumed from the study of only one role incumbent.⁴¹

Role Theory as an Analytic Framework

The next subsection of the review of role theory deals with the use of role concepts as a framework for the analysis of complex organizations. Role has been used as a means for interpreting both structural and behavioral aspects of formal organizations. A later section of the review is devoted to organizational means available for achieving a greater degree of role compliance.

As a rationale for using role theory to study organizations, Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman gave the following explanation:

The search for insights into the functioning of complex organizations have led to the development of a variety of systematic frameworks within which organizations may be described and measured. One of the approaches used stems from the common

⁴¹Ibid., pp. 48-57.

observation that people in organizations tend to have relatively uniform expectations about the behavior of persons in various positions and that the behavior of these persons is interpreted in terms of such expectations. These observations suggest the usefulness of some of the concepts developed in connection with role theory.⁴²

E. Wright Bakke attempted to develop an all inclusive framework for the analysis of complex organizations in which he gave a position of primary importance to sets of expectancies. As stated by Bakke:

The behavior which is the substance of the organization may accord with several sets of expectancies:

(a) The expectancies which, as can be inferred from formulated and announced specifications and rules, the managers of the organization should hold with respect to their subordinates

(b) The expectancies which are held by the superordinates to whom the actor is subordinate

(c) The expectancies held by others with whom the actor is directly associated in tasks performed for the organization

(d) The expectancies held by those belonging to a circle of participants with which the actor feels himself identified

(e) The expectancies which the actor has for himself.⁴³

The behavior of any individual in the organization is seen as a response to a fusion the actor has made of all five types of expectancies.

Bakke saw organizations as a complex of interrelated elements. The various activities are associated with essential processes which in turn constitutes one of the

⁴²Eugene Jacobson, W. W. Charters, Jr., and Seymour Lieberman, op. cit., p. 18.

⁴³E. Wright Bakke, op. cit., p. 45.

elementary organization substances along with the organizational charter and basic resources. All these elements are seen as in a state of interdependence. Bakke admitted this was a highly theoretical and complicated conceptualization, but went on to say " . . . the findings of all types of organizational research will have to be integrated with the system of variables which actually exists in a living organization with all of its complexity."⁴⁴

Levinson viewed organizations from a sociopsychological point of view and determined that role theory provided an important link between the individual and the collective matrix. Levinson pointed out that the major emphasis in organizational research has been on the structural component with the virtual exclusion of the human personality factor. He further stated there is a reciprocal influence in both directions between personality and structure. Role is seen as composed of structurally given demands, the actor's orientation or conception of role, and actions of the individual actor. These three aspects should be given independent and empirical status. Even though it is reasonable to assume a measure of congruence among all three elements, they nevertheless do vary from each other. Using three categories of role as a general framework, it is then possible to incorporate

⁴⁴Ibid., pp. 72-73.

the dimensions of dynamics and change into this approach of organizational research.⁴⁵ In summary, Levinson suggested:

. . . that a primary distinction be made between the structurally given role-demands and the forms of an organization. Personal role definition then becomes a linking concept between personality and social structure,

And as a final observation:

. . . we should keep in mind that both personality structure and social structure inevitably have their internal contradiction.⁴⁶

Getzels developed a conceptual model of social behavior predicated on a perspective very similar to that used by Levinson. The model proposed by Getzels was proposed as having particular relevance for administration. Administration is conceived of as structurally in a hierarchical relationship with a functional responsibility for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system.⁴⁷ The proposed model has two conceptually independent dimensions which are phenomenally interactive. The nomothetic side which is composed of the elements of institution, role and expectation and the idiographic side composed of individual, personality and need disposition constitute the two

⁴⁵Daniel J. Levinson, "Role, Personality and Social Structure in the Organizational Setting," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 58 (1959), pp. 170-180.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 179.

⁴⁷Jacob W. Getzels, op. cit., p. 151.

dimensions. The behavior of any specific role-incumbent in an institution is a product of both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. The degree to which each dimension determines an action varies with the specific act, the specific role and the specific personality involved. Getzels went on to suggest that the usefulness of the model depends upon resulting derivations and relevant research studies. As an example of relevant research, the following basic hypothesis was cited:

. . . when the perceptions of the expectations of participants in an administrative interaction overlap, the participants feel satisfied with the work accomplished no matter what the actual behavior or accomplishment; when the perception of the expectations does not overlap, the participants feel dissatisfied.⁴⁸

This particular hypothesis is very similar to one of the hypothesis tested in this research investigation.

Gross, in a paper dealing with possible social science contributions for educational administration, suggested six sociological perspectives that he had found helpful in efforts to deal with concrete and complex problems of educational organizations.⁴⁹ The fourth perspective listed was "Dissension on role definitions among

⁴⁸ Ibid., p. 160.

⁴⁹ Neal Gross, "Sociology and the Study of Administration," The Social Sciences and Educational Administration, ed. by Laurence W. Downey and Frederick Enns (The University of Alberta, Canada: The Division of Educational Administration, 1963), p. 32.

organizational members constitutes a potential source of conflict and strain that may influence organizational functioning."⁵⁰ This perspective focuses attention on the role expectations the incumbents of positions hold for each other's behavior. Dissension in role definition may be accounted for by varying socialization experiences, different reference groups, and differences in values. Gross commented that "the fascinating thing I have observed in a number of organizations is the extent to which individuals who work in close contact with each other can misperceive the role expectations others hold for their role performance."⁵¹

Palumbo has pointed out that a common thread in the organizational context exists among the concepts of power, role, status and conditioned response. He postulated a relationship between the amount of power available to an actor and the degree of role specificity for the actor's position. Role specificity might be ascertained by measuring structural variables such as centralization, formalization, and span of control. The question to be answered is whether these variables might also be used as a measure of power. Palumbo used the above theoretical position to study the relationship of power and role specificity for the positions of nurse and sanitarian in 14

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 35.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 36.

local public health departments. He found that the higher up the organization hierarchy, the more power an individual has because he will have wider role discretion. He defined power as " . . . the opportunity of the person holding the position to alter the rules which define what behavioral norms he will follow and what norms some other members of the organization will follow"⁵² He also found that any one person was limited in the opportunity he had to alter norms for any other position in the organization. Two particularly important factors that related to the degree of role specificity were the task environment and degree of professionalism. In terms of professionalism, the relationship with morale varies according to the type of position. For example, using the position of sanitarian, increased centralization is positively related to decreased professionalization, but decreased professionalization is positively related to higher morale. As a concluding remark, Palumbo pointed out that organizational behavior cannot be reduced to a single variable, but it did appear that defining power in terms of role specificity may be a profitable research strategy.⁵³

Another important consideration in role definition is the relationship between the degree to which the roles

⁵²Dennis J. Palumbo, "Power and Role Specificity in Organization Theory," Public Administration Review, Vol. 29, (May-June, 1969), 244.

⁵³Ibid., pp. 237-246.

are defined and adaptability to social change. Frank suggested the following three types of ideal administrative organizations distinguished as to the degree of definition of administrative roles and sets of roles: Type 1 - under-defined; Type 2 - well-defined; and Type 3 - over-defined. He saw a relationship in the amount to which an organization member is active and the amount of possible change. The under-defined roles permit individuals actively to take the determination of their own and others' destinies into their own hands if they so wish. It allows adaptation of role definition and response to changing environments. Type 2 with well-defined, coherent role definitions tends to prohibit individual initiative and makes ritual role performance easy. This would impede adaptation to environmental change. Type 3 which is characterized by excessive or conflicting role expectations results in adaptive or deviant role behavior. The behavior may be to stimulate role performance, creation of alternative role responses or gradually changing the expectations of one's own role. Frank noted that each of the various types might be better suited for different tasks. For example, Type 1 organizations either could be suited for research

institutions or within an organization they could be associated with heads of the organization.⁵⁴ As a final conclusion, Frank states:

In brief, the well-defined roles of Type 2 organization permit only very limited flexibility and require sufficient external pressure for change to result in revolutionary change of an institution which relies on it. The under- and over-defined roles of Type 1 and Type 3 organizations on the other hand provide for internally generated initiative and externally induced adaptation.⁵⁵

Julian has taken the position that the amount of role consensus reflects the degree of collective integration within an organization, and consequently decided to investigate some of the possible determinates of consensus. Most studies have assumed a measure of consensus and treated it as an independent rather than dependent variable. Julian obtained data to test hypotheses concerned with the relations between dissensus and the factors of socialization and preparation. Role prescriptions of physicians, registered nurses, and patients in a tuberculosis hospital were the subjects studied.⁵⁶ In

⁵⁴Andrew Gunder frank, "Administrative Role Definitions and Social Change," Human Organization, Vol. 22, (Winter, 1963-64), 238-242.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 242.

⁵⁶Joseph Julian, "Some Determinants of Dissensus on Role Prescriptions Within and Between Four Organizational Positions," The Sociological Quarterly, Vol. 10 (Spring, 1969), 177-189.

summarizing his findings, he concluded that:

Socialization and preparations are inversely related to dissensus on respective role prescriptions as well as on the role prescriptions of other positions. Role specificity was also found to be inversely related to dissensus on respective role prescriptions. However, the relationship between role specificity and dissensus on role prescription of other positions was rather weak. Some support was found indicating a direct relationship between social distance and dissensus.⁵⁷

Julian's basic contention and findings are directly related to the aspect of this investigation which described the various preparation and socialization measures utilized by the various school districts to achieve role compliance.

In another study also using hospital work groups as subjects, Hass studied the relationship between role consensus and intra group harmony. The basic theoretical position for the study was based on the premise that to the extent disharmony and friction occur within a group, the productivity of the group is retarded, thus being viewed as a problem for the administrator. In general, the findings lent support to the basic theoretical position. The specific hypotheses tested and the general level of support are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: For any dyad within a group which persists overtime, low consensus in role conception is directly related to low role performance rating. The findings lent some support,

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 189.

but not strong support. An important related factor may have been the frequency of interaction.

- Hypothesis 2: For any dyad within a group which persists overtime, low consensus in role conception is directly related to low sociometric preference. The hypothesis was supported.
- Hypothesis 3: For members of a group which exists overtime, level of role performance rating is directly related to degree of sociometric preference. The data clearly supported the hypothesis.
- Hypothesis 4: For any group which persists overtime, level of role consensus among members is inversely related to the incidence of friction. The data gave general support to the hypothesis.
- Hypothesis 5: Level of role consensus among professional employees is directly related to similarity of educational background. Insofar as the data permitted a test of this hypothesis, the relationship was supported.⁵⁸

The study seemed to indicate that low role consensus in permanent groups is directly related to disharmony and annoyance. The administrative objective should be to achieve high consensus on norms which optimize effectiveness.

Two studies using air force personnel provide additional insight into the use of role theory to understand organizational behavior. The first study conducted by Davis was designed to test the position that conceptions of official leader roles influence leader-follower interaction and adjustment. The major hypothesis of the study

⁵⁸Eugene J. Hass, Role Conception and Group Consensus (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University, 1964), pp. 84-102.

was that agreement between the official leader and his followers is associated with morale and other indices of follower adjustment. Only limited support for the hypothesis was achieved and most of the evidence called for a rejection of the congruence hypothesis. Davis speculated that a more important congruence measure than the one used might have given greater support to the basic contention of the study.⁵⁹ Hall also using air force personnel to study role theory began from the premise that convergence of attitudes and behavior so often observed in face-to-face groups is a consequence of the need to validate attitudes by consensus, together with the motivation for acceptance in the group. B-29 bomber crews were studied with the emphasis placed on the position of aircraft commander. Dimensions of the aircraft commander's behavior were selected and measured by questionnaire responses of crew members and validated against ratings by observers. Using the same behavioral dimensions, attitude scales were given the crew members to measure attitudes toward the commander's behavior. Results were generally as hypothesized for the dimension of intimacy, but results for the

⁵⁹F. James Davis, "Conceptions of Official Leader Roles in the Air Force," Social Forces, Vol. 32 (March, 1954), pp. 253-258.

dimensions of nurturance and militariness were equivocal, which suggested norms for these two items had not developed.⁶⁰

Nye, in a doctoral study of officials in a local governmental agency in Iowa studied performance in a situation of conflicting role definitions. He found some support for a positive relationship between role performance and role definition and the agreement between role definitions, the amount of agreement between role definitions and task accomplishment, and the amount of agreement between role performance and role definition and task accomplishment. Nye found no support for the hypothesis that a position incumbent defines his own role in such a way that there is a greater role convergence between his definition of the role and the official role definition than between another role definers definition of the same role and the official role definition.⁶¹

Willis, in a doctoral study of personnel involved in a county mental health program in the state of Georgia, investigated the relationship between organizational goals and role consensus. She found little relationship

⁶⁰Robert L. Hall, "Social Influence on the Aircraft Commander's Role," American Sociological Review, Vol. 20 (June, 1955), pp. 292-299.

⁶¹John Robert Nye, "Role Performance in Situations of Conflicting Role Definitions" (Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Iowa State University, 1968).

between the actual or ideal conceptions of goal systems and role conceptions. Instead, group members' conception of actual role behavior seemed to be crucial in shaping their role conceptions.⁶²

Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman used role concepts to study relationships between the supervisory positions of foreman and steward and workers in an automobile factory. Previous studies of the position of supervisor have produced evidence that the perceptions and expectations with respect to the supervisor's behavior are systematically related to productivity, to the facility for change in the behavior of supervisors, and to the attitudes of those who work with the supervisors. The investigation of the automobile factory positions was designed to lead to a better understanding of the functioning of complex hierarchically structured organizations and of the determinants of effectiveness and satisfaction of the individual members. The researchers pointed out the importance of considering the factors of degree of structure and relevant reference groups in using role concepts to study organizations. The research findings revealed that modal foremen tend to get along more easily with workers than deviant foremen. Deviant and modal were defined in terms of majority expectations. The data also revealed a strong

⁶²Lynn Magdovitz Willis, "A Study of Relationships Between Organizational Goals and Role Consensus" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Emory University, 1967).

relationship between a steward's expectations of his own role and the expectations which he attributed to workers. Based on their findings, the investigators hypothesized that discrepancy or congruity between social role and role behavior can be accounted for in terms of accuracy of perceptions and the extent of motivation toward performing the behavior. They further suggest that effectiveness in terms of role concepts might be determined by the ability of the incumbent to be motivated to meet role expectations of relevant peers, supervisors and subordinates.⁶³

Frameworks and Conclusions

The next four studies reviewed are included because they provide general frameworks or summary conclusions of role theory based on extensive reviews of the literature. The four studies were chosen because they were particularly useful for designing this dissertation and they are frequently referred to by various authors.

The resurvey of literature by Neiman and Hughes was referred to in the first part of this review of role theory. The survey ranged over material from the years 1900 to 1950. Many of their conclusions are very pertinent today as a commentary about role theory. After surveying some eighty different sources which used the concept "role" the authors came to the following conclusions:

⁶³Jacobsen, Charters and Lieberman, op. cit., pp. 18-27.

1. Historically the greatest emphasis has been in the last decade as far as the use of the concept is concerned. Prior to about 1940 the concept was more of an abstract generalization than a research tool. After 1940 more research involving the concept is in evidence.

2. In the early historical development, in the area of theoretical assumptions and implications, the frame of reference was almost exclusively that of symbolic interactionism. This trend has continued to the present day as exemplified by those who use the concept as a basic factor in the process of socialization.

3. The concept role is at present still rather vague, nebulous, and non-definitive. Frequently in the literature, the concept is used without any attempt on the part of the writer to define or delimit the concept, the assumption being that both writer and reader will achieve an immediate compatible consensus. Concomitantly, the concept is found frequently in popular usage which adds further confusion.

4. In the literature of empirical research, by far the greatest amount of research has been in sociometry, but isolated studies have appeared elsewhere.

5. In spite of the confusion and lack of consensus, the concept role is at present an integral part of sociological vocabulary. The evidence here is that the concept is appearing in every introductory text in the field.

6. In the psychological literature, although the word, role, may not itself be used, the implication is found in such concepts as "self"; "self-perception" and "self-awareness."

7. There is little research, but theorizing on the process of the development of roles. "Speculation runs high, while investigation goes begging."

8. There is an increasing trend toward associating the concept role with that of status. Here perhaps is the most definitive use of the concept, and the one about which there is most consensus.

9. Hypotheses involving the concept role are extremely rare in the literature. This raises the question of the utility of the concept. If a concept is useful in the field, is it not logical to assume that one would find varying hypotheses in the research literature putting the concept to the test of empirical research? This is not true of the concept role.

10. There are few, if any, predictive studies of human behavior involving the concept role. If predictive ability is one measure of a scientific construct, this is a telling criticism of the construct.⁶⁴

Subsequent to Neiman and Hughes remarks there has been progress in developing more generally accepted and specific role definitions, development of testable hypotheses and empirical research. Many of the studies included in this review of literature provide testimony to this observation.

Biddle, in a multi-volumed report of a research investigation into the role of the teacher by a team from the Social Psychological Laboratory, University of Missouri, included a five major dimensional framework for analysis of role statements and a review of its application to role theory literature. Biddle initially makes the observation that, "There is, perhaps, no field in all social science today with as little consensus among investigators as to what its terms are, what they mean, or indeed, with what phenomena the theory is concerned."⁶⁵ He

⁶⁴Neiman and Hughes, op. cit., p. 149.

⁶⁵Bruce J. Biddle, op. cit., Series 1, Vol. B, p. 1.

also observed that despite the wide variety of definitions, there are only a few primitive concepts involved. Biddle begins from the position that, "role theory deals with patterns of certain characteristics which are common to a person or to groups of persons (called positions) and with a variety of cognitions held about those patterns by social observers."⁶⁶

Five major dimensions which together provide a comprehensive frame for analysis of role statements was devised by Biddle and his research team. The first dimension is concerned with the level of the object to be discussed. Three levels of discussion were included. The first or real world level includes the actual person, characteristics or behavior. The second level is labeled first order cognitions and is defined as cognitions maintained by social observers about real world events. Cognitions are mental mapping structures. They may be judged as accurate or inaccurate. Expectations and norms are first order cognitions and they serve to structure the behavior of individuals. The third level is identified as second level cognitions and is defined as cognitions maintained by the social observer about cognitions of others. The second dimension of analysis is the persons discussed, either as object or subject. The object-actor is a person who exhibits the behavior. The subject

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 3.

is a person who is presumed to hold cognitions relating to a social situation, and more specifically, to an object and his characteristics. When the cognitions are held for the self, then the person may be subject and also object. There should be a distinction made between the individual standing alone and one who is seen as a member of a position. A third dimension to consider is characteristics. These are either behavior which is performed and bound by time and place or features which are like a mask and persist beyond a specific context. Types of cognition are the fourth major dimension. Cognitions are either expectations or norms. Expectations are termed as subjective probability maps maintained by a subject, while norms are prescriptive maps. Neither expectation nor norm need bear any relationship to actual behavior of the object. A set of expectations make up a role. The final dimension is the background or setting. Patterns of behavior tend to have less variance within settings than they do between settings. Also, it is possible to have more than one pattern of behavior within one setting. Settings are both physical and social. The positions present, time, institutional structure, history and shared culture are all aspects of background.⁶⁷

In the second chapter of Volume 1, Series B, Biddle presented a coding system based on the five major

⁶⁷Ibid., Chapter 1.

dimensions of role analysis. The code was then applied to role terms and concepts used in various theoretical articles. In Chapter 5 of Volume 1, Series B, Biddle summarized empirical role studies of the public school teacher. The studies included were those which related to cognitions held about teachers and not actual behavior. As a summary, Biddle states that:

In general, most previous studies:

- (1) Have been concerned with first-order cognitions.
- (2) Have dealt with norms rather than expectations.
- (3) Have dealt with but one type of cognition.
- (4) Have been non-systematic in choice of subjects.
- (5) Have studied the cognitions of but one position (although a variety of positions have been used as subjects).
- (6) Have studied "teachers in general" or the complete teacher position.
- (7) Have utilized "the community" most often as a sentient object in the minority of second-order cognition studies, despite the presence of well-defined secondary positions in interaction with teachers.
- (8) Have focused primarily upon behaviors and pseudo-features.
- (9) Have almost completely ignored the backgrounds of teacher role.
- (10) Have made use of arbitrarily chosen, close-ended frameworks for the expression of behavioral alternatives.
- (11) Have studied cognitions for the teacher alone or as dependent variables.⁶⁸

Gross, Mason and McEachern were concerned with an extensive examination of role concepts in their analysis of the position of school superintendent. The study was an aspect of the School Executive Studies, a research program initiated by Harvard University in 1952. The basic

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 124-125.

assumption of the research was that the extent of consensus on role definition may directly affect the functioning of a social system. In their review of literature, the investigators gave considerable attention to the postulate of role consensus. In one of the final paragraphs of the review, Gross, et al., concluded:

In attempting to place the problem of role consensus in its social science setting, we observed that the postulate of consensus is still enmeshed in the analyses of many students of social behavior. Since their analyses assume consensus on role definitions among members of a group or "society," they have ignored its possible significance as a variable for social science inquiry. We also observed, however, that during the past decade, there has been an increasing tendency to consider role consensus an important variable for the study of individual social behavior, the functioning of social systems, and cultural organizations.⁶⁹

The consideration of role consensus is particularly pertinent for this research. Consensus was not assumed, but rather the degree to which it did or did not exist was considered as a determinant of other crucial variables for the school organization.

Another result of Gross's, et al., review of literature was a classification of role definitions into the following three basic categories: (1) equated with or defined to include normative cultural patterns, (2) as an individual's definition of his situation with reference

⁶⁹Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason and Alexander W. McEarchen, op. cit., p. 42.

to his and others' social positions, and (3) as the behavior of actors occupying social positions.

The 1955 annual meeting of the National Council of College Teachers of Education was devoted to an assessment of research on the social roles of teachers. As a result of the meeting, Brookover developed a conceptual schema to deal with the various studies and concepts using role theory to study and analyze teacher and administrator behavior. Use was made of the basic assumption that role concepts are meaningful only in a social interaction situation. A paradigm was used to show the various aspects of role behavior and role conflict. The paradigm includes two sides or dimensions, one the individual actor and the other the expectations held for the actor by others. Each dimension is divided into differing levels of specificity. On the expectational side are levels of general expectations held for any actor in a broadly defined position, expectations of any actor in a particular situation, and expectations for a particular actor in a particular situation. On the side of the actor the initial level represents the actor as he enters the situation with his different needs, experiences and perceptions of the situation. The second level involves the actor's self-image as he projects himself into the situation. The final level is the actor's definition of what he thinks others expect of him in the role. The

center or core of the paradigm represents behavior of the actor which results from the mixing of the two dimensions.

Both dimensions operate on more than one level depending on such factors as the particular group and actor involved. Any one situation may have several relevant persons or groups. Each level discussed proceeds from a general to more specific level. The more general level for each dimension, in part, determines the boundaries of the next more specific level. The various levels and resulting behavior exist in a dynamic relationship which is in a state of constant redefinition.

A further comment about the schema is that the actor may see incompatible expectations as compatible. The important factor is how the actor perceives the situation. The actor often finds ways of mediating conflicting expectations. Brookover observed that many studies using role concepts to study expectations for teachers and administrators make little or no differentiation between types or levels of specificity.⁷⁰

Role Theory and Education

This final section of the role theory review is a consideration of studies exclusively in the field of

⁷⁰W. B. Brookover, "Research on Teacher and Administrator Roles," The Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29 (September, 1955), pp. 2-13. See also, Wilbur B. Brookover and David Gottlieb, A Sociology of Education (New York: American Book Company, 1964), pp. 324-325.

education. There are countless education research activities which rely to some measure on the concepts of role theory. The selection criteria for this review was to include both a representative sample and those several major studies which have particular significance for this dissertation.

A comprehensive review of role theory, as applied to the education profession up to 1960, can be found in Chapter 2 of a doctoral dissertation by Cowan.⁷¹ The review indicates a similarity between the development of role theory in general and its use in particular to investigate the profession of education. For example, Waller, in the early 1930's, used a generalized role concept in a descriptive study of the teaching profession. In an observation designed to help develop understanding of the school as a social system, he stated, " . . . to play a role is to regulate one's behavior by the imagined judgments of others."⁷²

One of the most significant and frequently cited research projects is the study of the school superintendency by Gross, Mason and McEachern which was previously

⁷¹Alton W. Cowan, "The Building Director: A Critical Study of Expectations Held for the Position by Principals, Adult Education Coordinators, Teachers and Building Directors" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1960).

⁷²Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1932), p. 149.

referred to in this review of role theory. The study explored the problems of role consensus, conformity to expectations, and resolution of role conflict. The postulate of role consensus has either been implied or explicit in many studies of various social systems. In addition, the effect of different degrees of consensus on role performance has not been acknowledged. After a thorough review of role theory, Gross and company developed a methodology that tested many theoretical hypothesis which made use of role consensus as a variable. A population of 105 superintendents and 508 school board members in the state of Massachusetts were used as the sample. The hypotheses were tested for the total population, categorized under the title of macroscopic consensus and for each separate school system, which was categorized as microscopic consensus. The research findings gave no support to the hypothesis that the length of interaction and the extent of homogeneity were related to role consensus between school board members and school superintendents.⁷³ The findings did indicate that homogeneity and interaction were related to role consensus within the school board member group.⁷⁴ Gross and his colleagues further hypothesized that role consensus determined the satisfaction of group members and also influenced the manner in which

⁷³Ibid., p. 180.

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 191.

they evaluate one another. Satisfaction was found to be related to consensus within the school board member group, but was not found to be related to role consensus between school board members and school superintendents. The superintendents' ratings of the school boards were found to be related to consensus, but the school boards' ratings of the superintendents were not related to consensus.⁷⁵ The researchers concluded their investigation with a theory of role conflict resolution in which they dealt with the conceptual elements of legitimacy of expectations and probable sanctions. As one of their concluding observations, Gross, Mason and McEachern stated:

Our research experience suggests that when a more differentiated set of concepts are developed to devote subsidiary notions involved in the general conception of role, these microscopic terms may be fruitfully used in theoretical propositions. That is, the ideas to which role refers, if treated as a family of concepts instead of in a holistic manner, may be made available for theoretical hypotheses.⁷⁶

Another investigation which focused on administrative positions was a doctoral study by Craig of factors affecting congruency of role perception for the position of elementary principal. All elementary principals and central office personnel were surveyed in eight suburban school districts in King County, Washington. Craig,

⁷⁵Ibid., pp. 212-221.

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 324.

after measuring the various personnel with an administrative function responsibility scale, concluded that: (1) There were significant differences between elementary principals and central office personnel in their perceptions of the degree of responsibility of elementary principals for the administrative tasks; (2) Increased frequency of staff meetings was significantly related to higher levels of consensus among the principals, and (3) There was a significant relationship between an increase in school district size and a decrease in consensus among principals.⁷⁷

In a doctoral study based on a series of case incidents about administrative succession, Beall analyzed the process through which a superintendent of schools acquires and maintains his role, when his expectations for performance of his role differ to a considerable extent from that of his predecessor. He concluded that awareness of timing actions by the new incumbent is critical. Also, he must realize board members still maintain role expectations associated with the behavior of the predecessor. Consequently, adjustments would have to be made by both parties before consensus would be obtained. Finally, conflict was felt inevitable, but should be contained so

⁷⁷Lloyd Gene Craig, "A Study of Factors Relating to Achievement of Congruency of Perception of the Role of the Elementary School Principal" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Washington, 1967).

that efforts could be directed to the resolution of as few items of controversy as possible at any given time.⁷⁸

A study by Bidwell, which is also directed to administration, related teacher job satisfaction to their role expectations of administrators and the degree to which the administrators fulfilled the expectations. Based on a 53 per cent return of questionnaires sent to 358 teachers in five school districts regarding their expectations and perceptions of the principal and superintendent, Bidwell concluded that:

(1) Convergence of teachers' role-expectations toward the administrator and their perceptions of his behavior will be accompanied by an expression by these teachers of satisfaction with the teaching situation.

