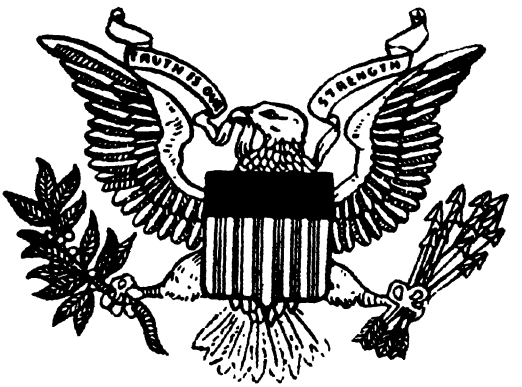
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The Community College

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The Community College

BY

JESSE PARKER BOGUE

Executive Secretary
American Association of Junior Colleges

FIRST EDITION

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THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

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To
ADAH

PREFACE

The Community College has been written largely from a personal point of view. It has grown out of sixteen years of practical administrative experience in a junior college and wide observations in the United States. For six years, the author dealt with problems arising from the administration of academy and college programs on the same campus and in the same buildings. He cooperated in the organization of the first junior college in Vermont, experienced with others the solutions of problems incident to changing a dual-purpose institution into one with distinctive higher educational objectives, and appreciates, therefore, many situations that arise when community colleges are operated in association with secondary education.

A study at first hand of junior and community colleges in practically every state in the nation has been a rewarding and humbly acknowledged personal and professional experience. The opportunity to cooperate with some of America's leading universities in workshops, seminars, and conferences in the field of junior-college education has been convincing evidence of the sympathy and sincere interest of these institutions to discharge their unique obligations in providing professional leadership. Regional, state, and local conferences have been common meeting places for extended discussions with staff members, teachers, and students. Membership in a state legislature gave a keenly sharpened sense regarding many legal angles, providing values which have been utilized at both state and national levels in the cause of better education.

While opportunities have been offered for extensive numbers of round-table meetings with the higher echelons, they have been even more extensive with slogging foot soldiers. Almost innumerable "bull sessions" at the grassroots have been among the most helpful sources of down-to-earth information. Gratitude for these contacts and experiences is hereby expressed and stated for the

benefit of the reader's understanding of the writer's point of view.

Appreciation will be in evidence in these pages, it is hoped, for scholarly, objective approaches and evaluations of educational problems. *The Community College,* however, is largely the outcome of practical experiences, observations, personal judgments regarding currents of thought, present trends, and perhaps here and there an attempt at prophecy for the future. The author does not claim that *The Community College* is an exhaustive, objective treatment of the subject characterized by *The Junior College Movement* from the pen of Dr. Leonard V. Koos.[1] Neither does he lay claim to emulation of the monumental work of his predecessor's *The Junior College* by Dr. Walter Crosby Eells;[2] nor yet to the depth and intensity of a single theme as is found in *The New American College* by Sexson and Harbeson,[3] or *Terminal Education in the Junior College* by Phebe Ward.[4] Nevertheless, far-reaching contacts throughout the United States and to some extent with movements in other countries similar to the junior college, such as the county colleges in England, convince the author that *The Community College* should be made available to students and the public at large.

Further evidence for this conviction has been found in the demand for *American Junior Colleges,* edited by this author and published by the American Council on Education.[5] The first edition of this publication came from the press in 1940, and 3,200 copies were printed; 800 were given away; but it required seven years to sell the remaining copies at $3.50 each. The second edition was published in 1948. The first 5,000 copies were sold within a few months; a second printing of 3,000 copies was made, and before the end of the first year over half of the

[1] Koos, Leonard V. *The Junior College Movement.* Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925.

[2] Eells, Walter C. *The Junior College.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931.

[3] Sexson, John A., and Harbeson, John W. *The New American College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

[4] Ward, Phebe. *Terminal Education in the Junior College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

[5] Bogue, Jesse P. (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

second printing had been sold. Copies of the second edition sold at $6.50 each. It is the author's hope, therefore, that *The Community College* will help to meet a real need by giving the reader an overview of the movement with reasons for its existence and rapidity of development. The intent is to give information for general understanding and references for further study and discussion.