(2) Divergence of teachers' role-expectations toward the administrator and their perceptions of his behavior will be accompanied by an expression by these teachers of dissatisfaction with the teaching situation.⁷⁹

Follow up interviews with a sample of the respondents lent further substantiation to the findings, and seems to indicate that the conclusions were upheld, independent of the nature of the expectations.

The degree of disagreement on the teacher's role between teacher and principal, and its effect upon teacher

⁷⁸Harold Addison Beall, "Administrative Succession: A Study of Role Acquisition and Maintenance" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Oregon, 1962).

⁷⁹Charles E. Bidwell, "The Administrative Role and Satisfaction in Teaching," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29, p. 47.

satisfaction and effectiveness was the question studied in a doctoral dissertation by Campbell. The investigation was conducted in eight elementary and seven secondary schools located in southern Wisconsin and northern Illinois. Fifteen principals and 284 teachers participated in the study. Each principal was given a form consisting of sixty statements and was asked to indicate what he expected his teachers to do. Each teacher was given the same form, but was instructed to indicate what he most wanted in his teaching situation. In addition, each principal rated the effectiveness of his teachers and each teacher rated his own effectiveness, satisfaction, and confidence in the leadership of the principal. The three hypotheses tested and their level of support was as follows:

(1) Those teachers whose wants and needs were in agreement with their principal's expectations would express significantly higher job satisfaction than would those teachers whose wants were in conflict with the principal's definition of the teacher's role. This hypothesis was substantiated by the study.

(2) Those teachers whose wants and needs were similar to the expectations their principals held for them would be rated as more effective in the teaching situation. When the teachers rated their own effectiveness, the hypothesis was not supported. When the principals were the raters, the hypothesis was supported.

(3) Those teachers whose wants and needs were in agreement with what the principal expected would express more confidence in leadership than would

teachers whose wants were in conflict with the principal's expectations. This hypothesis was supported.⁸⁰

Campbell's study is particularly related to this dissertation and was one of the research investigations which lent support for the feasibility of the hypotheses tested for the position of teacher aide.

A large number of studies using role theory have focused on the role of the classroom teacher. One of the most comprehensive and sophisticated was the study by Biddle referred to previously in the review. Biddle and his assistants used their multi-dimensional factors of level, object, characteristics, cognitions, and context to measure the role of the teacher as viewed by various groups. The respondents included teachers, parents, pupils, school board members, and school administrators. The data were collected in three separate field studies: a pilot study; background study; and role study. Data and conclusions were tabulated for stereotypic responses for all groups, for differences in cognitions respondents held for teachers and for those they attribute to others. Significant differences were found among groups and cognitions held by respondents and those attributed to others. More importantly, there was an obvious, striking, and apparently well-entrenched stereotype as defined by all respondents

⁸⁰ Merton V. Campbell, "Teacher-Principal Agreement on the Teacher Role," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. 7 (February, 1959), pp. 1-4.

groups. Stereotypes as related to role were defined by Biddle as commonly held components of role for behavior, traits, and other characteristics which the average respondent feels are norms or expectations for role incumbents. The findings revealed a sharp consistency between positive norms and expectations and a tendency toward over-conformity in the behaviors reported by teachers. The same conclusion was drawn for negative norms with the exception that they were found to be more extreme. Biddle and his staff concluded with the observations that community respondents focused upon teacher-pupil relationships and classroom control, and made a conscious effort to avoid the primary teacher task-instruction. The data provided a generally optimistic picture. For example, teachers were portrayed as stressing creativity, organization, excitement and impartiality in the classroom. There was general agreement on what constitutes a good teacher and the expectations teachers will behave that way.⁸¹

Getzels and Guba used role theory in an analysis of the relationship of role expectations, role conflict, and individual characteristics in the teaching situation. After extensive interviews, a role conflict instrument was developed which permitted the simultaneous measurement of

⁸¹Biddle, op. cit., Vol. 2, pp. 135-152.

both the situational and the personalistic aspects of conflict. The instrument covered three aspects of the teacher role: socio-economic, citizens, and professional. The following conclusions based on a 48 per cent return from 344 teachers in 18 schools were deemed appropriate by the researchers:

(1) The teacher is defined both by core expectations common to the teaching situation in general and by significantly varying expectations that are a function of local school and community conditions.

(2) Many of the expectations attached to the teacher role are inconsistent with expectations attached to other roles the teacher typically occupies. That is, the teaching situation is in many critical elements characterized by role conflict.

(3) The nature of the role conflicts is systematically related to certain differences among schools and among communities.

(4) The existence of role conflicts may be taken as evidence that the teacher role is imperfectly integrated with other roles. The consequence of role conflict may be frustration for the individual teacher and ineffectiveness for the educational institution.

(5) There are differential reactions among teachers in the extent of their liability to (or being troubled by) role conflict in the teaching situation. These differential reactions are systematically and meaningfully related to certain personal characteristics of the teachers.⁸²

Terrein selected the teaching profession to test the general hypothesis that an occupation could act to channel the behavior of its adherents into a recognizable system both on and off the job, and correlatively, could determine an occupational type among those adherents. The data

⁸²J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "The Structure of Roles and Role Conflict in a Teaching Situation," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29 (September, 1955), pp. 30-40.

were collected from a 10 per cent random sample of 1,000 teachers from an eastern city. The hypothesis was generally substantiated. Terrein stated:

. . . while the role of teachers is fairly well established--tied in, as it is, with their important function--it is painfully clear that their status, or 'position with relation to the total of society' remains unresolved.⁸³

As a concluding observation, he further states:

The general impression which arises from the replies to the extensive survey here reported in part is that teachers conceive of themselves as loyal, non-aggressive, somewhat martyred public servants. They appear to differ from the average American in that they lack a really positive concept of self. Their future, they believe, depends upon the public conscience, and on their own actions.⁸⁴

Brown, in research for a doctoral dissertation, found no correlation between the factors of teacher role perceptions and pupil perceptions of teacher behavior characteristics. The data were collected using the Teacher Practices Questionnaire (TPQ) and a pupil observation questionnaire (POSR), which measures five dimensions of behavior characteristics. One hundred seventy-eight Georgia secondary school teachers made up the sample population. The research data did indicate a relationship between role expectations and the teacher's age, sex,

⁸³Frederic W. Terrein, "The Occupational Roles of Teachers," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29 (September, 1955), p. 20.

⁸⁴Ibid.

and teaching field. There was also a relationship between pupil ratings and the teacher's age, sex, and teaching field.⁸⁵

In another study of secondary teachers, Snyder found that the expectations which collectively constitute the role of male secondary public school teachers appeared to be a highly stable set of stipulations. Respondents held the same expectations for the teacher living next door to them as they did for teachers in general. There was a difference between categories of expectations which Snyder labeled as primary, peripheral, and secondary. When expectations concerned teaching activities and allied situations closely related to the teaching role, respondents showed a relatively low consensus, or high disagreement, as to what they expected. When expectations were concerned with teachers acting independently of, or external to the school, respondents tended to show greater consensus as to what they expected of those teachers. The data was collected from 163 teachers designated as neighbors of 47 male junior high school and senior high school

⁸⁵Iva Dirckins Brown, "Role Perceptions of Secondary Teachers as Related to Pupils' Perceptions of Teacher Behavioral Characteristics" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Georgia, 1965).

teachers. The instrument consisted of 166 closed response expectation items for the teaching role.⁸⁶

Klein found very little relationship between attitudes, expectations and the amount and level of teaching experience. The population included 367 teachers and 322 teacher trainees. Attitudes were measured by responses to Kerlinger's Education Scale VII (ESVII). Teacher role expectations were obtained from responses to the researchers' revision of Sorenson's Teachers' Practices Questionnaire. As a conclusion, Klein stated, " . . . the combination of level and amount of teaching experience account for very little variance in either educational attitudes or dimensions of teacher role expectations."⁸⁷

Tomich, for a doctoral dissertation, conducted a study which attempted to establish relationships between role cognitions held by teachers and their associated role behavior. The data was collected from 27 teachers, plus parents, school officials, and students. The actual behavior was rated by teachers, students, and administrators. Teachers were classified as congruent, based on

⁸⁶Clinton A. Snyder, "Variations in Expectations for the Teacher Role: As Related to General and Specific Roles, Expectation Categories, and Social Distance" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1963).

⁸⁷Alice Enid Klein, "Educational Attitudes, Level and Amount of Teaching Experience, and Three Dimensions of Teachers' Subjective Role Expectations" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Missouri, 1963).

similarity between teacher anticipations and student ratings, and non-congruent.

Generally, the highest correlations between cognitions and ratings of behavior were found for comparisons related to behaviors in public contexts and characterized by public norms. This was particularly the case for congruent teachers. For non-congruent teachers, there were disparities between held cognitions and teachers' behavior ratings for both public and private contexts. Congruent teachers appeared to be norm bound in their behavior for the majority of items. Non-congruent teachers appear to be oriented to the demands of the situation for many behavioral items.⁸⁸

The final study reviewed concerning the role of teachers was by Sales and was designed to find out if teacher expectations for a school staff were significantly related to the particular type of internal organization used in the school. The term "internal organization" referred to the pattern of the formal work structure which resulted from the grouping of teachers and pupils into their classrooms. The Valenti-Nelson Survey of Teaching Practices instrument was used to measure role expectations. The data revealed that teacher role expectations were

⁸⁸ Edward Tomich, "Teacher Cognitions and Behavioral Conformity" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Missouri, 1963).

predictable to some degree from the policies and internal organization of the school. Greater kinds of internal organizations might have demonstrated a greater relationship in the factors tested.⁸⁹

Two studies mentioned by Getzels in a chapter entitled "Administration as a Social Process" are particularly worthy of mention in this review. Both studies can be related to Getzels' Nomothetic-Idiographic model of social behavior. Both studies also related directly to the rationale for this particular dissertation. Fernea studied the interaction of consultants and administrators in a school setting. A problem-situation instrument was constructed in which varying expectations for the consultant role could be expressed. The instrument was given to 180 administrators who were known to have had consultant service and to 46 consultants who were known to have provided this service. Each administrator and each consultant was also asked to evaluate the outcome of the consultation. The results revealed that when an administrator and a consultant agreed on the expectations, they tended to rate the actual consultation favorably; when they disagreed, unfavorably. Moyer, in a second study cited by Getzels, investigated the relationship between the expectations of teachers and administrators for

⁸⁹Stanley Sales, "Teacher Role Expectations and the Internal Organization of Secondary Schools," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 57 (January, 1964), pp. 227-235.

leadership in the educational setting and the effect of congruency or discrepancy in this relationship upon teacher satisfaction. The results indicated the greater the agreement between teacher and principal on the expectations for leadership, the more favorable the attitudes toward the work situation.⁹⁰

The next four studies are included only for the purpose of completing the original intent of this review section to give a representative sample of educational studies using role theory. Each study is only briefly mentioned. A study of the position of Curriculum Director by De Helms revealed all respondent groups perceived the director as having administrative authority, but differed as to the perceived amount.⁹¹ The perceived functions of the school psychologist were measured by Valachovic. He used elementary principals, elementary teachers, and schools psychologists as reference groups. The data revealed significant differences among the groups in their perceptions of the appropriate role and

⁹⁰Getzels, op. cit., 160-161.

⁹¹Raymond David De Helms, "A Study of the Degree of Authority of the K-12 Curriculum Director as Perceived by Specific Role Groups in Selected Districts" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Kansas, 1968).

function of the school psychologist.⁹² Role expectations for the elementary school counselor were measured by Farrell. The survey included a sample of respondents from 33 New York State elementary schools. An examination of the results indicated that counselors and principals are more agreed than teachers on expected behavior of counselors.⁹³ Martin found evidence to support the proposition that as the correlation increases between the role of the college teacher as perceived by the professor and the student, rated teacher effectiveness increases.⁹⁴

As a summation, it can be observed that the concept of role has been used frequently and continues to be used with even more frequency. With increased usage, the concept and related theory has become more complex and differentiated. The result seems to be a trend to produce more operational hypotheses which in fact are being put to the empirical test. This is as true for

⁹²Robert John Valachovic, "The Role and Function of School Psychologists: Perceptions of Selected Professional Groups" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, State University of New York at Albany, 1968).

⁹³James Allen Farrell, "An Analysis of the Elementary School Counselor Position: The Role Expectations of Counselors, Principals and Teachers" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Rochester, 1968).

⁹⁴Mary Ethel Williams Martin, "Role Expectations and Teacher Effectiveness of the College Teacher of Education" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1967).

studies which investigate roles in education as well as other social systems. The increase in actual research using role theory seems to indicate that it is very possible to measure expectation, degree of congruency about expectations among groups, and the relationship of expectations to other factors. It is also true that many more studies are needed which measure consensus, or the lack of it, in relation to other variables. Consensus needs to be treated as both a dependent and independent variable.

As a final conclusion to this part of the review of literature, it is appropriate to repeat the observation of Gross, Mason and McEachern, that in most of the conceptualizations they considered, three basic ideas appeared: that individuals in social locations; behave; with reference to expectations.⁹⁵

This concludes the review of role theory. The next subject for review is the means for achieving expectational compliance available to formal organizations.

⁹⁵Gross, Mason and McEachern, op. cit., p. 17.

Means For Achieving Organizational
Role Compliance⁹⁶

If the concept of role congruence is related to the factors of effectiveness, satisfaction, and task performance, then the means of achieving role definitions and a measure of compliance with the definition becomes an important administrative consideration. The problem in large measure is one of predicting and controlling behavior.

Introductory Considerations

Landis discussed the concept of social control as it applies to society in general. He stated, "The problem for control in a secular society is to develop regulative procedures, all recognized to be of man's own making, which will be adequate to maintain balance between freedom and regulation in human affairs."⁹⁷ The means of control which a society employs are dependent in large measure on the society's conception of human nature, as well as its conceptions of conformity desired. Landis pointed out several classifications which have been used

⁹⁶ Compliance is used in its broadest sense and as a central element of organizational structure. It refers both to a relation in which an employee behaves in accordance with measures taken by the organization, and to the orientation of the employee to the measures.

⁹⁷ Paul H. Landis, Social Control (New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1956), p. 21.

to categorize the various means for achieving social control. Examples of the control classifications cited include: physical force and human symbolism; formal and informal; reward and punishment; socialization and sanctions; and persuasion and constraint.⁹⁸ Landis used a classification scheme based on devices used to establish order and those used to maintain it.

The formal organization as a type of social system incorporates a number of obvious means for achieving control. This review is written primarily from the view of management. There is an assumption that management has the power to use various means to influence employees in such a way that organizational demands are fulfilled. There is also the assumption that part of management's role is to achieve role compliance from the various employees of the organization.

A basic position which seems common to a substantial number of organizational theorists is an inherent incongruence between the desires of the individual employee and the demands of the formal organization. This is exemplified by such concepts as the idiosyncratic-nomethetic model used by Getzels to explain conflict in social systems. The understanding of reasons for the incongruence will go far toward providing means to achieving compliance between role definition and actual performance. A fairly

⁹⁸Ibid., pp. 297-301.

extensive body of writing has been directed to explaining the reasons for the incongruence. Chris Argyris's premise that the individual and the organization are two different components each with separate properties is an example of this reasoning.

This review will be primarily concerned with the resulting means derived for achieving compliance. The means discussed will be primarily between the formal organization and the individual, and only secondarily between the organization and informally organized groups of individuals.

The main component of this review section is devoted to the formal means management has at its disposal for achieving role compliance. The material reviewed served as a background for developing an interview schedule used to describe the administrative considerations employed to manage the various teacher aide programs studied for this dissertation. The review is not extensive because the schedule was used for general descriptive purposes and not to provide support for specific testable hypotheses. The administrative description was undertaken in order to provide a possible explanation for the differences or similarities in results from the task item questionnaire.

A Basis For Organizational Comparisons

Before reviewing means for achieving compliance, it is necessary to point out several probably determinates which have a direct bearing on the effect of the various means. These determinates might be characterized as basic or essential elements which various authorities see as common to all organizations and the primary basis for comparing organizations.

Any approach used by management in dealing with employees is determined in large measure by management's concept of human nature. How the employee is perceived, whether people are viewed as rational or irrational, stable or unstable, understood or not understood, makes a considerable difference in the behavior expected from any employee. Consequently, it makes a difference in the selection and anticipated effect of means chosen to elicit certain desired behavior.

Argyris placed particular emphasis upon his concept of the individual and his need for self-actualization. There is a fundamental requirement to express mature needs. The opportunity on the job for such expression will supposedly result in greater job satisfaction and performance. If the opportunity is not provided, the result is a lack of identification with the organization. The problem as expressed by Argyris is one of basic incongruity between the needs of a mature personality and the requirements

of formal organization. Management's task is to decrease the basic incongruity. According to Argyris, the basic approach is to change formal structures so that employees experience more activity than passivity, greater relative independence than dependence, use of more fundamental abilities, and a longer rather than shorter time perspective.⁹⁹ A different view of human nature would have lead to different conclusions about organizational management.

The concept of compliance as developed by Etzioni is another possible basis for comparing organizations. Compliance in this case refers both to a relation in which an actor behaves in accordance with a directive supported by another actor's power, and to the orientation of the subordinated actor to the power applied.¹⁰⁰ The concept of compliance is used by Etzioni to develop an analytic basis for classifications of organizations. A major dimension considered is the use of power. Power was classified according to the means employed. On this basis, there is coercive power which relies on physical

⁹⁹Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization: The Conflict Between System and the Individual (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), p. 177.

¹⁰⁰Amitai Etzioni, "A Basis for Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations," A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations, ed. by Amitai Etzioni (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 59.

sanctions, remunerative power based on material resources and rewards, and normative power which relies more on persuasive or suggestive means. Most organizations rely on all three types, but use one more than the others.

Another major dimension of Etzioni's scheme is the involvement by a participant with the organization. If the orientation of the individual is positive, the involvement is termed commitment, and if negative, alienation. A typology of compliance relations based on kinds of power and kinds of involvement was proposed for classification purposes. Power is from the perspective of the organization and involvement from the perspective of the participant. Certain kinds of power-involvement relationships are termed congruent and others are non-congruent. The level of congruence is hypothesized to relate to the organization's level of effectiveness. The important consideration for this review of literature is Etzioni's contention that "Characteristics of organizations such as their specificity, size, complexity, and effectiveness each enhance the need for compliance. And in turn, compliance is systematically related to many central organizational variables."¹⁰¹

A third and last author will serve to complete the consideration of this subsection of the review. This is

¹⁰¹Ibid.

the relatively recent proposal by Perrow that technology is the best basis on which to make comparison among organizations. Technology is seen as the independent variable and the structure--the arrangement among people for getting things done--as the dependent variable. Technology deals with the process of changing material. Structure is the interaction of people involved in applying technology. The number of exceptional cases and the nature of the search process are the two crucial aspects of a technology. The state of the act of analyzing the relevant characteristics of the material used is the determinate of what kind of technology is to be employed.

Perrow discussed the relationship of technology to task and social structure. The task structure of an organization consists of the two dimensions, control and discretion. Power involves choices regarding basic goals and strategies and discretion relates to choices among means and judgments of the critical interdependent nature of tasks. As the technology becomes more complex, there is a tendency toward greater centralization of power and a change in discretion which follows a curvilinear relationship. High discretion exists in relationship to low and high technology and low discretion is associated with medium levels of technological development. The structure and goals of the organization must also adjust to

technological change or a severe strain will result.¹⁰²
 As in the case of the conception of human nature and compliance, the level of technology is related to the task, structure, goals and nature of the raw material which composes any organization.

Means For Achieving Compliance

Definition of tasks to be performed.--To achieve compliance, the first consideration must be with the actual tasks to be performed. The clarity of the task is crucial. As Getzels states, "The expectations define for the actor, whoever he may be, what he should or should not do as long as he is the incumbent of the particular role."¹⁰³ Applying this same point to organizations, Miller and Rice point out, "Without adequate task definition, disorganization must occur."¹⁰⁴

There appears to be a need for task specification. The questions to consider are how specific, in what number, and the degree of constraints. Miller and Rice make

¹⁰²Charles Perrow, "A Framework for the Comparative Analysis of Organizations," American Sociological Review, Vol. 32 (April, 1967), 194-208.

¹⁰³Andrew W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education (Chicago: University of Chicago, Midwest Administrative Center, 1958), p. 153.

¹⁰⁴E. J. Miller and A. K. Rice, Systems of Organization (London: Tavistock Publications, 1967), p. 28.

the following observations. To begin with, it should be realized that no task will be performed perfectly. The human and material resources are limited. In addition, other tasks place constraints on any particular task. So multiplying tasks will result in increasing constraints. The very nature of the task has the potential for satisfactory or unsatisfactory performance. The nature of the task and the activities involved in its performance can provide individuals with either overt satisfaction, reward, prestige, accomplishment, or with overt deprivation, low reward, disrepute, and boredom.¹⁰⁵ Carl Dreyfus agrees with this contention and emphasizes the importance of the task being socially reputable. A task with high social reputation will often result in high commitment and performance. When the individual seeks to satisfy his personal needs through the job, and the job permits such satisfaction, then strong identification results.¹⁰⁶

Chris Argyris addressed himself to the relationship between the nature of the task and the individual's performance. He pointed out that greater and greater task specialization does not necessarily increase the quantity

¹⁰⁵Ibid., p. 31.

¹⁰⁶Carl Dreyfus, "Prestige Grading: A Mechanism of Control," Reader in Bureaucracy, ed. by Robert K. Merton (New York: The Free Press, 1952), pp. 258-264.

and quality of production. The over-specialization of tasks may call for little skill which provides no challenge and a low level of self-actualization.¹⁰⁷ The desirable objective is to provide tasks which allow a sufficient amount of activity, independence, fundamental abilities, and a longer time perspective. The degree to which these characteristics are present would depend upon the expectations of the individual employee. Also, the nature of the task must not only suit the individual, but must be in keeping with the goals of the organization.

March and Simon called attention to the observation that greater specialization also results in greater task interdependence. This calls for increased means of assuring stability and predictability. Management will devise means for greater coordination such as more detailed scheduling and standardization.¹⁰⁸

March and Simon also discussed the complexity of tasks and the relationship to supervision. The greater the detailed supervision, the greater will be the number of alternatives evoked of a non-organizational character. At the same time, if the instructions given to an employee are so general, relative to the complexity of the task and the computational ability of the individual that the

¹⁰⁷Chris Argyris, op. cit., p. 59.

¹⁰⁸James G. March and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1963), p. 159.

means of achieving them are vague, serious misdirection can result. Consequently, the effect of the closeness of supervision desired will depend in part on the complexity of the task.¹⁰⁹

Specialization has drawbacks as well as virtues. Litwak and Meyer have indicated conditions under which generalized task designations are advantageous. They pointed out that " . . . where the task is constantly changing or not well standardized, specialization may be dysfunctional, because the specialist may become obsolete as the state of knowledge about the task changes."¹¹⁰ Specialization may become a vested interest. Litwak and Meyer concluded the discussion of specialization versus generalization by saying, "In general, as the tasks become less uniform, specialization becomes less useful and generalization more desirable."¹¹¹

The nature of the task has significant implications for the type and degree of supervision and employee identification and satisfaction with his particular job assignment.

¹⁰⁹Ibid., p. 55.

¹¹⁰Eugene Litwak and Henry J. Meyer, "Administrative Style and Community Linkage," Schools in a Changing Society, ed. by Albert J. Reiss, Jr. (New York: The Free Press, 1965), p. 64.

¹¹¹Ibid., p. 65.

Recruitment and training.--The problem of recruitment and training is one of primarily trying to fit a particular person to a particular organizational role. The individual possesses certain needs and abilities which are more or less suited to the needs of the organization. As Barnard stated the problem, in order for the organization to effect necessary individual contributions, the person must believe the role demands to be compatible with his personal interests and be able to mentally and physically comply. Barnard developed the concept of a zone of indifference. This is a general predisposition by the individual within which he will accept the authority of the organization. The firm, in recruiting, should make clear what is expected so as to preclude a subsequent denial of authority. The organization, through preliminary training, persuasive efforts and high inducements, can affect the individual zone of indifference or what he in a general way will tolerate in terms of organizational demands. It can be assumed that each individual will have some range of adaptability which will allow him a degree of accomodation.¹¹²

Argyris felt that certain types of control mechanisms are operative in the general society which tend to

¹¹²Chester I. Barnard, "A Definition of Authority," Reader in Bureaucracy, ed. by Robert K. Merton, et al. (New York: The Free Press, 1952), Ch. 1.

send particular people to particular organizations.¹¹³
The firm can assume that a certain selectivity has already taken place prior to hiring. The future employee has some concept of the organizational demands he will face.

Argyris went on to observe that a measure of individual participation in making his own job assignment will affect his acceptance of the job. It, in all likelihood, will reduce possible conflict between the job and his self-concept. Greater commitment is often the result.

March and Simon have pointed out the dichotomy in performing a job that requires a high level of training and identification with the interests of the total organization. As the level of training required increases, so does the need to delegate responsibility. This results in greater departmentalization with a bifurcation of interest between the sub-unit and the total organization.¹¹⁴

Another training problem is related to the rapid change in the information needed to successfully fill an organizational role. This is the problem of human obsolescence. As more training or retraining is required, then the organization must make a greater investment in that individual. On the other hand, to hire someone

¹¹³Argyris, op. cit., p. 86.

¹¹⁴March and Simon, op. cit., p. 96.

already suited for the task might be much less costly. In either case, the employee generally feels the organization has incurred a responsibility to continue his employment. Release from the firm for lack of training might make others more hesitant to accept employment because of the reputed job insecurity.

Recruitment is a process to select or attract the best suited individual for a particular job, while at the same time assuring a commitment to a high level of performance and identification with the organization's goals. Training takes place both prior to and during employment, and is necessary to produce the needed level of technical competence.

Rewards and incentives.--More recent studies seem to define rewards and incentives in broad terms which include not only monetary remuneration, but group relations, interaction patterns and symbols. The reward can be viewed as accruing to the employee both inside and outside the organization.

A very helpful way of viewing the use of rewards is to use Barnards's concept of net inducement. The demands of the organization should not present such a heavy burden as to destroy the advantage of being connected with the organization. The inducements-contribution balance has two major components: the perceived desirability of leaving the organization and the

utility of alternatives foregone in order to stay in the organization. The desirability of movement is in terms of individual satisfaction with the present job and the perception of alternatives that do not involve leaving the organization. There is also the factor of extra-organizational alternatives perceived.¹¹⁵

In one type of model, management is seen as a regulator of the incentive system. Argyris stated that the trade union movement can be viewed in part as an effort to reduce management's ability to control the incentive system. The employee is less dependent upon management for the determination of rewards. There is also a tendency to reduce the emphasis on intrinsic gratification of less interesting jobs and stressing the material rewards. The material rewards have tended to increase in order to reinforce job commitment. Pensions, medical plans, staff parties are all efforts in this direction.¹¹⁶

In their book, Organizations, March and Simon indicated that it appears the larger the rewards offered by the organization, the less the conflict between the demands of the job and the individual. The organizations attempts to find the point of minimum rewards necessary for maximum anticipated production. The means for

¹¹⁵Ibid., p. 111.

¹¹⁶Argyris, op. cit., p. 120.

providing the rewards are also significant. For instance, a promotional scheme that essentially rewards seniority will be less productive than one that relates promotion to some index of production. The greater the degree of subjectivity of the criteria used for promotion, the greater the effect on perceived consequences of action.¹¹⁷

The nature of the contract has some interesting results. If the employee sees the contract as unchangeable, then dissatisfaction and withdrawal from the firm may result. If it is seen as changeable, then an alternative to the unsatisfactory condition is perceived. Contracts are often viewed as controlling the type of activity, but not the rate.¹¹⁸

Blau and Scott also dealt with the type of task as related to the form of reward. The more professional the task, the less desirable the piece-rate system. The rewards are not effective in this case if they are focused on the immediate situation. Also, the piece-rate system does not take into account the mental work and judgment required of a more professional task.¹¹⁹ For rewards to be effective in a more professionalized job, they must be based on a more long range view and in terms of a promotion system.

¹¹⁷March and Simon, op. cit., pp. 56, 61, 62, 96.

¹¹⁸Ibid., p. 111.

¹¹⁹Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 249.

Monitoring and evaluation.--Evaluation is done primarily to check if the specification of tasks and the expected compliance with the demands of the task have been successful in terms of realizing the organization's goals. The evaluation process allows the organization to make necessary adjustments. It assists in precluding dysfunctional developments from proceeding too far.

Miller and Rice presented several interesting observations about evaluation and monitoring. These included the notion that evaluation is probably the most difficult means of control to exercise. Its success is so directly dependent upon the nature of the tasks to be performed. As the task becomes more complex, it is far more difficult to assess. In addition, the individual performer seems to inherently resist evaluation. There is a tendency to shift checking from the process employed to the end product. Often it is not possible to immediately evaluate a product since its quality is only measurable over an extended period of time.

Evaluation tends to concentrate at two points. One is the actual process employed in production. The other is the quantity and quality of the product. Process evaluation tends to take the form of regulatory measures. Regulatory activities are either in terms of monitoring-stopping and checking or specifying a boundary of activity.

Regulation preserves the boundaries of a system and makes activities more than just an aggregate.¹²⁰

Impersonal mechanisms which act as monitors are discussed by Blau and Scott. They indicated that the actual process may serve as a monitoring device. The assembly line is a good example. Constraints are present in terms of what job is done next, pace, materials, and tools used. This is a form of management through non-human mechanisms of control. Automation presents another interesting case. If the operator is trained to provide maintenance, he in effect has become the monitoring agent. If the worker does not possess such training, then the system requires close supervision and checking. Performance records are another means of evaluation. They may record errors and successes as well as the number of cases. The records lessen need for immediate supervision and allow for an increase in the amount of worker discretion.¹²¹

In conclusion, the measures or means of achieving role compliance discussed in this review present management with a partial dilemma. As previously stated, there is a need for organizations to specify and expect a rational and coordinated system of behavior, but an over emphasis in an organization on conformity with

¹²¹Blau and Scott, op. cit., pp. 176-183.

operating procedures discourages the exercise of initiative and willingness to assume responsibility. This is particularly true as the task requires more professional expertise. What seems to happen in this case is a move toward emphasizing results and de-emphasizing performance procedure.¹²² Management must effect some kind of balance between the amount of regulated and prescribed performance necessary and the individual discretion required. This in large measure seems to rest upon the nature of the task and the skills required for its performance.

Teacher Aides

The amount of material devoted to teacher aide programs is almost without end. This is particularly true of the last few years. A perusal of the literature reveals a considerable repetition of ideas. A limited number of sources seem to be the most significant in the sense of being a basis for many other writers' comments, and also for their completeness of thought and content. An attempt is made to include the most significant sources, plus giving a balanced representation of the material reviewed. An annotated bibliography prepared by the Bank Street College of Education, published in 1969, served as one of the key sources for selecting material for this

¹²²Ibid., p. 185.

review.¹²³ The review is divided into a brief background, rationale for using aides, relationship to staffing patterns, and significant projects and studies.

Background Statement

The use and training of auxiliary personnel to perform semi-skilled or paraprofessional tasks in public service is not an entirely new practice.

During the depression of the 1930's, the Works Projects Administration and the National Youth Administration used the concept of training and utilizing relatively unskilled low income workers. The N.Y.A. in an almost completely federally financed and managed educational program, trained actual and potential school dropouts and placed them as non-professionals in the human services. This concept did not end with the demise of the N.Y.A., but continued as a practice in the fields of corrections and health.

In the early 1950's, the Ford Foundation made funds available for the first major attempt by a school district to use teacher aides. The five year Bay City experiment which was designed to study better utilization of teacher competencies is covered in some detail later in this review. The Ford Foundation also supplied funds for

¹²³An Annotated Bibliography on Auxiliary Personnel in Education, prepared by Bank Street College of Education for the U. S. Office of Education, (January, 1969).

similar studies known as the Yale-Fairfield Study and the Rutgers Plan. The studies were prompted in large part as a solution to a shortage of trained teachers and the increased cost of education. These efforts produced a negative reaction from many teachers, particularly the emphasis on the use of aides as a budget saving device.

The next major impetus for the use of teacher aides came from the outlay of federal monies into programs which emphasized the educationally deprived, material resources, and innovative programs. Funds on a heretofore unprecedented level were distributed through the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Office of Education, and the Labor Department. The Bank Street College of Education studies exemplify the new trend in using teacher aides. The result of increased funding has been a dramatic increase in the number of aides with present predictions indicating an even more substantial number in the near future.¹²⁴

Rationale for Use of Teacher Aides

There has been an attempt to develop a rationale for using teacher aides by the educational community which is an integral aspect of long range planning and goals. The introduction of more adults into the classroom, the

¹²⁴Garda W. Bowman and Gordon J. Klopff, New Careers and Roles in the American School (New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1968), pp. 6-8.

possible differentiation of education to meet individual needs, a more flexible structuring of the classroom, and the possibility for more innovations have all been pronounced as sound reasons for the use of aides.

The Bank Street Studies report indicated

. . . the multiple benefits which were perceived as possible in all school situations, regardless of the composition of the school population or the socio-economic background of the auxiliaries, were:

- (1) For the pupil, by providing more individual attention by concerned adults, more mobility in the classroom, and more opportunity for innovation;
- (2) For the teacher, by rendering his role more productive in terms of pupil outcome, and more manageable in terms of teaching conditions;
- (3) For the other professionals, by increasing the scope and effectiveness of their activities;
- (4) For the auxiliary, by providing meaningful employment which contributes to his own development and to the needs of society;
- (5) For the school administrator, by providing some solution--not necessarily the solution--to his dilemma of increasing needs for school services, coupled with shortage of professionals to meet these needs;
- (6) For family life, by giving auxiliaries, many of whom are or may someday be parents, the opportunity to learn child development principles in a real situation;
- (7) For the community at large, by providing a means through which unemployed and educationally disadvantaged persons may enter the mainstream of productivity.

In addition to these considerations, there are some specific benefits which may flow from the utilization of indigenous personnel as auxiliaries in schools serving disadvantaged neighborhoods.¹²⁵

Another rationale is predicated on the notion that the present demands on education simply cannot be met by

¹²⁵Ibid., p. 9.

the traditional self-contained classroom concept. The following quote from a National Education Association publication exemplifies this point of view:

The overwhelming load of traditional and new tasks for classroom teachers has led educators to say that one teacher in one room is no longer a justifiable way to organize and administer a school. Professionals and lay citizens alike question the use of highly educated teachers for much of what they now have to do.¹²⁶

Subprofessionals are proposed as a partial solution to the problem. In a companion publication also issued by the NEA, the following position on the use of auxiliary personnel in schools is stated:

The needs of society require significant changes in our present school organization. The teacher is a skilled professional and as such must be permitted to do a professional level of work. He must be a diagnostician and a guider of learning experiences. He should not waste his time on trivia. The utilization of auxiliary personnel can provide the opportunity for teachers to teach.¹²⁷

The next list is yet another example of a rationale, in this case, given for the idea of a supportive staff for the classroom teacher. Paraprofessionals assume a key role in the notion of a supportive staff for the classroom teacher. All of the following items are supposedly enhanced by a supportive staff:

learning experiences of children; teacher effectiveness;

¹²⁶ Teacher Aides At Work, (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1967), p. 11.

¹²⁷ Auxiliary School Personnel, (Washington, D.C.: NCTEPS, National Education Association, 1967), p. 18.

services of administrative and supervisory personnel;
 professional prestige of the classroom teacher;
 teacher retention and recruitment and the public image
 of the school.¹²⁸

Finally, in a statement supporting the career ladder concept for teacher aides, Riesman proposed the following rationale:

A career advancement system has many benefits. It establishes the view that development and learning does not stop with college graduation, but that the school is a place where teachers as well as students are involved in growth and learning. It offers opportunities for challenging professional activity, allows teachers to advance without leaving the classroom. Higher motivation of staff will go far in promoting better service for students.¹²⁹

In addition to various rationales, a number of authors have proposed what they feel should be the function of teacher aides. These proposals range from clerical and routine tasks to performance as an instructional assistant. Some writers have taken the position that the teacher's primary responsibility is to analyze the pupils' instructional needs and prescribe the necessary elements for the learning environment. In essence, the teacher arranges the formal learning environment. The aide with proper training and supervision should be able to perform

¹²⁸The Classroom Teacher Speaks On His Supportive Staff (Washington, D.C.: Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 1967), p. 18.

¹²⁹Riesman and Gartner, op. cit., p. 9.

all the other necessary tasks.¹³⁰ Another position envisions the role of the aide as more restricted. Tasks would be on a lower level with less training required. Examples would include maintaining attendance records, correcting objective tests, running duplicating equipment and setting up AV equipment.¹³¹

The questionnaire used by the writer of this dissertation to collect the data was constructed to include the widest possible range of task categories. The sources used for selecting the tasks are referred to in the discussion of operational measures in Chapter III.

The next subsection of the review deals with the relationship of teacher aides to changes in staffing arrangements for schools.

Teacher Aides and Staffing Patterns

The use of aides is related to a number of other possible changes in the basic structure of the teaching enterprise. One of the most significant relationships is to staffing patterns.

Ohm put his finger on one of the underlying issues involved in organizing the school teaching staff. He

¹³⁰Thornwald Esbensen, "Should Teacher Aides Be More Than Clerks?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 47 (January, 1966), p. 237.

¹³¹William J. Rioux, "14 Ways to Use Non Teaching Personnel," Nation's Schools, Vol. 76 (December, 1965), p. 42.

stated the issue as being, "whether the present concept of the unity of the teaching function, as practiced in the single teacher-class unit of organization, is more or less productive than the specialization and subdivision of an instructional team."¹³² To illustrate the problem, he pointed out that as job specialization increases, so does the tendency to pull the organization apart and split the central unity of the teaching process. This consideration must be taken into account whenever there is a plan to further differentiate the assignment of teaching responsibilities.

As evidence of the relationship between employment of aides and other important staffing considerations, Shaplin has indicated that further specialization, improvement of supervisory arrangements, expanded use of mechanical aids and utilization of nonprofessional aides are all directions taken as a result of team teaching.¹³³

Another related trend is the National Education Association Instruction Project which incorporates a proposal for 15 hours in class and 25 hours in planning, conferencing, studying and counseling each week for each professional teacher. It has been suggested that to implement this proposal will require extensive use of

¹³²Ohm, op. cit., p. 2.

¹³³Judson T. Shaplin, "Team Teaching," Saturday Review, Vol. 44 (May, 1961), pp. 54-55.

paraprofessionals and teacher technologists. The teaching role should be studied to indicate those tasks which require professional training, those which require technical or professional training.¹³⁴ The results of a dissertation by Moon indicated that it might be possible to develop a continuum of teaching tasks from the most professional to those which require the less unique and specific training. As a result of surveying a sampling of building principals, teachers, teacher aides, college instructors and nationally recognized experts, Moon was able to group items into task clusters based on level of agreement among the reference groups.¹³⁵

Frank Riesman indicated that although the use of paraprofessional could well serve as a lever for institutional change, to date, basic changes had not taken place. He attributed this to professional-non professional cleavage, difficulty in providing career development, piecemeal training, limited use of paraprofessionals, and a lack of restructuring the basic job to include the paraprofessional.¹³⁶

¹³⁴Earl H. Hanson, "Viewpoint-Time For Educational Technology," Education, Vol. 87 (October, 1966), p. 127.

¹³⁵Arden Moon, "An Analysis of Teacher Tasks to Enable Identification of the Potential Use of Auxiliary Personnel in the Instructional Process" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969).

¹³⁶Frank Riesman, "The New Careers Concept," American Child, Vol. 49 (Winter, 1967), pp. 2-8.

Lewis proposed three guidelines for staff utilization: staff utilization should provide individualized instruction for each child; staff services should help the teacher to be more effective in working with his pupils; and staff structure should recognize the professional stature of the teacher. As the first step in developing this structure, it should be decided what is needed to provide the teacher with the necessary help.¹³⁷ Presumably, the advent of teacher aides provides a possible means for meeting the proposed guidelines.

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has been particularly concerned with the notion of new staffing patterns. A publication by NCTEPS entitled, The Teacher and His Staff, contains a series of ten papers presented at a 1968 TEPS conference. Several of the papers directly incorporate the idea of using teacher aides as an integral part of the instructional staff. Haskew, in a paper entitled, "Peopling Education," points out the problem of role differentiation in building an effective instructional team. He writes that

. . . the Education Profession Development Act offers to support programs or projects to train teacher aides and other nonprofessional personnel and a far-flung inventory of teachers. How can we

¹³⁷Arthur J. Lewis, "Staff Utilization to Improve Learning," Educational Leadership, Vol. 17 (April, 1960), pp. 410-415.

train any of these without some delineation of their respective roles, of the competencies and cognitive background necessary for each role, of the interrelationships existent as they compose an effective instructional unit?¹³⁸

In another paper it is stated that the year of the Non-Conference suggests that a productive teacher-pupil-materials relationship can best be supported in three ways: (a) through providing teachers with the assistance of a variety of different kinds of auxiliary personnel; (b) through providing teachers with the support of many different kinds of professional specialists; and (c) through enabling teachers to better the unique talents of one another.¹³⁹

Ryan believes that

In 1993, many of the present roles performed by teachers, such as information dispenser, drill-master, disciplinarian, money changer, record keeper, and grader will have vanished or will have been taken over completely by paraprofessionals.¹⁴⁰

In the future, he sees the teacher as the director of an instructional system.

Laurance D. Haskew, "Peopling Education," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1969), p. 37.

¹³⁹Eugene R. Howard, "Staff Support for Innovative Teaching," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D.C.: NCTEPS, NEA, 1969), p. 49.

¹⁴⁰Kevin A. Ryan, "Where Are We Going and How Can We Get There?" The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D.C.: NCTEPS, NEA, 1969).

The other authors in the NCTEPS publication also made comments which bear directly on the consideration of using teacher aides as a part of the school staff.

The next section reviews some of the significant teacher aide projects and related studies.

Significant Projects and Related Studies

The Bay City Experiment has become known as one of the first major and, to date, one of the most important teacher aide programs. The study covered a period of five years and involved 25 public elementary schools in the Bay City, Michigan, area. The experiment was formally entitled, "A Cooperative Study for the Better Utilization of Teacher Competencies." The first step taken was to do an analysis and time study of the classroom teacher's job. As a result of the time observations, the activities were grouped into categories such as counseling, writing on the board, recitation, and pupil control. This list was supplemented with a record for school related activities outside the regular school day. It was discovered that the average work week was 41 hours and 52 minutes. Recitation constituted the largest time consuming activity, nonprofessional tasks took from 21 per cent to as high as 69 per cent of the total school day and twice as much time was spent on pupil control in the afternoon as in the morning. As a

result of the initial job analysis, the Bay City Teacher Aide Plan was developed. Aides were interviewed at home and school. Certain criteria such as a high school diploma, pleasing appearance, and expressed interest in students emerged as guideposts for hiring. A pre-job orientation and weekly seminars were used for training aides. As a consequence of using aides, it was estimated the teacher's job changed on the average of 89 per cent less time correcting papers, 36 per cent less discipline, 76 per cent less taking roll, 25 per cent less on all reports, 61 per cent less on supervision of pupil transition, and 83 per cent less monitoring lessons. Areas which increased in time spent were lesson preparation, 105 per cent; recitation, 57 per cent; making assignments, 20 per cent; desk to desk help, 27 per cent; and supervision, 41 per cent. Also, 44 per cent less time was spent on school related out of school tasks.¹⁴¹

The Bay City Experiment was observed and studied while in progress by a number of people from various positions in the educational world. The following excerpts are taken from written commentaries by two of those people. The evaluation by the Curriculum Specialist McCuskey tended to be very critical of the studies design. She pointed out that it was impossible to separate the effects

¹⁴¹Charles B. Park, "The Bay City Experiment . . . As Seen by the Director," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 7 (June, 1956), 101-110.

of increased class size; the statement of the problem was too broad for the research design; the grouping of tasks into professional and nonprofessional is not as significant as how the activity is performed; and the lack of an adequate control situation to make comparisons.¹⁴²

A child psychologist offered the opinion that the classes he observed were traditional and routinized. The emphasis was on wanting children to read and to conform. He suggested a more diverse set of approaches to education needed to be tried.¹⁴³

Crim acted as a participant-observer for 12 months in the Bay City aide project. Her findings which are found in a doctoral dissertation case study indicated evidence of unanticipated systematic stress found in the hostility and misunderstanding over behavioral standards, an increase rather than the expected decrease of social distance between teacher and aide, teachers' defensive and inconsistent responses to questionnaires,

¹⁴²Dorothy McCuskey, "The Bay City Experiment--As Seen by a Curriculum Specialist," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 7 (June, 1956), 111-118.

¹⁴³James L. Hymes, Jr., "The Bay City Experiment--As Seen by a Child Psychologist," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 7 (June, 1956), 126-131.

and in the inadequacy and inefficiency of the organizational framework of the project.¹⁴⁴

The foregoing observations were made while the project was in progress. The Department of Special Studies, Central Michigan University, published a final report in 1960 about the project. The final conclusions of the report were: (a) Teachers with aides spent more time on instructional activities; (b) It was sometimes impossible to distinguish clearly between teaching and non-teaching duties; (c) There were no noticeable changes in teaching methods; (d) There was little objective evidence bearing on the quality of instruction in classrooms with teacher aides as opposed to those without; (e) teacher aides facilitate better deployment of teachers and experimentation with staffing; (f) teacher aide practices had little effect on overall costs of instruction; and (g) Many teacher aides were potential recruits for teaching.¹⁴⁵

The most significant and comprehensive teacher aide study of the 1960's was the Auxiliary Personnel Project conducted by the Bank Street College of Education for the

¹⁴⁴Adena Joy D. Crim, "System and Role Conflict Inherent in the 'New Careers' Concept" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1958).

¹⁴⁵Richard D. Wynn and Richard W. De Reiner, "Staff Utilization, Development and Evaluation," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 31 (October, 1961), p. 394.

Office of Economic Opportunity. It was an exploratory, developmental study of role definition and development, training, and institutionalization of auxiliary personnel in American education. The study was divided into two phases. Phase One was concerned with role development and training, while Phase Two focused upon institutionalization. Phase One involved 15 demonstration programs and the analysis was based on the programs plus consultations with representatives of professional organizations and school systems. As a summary of findings from Phase One, the final report stated:

Auxiliary school personnel in the 15 training programs demonstrated the capacity to make a positive contribution to the learning-teaching process, under the following conditions:

(1) Role definition providing a floor and a ceiling to auxiliary functions, thus preventing underutilization or overutilization of aides.

(2) Within these limits, role development is stressed in terms of the specific needs of each learning situation, the capability of each auxiliary, and the school structure within which each professional-nonprofessional team operates.

(3) Intensive and continuing training of teachers and auxiliaries together is provided, including both preservice and inservice training.

(4) Auxiliary personnel is incorporated into the entire school structure as a new career model, and not as a temporary, fragmented, expedient adjunct to the school.

(5) Every staff member is perceived as capable of making a meaningful contribution to learning.¹⁴⁶

Four of the fifteen demonstration programs plus one new project were selected for the second phase of the

¹⁴⁶Bowman and Klopff, op. cit., pp. 12-20.

study. These projects were given more intensive study with emphasis on institutionalization. As a result of Phase Two, an extensive list of recommendations was formulated. The recommendations are based on five essential premises.¹⁴⁷ An example of the recommendations is a five stage career development ladder for auxiliaries.

Another significant program was the Teacher Aide Program (TAP) of the Model School Division of the District of Columbia Public School System. The project came into being in February, 1966, as a direct beneficiary of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. As pointed out in the TAP proposal:

Teachers who are overburdened with the extraordinary range of tasks demanded of them are not in a position to meet the many instructional and developmental needs of large classes of deprived children. It is therefore essential to offer these teachers some help, so as to free them to use the talents and insights they possess.¹⁴⁸

The aides performed a wide variety of jobs in the classroom, ranging from simple clerical and housekeeping tasks to semi-instructional activities. Each teacher used her aide according to her own individual needs, her interpretation of the role of teacher aides, and her

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., pp. 215-217.

¹⁴⁸ The Teacher Aide Program, Conducted by the Washington School of Psychiatry, (Washington, D.C.: Model School Division of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, 1967), p. 9.

judgment of the aide's ability. All aides received the same training.¹⁴⁹

In a concluding paragraph of the project report, it is stated:

There is a demonstrated place in the schools for trained paraprofessional assistants. Teacher aides who are carefully selected for their personal qualifications and fortified with an appropriate program of training can directly enhance a child's self-image and his general attitude toward school. Further, the assistance rendered directly to the teacher can significantly reduce the workload of the classroom teacher, thus enabling him to spend more time in his professional role.¹⁵⁰

A final program worthy of particular mention is the North Carolina Comprehensive School Improvement Project. The project begun in 1963 was aimed at improving instruction at the primary level, with special emphasis on language arts and arithmetic. The use of teacher aides was one of the features of the program. The funding was provided by the State Board of Education and the Ford Foundation. There were approximately 600 teachers and 200 teacher aides who participated from some 200 schools throughout the state of North Carolina. One of the basic assumptions of the project was that, "The utilization of nonprofessional personnel (specifically teacher aides) will free the teachers of much of the nonprofessional and routine duties, thus permitting them to concern

¹⁴⁹Crim, op. cit., p. 12.

¹⁵⁰Ibid., p. 87.

themselves more intensely with rendering professional service in instructing youth."¹⁵¹

Four major conclusions seemed warranted by the evidence collected in studying the project:

(1) CSIP participants, including teachers, principals, school system supervisors and superintendents, as well as college consultants, support the practice of employing a teacher aide as an associate member of an instructional team.

(2) CSIP participants feel that due to the efforts of a teacher aide, time is increasingly redirected toward the central goal of instructional improvement in that (a) more time is spent in giving pupils individual and small group attention, (b) more time is devoted to cooperative planning of learning experiences for pupils, and (c) more attention is given to the pupils' personal-social needs.

(3) The duties of the teacher aide change with the passage of time and the development of harmonious team working relationships.

(4) The success of a teacher aide depends in large measure upon a mutually cooperative relationship between the aide and the teachers.

(5) The use of the teacher aide encourages extended use of audio-visual media and instructional materials.¹⁵²

The National Education Association's Research Division has conducted several surveys about teacher aides. A study in 1967 revealed almost one in five public school teachers had the assistance from an aide. Twice as many elementary as secondary teachers received assistance. The largest percentage reported they received help with

¹⁵¹Frank C. Emmerling and Kanawha Z. Chavis, The Teacher Aide (North Carolina: State Department of Public Instruction, 1966), p. 4.

¹⁵²Bowman and Klopff, op. cit., p. 25.

clerical duties. A significant finding was that 84 per cent of the teachers felt they would be more effective with smaller classes and no aides rather than with larger classes and an aide. Also, preference should be given to funding improved salary schedules over the development of aide programs.¹⁵³ An earlier survey of 217 school systems enrolling 12,000 pupils indicated that three-fourths of the districts used only paid aides. Fifty-one and nine-tenths per cent of the aides worked more than 20 hours per week. The total hours worked by all aides amounted to over 500,000 hours per week. The trend is to increase the use of aides.¹⁵⁴

A Report of the Ball State Office of Economic Opportunity project in Gary and Indianapolis, Indiana, during the 1966-67 school year revealed that an extensive study and redefinition of the teacher's role was needed to increase adult-student professional contact. The report further stated that, "The most important element in the success of such educational endeavors (meaning use of auxiliary personnel) resides with the perceptions and actions of the professionals."¹⁵⁵

¹⁵³"How the Professional Feels About Teacher Aides," NEA Journal, Vol. 56 (November, 1967), p. 16.

¹⁵⁴"Teacher Aides in Public Schools," NEA Research Bulletin, Vol. 45 (May, 1967), pp. 37-39.

¹⁵⁵William H. Johnson, "Utilizing Teacher Aides," The Clearing House, Vol. 42 (December, 1967), p. 232.

In two 1966 studies involving Community Action Programs which sampled about ten per cent of CAP non professionals employed in 14 cities, it was found the vast majority had opportunity for only one job level, and the primary duties of those working as teacher aides were housekeeping and physical child care. It was also noted that often a conscious "creaming" of the top of potential employees took place. Most training was provided on the job and by the immediate supervisor.¹⁵⁶

An article in the Nation's Schools pointed out in 1968 nearly half of the teacher aide programs then operating in large public schools were less than three years old. This provides another indication of the recent increase in teacher aide programs.

The article went on to further indicate that unless there were particular statutory provisions, the non-certificated aide did not have legal authority to perform instructional duties or to teach. Also, unless provided, the aide does not have the authority to regulate pupil conduct. In instances of negligence, the teacher aide would be subject to liability.¹⁵⁷

¹⁵⁶Edith F. Lynton, "The Nonprofessional Scene," American Child, Vol. 49 (Winter, 1967), pp. 9-13.

¹⁵⁷Alexander S. Kern, "What Teacher Aides Can-and Cannot-Do," Nation's Schools, Vol. 82 (August, 1968), pp. 23-25.