Statistical data extensively tabulated for objective evaluations have been used rather meagerly, although reasonable effort has been made to supply documentary references. The flavor of the conversational approach, the turning of various aspects of problems to view, and suggestions for explorations in some fields characterize *The Community College*. Perhaps this style may appeal to the imagination of some endowed with the pioneer spirit who may wish to push on toward new frontiers. An experienced guide may sometimes stand on a high elevation and point out unexplored territory. To traverse the land, blaze the trails, survey the terrain with accuracy, and return with reliable blueprints is a far more arduous task. The author sincerely hopes that this book may result in the emergence of a number of men and women with scholarly attributes and devotion who will penetrate new frontiers in community-college education. Their services are greatly needed in universities as teachers and professional leaders; in the community colleges, as instructors with new techniques and abilities to produce materials for teaching in various subject fields; and as leaders in state departments of education. If some may be inspired to venture forth, the author's reward will be rich for his efforts to record herein some wisdom refined from experience and observations as well as from the work of scores of people to whom he is deeply indebted.

The author extends his grateful acknowledgment to the Board of Directors of the American Association of Junior Colleges, whose cooperation and encouragement have been helpful in writing *The Community College*. His thanks are sincerely given to vast numbers of administrators, staff members, and teachers in junior colleges in almost every state, whose friendship and hospitality have been sources of knowledge and pleasure.

While the author omits with regret a complete list of those who have made contributions, he wishes to thank a number of persons who have been especially helpful: Mrs. Bogue for reading the manuscript, for special research in the Harvard University libraries, and for making many valuable suggestions; Mildred English and Shirley Sanders Hill, the author's coworkers in Washington, who have given much extra time in assisting with the preparation of the manuscript; Dr. William H. Conley, former specialist in junior-college education, U.S. Office of Education, and now dean, University College, Loyola University, Chicago, for reading parts of the manuscript and for constructive suggestions, also for his assistance with Frank J. Bertalan, head reference librarian, Federal Security Agency, for help in the preparation of the bibliography; Dr. William H. Hanley, director of instruction, Extension Division, University of Wisconsin; David B. Pugh, supervisor of instruction, Undergraduate Centers, The Pennsylvania State College; Dr. Archibald J. Cloud, president, San Francisco City College (retired); Dr. John E. Gray, president, Lamar College, Beaumont, Texas; Dr. L. O. Todd, president, East Central Junior College, Decatur, Mississippi; Dr. Harlie L. Smith, president, William Woods College, Fulton, Missouri; Dr. James C. Miller, president, Christian College, Columbia, Missouri; Dr. G. H. Vande Bogart, president, Northern Montana College, Havre, Montana; Dr. Milton D. Proctor, president, Westbook Junior College, Portland, Maine; Dr. E. H. Hereford, president, Arlington State College, Arlington, Texas; E. L. Harvin, president, Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Texas; Dr. Lawrence L. Bethel, director, New Haven YMCA Junior College, New Haven, Connecticut; Dr. Kenneth C. MacKay, president, Union Junior College, Cranford, New Jersey; Dr. George E. Dotson, director, Long Beach City College, Long Beach, California; Dr. William Langsdorf, assistant director, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California, and also a number of the faculty members; Dr. Walter J. Brooking, formerly dean, Le Tourneau Technical Institute, Longview, Texas, now administrative head, Engineering Division of the Special Products, M. W. Kellogg Company, Elizabeth, New Jersey; Dr. Judson

Butler, dean, General College, Boston University; Dr. Dale Mitchell, dean, Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Massachusetts; and to many others whose names appear in this book.

Finally, the author expresses his thanks to all publishers for permissions given for quotations. Every reasonable effort has been made to document and acknowledge references with accuracy.

JESSE PARKER BOGUE

WASHINGTON, D.C.
July, 1950

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INTRODUCTION

The Community College, title of this book, has been selected because it describes more accurately the essential functions and objectives of the present-day movement than the term *junior college*. It is clearly understood that some independent institutions do not claim to be community colleges. They will receive full recognition in the pages of this book. Their pronounced objectives are appreciated. Their place in American education may be assured for the future as it has been in the past. No one type of educational organization is capable of meeting the needs of all youth and adults in this nation. While the community college will doubtless enroll the great majority of students, just as has been the case with public high schools in relation to privately controlled academies, the mere fact of expanding enrollments does not in itself guarantee superior educational programs or preclude the further role of private enterprise.

Moreover, the community college is not the sole responsibility of public education. While the great majority, by the very nature of their objectives, may be publicly supported, nevertheless, many communities will prefer to develop privately controlled colleges. There are now several combinations of support and control. For instance, Little Rock, Arkansas, maintains a junior college. It is controlled by the City Board of Education, but it is supported by a large private endowment and by student tuitions. Stockton, California, has a working agreement with the College of the Pacific whereby all freshmen and sophomore students of both institutions are educated in Stockton College. This cooperative plan is between a privately controlled senior college and a publicly controlled community institution. The day college of Stockton is under district support while the evening college is local.

In some of the New England states, educational facilities for high-school students are still under the supervision of trustees

of old private academies, but enrollments are almost entirely from local communities and support is by state and local taxes. It is sometimes difficult for persons unacquainted with New England traditions to realize how close is the cooperation in many communities between private enterprise and public functions. The author was at one time headmaster of an academy in Vermont that performed for the local community in which it was located all the functions of a public high school. The town simply levied taxes, contracted with the academy to educate its high-school students at tuition rates mutually agreed to by both parties, and made its payments on this basis. New York State students living near the border of Vermont attended the academy. In this case, New York paid tuitions to the Vermont town. These tuitions were, in turn, paid to the private academy. This was done because New York State was not permitted to pay tuitions to a private institution!

Some persons have felt that because the President's Commission on Higher Education has *predicted* that future enrollments will expand far more rapidly in public community colleges than they will in independent junior colleges, the curse of doom was pronounced on the latter institutions. The author of *The Community College* is in complete disagreement with this view. Even a quick glance at the history of education, with some exceptions for senior-college and university enrollments, will show that the prediction of the Commission is based on facts of past performance. It stands to reason that tuition-free institutions will draw to themselves larger numbers of students than will be the case with those that must charge tuitions. Moreover, there is no good reason why persons who sincerely believe in private enterprise in education should take umbrage at a prediction. To make this prediction was not to appraise it, nor was it an attempt to compare the values inherent in each type of service. The Commission did not, so it is understood, thank educators in privately controlled colleges for past favors and with equal politeness attempt to bow them out of the house. American philosophies of education can best be implemented through variety in organization. Evaluation of philosophies and their organizational implementations are in another realm of thought.

Both prediction and evaluation will receive consideration in this book.

Semantically, *junior* connotes a restricted function for these institutions that more aptly describes a role they were supposed to play in former days. Present trends and future needs that must be met at the community level cannot well admit that *junior* is an accurate and inclusive term for the institutions that must do what will be demanded of them. Many attempts have been made to define junior colleges in terms of their functions, as well as some by purely artificial distinctions. It is of interest to note changes in such definitions that have taken place within the span of only a few years. At the second annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Memphis, Tennessee, in 1922, the definition was: "The junior college is an institution offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade." Three years later, however, significant changes took place. Then it was said:

> The junior college is an institution offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade. This curriculum may include those courses usually offered in the first two years of the four-year colleges; in which case these courses must be identical, in scope and thoroughness, with corresponding courses of the standard four-year college. The junior college may, and is likely to, develop a different type of curriculum suited to the larger and ever-changing civic, social, religious, and vocational needs of the entire community in which the college is located. It is understood that in this case, also, the work offered shall be on a level appropriate for high-school graduates.