For those authorities who see the aide programs as a possible means for institutional change, there are some potential dangers or misgivings. Two of the danger warnings were stated by Riesmann. One is the danger that paraprofessionals may be absorbed into the traditional establishment as it remains intact and unchanged. This could happen if the present teaching tasks were simply redistributed without creating new forms of instruction. Another danger is that the new careers movement may not become linked with other developing movements of the time, such as decentralization.¹⁵⁸

The increase in doctoral dissertations about teacher aide programs, especially since 1965, provides further evidence of this rapidly expanding phenomena. Several representative studies are briefly discussed as the final segment of the review of literature.

A study by Schmitthausler comparing four elementary school programs resulted in the finding that policies which leave much discretion to teachers on how to utilize aides are accompanied by higher satisfaction than were more restrictive policies. Another contributing factor to higher job satisfaction was the involvement of the teacher in the selection process. The study also showed

¹⁵⁸Riesmann and Gartner, loc. cit.

a high degree of agreement among teachers as to which tasks they should retain.¹⁵⁹

A study of aides used in classrooms for the mentally retarded revealed a significant difference in the way aides and teachers perceived the aides' duties. The data indicated the following tasks as being performed regularly or occasionally by 85 per cent of the aides: supervision of entire class alone; attend to immediate needs of the child; take children for walks or on the playground; supervise individual children in classroom; and prepare or assist in art activities. The possible explanation of the results lies in the fact that 50 per cent of the aides had received no job orientation or inservice training. The study was based on a sample of 58 persons in public and private schools in Pennsylvania.¹⁶⁰

Bazeli did a study of aides used in two inner city junior high schools in Detroit. His study produced several interesting conclusions:

(1) Teachers spend as much time with as without aides during classroom periods on class routines and discipline; they spend more time on clerical and preparation activities when aides are present.

¹⁵⁹Carl Marvin Schmitthausler, "Analysis of Programs Using Nonprofessional Teacher Helpers in Public Elementary School Classrooms," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1966).

¹⁶⁰Miriam Rost Silner, "Characteristics and Functions of Teacher-Aides in Classes for Trainable Mentally Retarded Children," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburg, 1965).

(2) Teacher morale improved significantly due to the presence of aides, but it had not lowered staff turnover.

(3) Aides made it possible for increased administrative and counselor services.

(4) There was little evidence to support the belief that the project had made any real difference in general community attitudes toward the school.

(5) There had been no change in student attendance patterns.

(6) Aides proved to be very useful in clerical and routine tasks. Less satisfactory results were achieved in areas of teacher assistance.

(7) The evidence indicated that the paraprofessional staff had become institutionalized into the system.¹⁶¹

A study in Florida indicated that teachers involved aides in non-teaching activities more than teaching activities. Also, it was found that teachers with aides appear to be more conservative in their view of aide responsibilities than are teachers without aides. The instrument used for measuring results was a 100 item questionnaire consisting of 50 pupil contact activities and 50 non-contact activities. The investigator recommended that teacher education take a serious look at the role and function of teacher aides in order to better prepare their graduates in the specific professional

¹⁶¹ Frank Paul Bazeli, "An In-Depth Evaluation of the School Service Assistants Project in Two Inner-City Junior High Schools," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Wayne State University, 1967).

aspects of teaching as well as skills in staff management procedures.¹⁶²

Haynes surveyed teacher aide practices in 102 Missouri school districts. Among his several findings, two are particularly important for this study. He discovered that twice as many districts indicated they did not have a formal pre-assignment training program as responded they did have such a program. Also, an overwhelming majority of responding districts conducted no in-service training for aides. Clerical, playground duty, test grading, and record keeping were the most common duties performed.¹⁶³

Interviews of administrators, teachers, and teacher aides by Moody in 20 Pennsylvania districts reported the following major obstacles to teacher aide programs: a lack of planning by teachers to effectively use the aides; inadequate equipment and instructional materials; poor communication between teachers and aides; and insufficient funds.¹⁶⁴

¹⁶²John Newman Shadgett, "An Analysis of Certain Teacher Aide Functions in Selected Elementary Schools in Florida," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Florida State University, 1967).

¹⁶³Solon Earl Hynes, "A Study of Teacher Aide Employment for the School Year 1966-67 in Selected School Districts of Missouri," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Kansas, 1968).

¹⁶⁴Ferman Bernard Moody, "Teacher Aide: A Description and Analysis of a New Staff Position in Selected Pennsylvania Public Schools," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

Rankin did a study to seek additional information concerning the interpersonal relationship of teachers and teacher aides. She divided teachers into direct and indirect on the basis of the Flanders Interaction Analysis Instrument. Thirty-two teachers were studied while teaching social studies lessons. Tasks performed by aides were recorded by direct observation. The tasks were grouped into routine and non-routine. The study's conclusions were as follows: aides assigned to indirect teachers perform a higher proportion of non-routine tasks than aides assigned to direct teachers; there was no statistically significant difference in satisfaction with the aide program of indirect teachers and direct teachers; aides assigned to indirect teachers were more satisfied with their roles than aides assigned to direct teachers; and aides with some education beyond high school performed a higher proportion of non-routine tasks than aides with only a high school education.¹⁶⁵

The review of teacher aide programs and related studies substantiates the fact of considerable increase in the use of teacher aides. Rationales for the use of aides have been formulated which range from a requirement to redistribute tasks to the need for major institutional

¹⁶⁵Marguerite Ruth Shirer Rankin, "Teacher Influence and Related Factors in a Teacher Aide Program," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Maryland, 1968).

change. The teacher aide movement is closely linked with recent proposals to change the staffing patterns used in schools. A few programs seem to stand above the majority as exemplary efforts. The majority of programs appear to lack the proper administrative considerations and are somewhat restrictive in their overall structure.

Summary

Role as a social science concept has its beginning in the late nineteenth century. Since that time, the concept has continued to evolve and now has a number of dimensions and uses. It is a useful tool for understanding human interaction and individual behavior; consequently, it appears in some form in all the various social sciences. Role theory has been developed from both a process and structural consideration. The understanding of the concept role is facilitated when placed in relationship to other concepts such as social position, reference groups, and norms. Despite the extensive theoretical development of role theory, there is a particular need to formulate verifiable hypotheses which should be tested.

Role has proved particularly useful as an analytic base in the study of formal organizations. The formal and informal expectations within the organizational setting have a profound effect upon the individual's behavior. How the individual performs directly affects the

firm's goal achievement. Formal organizations employ explicit means for achieving an acceptable level of role compliance. The means include such considerations as job description, training and monitoring.

Role theory has been a useful means for the study of educational systems. Its use and development in education tends to parallel its general evolvement. A majority of studies attempt to measure expectations for various positions. The last ten to 15 years have seen attempts being made to relate expectations to other variables.

The use of teacher aides by schools is a rapidly increasing trend. Many descriptive studies of aides have been done, but very few investigations relate the various definitions of the new position to significant variables such as job effectiveness. The concept of role is suited to the study of teacher aides. The measure of congruence of role expectations between teachers and aides and its relationship to other variables appears to be a fruitful way of investigating this new position.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of the dissertation is to investigate the possibility of an interrelationship between performance expectations held for teacher aides and their level of job satisfaction, rated effectiveness and tasks performed. Secondly, there is an attempt to ascertain whether or not the answer to the primary objective of the investigation might be affected by certain organizational characteristics.

A survey approach which is based on role theory and several recognized role studies was used to collect the needed data.

The chapter is divided into the following categories: sample; measures; design; testable hypotheses; analysis; and summary.

Sample

Under the topic of sample, the general characteristics of the community settings, school districts, aide programs, and aides are discussed. In addition, the sampling procedure and its justification are included.

Three Michigan communities provide the settings for the study. Michigan has an active history of teacher aide programs beginning with the Bay City Experiment in the early 1950s. Since that time, the adoption of aide programs has increased rapidly, especially in the last five years.

Two of the three school districts selected for this study are located in the two medium-sized industrial cities, while the third district is centered in the smaller, more rural, community. All three communities are situated within sixty miles of each other in the southern half of Michigan's lower peninsula. For the purpose of this study, the three communities and their corresponding districts will be identified by the letters A, B, and C. The figures cited are sometimes approximations, but are accurate enough to give a basis for comparison or replication of this study.

Community A is a town of some 6,500 population with another 8,000 rural citizens served by the school district. The town is located at the intersection of a major state and U.S. highway. The community is some twenty miles north of a sizeable urban center. Community A is the county seat and serves many of the business and educational needs for a large portion of the county. Three medium-sized manufacturing industries employing some 900 people are located there. The industries produce such items as

bearings, pistons, and compressors. There are also several other smaller manufacturing industries. The hospital and school district are the other sizeable employing agencies. Many of the town residents work in other communities and commute to their jobs. There are numerous large and small farms surrounding the town. These include dairy, beef and crop farming.

The school district has some 4,000 students and 183 full-time professional staff members, giving a staff ratio of approximately 21.8 to 1. Geographically, the district includes some 200 square miles making it one of the largest in the state. The buildings include a new four million dollar high school, a junior high school and nine elementary schools. The elementaries range in size from 100 to over 400 students. Four of the elementaries have been completed since 1969. There is about 12,300 dollars of assessed valuation per child and an actual expenditure of approximately 630 dollars per child.

The aide program was initiated in 1965. It now involves every school in the district. Some twenty-seven classroom aides are currently working with seventy teachers in the elementary schools. All of the classroom aides are women, of whom over 90% are married. About 15% had worked in schools before their current employment as aides. The number of aides per school ranges from one to seven with an aide to teacher ratio which varies from one

to five. In some cases, one teacher receives assistance from more than one aide. About 60,000 dollars is spent for the program, of which the local district provides 95% of the total.

All twenty-seven of the elementary classroom aides and the seventy teachers with whom they work were included in the sample. Twenty-seven of the teachers were paired with the twenty-seven aides. All six elementary principals were also surveyed.

Community B is a medium-sized industrial city of some 51,000 people with another 90,000 living within close proximity. The city lies next to a major interstate highway and in addition is served by air and rail transportation. There are over thirty manufacturing companies in the area. These firms make a variety of products such as metals, machinery, transportation equipment, and food stuffs. Of the 53,000 member labor force, over one half are in the manufacturing industries. The number of employees per industry range from fifty to 2,600. There are also 6,200 people employed by various governmental units. Community B has the usual goods and services found in a community of its size. The downtown area has undergone a major renovation and the construction of a central mall.

The school district has two high schools, four junior high schools and twenty elementary schools. Some 14,000

youngsters are enrolled in the public schools. Another 4,000 students attend parochial schools. With about 700 full-time professional staff members, there is an approximate 20 to 1 student-staff ratio. The operating budget is just over thirteen million dollars or between 900 to 950 dollars per child. There is nearly 18,000 dollars in assessed valuation behind each student.

In 1966, the school district staff decided to institute an aide program with Title I, ESEA fundings. Since that date, the program has continued to grow so that currently sixty-five aides are now assisting in the elementary school classrooms. The number of aides used by each school varies from one to fourteen. A full-time coordinator directs the program. Fifty-four per cent of the funding is local, 10% state and the remaining 36% federal. About 125,000 dollars are from other than local funds. One-hundred-thirty elementary teachers use classroom aides. Many of these have full time service.

The aides range in age from 21 to 60 with a mean age of 41.8. Over 98% are women. The average family income is about 10,000 dollars. Over 90% had worked in schools on a volunteer basis prior to being hired by the district. The amount of education for the group is relatively high. A recent district survey revealed six aides with no diploma, twelve with high school diplomas, twenty-two had up to sixty semester hours of college credit, and twenty had over sixty semester hours of credit.

The sample surveyed included twenty principals, sixty aides and ninety-six teachers. Five of the aides and a like number of teachers are special education personnel. Sixty teachers were paired with the sixty aides. The sample included all but two elementary schools which were used to field test the questionnaire.

Community C, as the center of a metropolitan area of over 300,000, is one of the largest urban areas in the state. The city is connected by interstate, U.S. and state highways as well as by major rail and air transportation service. There is an art gallery, symphony orchestra, three university extension centers, and many other community services. The city is not only a service and commercial center, but is also a major manufacturing complex. There are many industries producing such items as machine parts, chemicals, food stuffs and furniture.

The school district has an enrollment of 35,000 students. There are also some 17,000 private school students. The public schools house their pupils in four high schools, seven junior high schools, two middle schools and fifty-five elementary schools. In addition, there are ten special education schools or centers. Over 1,600 professional staff are employed which gives about a 21 to 1 student-staff ratio.

The aide program was instituted in March of 1966. With a current number of approximately 375 elementary aides,

District C ranks as having the second largest aide program in Michigan. There are half-time and full-time aides. The full-time aides provide direct assistance to the classroom teachers. Some of these are cast in the role of assistant teacher. There are about 200 full-time aides working in twenty-eight elementary schools. Fifteen of these are middle city schools and have the highest percentage of aides to teachers.

Aides range in age from 18 to 56 years with 36 as the approximate average. Eighty-five per cent are married. Many of the aides had previous employment, but only a minor percentage have worked in schools either on a paid or volunteer basis. A survey compiled in April, 1969, showed forty-six aides had no diploma, 103 held a high school diploma, thirty had received some college credits, eighteen had equivalent to a junior college degree, and three had completed four years of college.

This investigation included twenty-six teachers and thirty-one aides working in three inner city elementary schools.

One of the schools is a K-5 with 483 regular and sixty-six kindergarten students. There were fourteen teachers and fourteen aides working in the K-3 grades. The school is one of the largest in the district. The second school is a K-6 with 220 regular and twenty-eight kindergarten students. Seven K-3 grade teachers and the same number of aides were surveyed. The third school is

known as the "follow through school," and includes only the kindergarten and first grade levels. There are five teachers and ten aides working with 131 students, which gives a very desirable student-teacher ratio. A high percentage of this school funding is met by other than local sources. Twenty-six of the teachers were paired with twenty-six aides in the survey sample.

An organizational profile of the district's aide program was completed for each of the three districts. The interview instrument for doing this is described in this chapter under the section entitled "Measures," and the results are given in Chapter IV.

The remainder of this chapter section is devoted to the sampling procedure and its justification. It was decided to survey only elementary aides and to include only those who provided direct assistance to the classroom teacher in a classroom setting. The use of only elementary aides was founded on the notion that task definitions would have been too broadly stated to include both elementary and secondary levels. The category of aides was restricted to classroom assistants in the belief that they would be more likely to perform a wide range of task classifications.

It was decided to use teachers and aides in the survey because the investigator believed they are the most crucial reference groups for determining performance

expectations for the position being studied. Building principals were also included to see if their expectations are congruent with the results from the aides and teachers. The principals' responses were not used to reject or accept the three hypotheses.

What Coleman calls "saturated sampling" was used to collect the task expectations. This kind of sampling was chosen because the use of a questionnaire and manageable numbers made it feasible, plus the fact that the aides work in a formal organizational setting. The importance of this latter point is spelled out by Coleman when he stated:

But apart from the kinds of data collected, there are also important sampling considerations. In this kind of research, it is no longer possible to pull each individual out of his social context and interview him as an independent entity. It is necessary to sample parts of that context as well or, to say it differently, to sample explicitly with reference to the social structure.¹⁶⁶

As a means of achieving a reference to the social structure, Coleman suggested saturated sampling as one of the techniques for collecting data. This sampling procedure is characterized by the fact that all parties to be studied in the social system are included in the sample. This is only feasible under special conditions. There must

¹⁶⁶James S. Coleman, "Rational Analysis: The Study of Social Organizations with Survey Methods," in A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations, ed. by Amitai Etzioni (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 520.

be a small enough number to be manageable and the measuring instrument has to lend itself to an efficient collection of data.¹⁶⁷ Both of these conditions were present for this study.

Three districts were selected as separate organizational systems and as sources for providing the three separate samples of teachers and aides. The data from each of the three districts was kept separate and compared to see if similar or dissimilar results were achieved from the three different social systems.

The next section of the chapter describes the questionnaire and interview schedule used to collect the data.

Measurements

Two instruments were developed to collect the data for this dissertation. A questionnaire was used to measure task expectations, the level of aide job satisfaction, the level of aide rated effectiveness, and the tasks the aides have performed. The interview schedule was used as a means for collecting the data needed to describe various organizational considerations undertaken by the surveyed districts with respect to their aide programs.

The questionnaire is a very commonly used device for doing survey studies. This is particularly true if it

¹⁶⁷ Ibid., pp. 520-521.

is not feasible for the investigator to interview all the people from whom he desires responses or where there is not a compelling reason to see them personally.¹⁶⁸ For the purpose of this investigation, those conditions existed. The questionnaire was a practical way to obtain data on role definition for aides. It is also a means for achieving response to a uniform set of questions which provides for an easy comparability of answers. In addition, the conditions of a wide coverage at a minimum expense and the need for a saturated sample could be met by a questionnaire.¹⁶⁹

All but one of the questions were close ended. For this investigation, open questions were largely undesirable because the hypotheses posed are rather specifically delineated and require uniform comparability among the respondents. One open question was used on the questionnaire given aides to see if any particular aspects of the aide program would emerge which were crucial and undetected by the interview schedule.

Task performance was selected as the segment of role expectation to measure because it is the most central aspect of the teacher aide role. The fifty tasks used

¹⁶⁸ Carter V. Good, A. S. Burr, and Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Education Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), pp. 324-325.

¹⁶⁹ George J. Monly, The Science of Educational Research (New York: American Book Company, 1963), pp. 239-242.

were gleaned from seven different teacher aide studies which consisted of or included a description of tasks performed by aides.¹⁷⁰ An attempt was made to select tasks which were representative of several categories of performance. It is realized that the selection was not completely representative and was subject to the investigator's bias. The fifty tasks are grouped into five major categories of ten tasks each. The categories are clerical; housekeeping; technological; monitoring and supervision; and instructional support. The categories are not identified in the questionnaire because it was felt the labels might prejudice the respondent before the specific tasks were read and checked. The questions were grouped into like categories to give a greater semblance of order and to enable the respondent to orient himself to the trend of thought.¹⁷¹

¹⁷⁰Bowman and Klopff, op. cit., pp. 38-39, 134-135, 154, 238-243; Department of Classroom Teachers, The Classroom Teacher Speaks on His Supportive Staff (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1967), pp. 7-8; The Teacher Aide Program, A Project of the Model School Division of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Conducted by the Washington School of Psychiatry, August, 1967; June M. Hornburger, So You Have An Aide (Wilmington, Delaware: Wilmington Public Schools, 1967), pp. 29-33; "Teacher Aides in Public Schools," op. cit., p. 37; Arnold Glovinsky, The Paraprofessional Study of Wayne County Intermediate School District (Detroit: Intermediate School District, Wayne County, 1967), pp. 18-26; and Emmerling and Chavis, op. cit., pp. 15-20.

¹⁷¹Mouly, op. cit., p. 245.

Each task has five categories of possible response. These include: AM (Absolutely Must); PS (Preferably Should); MMN (May or May Not); PSN (Preferably Should Not); and AMN (Absolutely Must Not). The categories are the same as those used by Gross, et al., for measuring task performance in their role study of the superintendent.¹⁷² The categories give two directions for response with a mandatory level of intensity and a preferential level of intensity. The middle category indicates a lack of expectational preference for that particular performance task.

The questionnaire given to the principal included only the fifty item task list of performance expectations.

The questionnaire answered by the aides had, in addition to the fifty item task list, a rating of job satisfaction and a check list of actual tasks performed. The tasks performed list is a repeat of the same fifty items used to measure expectations. The difference is that the response choice is a category labeled "Have Performed." This was checked if the aide actually performed the task during the school year. The job satisfaction scale includes six categories. They are designated: Very Satisfied; Satisfied; Fairly Satisfied; Fairly Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; and Very Dissatisfied. The

¹⁷²Gross, Mason and McEachern, op. cit., p. 102.

choice of a six point rating scale was based on the rationale that a scale should allow for adequate freedom of response, but not be so great that a difference cannot be discerned in the various degrees of intensity.

The teacher's questionnaire includes, in addition to the expectation items, a job effectiveness scale for rating the teacher aide with whom she was paired. The scale included six response categories. They are designated: Superior; Excellent; Good; Fair; Poor; and Unacceptable. The rationale for the six categories is the same as that used for the job satisfaction scale.

The criteria for stating good questions and the general format of the questionnaire, plus the layout and content of the cover letter were based on material from Rummel and Payne.¹⁷³

After the questionnaire was constructed, it was reviewed by five different educators representing different positions in the profession. As a result, some of the directions were further clarified and the cover letter was refined. The questionnaire was field tested in two elementary schools. An open-ended comment sheet was attached to the questionnaire so that each respondent

¹⁷³J. Francis Rummel, An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education (2nd ed.; New York: Harper and Row, 1958), pp. 111-162; and Stanley L. Payne, The Art of Asking Questions (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951), pp. 75-99.

could evaluate the instrument. The cover letter for the field test included a paragraph explaining the purpose of the test. Returns were received and tabulated from the two principals, four aides and six teachers. As a result of the test, six task items were dropped and new ones substituted. If 75 per cent or more of the responses for an item fell into the May or May Not category, the item was dropped as insufficiently discriminatory. The six items dropped were:

1. Correct Papers
3. File Materials
4. Maintain Bulletin Boards
6. Score Tests
24. Prepare AV Materials
43. Assist with a Music Lesson

The new tasks were substituted into the same sequence locations as the dropped items. Also, item 36, "Monitor Class In Teacher's Absence," was changed to read, "Monitor Class For Short Time Period;" item 40, "Discipline Student For Misbehavior," was changed to read, "Discipline Student On Playground;" Item 42, "Tutor a Student," was changed to read, "Help Student With Assignment;" item 45, "Substitute In Teacher's Absence," was defined to mean one half day or longer. An example of the questionnaire and cover letter is included in the appendix.

The second instrument was designed to ascertain general descriptive information about the district, the aide program and the aides as a group. In addition, the interview included five categories of questions related to

means available to the school system for achieving greater role compliance. The categories included: job description and supervision; recruitment and selection; training, rewards, and incentives; and evaluation. The categories and related questions were based upon the review material in Chapter II entitled "Means For Achieving Organizational Role Compliance." The questions were a mixture of open and close ended items depending upon the specificity of the response desired.

An interview was deemed desirable to establish a contact and rapport with a key administrator of the aide program, to develop a more complete understanding of the district's aide program, and to collect data as a basis for comparing the three districts surveyed. The data collected were not for the purpose of accepting or rejecting the basic hypotheses, but rather as a possible explanation for differences in the patterns of responses achieved in each of the three districts.

The interviews were conducted with the coordinator or administrator most directly responsible in the central office for each district's teacher aide program. The interview schedule was used once and then revised and used in all three districts. The interviews lasted from one and a half to two and a half hours apiece. An example of the interview schedule is included in the appendix.

The next section is a presentation of the general design of the study.

Design

After visiting several districts in the state of Michigan, and reading a number of educational periodicals, it became apparent to the investigator that teacher aide programs were an important and rapidly expanding phenomenon in the schools. There appeared to be considerable need to evaluate and research this new phenomenon. On this basis, the investigator chose the topic of teacher aides.

To develop an approach and theoretical basis for the study, a number of books, periodicals, and pamphlets were read about the subjects of teacher aide programs and organizational analysis. The second area was included because it seemed that from an administrative perspective, it was important to consider the organizational system within which the aides worked.

Role theory was chosen as the basis for designing the constructs of the study, because of its cross-disciplinary nature and the discovery that several reputable studies in the field of education also used role theory.

A survey approach was decided upon as the best method for collecting data. The decision was predicated upon the notions that the best way to study roles was to measure role definitions in a uniform manner as held by several reference groups, the probable need for an efficient means of collecting data, and because the survey provided a way

of relating several variables in the natural setting of the school system. The survey as a research approach has come to be valued as more than a means for merely asking questions and reporting answers. This point of view is aptly stated by Trow in the following quote:

The great advances in survey research in recent decades have been in the analysis and interpretation of survey data, advances which have taken survey research considerably beyond the primitive stage of merely asking a lot of questions and reporting the answers. The chief gains have been in our ability to study the relationships between and among variables. And since a great part of social theory consists of statements about the relationships among variables under specified conditions, these developments in survey analysis open up the use of survey data for the testing and refinement of complex sociological theories.¹⁷⁴

The above quote has particular meaning for the administrator who is interested in the effect of organizational variables upon employee behavior. Trow, in the same article states:

Even more important from a policy perspective, since we can only rarely affect such characteristics of individuals as their social class origins or academic aptitudes, is the capacity of survey research to shed light on organizational characteristics which are susceptible to administration; thus the size of a given school, or the nature of its counseling program, is subject to purposeful control in a way that academic aptitudes are not.¹⁷⁵

¹⁷⁴Martin Trow, "Survey Research in Educational Administration," in Educational Research: A New Perspective, ed. by Jack A. Culbertson and Stephen P. Hencley (Dansville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1963), p. 252.

¹⁷⁵Ibid.

Sieber, in a recent article in the Phi Delta Kappan, also made a plea for a more enlightened appreciation and use of the survey approach in education and noted that "probably a major portion of the empirical generalizations of modern sociology are derived from surveys."¹⁷⁶

Mouly, in a book on educational research, gives the traditional definition of a survey as an approach to determining the status of a given phenomenon, but then goes on to say that the more sophisticated surveys bear directly on significant interrelationships among variables.¹⁷⁷

The highly respected role study by Gross and associates on the position of the superintendent used a survey approach to collect data.¹⁷⁸ Gross' study served as a model for much of the design used in this dissertation.

Once the topic and decision to use a survey approach were decided, the investigator completed the review of literature in the areas of role theory, organizational theory and teacher aides. Over 150 sources including books, periodicals, abstracts, pamphlets and microfilms were reviewed.

¹⁷⁶Sam D. Sieber, "The Case of the Misconstrued Technique," Phi Delta Kappan, January, 1968, p. 275.

¹⁷⁷Mouly, op. cit., p. 232.

¹⁷⁸Gross, Mason and McEachern, op. cit.

A questionnaire and interview schedule were selected as the basic instruments for collecting the data. After the two instruments were constructed, they were reviewed by different educators and then field tested in actual district settings. As a result of the field test, the directions were refined and several questions were either modified or completely changed.

Teachers and aides were selected as the primary reference groups to be measured because they logically appeared as the most crucial role definers in terms of task performance expectations. Principals were also surveyed to simply compare the congruity of their responses with those of teachers and aides. Teachers and aides who worked together were paired, because role definition is predicated upon social interaction and this particular dyad was the most crucial in the system for the questions posed in this dissertation.

It was decided to survey three different school systems to see if different patterns of response emerged from the different organizational settings. As previously pointed out, the interview schedule was used to determine possible organizational variables which might affect different response patterns. The implication is that the behavior of individuals in organizations are mutually influenced by certain characteristics of the organization. This point is made by Etzioni in an introductory statement to a chapter on methods for studying organizations.

Frequently, students of organizational analysis try to explain the behavior of individuals by their membership in a certain organization or organizational unit. Such an approach assumes that the member is somehow affected by the unit. The channels through which the properties of the unit affect the properties of individuals are many (although they are rarely specified). A member may perceive the unit realistically and thus be affected. He may be recruited in ways which will ensure that his properties are in line with those of the unit, or he may be socialized to "fit" the unit after recruitment. Often it is implicitly assumed that he is influenced by other members of the unit. This belief implies that the member interacts with other members and that he is emotionally attached to them and/or respects their opinions.¹⁷⁹

The districts surveyed needed to have a sufficient number of aides to provide an adequate sample. This meant for the most part that urban centers would need to be used. The larger urban districts are the ones which generally qualify for special funding to hire aides, and the majority of aide programs received their impetus from other than local monies. Two of the three districts surveyed in this dissertation are located in medium-sized cities. The third district is a smaller rural system and was used to see if this difference in context would affect the nature of the responses. The investigator was fortunate enough to find such a district which had an adequate number of aides to include in the study.

The procedure used in setting up the study was to contact the central office and make an appointment with the

¹⁷⁹ Etzioni, op. cit., p. 497.

administrator directly responsible for the aide program. Once permission was received to conduct the study, the investigator met with the elementary building principals of those buildings to be surveyed and explained the study and its purpose. The next step was to make specific arrangements for distributing and collecting the questionnaires. Separate packets for each respondent with return envelopes were prepared and distributed to the individual buildings. The respondents were given one week to complete the questionnaires and return them to the building secretary, who forwarded the returns to the district office. Returns were noted and one follow-up letter was sent to those who had not returned their questionnaires. A copy of the follow-up letter is included in the appendix.

During the process of dealing with the questionnaires, the interview schedule was completed with the responsible central office administrator.

The hypotheses stated in operational terms and the analysis of data are the subjects of the next two sections of this chapter.

Hypotheses

The three hypotheses are first restated as they appear in Chapter I, followed by operational definitions of the key terms.

Hypothesis 1: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will express higher job satisfaction than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

Expectations are designated by using a fifty item list of performance tasks. A checklist of five response categories are provided for each item. These are designated as AM (Absolutely Must), PS (Preferably Should), MMN (May or May Not), PSN (Preferably Should Not), and AMN (Absolutely Must Not).

There are three measures of agreement. The first is an agreement of intensity. This is achieved by a paired teacher and aide checking the same response category for a performance task. The item agreements are totalled for each pair to arrive at an intensity agreement score. The second measure of agreement is one of direction. This is indicated by the paired aide and teacher checking any two adjacent response categories for a performance task. For the second measure, the number of adjacent categories checked is added to the number of intensity agreements for each pair to arrive at a total direction agreement score. For the third measure of agreement, the five response categories are assigned consecutively, the numerical quantities of one through five beginning with the AM category. The level of agreement is determined by totalling the absolute different on the fifty response items for each pair.

Satisfaction is determined by the aide checking one of six possible categories on a job satisfaction rating scale. The six categories are designated: Very Satisfied; Satisfied; Fairly Satisfied; Fairly Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; and Very Dissatisfied. The categories are assigned consecutively the numerical quantities six through one beginning with the Very Satisfied category.

The hypothesis is accepted or rejected for each sample surveyed by determining if there is a significant positive correlation at the 5 per cent level of confidence between the level of satisfaction and each of the three measures of agreement. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is used as the statistical test.

Hypothesis 2: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will be rated as more effective than an aide who is not in agreement.

Expectations and agreement are operationally defined the same as for Hypothesis 1.

Effectiveness is determined by the teacher checking one of six possible categories on a job effectiveness rating scale. The six categories are designated: Superior; Excellent; Good; Fair; Poor; and Unacceptable. The categories are assigned consecutively the numerical quantities one through six beginning with the Unacceptable category.

The hypothesis is accepted or rejected for each sample surveyed by determining if there is a significant

positive correlation at the 5 per cent level of confidence between the level of satisfaction and each of the three measures of agreement. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is used as the statistical test.

Hypothesis 3: In a significant percentage of cases, a task will or will not be performed in accordance with the agreement between the task expectation held by the aide and the task expectation held for her by the teacher.

There are four measures of agreement. The first is agreement of mandatory intensity. This measure is achieved by the paired aide and teacher checking either the AM or AMN response categories. The second measure of agreement is achieved by the paired aide and teacher checking adjacent categories of intensity. The third measure of agreement is achieved by the paired aide and teacher checking either AM-MMN categories or AMN-MMN categories. The fourth agreement is measured by the teacher and aide checking either the PS-PSN categories.

Tasks performed are determined by using the same fifty item list of performance tasks used to measure expectations. A response category designated "Have Performed" is provided for each task item. The aide designates the task as having been performed by checking the response box, and not having performed the task by not checking the response box.

For each measure of agreement, a total is calculated for all aide-teacher pairs for each of the three samples.

Each of the measures are compared to the total number of tasks performed which are in accordance with the direction of the agreement.

The significance of the performance percentage is measured in relationship to 75 per cent of the performance responses being in accordance with the direction of the task agreement between the paired aides and teachers. Between 50 per cent and 75 per cent is considered fairly significant and above 75 per cent is considered very significant.

The next section of the chapter deals with the analysis of data collected in the survey.

Analysis

The treatment of the data logically fell into two major categories. The first was an analysis to determine whether the hypotheses posed in the study have been supported. The second category was concerned with the analysis to determine the characteristics of the response in terms of patterns.

The acceptance or rejection of the first two hypotheses was predicated upon whether the definitions of agreement are significantly correlated in a positive manner with the rated levels of job satisfaction and job effectiveness. The operational definitions for each of these variables are discussed in the preceding section of this chapter. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation test was

used to determine if the variables were significantly related at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Correlations are computed between each of the three kinds of agreements, effectiveness, and satisfaction, as well as among the three definitions of agreement and between satisfaction and effectiveness.

The data for the third hypothesis was a question of computing simple percentages of the tasks actually performed in terms of their correspondence with the direction of agreement of the four types of agreement as operationally defined in the preceding section of this chapter. The number of agreements and the number of corresponding tasks performed were totalled for each of the three samples. The significance of the percentage was determined in relationship to 75 per cent as a point of reference.

The computations for the three hypotheses were done separately for each of the three samples. The hypotheses were then either accepted or rejected for each definition of agreement for each of the three samples.

The second set of tests was designed to identify possible response characteristics in terms of the aides and teachers as separate groups within each of the samples and among the three samples.

Comparisons were made among groups of people and among the various response items. The central question

with reference to the aides and teachers as distinct groups was what level of consensus existed within and between the groups. The level of consensus was also computed for the principals in each district and their responses were compared with the aides and teachers. Measurement of consensus has the two elements of central tendency and variability of distribution to be considered. Mean scores were used as a test of central tendency and standard deviation was the test of variability.

A variance score was computed for each task expectation item for aides, teachers, and principals as groups within each of the three districts. The lower the variance score, the higher the level of consensus. The number of from moderately high to very high consensus items was totalled for each group. Those items were compared on which the aides, teachers, and principals within each district indicated the same or similar consensus.

The measure of consensus for moderately high to very high was set at a mean score range of from .00 to .70. The same procedure was used in dealing with central tendency or mean scores. Ranges of 3.51 to 4.00 and from 1.00 to 2.49 were designated as indicating mean scores of significant direction. Items were then identified on which there were both similar mean and standard deviation scores. The next step was to simply see if the aides, teachers, and principals agreed upon similar items in each of the three districts surveyed.

In addition to the foregoing comparisons, the mean levels of job satisfaction and rated effectiveness were computed for each of the three districts sampled. These were compared for degrees of difference.

A total percentage score of all the tasks actually performed by all the aides was computed for each of the three districts. These percentages were compared for degrees of difference.

Summary

The design of the dissertation is constructed to measure the interrelationship between role congruence for the position of teacher aide and rated effectiveness, job satisfaction, and actual task performance.

School districts in three Michigan communities provided the survey samples. The three communities, districts, and aide programs have been described. A survey approach was selected as the most feasible means of collecting data. A questionnaire was constructed to measure and compare task expectations, job satisfaction, job effectiveness, and tasks performed. An interview schedule was developed for use in collecting data for describing the organizational characteristics of the three districts. Both instruments were field tested. The hypotheses related to satisfaction and effectiveness were accepted or rejected on the basis of whether or not they significantly

correlated with role agreement between pairs of teachers and aides. The hypothesis related to actual task performance was measured for acceptance by using percentage scores related to direction of task agreement between the teacher and aide. The data were analyzed for each district, then a comparison was made among the results for each sample.

The analysis of results is the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Chapter IV is subdivided into a restatement of the hypotheses and their levels of support, patterns of response, additional tasks and comments listed by the aides; means used by the district administration to achieve role compliance; and the chapter summary. Data for all but the means for achieving compliance was obtained by use of a questionnaire. These data are summarized in 18 different tables included within this chapter. The information relative to the means for achieving compliance was obtained by using an interview schedule. Three districts were included in the study. The general method of presenting the information will be to first report each district separately and then provide a comparative statement whenever it is appropriate.

Level of Support for Hypotheses

The three hypotheses studied in this dissertation are first restated and then followed by evidence either supporting or not supporting them. Three kinds of agreement are used to measure consensus between the aide and teacher for the first two hypotheses. The first kind of

agreement which is labeled "Intensity" is achieved by the aide and teacher checking the same response category for a task item. The second kind of agreement, labeled "Adjacent," is achieved by the aide and teacher checking adjacent response categories. Adjacent agreement scores were added to intensity scores to arrive at a total for the adjacent agreement score. The third agreement, labeled "Numerical Difference," was achieved by assigning the five possible response categories numerical quantities of one through five and then totaling the numerical difference between the responses of the teacher and the aide. Simple correlations were used to measure the relationship between the measures of agreement and the dependent variables of satisfaction and effectiveness. For the third hypotheses, four kinds of agreement were defined. The first agreement is labeled as "Mandatory" and is achieved by the aide and teacher checking either the Absolutely Must or Absolutely Must Not response categories for a task item. The second kind of agreement, "Adjacent," is achieved by the aide and teacher checking adjacent response categories for a task item. The May or May Not plus Mandatory agreement is derived by the aide and teacher checking a combination of the May or May Not category, plus either the Absolutely Must or Absolutely Must Not category. The fourth agreement, "Preferential," is measured by the aide and teacher

checking either the Preferably Should or Preferably Should Not categories in response to a task item. Simple percentage scores were used to measure the relationship between the direction of the agreement scores and the dependent variable designated as Have Performed the task. Direction means a response either toward Should Perform or Should Not Perform.

Hypothesis 1: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will express higher job satisfaction than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

There was not a sufficient level of support for establishing a significant relationship between any of the three measures of agreement and rated satisfaction. Correlations in all three samples for intensity and adjacent agreements with satisfaction were to be positive and between numerical difference and satisfaction to be negative.

In District A, 27 teacher-aide pairs were given questionnaires. Returns were received from enough respondents to record and use 21 or 77.7 per cent of the pairs surveyed. A simple correlation score of .4227 or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was required to establish a significant relationship between the agreement score and the level of satisfaction. The correlation score between intensity and satisfaction was +.0624, between adjacent and satisfaction -.0635, and between numerical difference and satisfaction +.1471.

There were significant correlations among the three agreement scores. The correlation between intensity and adjacent was $+0.5609$, between intensity and numerical difference -0.8344 , and between adjacent and numerical difference -0.8199 .

In District B, 60 teacher-aide pairs were given questionnaires. Returns were received from enough respondents to record and use 45 or 75 percent of the pairs surveyed. A simple correlation score of $.2914$ or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was required to establish a significant relationship between the agreement score and the level of satisfaction. The correlation score between intensity and satisfaction was -0.2323 , between adjacent and satisfaction -0.2011 , and between numerical difference and satisfaction $+0.2138$. There were significant correlations among the three agreement scores. The correlation between intensity and adjacent was $+0.4215$, between intensity and numerical difference -0.8221 , and between adjacent and numerical difference -0.7115 .

In District C, 26 teacher-aide pairs were given questionnaires. Returns were received from enough respondents to record and use 24 or 92.3 per cent of the pairs surveyed. A simple correlation score of $.3892$ or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was required to establish a significant relationship between

the agreement score and the level of satisfaction. The correlation score between intensity and satisfaction was $-.3226$, between adjacent and satisfaction $-.0156$, and between numerical difference and satisfaction $+.26174$. There were significant correlations among the three agreement scores. The correlation between intensity and adjacent was $+.6063$, between intensity and numerical difference $-.8682$, and between adjacent and numerical difference $-.8642$.

On the basis of the level of correlations computed for the three samples, the first hypotheses is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will be rated as more effective than an aide who is not in agreement.

There was not a sufficient level of support for establishing a significant relationship between any of the three measures of agreement and rated effectiveness. The correlations among the three agreement scores, and number of pairs surveyed and returns used, are the same as indicated for each of the three samples discussed under the first hypothesis. Correlations in all three samples for intensity and adjacent agreements with effectiveness were to be positive and between numerical difference and effectiveness to be negative.

In District A, a simple correlation score of $.4227$ or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was

required to establish a significant relationship between the agreement score and the level of effectiveness. The correlation score between intensity and effectiveness was $+.3099$, between adjacent and effectiveness $+.0821$, and between numerical difference and effectiveness $-.2603$.

In District B, a simple correlation score of $.2914$ or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was required to establish a significant relationship between the agreement score and the level of effectiveness. The correlation score between intensity and effectiveness was $-.1564$, between adjacent and effectiveness $-.2691$, and between numerical difference and effectiveness $-.2014$.

In District C, a simple correlation score of $.3892$ or greater at the five per cent level of confidence was required to establish a significant relationship between the agreement score and the level of effectiveness. The correlation score between intensity and effectiveness was $-.1306$, between adjacent and effectiveness $-.0769$, and between numerical difference and effectiveness $+.1762$.

On the basis of the level of correlations computed for the three samples, the second hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: In a significant percentage of cases, a task will or will not be performed in accordance with the agreement between the task expectation held by the aide and the task expectation held for her by the teacher.

There was a generally sufficient level of support for establishing a significant relationship between the

four measures of agreement and tasks checked as having been performed. The number of pairs surveyed and returns used for the three samples are the same as those indicated for the first and second hypothesis. A simple percentage score of 75 per cent was used as a point of reference for establishing high or low significance between the direction of agreement scores and the tasks performed. From 50 to 75 per cent was considered lower significance and above 75 per cent was considered higher significance for all three samples.

In District A, the relationship between mandatory agreement and tasks performed was at the 100 per cent level, between adjacent agreement and tasks performed 64 per cent, between May or May Not, plus mandatory agreement and tasks performed 75.36 per cent, and between preferential agreement and tasks performed 72.32 per cent.

In District B, the relationship between mandatory agreement and tasks performed was at the 90.7 per cent level, between adjacent agreement and tasks performed 69.67 per cent, between May or May Not plus mandatory agreement and tasks performed 70.83 per cent, and between preferential agreement and tasks performed 83.41 per cent.

In District C, the relationship between mandatory agreement and tasks performed was at the 95.5 per cent level, between adjacent agreement and tasks performed 72.54 per cent, between May or May Not plus mandatory

agreement and tasks performed 85.83 per cent, and between preferential agreement and tasks performed 80 per cent.

Seven of the 12 percentage agreements were 75 per cent or higher. All of the intensity agreements were above 90 per cent. Five of the agreements were below 75 per cent, but none was below 64 per cent. The scores indicate all agreements were well above chance and the majority were at the highly significant level. The pattern demonstrates that the more mandatory the agreement is, the higher the probability the task performance will be in accordance with the direction of agreement.

On the basis of the level of percentages computed for three samples, the third hypothesis is accepted.

Patterns of Response

This subsection includes a description of responses for effectiveness scores, satisfaction scores, tasks performed, and frequency distributions on task expectation responses. For the purpose of describing patterns, all teachers and aides are included. In all three samples, more teachers and aides than those paired for the hypotheses were given questionnaires. In Districts A and B, principals were also given questionnaires and their responses are included in the area of frequency distribution for task expectations.

For effectiveness rating, the six possible response categories were assigned numerical quantities of from six

Table 1

Task Agreement, Satisfaction and Effectiveness Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District A

Teacher-Aide Pairs	Task Agree. Scores			Satisfaction	Effectiveness
	Intens.	Adj. & Int.	Abs. Diff.		
1	15	36	38	4	4
2	19	41	39	4	4
3	16	36	50	4	5
4	25	44	31	6	4
5	17	21	57	5	6
6	23	43	31	5	6
7	16	42	44	5	5
8	35	48	17	5	5
9	15	39	44	6	5
10	20	45	31	3	5
11	18	30	55	6	4
12	16	34	56	6	4
13	17	38	47	5	5
14	32	50	18	5	6
15	16	34	41	4	5
16	18	47	35	5	4
17	22	45	33	6	6
18	20	47	31	5	6
19	16	42	42	6	3
20	13	36	51	6	5
21	27	39	26	6	5

* Intensity Agreement = Aide and teacher checked the same response category

Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked adjacent response categories

Absolute Difference = Computed by weighing the categories 1 through 5 and subtracting for the numerical difference between the teacher and aide responses

Satisfaction = Responses scored as: Very Satisfied (6); Satisfied (5); Fairly Satisfied (4); Fairly Dissatisfied (3); Dissatisfied (2); Very Dissatisfied (1)

Effectiveness = Responses scored as: Superior (6); Excellent (5); Good (4); Fair (3); Poor (2); Unacceptable (1)

Table 2

Task Agreement, Satisfaction and Effectiveness Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District B

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Task Agree. Scores			Satisfaction	Effectiveness
	Intens.	Adj. & Int.	Abs. Diff.		
1	23	38	38	6	6
2	10	24	38	6	5
3	28	43	35	5	
4	35	47	19		5
5	20	41	38		5
6	19	48	35	6	5
7	20	32	47	5	6
8	26	44	25	6	6
9	8	49	45	5	4
10	23	46	31	5	4
11	17	40	44	6	5
12	21	45	27	6	6
13	5	40	54	6	6
14	4	10	83	6	6
15	22	15	41	5	5
16	20	46	33		4
17	11	34	53	4	2
18	16	38	48		5
19	20	48	32	3	2
20	27	48	25	6	4
21	11	41	53	6	4
22	29	42	24	6	6
23	21	42	33	6	5
24	7	47	46	5	6
25	29	50	21	4	
26	9	21	80	5	5
27	15	40	46	6	5
28	10	38	53	6	5
29	28	36	39	4	5
30	12	34	57	6	6
31	39	45	14	5	6
32	15	37	49	6	5
33	11	48	41	4	6
34	18	42	41	6	4
35	30	43	26	6	4
36	14	33	56	6	6
37	21	45	33	6	5
38	8	33	49	6	5
39	21	33	48	6	3
40	29	46	25	5	4

Table 2 (continued)

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Task Agree. Scores			Satisfaction	Effectiveness
	Intens.	Adj. & Int.	Abs. Diff.		
41	15	42	44	6	
42	28	46	24	4	3
43	14	46	40	5	5
44	16	43	41	6	4
45	11	28	73	6	5

- * Intensity Agreement = Aide and teacher checked the same response category
- Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked adjacent response categories
- Absolute Difference = Computed by weighing the categories 1 through 5 and subtracting for the numerical difference between the teacher and aide responses
- Satisfaction = Responses scored as: Very Satisfied (6); Satisfied (5); Fairly Satisfied (4); Fairly Dissatisfied (3); Dissatisfied (2); Very Dissatisfied (1)
- Effectiveness = Responses scored as: Superior (6); Excellent (5); Good (4); Fair (3); Poor (2); Unacceptable (1)

Table 3

Task Agreement, Satisfaction and Effectiveness Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District C

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Task Agree. Scores			Satisfaction	Effectiveness
	Intens.	Adj. & Int.	Abs. Diff.		
1	20	48	30	6	4
2	22	45	25	6	5
3	26	48	26	5	3
4	15	44	40	6	5
5	27	45	27	4	4
6	24	43	29	5	6
7	22	36	33	6	4
8	13	24	61	4	4
9	18	43	36		6
10	17	33	45	5	4
11	16	34	47	6	4
12	12	44	46	6	6
13	14	36	52	5	1
14	19	46	35	5	4
15	20	38	36	4	5
16	22	38	41	4	5
17	20	40	37	3	4
18	6	11	81	6	6
19	21	50	29	5	5
20	15	33	50	5	5
21	17	38	32		
22	30	41	23		3
23	17	47	36	6	4
24	17	45	39	6	3

* Intensity Agreement = Aide and teacher checked the same response category

Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked adjacent response categories

Absolute Difference = Computed by weighing the categories 1 through 5 and subtracting for the numerical difference between the teacher and aide responses

Satisfaction = Responses scored as: Very Satisfied (6); Satisfied (5); Fairly Satisfied (4); Fairly Dissatisfied (3); Dissatisfied (2); Very Dissatisfied (1)

Effectiveness = Responses scored as: Superior (6); Excellent (5); Good (4); Fair (3); Poor (2); Unacceptable (1)

Table 4

**Task Agreement and Corresponding Have Performed Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District A**

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Adj. Agr.	Cor. Per.	MMN + Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Pref. Agr.	Cor. Per.
1	1	1	17	8	3	3	4	4
2	1	1	17	15	5	5	4	3
3	2	2	20	19	10	7	3	3
4	0	0	19	10	0	0	6	4
5	11	7	2	0	13	3	0	0
6								
7	0	0	23	21	1	1	13	13
8								
9	0	0	24	16	0	0	9	8
10	0	0	24	10	2	0	10	4
11	7	7	11	8	15	12	0	0
12	0	0	13	9	3	2	0	0
13	3	3	21	9	9	7	3	5
14	0	0	17	12	0	0	3	3
15	1	1	28	21	4	4	4	3
16	2	2	29	16	0	0	4	3
17	0	0	22	14	0	0	18	15
18	1	1	25	11	1	1	16	8
19	2	2	27	14	5	3	6	2
20	7	7	24	11	6	2	1	1
21	1	1	17	11	2	2	3	2

- * **Mandatory Agreement = Aide and teacher checked AM or AMN response categories**
Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked any adjacent response categories
Preferential Agreement = Aide and teacher checked PS or PSN response categories
Corresponding Performance = Scored if Have Performed was checked in accordance with the direction of the teacher-aide agreement responses

Table 5

Task Agreement and Corresponding Have Performed Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District B

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Adj. Agr.	Cor. Per.	MMN + Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Pref. Agr.	Cor. Per.
1	0	0	12	9	4	4	3	2
2	1	1	22	15	3	3	11	3
3	1	1	12	9	2	1	12	9
4	0	0	10	8	2	2	2	2
5	0	0	21	3	4	2	12	11
6	4	4	25	20	3	3	12	12
7	3	3	13	10	10	6	5	5
8	0	0	19	14	4	3	5	5
9	2	2	38	35	2	2	3	3
10	2	2	21	11	1	1	8	5
11	10	10	23	19	5	4	2	2
12	1	1	17	17	0	0	12	12
13	2	1	35	23	1	1	0	0
14	1	1	7	6	20	15	0	0
15	15	14	15	9	9	6	0	0
16								
17	3	1	22	17	9	9	4	4
18								
19	1	1	28	14	2	1	7	5
20	2	2	21	6	3	3	9	9
21	0	0	30	27	2	2	6	5
22	6	6	11	10	4	3	2	2
23	7	5	22	13	3	3	10	5
24	0	0	40	24	2	2	2	0
25	1	1	22	13	0	0	5	5
26	4	4	11	4	15	3	1	1
27	1	1	23	20	0	0	13	12
28	2	2	27	19	10	10	0	0
29	3	3	9	6	8	4	24	23
30	9	8	21	20	8	6	1	1
31	34	30	0	0	3	2	0	0
32	0	0	22	17	12	10	2	2
33	0	0	35	24	0	0	4	4
34	4	4	23	22	4	4	7	7
35	23	16	13	6	3	1	2	0
36	3	3	18	14	1	1	2	2
37	8	8	22	21	4	3	2	2
38	0	0	15	9	13	10	0	0
39	14	14	12	10	10	6	0	0
40	2	2	17	15	4	3	1	1

Table 5 (continued)

Tchr-Aide Pairs	Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Adj. Agr.	Cor. Per.	MMN + Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Pref. Agr.	Cor. Per.
41	6	6	25	15	2	1	6	4
42	1	1	18	11	2	1	0	0
43	2	2	32	8	1	0	1	1
44	3	3	19	12	2	2	7	3
45	3	3	16	13	6	3	0	0

- * Mandatory Agreement = Aide and teacher checked AM or AMN response categories
- Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked any adjacent response categories
- Preferential Agreement = Aide and teacher checked PS or PSN response categories
- Corresponding Performance = Scored if Have Performed was checked in accordance with the direction of the teacher-aide agreement responses

Table 6

Task Agreement and Corresponding Have Performed Scores*
For Teacher-Aide Pairs: District C

Teacher-Aide Pairs	Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Adj. Agr.	Cor. Per.	MMN + Man. Agr.	Cor. Per.	Pref. Agr.	Cor. Per.
1	1	1	27	23	0	0	4	3
2	2	2	20	16	1	0	6	6
3	12	11	21	17	1	0	11	7
4	0	0	29	21	1	1	3	3
5	10	10	17	11	3	2	12	9
6	5	4	21	18	4	4	7	7
7	8	8	14	10	5	4	7	6
8	0	0	7	4	13	12	2	2
9	3	3	20	17	1	1	13	9
10	0	0	16	12	13	12	7	6
11	12	11	18	13	13	12	0	0
12	1	1	31	18	4	3	6	5
13	3	3	23	17	0	0	11	8
14	0	0	17	13	2	1	5	5
15	4	4	17	14	6	6	6	4
16	9	9	14	8	4	3	1	1
17	1	0	10	7	4	2	1	1
18	6	6	5	3	31	25	0	0
19	0	0	27	14	0	0	14	12
20	4	4	17	13	6	5	4	2
21	4	4	17	13	3	3	8	8
22	3	2	10	8	1	1	24	18
23	0	0	27	18	1	1	17	14
24	1	1	23	17	3	3	6	4

- * Mandatory Agreement = Aide and teacher checked AM or AMN response categories
 Adjacent Agreement = Aide and teacher checked any adjacent response categories
 Preferential Agreement = Aide and teacher checked PS or PSN response categories
 Corresponding Performance = Scored if Have Performed was checked in accordance with the direction of the teacher-aide agreement responses

for Superior to 1 for Unacceptable. For District A, 51 teachers rated the effectiveness of one of the aides with whom they worked. The ratings ranged from Poor to Superior with an overall numerical average of 4.56 or midway between Good and Excellent. For District B, 93 respondents gave ratings ranging from Poor to Superior with an overall numerical average of 4.79 or very close to Excellent. District C, with 23 responses, had the lowest average rating of 4.34 or just above Good. The scores ranged from Unacceptable to Superior.

There were also six possible response categories for satisfaction ratings which were assigned numerical quantities from 6 for Very Satisfied, to 1 for Very Dissatisfied. Based on 25 responses from District A, the average numerical rating was 5.08 or slightly above Satisfied. The range was from Fairly Satisfied to Very Satisfied. Forty-eight District B Responses had a range from Fairly Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied and an average of 5.39 or almost midway between Satisfied and Very Satisfied. District C, with 28 responses, had an average of 5.18 and a range from Fairly Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied.