Widespread, mistlike thinking was gathered up in the minds of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Misty thoughts were distilled into rain, although a rather gentle rain, and showered upon the public mind. The author does not know how many pages of newspaper and magazine articles and comment have been devoted to the community-college concept pronounced by the Commission. Enough is known, however, to state that the idea apparently caught the attention of persons who sense real news values. As a result, it is probable that it received more space and favorable editorial comment than any other single aspect of the report. The Commission took a bold

position in stating clearly that *junior* had come of age; that adult responsibilities now indicated that former appellations were misnomers. Practical experience and wide contacts with the movement convince the author that *community college* more nearly approximates trends of thinking as well as observable usage of the name itself. Some institutions may adopt the name without having the functions in fact; others are adopting it because it expresses the fact. The name is not all-important, and no efforts are being made to make it so, except to identify functions and objectives.

There are signs on every hand that *junior* has cast off his swaddling cloths. He is certainly out of the cradle and stoutly refuses the confinement in which well-meaning but tradition-minded or uninformed persons would keep him. He is speaking for himself, writing his declaration of independence, constitution, and bill of rights. He is ready, willing, and able to cooperate with others in the task of education on terms of equality. He is no longer junior to anything or anybody. His personality and worth entitle him to a seat at council tables rather than the little chair in the corner of the conference room. Examples will be provided in the pages of this book to show that the foregoing declarations are in keeping with facts. The community-college concept represents the convictions of persons in the movement. The movement itself has grown with amazing rapidity. It has been characterized by the normal awkwardness, confusion, and shyness of such growth, by its willingness to accept mere permissive crumbs from the master's table, and it has often stood aside in deference to the elders. These days are over. As an expression of this fact, we might turn to almost any section of the United States for an example. We shall use, however, an editorial that appeared in *The Boston Globe*, February 4, 1949, because it points with significance to both the independence of the colleges and their consciousness of community requirements.

It's a wholesome thing to see the New England Council of Junior Colleges voluntarily enforcing a new code of high standards among its present and prospective membership. Any project in self-improvement deserves praise, and one that is undertaken without urging calls for a particularly handsome bouquet. New Englanders, already in

debt to these institutions because they help to maintain this region's reputation for good education, may gracefully discharge that obligation. It happens that they may also do it thriftily. The junior colleges need understanding even more than orchids.

Thousands of people have not the faintest idea what junior college is, and other thousands are completely misinformed about junior-college methods and aims. The first group causes the colleges concern, but the second group does them mischief. For it is the second group that will tell you that a junior college is a "finishing school" at which young ladies learn drawing-room deportment; or that a junior college is a senior college with the last and hardest years lopped off—sending its graduates out into the world, presumably, knowing half of Shakespeare, half of the physics text, and half of the heavens' galaxies; or that a junior college is an academic mess hall which takes the lazier or less talented young people from the upper classes of high schools and by forcible feeding of facts and figures fits them for the senior colleges which would otherwise not have them.

All these notions are, of course, wholly false. The phrase "finishing school" makes junior-college officers wince; finishing schools went out with the Graustark novels; nowhere in this land does curtsying now earn diploma credits, if indeed it ever did.

The charge that the junior-college program is that of a senior college, but in half, is as unjust as it is untrue; it is most unjust because it robs these educators of laurels won by practical pioneering in the same field of general education whose possibilities only lately have excited the universities. As for the third charge, junior colleges are not cramming schools. Their entrance requirements are no less strict than those of many four-year institutions, and if they prepare young men and women to enter senior colleges, as many of them do, they do so thorough a job of preparation that the student is admitted, not as a freshman, but to the difficult third-year class.

There are many definitions of a junior college. A dean sums up several of them in this fashion: "It is a two-year college offering work at college level, its primary purpose being a terminal curriculum in liberal-arts or semiprofessional areas." The word "terminal" is the one to keep in mind. It means that, in general-education courses, these colleges prepare for responsible citizenship those students who cannot finance or do not wish further formal education. It means also that, in vocational courses, students are given command of skills that enable them to start earning a living, and a good one, at once. In neither case is the avenue to more specialized studies closed, but

it is not necessary for a junior-college graduate to follow them in order to live happily and successfully.