There appears to be no significant correlation between effectiveness and satisfaction when measured within a teacher-aide pair. There may be some relationship when the ratings are considered for the total district. District

Table 7

Total Job Effectiveness Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District A

Effectiveness Rating Scale Categories					
Superior	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Unacceptable
9	19	16	6	1	0

Table 8

Total Job Effectiveness Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District B

Effectiveness Rating Scale Categories					
Superior	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Unacceptable
22	38	23	7	2	0

Table 9

Total Job Effectiveness Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District C

Effectiveness Rating Scale Categories					
Superior	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Unacceptable
4	6	9	3	0	1

Table 10

Total Job Satisfaction Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District A

Satisfaction Rating Scale Categories					
Very Satis- fied	Satis- fied	Fairly Satis- fied	Fairly Dissat- isfied	Dissat- isfied	Very Dissat- isfied
9	10	5	1	0	0

Table 11

Total Job Satisfaction Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District B

Satisfaction Rating Scale Categories					
Very Satis- fied	Satis- fied	Fairly Satis- fied	Fairly Dissat- isfied	Dissat- isfied	Very Dissat- isfied
27	14	6	1	0	0

Table 12

Total Job Satisfaction Scores For Each
Rating Scale Category: District C

Satisfaction Rating Scale Categories					
Very Satis- fied	Satis- fied	Fairly Satis- fied	Fairly Dissat- isfied	Dissat- isfied	Very Dissat- isfied
12	10	5	1	0	0

B has the highest average rating of satisfaction followed by District C and then District A. District B also has the highest average effectiveness rating followed by District A and then District C.

The 50 item task list can be divided into five major task categories of ten items apiece. In numerical order, items one to ten are clerical, 11 to 20 are housekeeping, 21 to 30 are technological, 31 to 40 are supervisory, and 41 to 50 are instructional. Aides were asked to check those tasks which they had performed while working as a classroom teacher aide during the current school year. For each district, the task categories have been ranked from most to least performed. In addition, the ten to 12 most and least performed tasks have been ranked for each district.

Using a 100 per cent figure, which indicates a possible maximum score of all aides checking all tasks, the aides in District A received a percentage score of 51 per cent. Supervisory was the most frequently checked category, followed in order by clerical, instructional, housekeeping, and technological. The following is a list of the ten most frequently checked items. The list is from the most to the least checked item.

- 32. Supervise During Recess
- 3. Correct Workbooks
- 36. Monitor Class For Short Time Period
- 40. Discipline Student On Playground
- 8. Prepare Stencils
- 47. Help Check Seatwork

- 34. Help Maintain Classroom Order
- 42. Help a Student With Assignment
- 44. Listen to a Student Read
- 38. Explain School Rules to a Student

The following is a list of the 12 least frequently checked items, beginning with the least checked item.

- 28. Teach Students Use of Teaching Machines
- 5. Fill Out Requisitions
- 50. Conduct Small Group Drill
- 25. Help Students Learn Use of Equipment
- 26. Arrange For Use of Equipment
- 23. Operate 16 MM Projector
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip
- 39. Monitor Students During Assembly
- 43. Assist With a Science Demonstration
- 46. Plan Homework Assignment
- 48. Prepare Test Questions
- 49. Write Assignment on Board

Aides in District B had an overall items checked score of 68 per cent. Categories in the order of the most frequently checked were as follows: supervisory, clerical, instructional, housekeeping, and technological. The following is a list of the 11 most frequently checked items:

- 32. Supervise During Recess
- 42. Help a Student With Assignment
- 34. Help Maintain Classroom Order
- 36. Monitor Class for Short Time Period
- 40. Discipline Student on Playground
- 47. Help Check Seatwork
- 3. Correct Workbooks
- 8. Prepare Stencils
- 10. Put Away Supplies
- 9. Type Materials
- 41. Read Stories to Students

The ten least checked items are as follows:

- 13. Regulate Thermostat
- 48. Prepare Test Questions
- 28. Teach Student Use of Teaching Machines
- 46. Plan Homework Assignments

- 5. Fill Out Requisitions
- 22. Make Overhead Transparencies
- 43. Assist With a Science Demonstration
- 21. Operate Tape Recorder
- 25. Help Students Learn Use of Equipment
- 23. Operate 16 MM Projector

Aides in District C had an overall items checked score of 51 per cent. Categories in the order of the most frequently checked were as follows: supervisory, clerical, housekeeping, instructional, and technological. The following is a list of the ten most frequently checked items:

- 4. Distribute Supplies to Students
- 12. Clean Off Table Tops
- 32. Supervise During Recess
- 34. Help Maintain Classroom Order
- 33. Escort Student to Nurse
- 36. Monitor Class for Short Time Period
- 42. Help a Student With Assignment
- 47. Help Check Seatwork
- 41. Read Stories to Students
- 44. Listen To a Student Read

The 11 least checked items are as follows:

- 28. Teach students Use of Teaching Machines
- 23. Operate 16 MM Projector
- 21. Operate Tape Recorder
- 13. Regulate Thermostat
- 22. Make Overhead Transparencies
- 48. Prepare Test Questions
- 25. Help Students Learn Use of Equipment
- 24. Set Up AV Equipment
- 26. Arrange For Use of Equipment
- 30. Move AV Equipment to Classroom
- 43. Assist With a Science Demonstration

For tasks most frequently checked as having been performed, items 32, 36, 47, 34 and 42 are found in the lists of all three samples. Items 3, 8, 40, 44 and 41 are found on two of the lists. Only five items were

Table 13

Totals of Tasks Checked as Have Performed
By Aides: District A

Task Subdivisions									
Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed
1	7	11	9	21	7	31	11	41	9
2	13	12	13	22	7	32	22	42	18
3	21	13	6	23	5	33	14	43	5
4	15	14	14	24	8	34	19	44	18
5	3	15	8	25	4	35	5	45	7
6	12	16	6	26	4	36	21	46	5
7	13	17	14	27	9	37	7	47	20
8	20	18	7	28	2	38	17	48	5
9	12	19	11	29	6	39	5	49	5
10	15	20	8	30	9	40	21	50	3
Total	131		96		61		142		105

Table 14

Totals of Tasks Checked as Have Performed
By Aides: District B

Task Subdivisions									
Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed
1	36	11	32	21	12	31	34	41	43
2	31	12	36	22	10	32	50	42	47
3	44	13	3	23	13	33	29	43	11
4	42	14	41	24	24	34	46	44	41
5	8	15	18	25	12	35	33	45	29
6	21	16	27	26	26	36	46	46	7
7	31	17	31	27	40	37	33	47	45
8	44	18	27	28	6	38	37	48	5
9	43	19	30	29	19	39	27	49	18
10	44	20	34	30	27	40	46	50	40
Total	344		279		185		381		285

Table 15

Totals of Tasks Checked as Have Performed
By Aides: District C

Task Subdivisions									
Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed	Task Item	Have Per-formed
1	28	11	25	21	3	31	25	41	29
2	20	12	31	22	4	32	31	42	30
3	22	13	4	23	2	33	30	43	10
4	31	14	23	24	9	34	31	44	29
5	8	15	12	25	8	35	28	45	11
6	13	16	21	26	9	36	30	46	13
7	13	17	15	27	23	37	27	47	30
8	28	18	22	28	1	38	26	48	4
9	11	19	24	29	13	39	25	49	13
10	28	20	13	30	10	40	25	50	20
Total	202		190		82		278		189

included in only one sample list. Items 23, 25, 28, 43 and 48 are on all three sample lists of items least often checked. Those items found on two lists include five, 13, 21, 22, 26 and 46. Only four of the items appear on only one of the samples listed. The order of categories most often checked are almost identical for all three districts. The only exception is the reverse order of categories instructional and housekeeping for District C. The comparison of items and task categories for the three samples indicates very similar task performance for all three districts.

The frequency distribution for the three districts, of responses by aides, teachers and principals to the 50 task items, are reproduced in Tables 16, 17 and 18. In the case of District C, the principals were omitted because of an insufficient number to make an adequate sized sample. Direction and consensus are the two critical dimensions of the response patterns. The level of consensus for the purpose of this dissertation is determined by computing the standard deviation score for each task item. The lower the score, the higher the consensus. Standard deviation scores were computed on each task item for aides, teachers and principals. Very high consensus was established at the .00 to .30 range. High consensus was considered at the .31 to .50 range, and moderately high from .51 to .70. The amount of direction is based

upon the mean score for each task. From 3.00 to 5.00 is in the direction of expecting that the task should be performed and from 3.00 to 1.00 that the task should not be performed. The closer the mean score is to 5.00 or 1.00, the more mandatory the expectation. For the purpose of this dissertation, mean scores of 4.00 or greater and 2.00 or less are termed mandatory expectations. From 3.51 to 3.91 and from 2.01 to 2.49 are termed preferential expectations. Scores between 2.50 and 3.50 are not considered as defining a clear expectation in either direction. For each district, standard deviation scores are reported on which the aides, teachers and principals agree in terms of being within the same range. Next, scores are reported on which the three groups agree in terms of being in similar but not identical ranges. The same procedure is followed for mean scores. Then task items are listed on which either two or three of the groups have both similar mean and standard deviation scores; in other words, task items on which there is agreement on both direction and consensus.

Beginning with District A, similar standard deviation scores for aides, teachers and principals are first listed. Teachers and principals agree at the very high consensus level on item 9, Type Materials. The following agreements occurred at the high consensus range. The task is first listed and then followed by a letter

designating whether the agreement included aides, teachers or principals. The letters A, T and P are used as the designations.

- 14. Supervise Student Clean Up (A,P)
- 27. Operate Record Player (A,T)
- 48. Prepare Test Questions (A,T)
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trips (T,P)

Moderately high consensus was indicated on the following listed task items:

- 7. Maintain Records (A,P)
- 28. Teach Students Use of Teaching Machine (A,P)
- 10. Put Away Supplies (T,P)
- 49. Write Assignment on Board (T,P)
- 50. Conduct Small Group Drill (T,P)
- 25. Help Students Learn Use of Equipment (A,T)
- 29. Prepare Room For Special Equipment Use (A,T)

Scores which were on similar ranges but not the same range are listed by only the task numerical designation. For aides, teachers, and principals, the following items were all in one of the three possible ranges: 3, 4, 9, 25, 28 and 29. Those for aides and principals are as follows: 8, 17, 22, 37, 40 and 41. Items 25, 29, 44, 46, 49 and 50 were similar for teachers and principals. Item 21 was similar for teachers and principals.

The next group of figures is for similar mean scores recorded by District A respondents. For the 4.00 or greater mandatory range, the following items were recorded:

- 9. Type Materials (T,P)
- 32. Supervise During Recess (T,P)
- 40. Discipline Student on Playground (A,P)

The 3.51 to 3.91 preferential range included these items:

- 8. Prepare Stencils (A,T)
- 33. Escort Student to Nurse (A,T)
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip (A,T)
- 36. Monitor Class for Short Period of Time (A,T)
- 10. Put Away Supplies (A,T,P)
- 44. Listen to Student Read (A,T,P)

The 2.01 to 2.49 range included item 13 Regulate Thermostat (A,T,P). At the 00. to 2.00 range, the following items were recorded:

- 45. Substitute in Teacher's Absence (T,P)
- 46. Plan Homework Assignment (A,T,P)
- 48. Prepare Test Questions (A,T,P)

For aides, teachers and principals, task item 9 was not on the same range, but in the direction of Should Perform for all three groups. Items 8 and 41 were in the Should Perform direction for aides and principals.

Combining mean and standard deviation scores, the following items had similar responses:

- 40. Discipline Student on Playground (A,P)
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip (T,P)
- 41. Read Stories to Students (A,P)
- 44. Listen to Student Read (T,P)
- 46. Plan Homework Assignments (T,P)
- 8. Prepare Stencils (A,P)
- 9. Type Materials (A,T,P)
- 10. Put Away Supplies (A,T,P)

For District B, there were no items at the very high consensus range on which two or more of the groups agreed. The following agreements occurred at the high consensus range:

- 1. Take Roll
- 4. Distribute Supplies to Students (T,P)
- 22. Make Overhead Transparencies (T,P)
- 23. Operate 16 MM Projector (T,P)
- 32. Supervise During Recess (T,P)
- 43. Assist With a Science Demonstration (T,P)

Table 16.

Distribution, Mean, and Standard Deviation Scores
For Task Items: District A

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
1	A	1	3	22			3.19	.25
	T	1	11	34	9	5	2.90	.72
	P		2	3	1		3.17	.46
2	A	1	2	19	3		3.04	.36
	T	5	19	23	3	4	3.33	.99
	P		1	4	1		3.00	.33
3	A	2	11	12	1		3.54	.47
	T	5	19	26	4	1	3.42	.66
	P		3	3			3.50	.25
4	A	1	9	14	2		3.35	.43
	T	2	22	28	3	1	3.37	.55
	P		4	2			3.67	.20
5	A	1	4	17	3	1	3.04	.57
	T	4	14	17	17	7	2.85	1.23
	P		1		4	1	2.17	.80
6	A		5	12	6	1	2.87	.63
	T	5	14	23	9	8	2.98	1.29
	P	1	1	3	1		3.33	.92
7	A		7	12	5	2	3.00	.64
	T	3	11	17	15	12	2.62	1.32
	P		1		5		2.33	.58
8	A	5	13	8			3.88	.52
	T	14	29	14		2	3.90	.76
	P	2	3	1			4.17	.45
9	A	7	12	8			3.96	.58
	T	19	25	15		1	4.07	.29
	P	2	4				4.33	.26
10	A	3	14	7	2		3.69	.62
	T	7	22	28	2		3.58	.53
	P	1	2	3			3.66	.61
11	A	1	9	14	2		3.35	.43
	T	6	10	32	10	1	3.17	.79
	P	1	2	3			3.66	.61

Table 16 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
12	A	3	9	8	3	3	3.23	1.34
	T	13	9	30	6	3	3.38	1.14
	P	1	4		1		3.83	.84
13	A	1	3	8	8	7	2.37	.91
	T	1	2	17	18	19	2.09	.91
	P		1	1	3	1	2.33	.90
14	A	1	7	17	1		3.31	.36
	T	7	11	33	5	3	3.29	.75
	P		2	3	1		3.17	.46
15	A	2	6	13	4	1	3.15	.85
	T	3	5	33	8	8	2.77	.96
	P	1	2	2	1		3.50	.92
16	A	1	7	13	2	3	3.04	.95
	T	3	8	35	4	6	2.95	.85
	P		3	2	1		3.33	.59
17	A	2	5	18	1		3.31	.45
	T	2	2	31	18	6	2.59	.74
	P			4	1	1	2.50	.58
18	A	1	3	10	7	4	2.60	1.04
	T	3	6	32	9	7	2.81	.91
	P	1	1	3		1	3.17	1.40
19	A	1	7	11	6	1	3.03	.80
	T	5	10	27	10	8	2.90	1.19
	P		2	4			3.33	.25
20	A	2	10	11	2	1	3.38	.81
	T	6	19	24	7	1	3.38	.84
	P		2	3	1		3.17	.13
21	A		7	16	2		3.20	.96
	T	2	9	43	5	1	3.10	.56
	P		1	5			3.17	.13
22	A	4	2	17	1		3.37	.69
	T	9	15	27	6	2	3.39	.95
	P			5	1		2.83	.16

Table 16 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
23	A	2	3	18	1		3.25	.46
	T	7	17	24	5	2	3.40	.89
	P	1	1	2	2		3.17	1.13
24	A	1	4	17	1		3.28	.94
	T	7	20	29	2	2	3.47	.73
	P	1	1	3	1		3.33	.92
25	A		7	11	4	1	3.04	.67
	T	3	23	22	11	2	3.28	.69
	P			4	2		2.66	.26
26	A	1	5	14	4		3.26	.11
	T	6	19	29	4	1	3.42	.72
	P	2	1	2	1		3.67	1.20
27	A	3	6	15			3.50	.50
	T	4	9	39	6		3.19	.49
	P	2	4				4.33	.26
28	A		2	10	8	2	2.54	.64
	T	2	5	27	16	4	2.77	.20
	P		1	2	1	1	2.60	.64
29	A	1	8	12	1	1	3.30	.67
	T	3	11	39	6	1	3.15	.53
	P		2	4			3.33	.25
30	A	2	6	13	2		3.35	.56
	T	4	21	33	1		3.47	.45
	P	1	3	1	1		3.67	.87
31	A	5	13	7			3.92	.48
	T	2	18	28	7	1	3.23	.62
	P	1	3		1		3.80	.96
32	A	6	12	6	2		3.84	.70
	T	25	24	9	1	1	4.18	.78
	P	2	3		1		4.00	1.00
33	A	7	9	11			3.85	.63
	T	12	18	26		1	3.70	.78
	P	1	3		1	1	3.33	1.92

Table 16 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
34	A	6	9	8	3		3.69	.93
	T	5	4	16	18	16	2.39	1.42
	P		1	3	2		2.83	.49
35	A	4	9	11	2		3.57	.76
	T	13	20	23	4		3.70	.44
	P		1	4	1		3.00	.33
36	A	6	7	13			3.73	.66
	T	10	18	28	4	1	3.52	.84
	P	1	2	2		1	3.33	1.59
37	A	2	12	9	2		3.56	.68
	T	5	11	34	9	2	3.13	.78
	P			6			3.00	.00
38	A	6	7	8	4		3.60	1.04
	T	2	7	29	14	9	2.65	.98
	P			2	4		2.33	.24
39	A	1	10	10	3	1	3.28	.76
	T	5	14	33	5	2	3.25	.76
	P		1	5			3.17	.13
40	A	13	8	5			4.31	.58
	T	15	21	19	1	3	3.74	1.08
	P	2	4				4.33	.26
41	A	7	9	9		1	3.92	.64
	T	4	16	37	2	2	3.29	.64
	P	1	4	1			4.00	.33
42	A	1	8	14	3		3.27	.50
	T	6	13	35	4	2	3.28	.77
	P		3	3			3.50	.25
43	A	1	4	16	3	2	2.96	.74
	T	2	13	34	6	4	3.05	.73
	P		2	4			3.33	.25
44	A	5	14	6		1	3.85	.72
	T	12	20	26			3.75	.66
	P		4	2			3.66	.28

Table 16 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
45	A	1	4	9	5	7	2.50	1.32
	T	2	2	7	11	38	1.65	1.06
	P				3	3	1.50	.25
46	A		2	6	6	12	1.92	1.00
	T	1		1	12	45	1.25	.59
	P					6	1.00	.00
47	A	7	10	7	2		3.85	.79
	T	11	15	28	3	3	3.47	.99
	P	1	1	3	1		3.33	.92
48	A		2	4	7	13	1.81	.91
	T	1			11	47	1.25	.40
	P					6	1.00	.00
49	A		2	13	7	4	2.50	.71
	T	3	3	28	13		2.91	.62
	P			3	2	1	2.33	.58
50	A		10	15		1	3.31	.43
	T	8	19	31	2		3.55	.58
	P	2	2	2			4.00	.67

*Responses designated as:

AM = Absolutely Must

PS = Preferably Should

MMN = May or May Not

PSN = Preferably Should Not

AMN = Absolutely Must Not

Moderately high consensus was indicated on the following listed items:

35. Help Monitor During Field Trip	(A,P)
49. Write Assignment on Board	(A,P)
3. Correct Workbooks	(A,T)
8. Prepare Stencils	(A,T)
24. Set Up AV Equipment	(A,T)
27. Operate Record Player	(A,T)
41. Read Stories to Students	(A,T)
42. Help a Student With Assignment	(A,T)
44. Listen To a Student Read	(A,T)
50. Conduct Small Group Drill	(A,T)
2. Collect Money	(T,P)
36. Monitor Class for Short Period of Time	(T,P)
48. Prepare Test Questions	(T,P)
33. Escort Student to Nurse	(A,T,P)

For the three groups, the following items were all in one of the three possible consensus ranges: 1, 3, 4, 8, 24, 27, 35, 41, 44 and 50. Those for aides and principals were items 2 and 43. Item 7 had a similar response from teachers and principals.

The next group of figures are for similar mean scores recorded by District B respondents. For the 4.00 or greater mandatory range, the following items were recorded:

40. Discipline Student on Playground	(A,T)
8. Prepare Stencils	(A,T,P)
9. Type Materials	(A,T,P)
10. Put Away Supplies	(A,T,P)
32. Supervise During Recess	(A,T,P)

The 3.51 to 3.91 preferential range included these items:

2. Collect Money	(A,P)
16. Clean Paint Brushes	(A,P)
21. Operate Tape Recorder	(A,P)
29. Prepare Room For Special Equipment Use	(A,P)
31. Help Students With Wraps	(A,P)
11. Arrange Room For Activities	(A,T)
33. Escort Student to Nurse	(A,T)

4. Distribute Supplies to Students	(T,P)
35. Help Monitor During Field Trip	(T,P)
36. Monitor Class for Short Time Period	(T,P)
42. Help a Student With Assignment	(T,P)
12. Clean Off Table Tops	(A,T,P)
14. Supervise Student Clean Up	(A,T,P)
24. Set Up AV Equipment	(A,T,P)
26. Arrange For Use of Equipment	(A,T,P)
27. Operate Record Player	(A,T,P)
30. Move AV Equipment to Classroom	(A,T,P)
37. Escort Class to Next Activity	(A,T,P)
41. Read Stories to Students	(A,T,P)
47. Help Check Seatwork	(A,T,P)
50. Conduct Small Group Drill	(A,T,P)

There were no items of agreement in the 2.01 to 2.49 range. Item 46 Plan Homework Assignments (A,T,P) and item 48 Prepare Test Questions (A,T,P) were in the .00 to 2.00 mandatory range. The following items were not on the same but similar ranges in the direction of Should Perform: 4, 11, 35, 36, 40, 42 and 44. All three groups were agreed upon these items.

Combining mean and standard deviation scores, the following items had similar responses:

2. Collect Money	(A,P)
21. Operate Tape Recorder	(A,P)
29. Prepare Room for Special Equipment Use	(A,P)
4. Distribute Supplies to Students	(A,T,P)
8. Prepare Stencils	(A,T,P)
24. Set Up AV Equipment	(A,T,P)
27. Operate Record Player	(A,T,P)
33. Escort Student to Nurse	(A,T,P)
35. Help Monitor During Field Trip	(A,T,P)
37. Escort Class to Next Activity	(A,T,P)
41. Read Stories to Students	(A,T,P)
42. Help A Student With Assignments	(A,T,P)
44. Listen To a Student Read	(A,T,P)
50. Conduct Small Group Drill	(A,T,P)

For District C, there were no items at the very high consensus range on which the two groups agreed. The

Table 17

Distribution, Mean, and Standard Deviation Scores
For Task Items: District B

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
1	A	7	17	27			3.65	.21
	T	7	23	66	1		3.37	.40
	P	1	2	10			3.31	.36
2	A	6	21	21	2		3.58	.84
	T	8	34	52	5	12	3.40	.66
	P	2	5	6			3.69	.53
3	A	10	17	23	1		3.70	.62
	T	8	31	54	3	2	3.41	.58
	P		2	10			3.17	.13
4	A	15	24	12		1	4.00	.69
	T	5	52	36	3		3.61	.44
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.39
5	A	3	7	25	9	6	2.84	1.02
	T	4	21	36	27	12	2.78	1.08
	P		2	6	3	2	2.61	.88
6	A	5	13	28	5	1	3.31	.69
	T	8	28	45	13	7	3.16	1.02
	P	1	5	4	2	1	3.23	1.11
7	A	7	10	29	4	2	3.31	.85
	T	4	28	36	21	9	3.13	.15
	P	1	3	8	1		3.31	.50
8	A	19	22	13			4.11	.59
	T	32	49	19	1		4.11	.52
	P	4	7	2			4.15	.47
9	A	18	22	10	1	1	4.04	.89
	T	28	56	16	2	1	4.05	.58
	P	4	8	1			4.23	.34
10	A	18	19	14		1	4.02	.78
	T	33	47	22	1		4.09	.55
	P	5	5	3			4.15	.63
11	A	12	18	22			3.80	.73
	T	18	34	45	5		3.64	.67
	P	5	3	5			4.00	.77

Table 17 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
12	A	9	14	23	2	2	3.52	.93
	T	21	32	33	13	2	3.56	1.05
	P	3	4	5	1		3.69	.54
13	A	4	5	16	12	13	2.50	1.45
	T		7	47	21	20	2.43	.82
	P		2	6	2	3	2.54	1.01
14	A	10	22	18	2		3.77	.64
	T	15	35	47	3	2	3.57	.71
	P	3	4	6			3.76	.72
15	A	7	13	28	2	3	3.24	1.30
	T	13	19	49	12	5	3.23	1.02
	P	2	3	6	1		3.23	1.57
16	A	11	16	22	2	1	3.65	.87
	T	15	29	42	12	4	3.38	1.02
	P	3	5	5			3.84	.64
17	A	7	10	32	2	1	3.38	.83
	T	8	14	67	10	3	3.14	.63
	P	1	2	10			3.31	.36
18	A	10	11	19	9	2	3.35	1.23
	T	9	21	46	16	9	3.05	1.08
	P	2	3	7	1		3.46	.72
19	A	7	18	20	5	3	3.40	1.01
	T	13	24	51	11	4	3.30	.91
	P	2	5	5	1		3.61	.74
20	A	8	26	14	2	1	3.74	.74
	T	14	38	41	8	1	3.55	.73
	P	2	5	6			3.69	.54
21	A	4	21	25		1	3.53	.48
	T	3	30	64	4	1	3.29	.43
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.38
22	A	6	13	28	3	2	3.35	.78
	T	8	36	54	2	1	3.45	.44
	P	1	6	6			3.61	.43

Table 17 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
23	A	5	16	27	1	2	3.41	.73
	T	8	39	48	7	1	3.47	.43
	P	1	5	7			3.54	.39
24	A	9	19	19	4	1	3.60	.67
	T	9	47	44	3		3.57	.67
	P	1	8	4			3.76	.41
25	A	7	9	26	6	3	3.21	.48
	T	6	24	49	19	5	3.07	.83
	P		3	10			3.23	.18
26	A	12	15	19	5	1	3.61	1.05
	T	14	32	51	4	1	3.53	.62
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.38
27	A	13	21	18			3.90	.62
	T	13	31	55	2	1	3.52	.60
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.38
28	A	5	6	27	9	4	2.98	1.00
	T	6	25	41	19	7	2.97	1.40
	P		3	9	1		3.15	.31
29	A	11	16	21	4		3.65	.83
	T	11	34	49	4	2	3.48	.67
	P	2	6	5			3.76	.56
30	A	12	15	19	3	3	3.58	1.15
	T	16	44	34	2	1	3.74	.65
	P	2	7	4			3.84	.49
31	A	16	21	12	3	1	3.90	.96
	T	19	34	31	6	9	3.48	1.33
	P	2	8	2	1		3.84	.64
32	A	29	12	8	3		4.29	.85
	T	53	41	9			4.43	.40
	P	8	4	1			4.54	.39
33	A	11	22	17	2		3.81	.63
	T	15	39	43	2	1	3.65	.63
	P	2	2	9			3.46	.57

Table 17 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
34	A	15	15	19	2	1	3.79	.93
	T	16	16	44	18	9	3.17	.96
	P	1	3	8	1		3.31	.51
35	A	20	23	8	1		4.19	.60
	T	27	41	35			3.92	.18
	P	3	5	5			3.84	.64
36	A	20	16	15	1		4.06	.73
	T	19	46	33	5		3.77	.62
	P	4	3	6			3.84	.70
37	A	9	19	22	1		3.70	.64
	T	10	40	45	5		3.55	.55
	P	2	5	6			3.69	.54
38	A	12	9	25	4	1	3.53	1.04
	T	7	26	52	17	1	3.20	.71
	P	1	3	9			3.38	.41
39	A	8	11	28	3		3.48	.69
	T	12	20	54	15	2	3.24	.84
	P	2	2	8	1		3.38	.73
40	A	23	17	5	3		4.25	.77
	T	37	35	28	3		4.03	.74
	P	3	4	4	2		3.61	1.05
41	A	10	21	19	1		3.78	.64
	T	14	36	51	2		3.60	.56
	P	1	8	4			3.67	.41
42	A	16	20	15			4.02	.60
	T	16	46	37	2	1	3.72	.66
	P	1	9	2			3.61	1.35
43	A	2	17	28	3	2	3.27	.62
	T	6	40	53	4		3.46	.49
	P	1	8	4			3.76	.40
44	A	23	19	9			4.27	.59
	T	22	51	23	4	1	3.88	.61
	P	1	8	3			3.83	.34

Table 17 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers Principals	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
45	A	3	9	12	10	14	2.52	1.59
	T	2	7	14	29	51	1.83	1.08
	P	1		4	6	2	2.38	1.03
46	A		1	13	13	23	1.79	.72
	T		3	14	33	52	1.69	.64
	P		1	3	3	6	1.92	1.01
47	A	16	18	15	1	1	3.92	.87
	T	17	44	40			3.77	.53
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.38
48	A		4	5	16	28	1.72	.83
	T			12	32	55	1.56	.51
	P			3	3	7	1.69	.68
49	A	2	9	32	6	2	3.06	.60
	T	3	14	62	15	8	2.89	.78
	P	1	4	7	1		3.38	.58
50	A	14	22	14	1		3.96	.63
	T	20	47	30	1		3.87	.56
	P	1	7	5			3.69	.38

*Responses designated as:

AM = Absolutely Must

PS = Preferably Should

MMN = May or May Not

PSN = Preferably Should Not

AMN = Absolutely Must Not

following agreements occurred at the high consensus range:

- 14. Supervise Student Cleanup
- 17. Open Windows for Ventilation
- 20. Maintain Supply Closet
- 21. Operate Tape Recorder
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip

Moderately high consensus was indicated on the following listed items:

- 11. Arrange Room for Activities
- 31. Help Students With Wraps
- 33. Escort Student to Nurse
- 36. Monitor Class For Short Time Period
- 42. Help A Student With Assignment
- 49. Write Assignment on Board
- 50. Conduct Small Group Drill

The following items were all in one of the three possible consensus ranges: 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 19, 21, 27, 32 and 34.

The next group of figures is for similar mean scores recorded by District C respondents. For the 4.00 or greater mandatory range, the following items were recorded:

- 32. Supervise During Recess
- 33. Escort Student to Nurse
- 34. Help Maintain Classroom Order
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip
- 36. Monitor Class for Short Time Period
- 42. Help a Student With Assignment
- 44. Listen to a Student Read

The 3.51 to 3.91 preferential range included these items:

- 4. Distribute Supplies to Students
- 10. Put Away Supplies
- 11. Arrange Room for Activities
- 14. Supervise Student Clean Up
- 19. Straighten Room After Dismissal
- 27. Operate Record Player
- 37. Escort Class to Next Activity
- 40. Discipline Student on Playground
- 41. Read Stories to Students
- 43. Assist With a Science Demonstration
- 47. Help Check Seat Work

Items 45 Substitute in Teacher's Absence, 46 Plan Homework Assignments, and 48 Prepare Test Questions were in the 2.01 to 2.49 preferential level. No items fell into the 00. to 2.00 range. Items 31 and 39 were not on the same but similar ranges in the direction of Should Perform.

Combining mean and standard deviation scores, the following items had similar responses:

- 10. Put Away Supplies
- 11. Arrange Room for Activities
- 14. Supervise Student Clean Up
- 19. Straighten Room After Dismissal
- 27. Operate Record Player
- 32. Supervise During Recess
- 33. Escort Student to Nurse
- 34. Help Maintain Classroom Order
- 35. Help Monitor During Field Trip
- 36. Monitor Class for Short Time Period
- 42. Help a Student With Assignment

Comparing all three districts, there was no or almost no agreement among the groups on consensus at the very high level. On the high consensus range, District A had four common agreements, seven for District B and five for District C. At the moderately high range, Districts A and C had seven common agreements and District B had 18. On similar but not the same consensus category, District A had 19 agreements followed by District B with 13 and District C with ten. In terms of total item agreements, District B had 25 agreements, District A, 24 and District C, 22.

Table 18

Distribution, Mean, and Standard Deviation Scores
For Task Items: District C

Task Item	Aides Teachers	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
1	A	4	6	19		1	3.48	.54
	T	1	12	11			3.85	.36
2	A	1	4	20	4	1	3.00	.53
	T	1	10	11	1		3.48	.41
3	A	2	8	19	1		3.26	.76
	T		10	13	1		3.37	.35
4	A	4	15	9			3.82	.44
	T	4	15	5			3.96	.36
5	A	3	4	11	7	5	2.77	1.36
	T	2	3	7	10	1	2.78	1.06
6	A	4	10	12	2	1	3.48	.89
	T	3	8	6	3	4	3.12	1.64
7	A	1	5	14	3	6	2.72	1.19
	T	1	5	9	6	3	2.79	1.09
8	A	2	12	13	1	1	3.45	.65
	T	2	11	11			3.62	.44
9	A		8	15	2	3	3.00	.78
	T	3	7	14			3.54	.51
10	A	5	14	10	1		3.77	.56
	T	3	15	6			3.87	.40
11	A	4	10	16			3.60	.51
	T	3	10	10	1		3.62	.61
12	A	5	13	11			3.79	.54
	T	2	9	12	1		3.50	.50
13	A	1	4	8	7	9	2.34	1.36
	T	1	2	13	3	2	2.86	.78
14	A	2	16	10			3.71	.38
	T	2	11	10			3.65	.42

Table 18 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
15	A	12	16	2			3.33	.38
	T	1 7	14	1	1		3.25	.16
16	A	2 12	16				3.53	.41
	T	1 10	11	1	1		3.37	.67
17	A	2 11	14	1			3.50	.45
	T	2 8	14				3.50	.42
18	A	3 11	16				3.57	.43
	T	1 9	11	1	2		3.25	.86
19	A	4 12	14				3.67	.46
	T	2 13	8		1		3.62	.69
20	A	12	15	1			3.39	.33
	T	1 9	13	1			3.42	.39
21	A	1 9	17	3			3.27	.44
	T	1 6	16				3.35	.30
22	A	1 9	14	4	1		3.17	.99
	T	1 8	14				3.43	.37
23	A	1 8	14	6	1		3.07	.71
	T	10	14				3.42	1.23
24	A	1 9	10	5	1		3.15	.85
	T	12	12	1			3.44	.21
25	A	2 11	9	6	1		3.24	.95
	T	2 11	5	4			3.50	.79
26	A	2 11	10	3	1		3.25	1.19
	T	2 9	11	2			3.46	.57
27	A	2 17	10	1			3.67	.40
	T	4 10	9				3.78	.55
28	A	1 7	13	5	2		3.00	.86
	T	1 8	10	2			3.38	.53
29	A	3 12	10	3			3.53	.72
	T	1 7	15	1			3.33	.42

Table 18 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
30	A	3	8	8	6	2	3.15	1.23
	T	2	9	10	1		3.54	.56
31	A	10	13	6			4.14	.52
	T	6	10	9			3.88	.59
32	A	12	10	8			4.13	.68
	T	11	10	3			4.33	.50
33	A	10	10	9			4.03	.69
	T	8	10	6			4.08	.61
34	A	18	8	4			4.47	.49
	T	8	9	6			4.09	.58
35	A	19	8	3			4.53	.48
	T	14	9	1			4.54	.35
36	A	14	12	4			4.33	.51
	T	11	8	5			4.25	.61
37	A	7	8	14	1		3.70	.74
	T	7	7	9	1		3.83	.84
38	A	6	8	11	2	3	3.40	1.37
	T	6	7	8	3		3.67	.96
39	A	10	9	10	1		3.93	.83
	T	8	9	7			4.04	.64
40	A	11	8	8	1		3.96	1.43
	T	8	8	5		3	3.75	1.61
41	A	6	14	9	1		3.83	.64
	T	7	7	9			3.91	.72
42	A	12	10	7			4.17	.64
	T	11	8	5			4.25	.61
43	A	7	9	13	1		3.73	.76
	T	4	10	10			3.75	.52
44	A	10	12	7	1		4.03	.73
	T	10	8	6			4.17	.62

Table 18 (continued)

Task Item	Aides Teachers	Responses*					Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
		AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN		
45	A	1	4	6	4	10	2.28	1.57
	T	2	1	6	4	11	2.12	1.63
46	A	1	3	9	8	6	2.44	1.16
	T		1	7	11	5	2.17	.63
47	A	7	12	10	1		3.83	.71
	T	7	7	9			3.91	.72
48	A		1	11	9	8	2.17	.78
	T	2	1	4	7	10	2.08	1.50
49	A	2	8	15	4		3.27	.65
	T	1	7	12	4		3.21	.57
50	A	2	12	13	2		3.48	.54
	T	9	9	6			4.12	.65

*Responses designated as:

AM = Absolutely Must

PS = Preferably Should

MMN = May or May Not

PSN = Preferably Should Not

AMN = Absolutely Must Not

A comparison of mean or directional agreement scores shows District A with six items in the mandatory range and nine in the preferential range. In addition, three agreements are in similar ranges, for a total of 16 agreements of direction which are similar or the same. District B has seven mandatory agreements, 23 preferential and ten which are in similar ranges for a total of 32 items of agreement. District C has seven mandatory, 14 preferential and two similar agreements for a total of 23. The clear trend in all three districts is for directional agreements to be toward the Should Perform expectation.

Items 8, 10, 27, 32, 33, 41, 42 and 44 had common mean and standard deviation scores in at least two of the districts, and item 35 was similar in all three districts.

Comments By Aides

The questionnaire given aides concluded with an open-ended question which asked them to list any task(s) they had frequently performed which was not included in the 50 task item checklist. The question also included a statement to the effect that they could also use the space for any comment which they wished to make about the teacher aide program in their district. The following information is a paraphrasing of the tasks and comments made by aides in the three districts sampled.

Approximately 40 per cent of the aides gave some kind of response.

District A

<u>Tasks and Comments</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>
Playground supervision	3
Supervise room	1
Noon and recess duty	5
Supervise cafeteria	1
Office duty	1
Answer phone	2
Apply first aid	6
Weigh and measure children	3
Run office machine	3
Maintenance repairs	1
Filing	1
Prepare bulletin boards	3
Check achievement tests	1
Help with Frostig program	1
Help with art lesson	1
Prepare make-up work	1
Prepare for parent conferences	1
Help slower students with work	2
Assist in library	1
A statement of general satisfaction with program	3
Difficulty in working with more than two teachers	3
If aides did not have recess duty, they would better perform their other tasks	1
Performs only clerical duties	1
Teacher aides should assist with academic subjects	1
Better use could be made of aide: explain work with slow learners	2
Teacher should be primary determiner of aide's job	1
Seniority in the job should be rewarded	1
Should be job differentiation and commensurate pay	1
Pleased with the work hours	1
Should be benefits other than just salary	1

There was no predominant pattern or theme in the responses. Additional tasks listed were generally commensurate with those in the checklist. The larger number

of additional tasks listed indicates a wide range of duties performed by the aides. The comments considered collectively did reveal an awareness of the need for consideration of job descriptions and commensurate rewards and benefits.

District B

<u>Tasks and Comments</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>
Help with indoor recess	1
Maintain supply room	1
Maintain AV equipment	1
Assist during library time	1
Pin notes on children	1
Filing	2
Correct tests	1
Prepare bulletin boards	12
Maintain room calendar	1
Answer phone and make calls	3
Prepare instructional material	8
Score IQ tests	1
Correct spelling papers	3
Listen to children read	3
Help with arithmetic	4
Assist with art lessons	7
Assist with physical education	3
Develop listening skills	1
Help with penmanship	2
Aides should have the opportunity to evaluate teachers	1
Effort should be made to give aide the feeling of being appreciated	1
The aide's job should be determined primarily by what help the individual teacher needs	6
A statement of general enjoyment of job	8
Aides should work with no more than two teachers	2
Aides should act as substitute to provide continuity	1
A certificated person should be with aides on playground duty	1
There is a need for a more scheduled work plan	1
Teachers should learn how to better use aides	2
The line of authority is not clear	1
The factor of time most determines what tasks are performed	1

There should be a contract between the aide and teacher	1
Some questions did not fit the special education situation	2

The additional tasks listed were marked by the presence of many items which fell into the category of instructional support. Also, preparing bulletin boards seems to be a frequently performed item. Many aides were satisfied with their job. Several felt the teacher should determine the aide's job assignment.

District C

<u>Tasks and Comments</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>
Prepare bulletin boards	6
Make coffee	4
Assist with safety patrol	1
Apply first aid	2
Run dittoes	1
Teach physical education	1
Assist with language development	3
Assist with reading	1
Aides should be given more pay	5
Teachers should treat aide as co-worker	1
The number of aides should be increased	1
Aides should be used in areas where they are most qualified	1
Would like to spend more time directly involved in teaching activities	1
The aide experience has been a motivation to return for more schooling and certification	1
Aide should be able to discipline and reward children	

Preparing bulletin boards is a frequently listed item. The felt need for more pay is the most often mentioned comment. Other than these two observations, there was no dominant theme or pattern to the responses.

For all three districts, the responses indicate the wide diversity of tasks performed by aides. When considered in total, there are few items which are performed exclusively by the certificated teacher. Aides frequently express the feeling that the teacher should be the primary determiner of what tasks the aide performs. Aides as a group demonstrate a concern for task designations, their personal status, adequate compensation, and a feeling of enjoyment with their job.

Means Used For Achieving Compliance

This section of the chapter is devoted to three descriptive statements of the means used by the administration of the three districts to achieve a measure of job definition and compliance with that definition by the classroom aides. The material was secured by completing an interview schedule with the central office administrator most directly responsible for the aide program in each district. Questions related to the areas of job description and supervision, recruitment and selection, training, rewards and incentives, and evaluation. An example of the interview schedule can be found in the appendix. The descriptive material might provide some clues for similarities and differences detected in the response patterns from the districts surveyed.

District A

At the time of the survey, the administration of school district A had developed only to a minimum the various available means for achieving role compliance in the teacher aide program. The amount of available descriptive data about the aides is limited to names, sex, marital status, whether or not the aide previously worked for the district, and school work preference.

The job description and related information about the aide program is contained on a single dittoed page found in the principal's handbook. Three to five task items are listed under the major headings of Working With Children, Working With Teachers, and General. The tasks range from clerical to instructional. The list is presented as several possible items which might be performed. The majority of aides work a four hour day. The principals are the most directly responsible, in a supervisory sense, for the aides in their buildings. Each principal is given considerable latitude in how the aides are used in his building. An administrative assistant at the central office devotes a very minor portion of his time to the program on a district-wide basis. There is no list of qualifications for hiring aides. The individual job to be performed is the primary determinate of whatever criteria are established. Potential employees are often asked if they can type and if they have had experience

with children, The available positions are advertised by word of mouth. The selection procedure is by application, after which an administrative assistant in the central office screens the candidates. The final selection is made by the building principal. Some principals involve the teacher in the selection process.

The formal training provided to date has been through the intermediate district. This included the areas of health care and reading instruction. All aides were not included in the reading instruction. There is a two to three hour teacher aide orientation program at the beginning of the year. The rest of the training is provided at the building level and primarily on an informal basis by the teacher to whom the aide is assigned. Classroom aides are encouraged to attend Junior College classes.

There is no contractual agreement. A letter of intent to employ is sent to newly hired aides. The hourly rate is \$2.00 with a range of \$2.05 to \$3.00 for aides who work more than six hours per day. There is no salary schedule or career ladder. The over six hour employees receive some sick leave and show up pay.

There is no formal evaluation form or procedure. The arrangement is on an informal basis. The principal is directly involved when the performance of the aide is considered unsatisfactory.

There is a growing awareness among administrators, teachers, and aides that the aide program needs to be given more explicit management consideration. A representative committee of aides and administrators is currently meeting in order to discuss job descriptions, wage schedules, and training programs.

District B

The administration of District B has taken all of the various means for achieving compliance into consideration and has made management provisions in each case. The coordinator of the program has done several district-wide evaluations to secure information in an attempt to provide more effective program administration. A comprehensive handbook has been prepared which gives a background about the use of aides as well as a complete description of the local district effort. Rather detailed descriptive information about the aides has been gathered. Much of this data can be found under Sample Description in Chapter III of this dissertation.

A general descriptive job statement as well as a comprehensive task list exists for the aides. There are some 49 tasks grouped into eight major categories such as clerical, instructional assistance, and audio-visual. The specific selection of tasks to be performed is left to the classroom teacher. The half-time aides work for three hours per day and full-time aides work for six hours per

day. There is a direct line authority relationship from the teacher to the principal and from the principal to the coordinator of the aide program.

Criteria have been established for initial employment screening of aides by the central personnel office. The criteria include concern for children, education level, basic skills, and experience in working with children. Aides were recruited by word of mouth and advertising. The selection process includes an initial interview and screening by the personnel office, further screening by the program coordinator, and referral to buildings for final selection. The teacher is encouraged to participate in the final interview and decision to employ. The potential employee is asked for a building preference, which is honored if possible.

The training program includes a one day orientation program and 27 hours of inservice training meetings. The training consists of eight subject areas such as clerical functions, first aid and art projects. The orientation has an explicit agenda. Some aides enroll in the district's continuing education school. Individual teachers also provide informal training. In addition to district training, the local Junior College offers a 21 semester hour teacher aide course of study.

Aides are not contracted, but are given a letter of appointment which includes pay rate, school assignment,

and year of appointment. A salary schedule has been developed which is based on level of education and years of employment. The rate varies from a minimum of \$1.82 per hour to \$2.88 per hour. In addition to the salary, aides receive life and health insurance, sick leave, and vacation pay. A career ladder exists in the sense that three levels of teacher aide are provided, plus the fact that aides are encouraged to complete a college degree program.

Evaluations for new aides are done after three months and six months of the first year and once a year thereafter. A formal instrument is used which is placed in the aide's personnel folder. The aide is informed of her evaluation by the teacher and/or the principal in a personal conference.

The district has begun a three part study of the aide program. The initial part was a survey of principals, teachers, and aides relative to the effectiveness and value of the program. The second aspect concerns an attempt to measure possible achievement improvement in students. The final phase is related to effectiveness and teacher aide educational improvement.

District C

District C has undertaken one of the largest aide programs in the state of Michigan. The district's administration of the program is partially handicapped by the

fact that the coordinator also has responsibility for the pre-school and Head Start programs. Despite this limitation, attention has been given a majority of the administrative considerations and those currently without provision are now being studied.

At the time of the survey, explicit job descriptions did not exist. Aides are used in a wide variety of jobs ranging from playground supervision to assisting in the teaching situation. Some schools have delineated the tasks to be performed. A district committee is now drawing up job descriptions for the various categories of aides. There is a direct line of authority from teacher to principal and then to the coordinator.

Recruitment and selection is done through the office of the assistant director of personnel for non-teaching employees. There is no formal publicity, but rather recruitment is done by word of mouth. Principals were asked for recommendations the first year of the program. Applicants are asked to fill out a three page application form. Also, confidential letters of inquiry are sent previous employers for the purpose of rating the applicant. The applicants are interviewed by the assistant personnel director or his designee and recommended for placement. The applicant is asked for a school preference which is honored if possible. In some instances, building principals have submitted lists of persons they would like considered for hiring.

A one week preservice training program is provided at the beginning of the school year. Aides hired during the year miss the preservice program. Some special in-service programs have been conducted on special subjects, particularly in language arts instruction. The rest of the training is left to the individual building staff. Special training is provided in schools funded by Middle Cities monies.

There is no formal contract. The applicant is sent a notice of intent to employ. The terms of employment are now being studied by a district committee. A five step salary schedule is used for determination of pay rates. The range is from \$12.88 per day to \$15.59 per day. In addition to the regular salary, the aides have a life insurance policy, sick and bereavement leave, and hospitalization coverage.

There is a provision for a formal evaluation. A district evaluation form is used. The principal or his designee does the rating. The aides are apprised of the evaluation in a conference and asked to sign the evaluation form which is placed in their personnel file.

The district did an evaluation of the aide program during the 1967-1968 school year. The findings generally revealed more time spent by teachers in some professional tasks and less in some nonprofessional tasks; the feeling that the program should be expanded; the need for improved

Job description; training programs and selection-placement policies; and generally high career satisfaction and morale for teachers with aides. The district administration is currently attempting to improve those areas indicated as needing improvement by the survey.

In summary, the general history of the programs in the three districts was to hire aides and then provide administrative considerations. The administration of District A implemented considerations in all areas much sooner than did the other two districts. The amount and rate of administrative consideration seems to be related to the assignment of a coordinator who is made directly responsible for the aide program. In turn, the provision for a coordinator is related to whether the aide program is viewed as simply a minor adjunct to the district or a significant and integral part of the system. All three district staffs are now aware or are becoming aware that the program must be given serious consideration. All three districts leave a great many of the decisions about the training provided for aides up to the individual building staff. There is also considerable variation in the use of aides within buildings.

Districts B and C have specific criteria for hiring. District A does not. Recruitment and selection is mainly by word of mouth in all three districts. In each case, there are more applicants than vacancies. Training is

mainly provided by the teacher to whom the aide is assigned. District C does make considerable training available in several heavily funded Middle Cities schools. District B has the most comprehensive and well worked out district-wide training program. Districts B and C have salary schedules with different levels of compensation, plus fringe benefits. District A has essentially a flat rate of pay with no extra benefits. Districts B and C have formal evaluation procedures and instruments. District A has only an informal evaluation procedure. All three district staffs are now evaluating the aide programs by either a committee study or research studies.

Generally speaking, Districts B and C have much more sophisticated provisions for their aide programs than does District A. District B has the most explicitly defined program and the only full-time coordinator.

Summary

Three basic hypotheses were proposed and studied for this dissertation. Data were collected from three separate school districts. The hypotheses related to agreement between teachers and aides on the task expectations for aides and the relationship between the level of agreement and job satisfaction, job effectiveness and actual tasks performed. The first hypothesis which posited a relationship between task agreement and satisfaction for the aide was not supported. The second hypothesis

positive a relationship between agreement and effectiveness for the aide and was also not supported. The third hypothesis stated that there was a relationship between the direction of task agreement and whether the task was actually performed. The third hypothesis was supported.

The various patterns of response were analyzed. The average effectiveness ratings varied from just above a rating of Good to just below Excellent. The total range of responses was from Unacceptable to Superior. Satisfaction ratings tended to run higher than effectiveness and the average among the three districts was more similar. The average was from Satisfied to almost midway between Satisfied and Very Satisfied. The responses ranged from Fairly Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied.

For tasks actually performed, the three districts showed very similar responses. The tasks can be divided into five major categories. The general ranking of categories from most to least performed was: supervisory, clerical, instructional, housekeeping, and technological.

An analysis of response patterns to the task items was done for the characteristics of consensus and direction of the expectation. Consensus and direction were compared among the aides, teachers, and principals within each district. One of the districts had 25 items from moderately high to very high consensus agreement between two or more of the three groups. The second district had

similar results for 24 items. The third district had agreement on 22 of the 50 items with high to very high consensus. Definite agreement on direction occurred for 32 items of one district, 23 for the second, and 16 for the third. The predominate direction when indicated was toward the expectation of Should Perform.

General comments by aides revealed between eight and 19 tasks performed which were not on the item list. Additional comments revealed no clear patterns except that the teacher should be the primary determiner of the aide's job tasks, and a feeling that aides should be paid more salary. An interview was conducted with a central office administrator in each district who was most directly responsible for the aide program. The interview revealed all three districts recognized that specific administrative consideration needed to be given the aide program. The fact of whether this was actually done varied considerably. The extent of administrative provision seemed related to whether the district had a full-time coordinator. If a coordinator exists, then the amount of administrative consideration is greater.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The fifth and final chapter is divided into a summary of the dissertation, conclusions for the study, a discussion of the findings, and implications for future research.

Summary

The advent of the teacher aide over the last few years has resulted in one of the most rapidly expanding and significant phenomenon in the field of education. There are currently estimated to be over 200,000 aides with up to one and a half million expected by the middle 1970's. The forces behind and rationale for this new position have come about just recently. Its emergence is related to such factors as increased educational technology, the trend toward greater specialization, more available federal monies, and an ever growing student population.

The increasing use of aides has resulted in the need for a critical re-examination of the structure and role definitions typically found in American school systems. The use of aides can only be fully appreciated when

interrelated with other parallel changes such as differentiated staffing and modular scheduling.

To date, few investigations have been conducted on the subject of teacher aides. Some of the studies which are significant include the Bay City Experiment in Michigan, the Bank Street College of Education study of aides for the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the Teacher Aide Program of the District of Columbia Public Schools System. The need now exists for relating the new position of teacher aide to a number of crucial variables. This need is what prompted the subject of this dissertation.

Role theory was selected as the basis for devising an approach and formulating the hypotheses for this study. Role theory provided a tool which is cross disciplinary in nature as well as having utility for understanding human interaction. In addition to drawing upon the literature of role theory, the subjects of complex organizations and teacher aides were also reviewed.

Role theory dates from the late nineteenth century and has continued to evolve into a set of rather complex concepts. These concepts have proved particularly useful as an analytic base for the study and explanation of organizational behavior. The basic logic of the theory is something like that which follows. Expectations which make up the roles within the formal organizational setting have a definite influence upon the individual position

incumbent's behavior. An evaluative standard is developed which can be used to judge and predict the employee's actions. This is important because it directly affects the efficient realization of the system's goals. With this in mind, management can make a specific attempt to define and socialize employees to the different organizational roles.

Explicit means have been developed for delineating role definitions and achieving acceptable levels of compliance with those definitions. The various means for compliance can be categorized into the areas of task definition, recruitment and training, rewards and incentives, and monitoring and evaluation. Management practices have been developed within each of these categories to achieve greater role compliance.

Role theory has applicability to organization in general, and to the organization of the school in particular. As a consequence, it becomes feasible to use role theory as a means for studying the position of teacher aide.

The specific purpose of this study was to examine the degree of role consensus between the teacher and aide in the classroom setting, and to determine if that consensus was related to tasks actually performed by the aide, rated effectiveness of the aide, and rated job satisfaction by the aide. The results of this investigation

could have direct implication for recruitment, selection, training, reward and evaluation of the classroom aides.

The scope and limitations of the study were designed around five basic dimensions of role theory. The level of cognition was maintained at the first order. These are cognitions held by the observer about real world events, and in this case, tasks performed by the aide. The object of discussion is the classroom teacher aide. The characteristic is behavioral in nature. The context is the elementary school classroom setting.