Of the two great classifications of junior colleges, New Englanders will hear more in coming months. Emphasis hereabouts has been until now upon the small residential institutions which teach the liberal arts and a few semiprofessional subjects and strive also to be "laboratories in democratic living." Due to grow both in number and in size are the community colleges like tax-supported Newton Junior, which offer any subject that meets a community requirement, sometimes expand their day and night sessions until their enrollment rises into the thousands, and are, as a junior-college man has called them, superb "educational service stations." Such colleges are always in the mind of Harvard's President Conant when he advocates state and Federal support of broader educational opportunities for high-school graduates.

It's a good time for the New England Council of Junior Colleges to raise standards, and an excellent one for the people of this region to find out what goes on in these useful institutions.

Uncle Dudley

The author has quoted the editorial from *The Boston Globe* because it reveals a depth of understanding and comes from the most conservative section of the country in the development of the free public community colleges. The editorial is indicative of trends in interest in the further education of the youth of America. Any one of hundreds of editorials from nearly all sections of the United States could be quoted, because there is a rising tide of interest in the movement for the further extension and democratization of education almost everywhere.

It may be noted that the community college is designated as a movement rather than an institution. While the terms "community," "junior," "general college," "technical institute," "extension center," "undergraduate center," etc., will be seen in this book, they are, nevertheless, really all of a piece in the general movement to extend to larger numbers of the people the advantages of education and the kinds of education they need and want.

The Community College has not been written in defense of a name; it is a thesis in behalf of functions; the name is incidental. However, the name is in keeping with essential movements for

the improvement of education at the local community level. Roy E. Larsen, chairman, National Citizens Commission, states in *NEA Journal*, September, 1949: "The commission plans to cite outstanding local groups for their work on behalf of the public schools. This will turn the national spotlight on those communities whose men and women are discovering, through their own efforts, how to work with school authorities and with other communities or organizations to vastly better their public schools." The President's Commission on Higher Education designates the general movement as "Community colleges . . . community centered . . . community serving."

Chapter 1. PHILOSOPHIES OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The education of the child is one of the basic duties of the state. It is not, however, the state's exclusive right. Independent associations of citizens and religious organizations share in the educational functions of the nation. Some religious bodies believe that they have a duty to provide programs of instruction for the children and youth of their communicants in keeping with sound public policy and to meet moral and spiritual needs of their people. To them an adequate plan must consider the whole person, including moral insights and convictions, spiritual aspirations and ideals, and supernatural revelations. These holoistic needs are satisfied best by daily religious instruction integrated with general and specialized education. They believe that the foundations of moral integrity are spiritual concepts and attitudes; that, ultimately, moral values are grounded in the acceptance of ethical monotheism; that the faith and hopes of men must be based on this final reality; that any naturalistic philosophy of life constructed on pure reason, however cogent, falls short of meeting human needs; that scientific facts and systems, however consistent they may be with both reason and faith, are not in themselves sufficient bases for the good life.[1]

[1] The objectives of Catholic education are set forth in the *Encyclical on Christian Education* by Pope Pius XI as follows:

"The proper and immediate end of Christian education is to cooperate with divine grace in forming the true and perfect Christian, that is, to form Christ Himself in those regenerated by Baptism. . . .

"For precisely this reason, Christian education takes in the whole aggregate of human life, physical and spiritual, intellectual and moral, individual, domestic, and social, not with a view of reducing it in any way, but in order to elevate, regulate, and perfect it, in accordance with the example and teaching of Christ.