Three Michigan districts were selected for the study. Two of the districts are located in industrial cities and the third is centered in a smaller rural community. It was decided to keep the data from the three districts separate and then to make comparisons where appropriate. The three samples included all the aides and teachers working with aides in the schools surveyed. All the elementary schools were included from the rural school system and one of the city systems. Three inner city elementary schools were selected from the other urban district.

For the purpose of accepting or rejecting the hypotheses, the aides and teachers were matched into teacher-aide pairs. The data collected from the remaining aides and teachers was included in the study of response patterns. Principals were also surveyed with the exception of the three school sample.

A survey approach was decided upon as the best method for collecting data. The rationale for selecting the survey approach was based upon its expeditiousness as a means for measuring role definitions in a uniform manner as held by several reference groups. In addition, it was efficient and provided a method for relating variables in a natural setting.

A saturated sampling procedure was used. Saturated sampling is characterized by the fact that all parties to be studied in the social system are included. This makes it possible to characterize explicitly the social structure of the respondents. For the purpose of this dissertation, the organizational setting and its relationship to role definition were important considerations.

Two instruments were developed to collect the data. A questionnaire was used to measure task expectations, the level of job satisfaction, the level of aide rated effectiveness, and the tasks the aides actually performed. A 50 item task checklist with five intensity responses was the means for measuring expectations. Two six point rating scales were constructed to measure satisfaction and effectiveness. A checklist was also provided for indicating tasks performed. An interview schedule was the instrument for collecting data to describe the various administrative considerations undertaken by the three

districts with respect to their teacher aide programs. The central office administrator most directly responsible for the aide program in each district was interviewed. After the questionnaire and interview schedules were constructed, they were reviewed by five different educators and then field tested. Some of the instructions were modified and several task items changed.

Three hypotheses were proposed and studied. Agreements on task definitions between teachers and aides were related to satisfaction, effectiveness and tasks performed. Three operational agreements were defined for the hypotheses relating to satisfaction and effectiveness. Four operational definitions were used in the third hypothesis. Satisfaction and effectiveness were measured on separate six point rating scales. Tasks performed were measured by a checklist. Simple correlations at the five per cent level of confidence served as the statistical test for the first two hypotheses. Simple percentage scores were used for the third hypothesis.

Twenty-seven pairs were surveyed in the first district and 21 or 77.7 per cent of the pairs completed and returned the questionnaires. Sixty pairs were included in the second district and 45 or 75 per cent were returned. In the third district, 26 pairs were surveyed and there were 24 or 92.3 per cent returned.

The three hypotheses are first stated and then followed by a statement of acceptance or rejection.

Hypothesis 1: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will express higher job satisfaction than an aide who is not in agreement with the teacher.

There was not a sufficient level of support in any of the three samples for establishing a significant relationship between any of the three measures of agreement and rated satisfaction. On the basis of the evidence, the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2: An aide whose task expectations are in agreement with the task expectations held for her by the teacher will be rated as more effective than an aide who is not in agreement.

There was not a sufficient level of support in any of the three samples for establishing a significant relationship between any of the three measures of agreement and rated effectiveness. On the basis of the evidence, the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 3: In a significant percentage of cases, a task will or will not be performed in accordance with the agreement between the task expectation held by the aide and the task expectation held for her by the teacher.

There was a sufficient level of support in all three samples on all four measures of agreement to establish a significant relationship. On the basis of the evidence, the hypothesis was accepted.

For the purpose of analyzing the patterns of response for the aides, teachers, and principals, the total returns from the samples surveyed were included. There were 70

teachers with 62 returns or 88.5 per cent, and 27 aides with 100 per cent returns from one of the urban districts. One hundred and fifteen teachers with 101 returns or 87.8 per cent and 61 aides with 53 returns or 86.8 per cent were received from the rural district. From the other urban district, there were 26 teachers surveyed with 24 returns or 92.3 per cent and 31 aides with a 100 per cent return.

A six point scale was used to rate effectiveness. The six categories included Superior, Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor, and Unacceptable. The average rating in the three districts for effectiveness of aides varied from just above a rating of Good to just below Excellent. The total responses ranged from Unacceptable to Superior.

A six point scale was also used to rate satisfaction. The categories included Very Satisfied, Satisfied, Fairly Satisfied, Fairly Dissatisfied, Dissatisfied and Very Dissatisfied. The average ratings for the three samples varied from slightly above Satisfied to Very Satisfied. The responses ranged from Fairly Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied.

In terms of categories of tasks performed, the three samples showed very similar results. The general ranking of task categories from most to least performed was in the order of supervisory, clerical, instructional, house-keeping, and technological.

Response patterns to the task items from the aides, teachers and principals were analyzed for consensus and direction. Standard deviation scores of from .00 to .70 were considered as indicating from moderately high to high consensus. Two of the districts had moderately high to high consensus scores among two or three of the groups surveyed for approximately half of the 50 task items. The third district achieved similar results on 22 of the 50 items.

Using a five point scale, direction toward Should Perform the task was assigned a mean score range of from 2.51 to 5.00 and Should Not Perform from .00 to 2.49. Definite agreement on direction among the three groups occurred for a majority of items in one district and for under 50 per cent in the other two districts. When direction was indicated, it was predominately toward Should Perform.

General written comments by aides in response to one open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire revealed for each district a performance of between eight to 19 additional task items not included in the 50 item task list. Other comments indicated a general feeling of satisfaction with the aide program, the importance of the teacher in determining task assignments, and a feeling that aides are underpaid.

An interview was conducted with the administrator in each district who was most directly responsible for the aide program. The importance of administrative considerations for the program was recognized in all three districts. The fact of whether or not this recognition was put into effect varied from almost not at all to a very complete set of administrative provisions. The extent of administration provided the program seemed directly related to whether the district had a full-time program coordinator. The presence of a coordinator resulted in greater administrative provisions.

Conclusions

The conclusions are based on the analysis of the data relative to the hypotheses, the various patterns of response, and material gathered from using an interview schedule. The terms used in the conclusions are meant to be defined as they have been used and operationalized in this dissertation.

1. Congruency between the teacher and aide on task expectations for the position of aide was not related to rated job satisfaction by the aide.
2. Congruency between the teacher and aide on tasks expectations for the position of aide was not related to rated effectiveness of the aide by the teacher.
3. Congruency between the teacher and aide on direction of task expectations for the position of aide was related to whether or not the task was actually performed.

4. At this point in time, there does not appear to be a generally held definition of task expectations for the position of teacher aide. There simply has not been enough time for a tradition or an accepted job definition to become established. There does appear to be some evidence that a definition of the role is emerging. It seems that the role will include a wide range of tasks.
5. Effectiveness and satisfaction are not necessarily related variables when they are associated with a particular position incumbent. The individual may be quite satisfied and receive a low effectiveness rating. The reverse is also true.
6. The average effectiveness and satisfaction ratings for aides as a group within the systems sampled were all in the upper half of the rating scales.
7. Overall ratings of effectiveness and satisfactions for the total group of aides within any one system may be directly affected by the administrative measures undertaken to manage the aide program.
8. The administrative considerations given an aide program seem to be related to whether or not the district has a full-time administrator directly responsible for the program.
9. There was from moderately high to very high consensus on the majority of task items for the aides, teachers, and principals as groups. When all three groups are considered, approximately half of the items were agreed upon in some combination between at least two of the three groups. The agreement on direction was very similar. In none of the three districts was a majority of items agreed upon for either direction or consensus by all three groups.
10. Aides are currently performing a wide range of tasks. When the tasks are grouped into categories and ranked from most to least performed, they fall into essentially the same order for all districts sampled. From the most performed, the categories are supervisory, clerical, instructional, housekeeping, and technological.

Implications for Future Research

Because this dissertation represented one of the initial attempts to apply role theory to the position of teacher aide, a number of suggestions for future research studies are very apparent. Several of these are listed below.

1. This dissertation measured first order cognitions of task expectations. It may well be that second order cognitions are more crucial. Research might be conducted to determine if the aide accurately understands what the teacher expects, and then relating this finding to effectiveness and satisfaction.
2. Expectations can be measured in terms of characteristics and processes as well as task performance. It might be well to measure role congruence using several expectational dimensions.
3. Task definitions were defined rather broadly in this dissertation. A more accurate measurement of role expectations could be achieved by confining the study to fewer grade levels and using more detailed and specific task definitions.
4. More accurate assessments of satisfaction and effectiveness could probably be obtained by using scales to rate different aspects or segments of role performance and then calculating a composite score to arrive at a general rating.
5. The factor of time would appear to be particularly important in defining the role of the aide, because of the present trial and error state of development. A study could well be done to measure the effect of time on the development of definite task expectations. After a period of sufficient time, it might then be possible to demonstrate more clearly the relationship between role congruence and other factors such as satisfaction.

6. Another possible study could pursue the effect of role definition among the incumbents of the same position as opposed to the effect between counter positions.
7. In this dissertation, several organizational variables were defined and described, but not in operationally measurable terms. Organizational variables could be more precisely defined in order to measure and to ascertain their effect upon role definition and compliance with that definition by the role incumbent.

With further trial and error in the use of aides, and additional research, a more precise and useful body of knowledge should result.

Discussion

The discussion is divided into two essential parts. The first part deals primarily with the relationship of the study to role theory. The second part is more oriented toward some general observations about teacher aide programs. The two areas of discussion should be viewed as mutually interrelated.

Two rather fundamental premises underlie role theory. The first is that human behavior is influenced to a degree by the expectations of others. The second premise is that a person's position in a social system establishes many of the social relationships in which he is involved and the expectations placed upon him. The two premises lead to the position that human behavior is in part a product of the position held and the expectations associated with that position. The results of this dissertation

support this contention, but also help to demonstrate that the degree of consensus about the expectations for a position vary considerably. There is also evidence to suspect that the conditions under which consensus exists have an effect upon the relationship between consensus and other variables.

Role theory has become a cluster of related and often complex concepts. The problem of operationally defining these concepts and putting them to the empirical test is a difficult undertaking. When a new position is studied, the problem is further complicated. This dissertation represents an initial attempt to apply some of the tenets of role theory to the position of classroom teacher aide. In order to develop a sizeable amount of information about the role of the teacher aide, it will be necessary to conduct many additional studies, develop more sophisticated measuring instruments, and specify more precisely the conditions under which the data is collected.

Two important conditions which affect role definition are the process of socialization and who primarily does the defining. The difficulty in studying the teacher aide position is related to the lack of a specific role definition. The process seems to be one of trial and error to establish a workable definition of the role. Despite the difficulty, there is some

indication that administrative considerations related to role definition, recruitment, selection, training, reward and evaluation have a positive effect upon the factors of task expectations, effectiveness and satisfaction. The problem at this point is to isolate which considerations have the most effect and what represents the best balance of considerations.

The relationship between agreement on tasks, satisfaction and effectiveness is probably dependent upon the relationship that exists between teacher and aide, who primarily determines the role, the number of positions with whom the role incumbent interacts, and the amount of time spent interacting.

When the expectations for the teacher aide become more definitive, the criteria for evaluation and satisfaction should also become more explicit. The result will provide a means for more accurate assessments. The evidence seems to support the contention that a more uniform definition of the teacher aide role is emerging. Finally, to support the argument that role definition results in greater realization of organizational goals, there is a need to measure the educational product and relate this to role consensus.

This dissertation did demonstrate that role consensus affects behavior. It also demonstrated the need to more explicitly define the conditions under which the

consensus exists in order to establish its relationship with effectiveness and satisfaction.

The following discussion is a series of observations related directly to teacher aide programs.

The key to the use of aides is the teacher. Her imagination and concept of teaching limit or facilitate the development of the teacher aide role. The qualities of an ability to conceptualize, a willingness to experiment, the skill of organizing and administering the services of others, and a large measure of self-assurance all would appear desirable for a teacher working with an aide. These could well be some of the qualities which are needed to successfully teach with or without an aide. The crucial importance of the teacher to the aide seems supported by the repeated comment to that effect by teacher aides. The teacher is seen by the aide as a vital source of recognition and personal image building.

Aide programs are still a relatively new development. The lack of role definitions is partly a result of this newness. This may be the healthiest state of affairs. A premature and overly explicit set of definitions could jeopardize the imaginative development and full impact of teacher aide programs. The best approach may be to leave task assignment almost exclusively at the operational level. As common definitions begin to emerge, these could be placed into a range of job descriptions.

The appropriate socialization and rewards should follow the particular description. The primary consideration is not to overly define and structure the program at this point. To administratively ignore the program is also a mistake.

Teacher aides are beginning to be aware of their status. They recognize that a wide range of tasks are being performed in many cases without commensurate organizational considerations. In some instances, teacher aides are performing almost the same job as many teachers. In other cases, their work is very routine and unchallenging. This situation results in aides demanding greater job differentiation and recognition, particularly salary wise, for different levels of work. The initiative for improving teacher aide programs could very well come from the aides. Unless program improvements result from a mutual consideration by aides, teachers, and administrators, a considerable amount of mistrust and excessive regulation could result. There might be room for caution in overly institutionalizing the roles of all teacher aides. The employee who has not been overly socialized to the system often brings a vital and fresh impetus for change. She many also provide a means of communication and identification with the school for the community which the aide represents.

Greater job definition for aides will have the effect of also changing the role of the teacher. This does not mean a simple redivision of tasks currently performed, but the creation of several new tasks. The teacher will become more involved with training, selection, evaluation, and general communications within the system. The ultimate result could be felt throughout the entire staff structure. One of the common developments of greater professional specialization has been the centralization of major strategy and policy decisions with a commensurate increase in discretionary decisions at the operative level.

There is some indication that administrators are frequently not aware of the development and impact of aide programs. This may be even within their own districts. The programs are fast becoming an integral part of the total system. They can no longer be added or dropped at a moment's notice. Programs must be planned for and monitored regularly. The job of the administrator is not to simply react, but to foresee possible consequences and plan accordingly.

The fact that aides are primarily elementary school employees and women may make elementary teaching an even more feminine endeavor. This has implications both for the student and the relationship between elementary and secondary education.

In the matter of training, the junior college could well begin to fill a need for preparing aides who perform many higher level tasks. The junior college is convenient to and should be in tune with the local situation. In addition, the teacher training institutions will undoubtedly need to better prepare teachers to use aides.

A final observation would be that the growth of teacher aide programs again demonstrates the impact of federal expenditures for specific purposes. The expenditure of relatively small sums of money from the federal level can have a significant impact. This method of financing has become an important strategy for effecting change.

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APPENDICES

February 16, 1970

TO: Elementary Building Principal
FROM: Zeno B. Katterle, Jr.
RE: A Study in Role Analysis of Teacher Aides

The enclosed questionnaires and related materials are part of a research project to study the teacher aide program in the St. Johns Elementary Schools. The project is sponsored in cooperation with the district administrative staff and specifically in conjunction with Mr. Steve Bakita. The results of the study will contribute to a better understanding of aide programs in general and specifically to the evaluation of the St. Johns program.

The research is designed to measure relationships between role expectations for aides and important organizational and personal variables. Administrators, teachers utilizing aides, and aides are asked to complete the enclosed questionnaires. A high level of returns is needed to make the study a success because the data is used to describe the district program as it relates to the total group of participants.

The various respondents are assured anonymity. Their responses will in no way be used by the district to measure performance for individual evaluation.

The questionnaires with the necessary instructions are enclosed in an envelope for each person being surveyed. It is essential that each person complete the questionnaire individually and not in cooperation with anyone else. All of the material is coded in order to identify the category of the respondent who completed the questionnaire. Once the questionnaire is completed, it should be returned to the school secretary. Questionnaires are to be distributed the week of February 16, 1970, and should be turned into the secretary no later than February 20. Will the secretary please forward the completed questionnaires to Mr. Steve Bakita, District Central Office? The results will be tabulated and returned to the district by March, 1970.

Zeno B. Katterle, Jr.
Graduate Assistant
Michigan State University

Jackson, Michigan
February 2, 1970

To

Although there are many demands on your time, will you take approximately 15 to 20 minutes for a task which may have significance for the improvement of teacher aide programs?

As a practitioner working either with or as an aide, you realize the importance of teacher aide programs and their future development. The use of aides by schools is rapidly increasing. The writer is conducting "A Study in Role Analysis of Teacher Aides," designed to measure the expectations for aides in relation to important organizational and personal variables.

This study is sponsored in cooperation with the district coordinator of the teacher aide program. The results should provide valuable information for administering aide programs in general. It should also prove valuable for this specific district.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to your building secretary by the end of the week. The secretary will in turn mail it to the district central office. An envelope is included for enclosing the completed questionnaire.

Your returned questionnaire will be treated anonymously. A summary of the research findings will be made available to your school district early in March of this year.

Zeno B. Katterle, Jr.
Graduate Assistant
Michigan State University

This research study should provide valuable information about the Jackson teacher aide program. I urge your cooperation in completing the questionnaire.

Mr. Clarence Lacny
Teacher Aide Coordinator

February, 1970

TO: Teachers, Teacher Aides, and Principals Involved In A
Study of Role Expectations of Teachers and Teacher
Aides

FROM: Zeno B. Katterle, Jr.

The basis of the study involves a questionnaire about the tasks teachers and teacher aides feel the aide should perform. Statements are based on several studies of what aides actually have done in the classroom. The procedures follow:

(1) The investigator will contact the principal and deliver the questionnaires with a designated time for their use. Teachers and teacher aides will be involved in completing the questionnaire.

(2) A time element of approximately 10-20 minutes is needed to complete the questionnaire.

(3) An envelope will be provided for each teacher and teacher aide to use to return her questionnaire to the principal who will turn them over to the investigator. The questionnaires will be coded, but the responses will be treated anonymously.

The purposes of the study are varied. Some possible outcomes are:

(1) Provide information to the teacher about the agreement among teachers as a group concerning the tasks they feel aides should perform; the level of general agreement among teacher aides; and the level of agreement between both groups

(2) Contribute to understandings of job satisfaction among the aides

(3) Provide more knowledge of those tasks aides actually perform (Teachers and aides in Jackson, Michigan have also participated in this study.)

(4) Provide data about the training needed for aides based on the teachers' feelings about the job of teacher aide

Any comments on the operation of this study will be appreciated.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

A STUDY IN ROLE ANALYSIS OF TEACHER AIDES

This is a study of expectations for the role of the elementary classroom teacher aide. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. We want to know how you feel about the tasks a teacher aide should be expected to perform in this school district. Your responses will be treated anonymously. It is very important that you complete the questionnaire individually and not in cooperation with anyone else.

DEFINITION OF TERMS. Classroom teacher aide is an elementary school employee who works with and directly assists the classroom teacher. Expectations are the tasks which a person feels should or should not be performed by an individual employed as a classroom teacher aide in this school district.

DIRECTIONS. There are 50 task items to be completed. There are five possible responses for each task. The response scale is designed to read as follows:

AM indicates absolutely must
PS indicates preferably should
MMN indicates may or may not
PSN indicates preferably should not
AMN indicates absolutely must not

By designating a task as one that aides should perform, it is neither implied that they are necessarily the only ones to perform the task, nor that they would have to perform the task under all conceivable circumstances. Answer the questionnaire from the perspective of the grade(s) in which you work.

AN EXAMPLE. Using the following task, if you felt the expectation for the elementary classroom aide should be absolutely must not, you would indicate your choice as illustrated:

Item	Task	AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN
6	Introduce a science lesson					✓

After you have completed checking the following task items, continue to the next section. Please begin.

Item	Task	AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN
1	Take Roll					
2	Collect Money					
3	Correct Workbooks					
4	Distribute Supplies To Students					
5	Fill Out Requisitions					
6	Record Test Scores					
7	Maintain Records					
8	Prepare Stencils					
9	Type Materials					
10	Put Away Supplies					
11	Arrange Room For Activities					
12	Clean Off Table Tops					
13	Regulate Thermostat					
14	Supervise Student Cleanup					
15	Water Plants					
16	Clean Paint Brushes					
17	Open Windows For Ventilation					
18	Clean Blackboards					

Item	Task	AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN
19	Straighten Room After Dismissal					
20	Maintain Supply Closet					
21	Operate Tape Recorder					
22	Make Overhead Transparencies					
23	Operate 16MM Projector					
24	Set Up AV Equipment					
25	Help Students Learn Use of Equipment					
26	Arrange For Use of Equipment					
27	Operate Record Player					
28	Teach Students Use of Teaching Machine					
29	Prepare Room For Special Equipment Use					
30	Move AV Equipment to Classroom					
31	Help Students With Wraps					
32	Supervise During Recess					
33	Escort Student to Nurse					
34	Help Maintain Classroom Order					
35	Help Monitor During Field Trip					
36	Monitor Class For Short Time Period					

Item	Task	AM	PS	MMN	PSN	AMN
37	Escort Class to Next Activity					
38	Explain School Rules to a Student					
39	Monitor Students During Assembly					
40	Discipline Student On Playground					
41	Read Stories to Students					
42	Help A Student With Assignment					
43	Assist With A Science Demonstration					
44	Listen To A Student Read					
45	*Substitute In Teacher's Absence					
46	Plan Homework Assignments					
47	Help Check Seatwork					
48	Prepare Test Questions					
49	Write Assignment On Board					
50	Conduct Small Group Drill					

*Substitute For $\frac{1}{2}$ Day or Longer

DIRECTIONS. This section is to be completed only by teacher aides. The following items are a repeat of the same task list you have completed. Using the repeat list, check only those tasks which you have actually performed while working as a classroom teacher aide during the 1969-1970 school year as an employee of this school district.

AN EXAMPLE. Using the following task, if you actually performed this task while employed as a classroom teacher aide, you would indicate this as illustrated:

Item	Task	Have Performed
27	Setting Up AV Equipment	✓

After you have completed checking the following task items, continue the next section. Please begin.

Item	Task	Have Performed
1	Take Roll	
2	Collect Money	
3	Correct Workbooks	
4	Distribute Supplies To Students	
5	Fill Out Requisitions	
6	Record Test Scores	
7	Maintain Records	
8	Prepare Stencils	
9	Type Materials	
10	Put Away Supplies	
11	Arrange Room For Activities	
12	Clean Off Table Tops	

Item	Task	Have Performed
13	Regulate Thermostat	
14	Supervise Student Cleanup	
15	Water Plants	
16	Clean Paint Brushes	
17	Open Windows For Ventilation	
18	Clean Blackboards	
19	Straighten Room After Dismissal	
20	Maintain Supply Closet	
21	Operate Tape Recorder	
22	Make Overhead Transparencies	
23	Operate 16MM Projector	
24	Set Up AV Equipment	
25	Help Students Learn Use of Equipment	
26	Arrange For Use of Equipment	
27	Operate Record Player	
28	Teach Students Use of Teaching Machine	
29	Prepare Room For Special Equipment Use	
30	Move AV Equipment To Classroom	
31	Help Students With Wraps	

Item	Task	Have Performed
32	Supervise During Recess	
33	Escort Student To Nurse	
34	Help Maintain Classroom Order	
35	Help Monitor During Field Trip	
36	Monitor Class For Short Time Period	
37	Escort Class To Next Activity	
38	Explain School Rules To A Student	
39	Monitor Students During Assembly	
40	Discipline Student On Playground	
41	Read Stories To Students	
42	Help A Student With Assignment	
43	Assist With A Science Demonstration	
44	Listen To A Student Read	
45	*Substitute In Teacher's Absence	
46	Plan Homework Assignments	
47	Help Check Seatwork	
48	Prepare Test Questions	
49	Write Assignment On Board	
50	Conduct Spelling Drill	

DIRECTIONS. This section is to be completed only by teacher aides. The following rating scale is to be used for indicating your general level of satisfaction with your present job as a classroom teacher aide. Your response will remain anonymous. Check the box immediately below the level which best indicates your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with your present job as an aide.

EXAMPLE. Using the following example, if you are fairly dissatisfied, you would indicate this as illustrated:

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
			✓		

Using the scale below, please indicate your general level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

Please list any task(s) you have frequently performed which is not included in the 50 task item checklist. You may also use this space for any comment which you wish to make about the teacher aide program.

DIRECTIONS. This section is to be completed only by classroom teachers. The following scale is to be used for indicating your rating of the general level of effectiveness of the classroom teaching aide who is currently assisting you with your teaching assignment. Your response will remain anonymous and individual ratings will not be revealed to aides or used for evaluations. Do not indicate the name of the aide. Check the box immediately below the level which best indicates your rating of effectiveness for the aide.

AN EXAMPLE. Using the following example, if your rating of the classroom aide currently assisting you is Good, you would indicate this as illustrated:

Superior	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Unacceptable
		✓			

Using the scale below, please indicate your rating of the aide's general level of effectiveness.

Superior	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Unacceptable

Name of District _____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview conducted with person(s) who has the responsibility for the aide program at the central office level. If the district has a coordinator of the program, he is the preferable person to be interviewed.

District Descriptive Profile

I. General Descriptive Information

A. District

1. No. of students in district by grade level _____

2. No. of schools in district by level _____

3. Student-professional staff ratio _____

4. Amount spent/child _____

5. Assessed valuation/child _____

B. Aide Program

1. Does program have coordinator? (time assigned) _____

2. No. of schools using aides (list by levels) _____

(Answer remaining questions for elementary, including kindergarten)

3. No. of aides per school (give range) _____

4. No. of teachers using aides _____

5. No. of aides working directly with teachers _____

6. Type of funding: (give percentages) federal _____

state _____ local _____

7. Amount of funding _____

8. Length of time aide program in district _____

9. State purposes of aide program _____

10. District policy statements _____

C. Aides

1. Age: _____, _____; specified maximum
(range) (average)
and minimum _____
2. Sex: _____
(No. of males) (No. of females)
3. Marital Status _____
(married) (single) (other)
4. Economic Status _____
(average family income) (income average)

5. Record of previous school experiences _____

6. Educational status: _____
(no. diplomas) (H.S. diploma)

_____ (college credits) _____ (college degree) _____ (Jr. C.) _____ (4 year)

_____ (graduate work)

7. Other research or descriptive studies (Describe) _____

MEANS OF ACHIEVING ROLE COMPLIANCE

II. Job Description and Supervision

1. List of tasks to be performed Yes___ No___ Degree Specificity

2. Hours of work specified Yes___ No___

3. Authority relationships (describe)

III. Recruitment and Selection

1. List of qualifications or criteria Yes___ No___ Describe:

2. Means used to recruit (describe)

3. Selection procedure (describe)

4. Employee determination of assignment Yes___ No___ Describe:

5. Teacher determination of placement Yes___ No___ Describe:

IV. Training

1. Type of training (field trip, institute, class, on job)

2. Goals of training program (list)

3. Functions or skills included (list) _____

4. Does program include aide, teacher and administrator? Yes _____

No _____

5. Pre and post service training (length of time for each) _____

6. Training agencies _____

7. Setting (describe) _____

8. Involvement in planning (school system, higher education, community) _____

V. Rewards and Incentives

1. Type of contract (describe) _____

2. Means for deciding terms of employment (describe) _____

3. Rate of pay _____

4. Other recognition _____

5. Use of career ladder _____

6. Welfare benefits (insurance, hospital, leave, etc.) _____

VI. Evaluation

1. Who is responsible? Who does rating? _____

2. Type of instrument used _____

3. Means of conveying evaluation to aide _____

VII. Other

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____