It will be seen, therefore, that the philosophies of education for community colleges will differ in some respects for institutions under private auspices and those publicly controlled. At least this assumption will hold true in the practical application of these philosophies. Vast numbers of persons engaged in public education are as fully committed to spiritual concepts of life as are persons who devote their time to privately controlled education. Many people in the former field of work make contributions for the support of those in the latter. All citizens who are able to do so pay taxes to finance public education. Citizens without children may pay large sums through taxation while others with children may pay only small amounts, or none at all. Thus a public policy in education has been established on the principle of from each according to his ability and to each according to his need. The widespread debate about the further extension of Federal aid to education centers around the core of this concept. To what extent, if any at all, shall the Federal government collect funds from the more wealthy states and distribute them to the poorer ones for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunities for all citizens of the United States? Shall public funds be used for public education exclusively? If not, then to what extent shall the policy be applied and on what principle? These questions are merely mentioned here to indicate how far the American people have come and the general direction the road

---

"Hence the true Christian, product of Christian education, is the supernatural man who thinks, judges, and acts constantly and consistently in accordance with right reason illumined by the supernatural light of the example and teaching of Christ; in other words, to use the current term, the true and finished man of character. For, it is not every kind of consistency and firmness of conduct based on subjective principles that makes true character, but only constancy in following the eternal principles of justice.

". . . The true Christian does not renounce the activities of this life, he does not stunt his natural faculties; but he develops and perfects them, by coordinating them with the supernatural. He thus ennobles what is merely natural in life and secures for it new strength in the material and temporal order, no less than in the spiritual and eternal."

The Philosophy of Catholic Education, A Summary of the Fundamentals and Objectives, by William J. McGucken, S.J. (New York: The America Press) will be very helpful for further reference on this subject.

points on which they may travel in the future to implement fundamental democratic concepts.

An essential difference between the two mentioned philosophies lies not so much in the basic concepts themselves, although there are differences, as in the freedoms to implement them. Well-known restrictions have been placed on the teaching of religion in public institutions of learning, although teachers and patrons may be sincerely religious in belief and practice. Further limitations have been provided in a recent ruling of the United States Supreme Court concerning released time from public schools for religious instruction.[2] The Supreme Court's interpretation on the separation of church and state declares, in effect, that time designated for public education shall be used for that purpose and not otherwise. This ruling has been widely criticized and praised. It has been criticized because it is claimed that it contradicts public sentiment and the prevailing convictions of the people. Moreover, separation of church and state should not prevent cooperation in worthy objectives. Cooperation does not imply undue influence on the part of either the church or state over the other. To forbid it by judicial ruling appears to be inconsistent with the spiritual concepts of the vast majority of the American people. In spite of the ruling there are wide variations in its observance created largely by state or local sentiment.

On the other hand, the interpretation has been praised because it is claimed that to release time from school is but the opening

[2] *McCollum v. Board of Education*, Champaign Co., Ill., 69 S. Ct. 461, decided Mar. 8, 1948. Mr. Justice Jackson qualified his concurrent opinion with the following reservations:

". . . I think it is doubtful whether the facts of this case establish jurisdiction in this Court, but in any event that we should place some bounds on the demands for interference with local schools that we are empowered or willing to entertain. I make these reservations a matter of record in view of the number of litigations likely to be started as a result of this decision.

"A Federal Court may interfere with local school authorities only when they invade either a personal liberty or a property right protected by the Federal Constitution. . . .

". . . We must leave some flexibility to meet local conditions, some chance to progress by trial and error."

wedge for further encroachment; to allow it results in embarrassment to certain children and patrons who may be in a minority; in the final analysis unhealthy divisions are created that have no place in public education. Time allowed for public instruction is limited, even under the best of circumstances. Within the span of the week ample opportunity is available for the church to instruct children and youth in whatever manner may be desired. Freedom of worship is fully guaranteed under the Constitution. The prevailing forty-hour-a-week working time leaves at least two full days free. Practically one-fourth of each year in summer vacations is available without restrictions for religious instruction. Why, then, the critics ask, should public-school time be encroached upon for this purpose? Finally, the child is not the creature of the state and, therefore, religious bodies may conduct their own schools with the largest possible freedom compatible with public welfare, if they see fit to do so at their own expense. Any division of public funds for this purpose would result in a weakened public-school system. If carried to its logical conclusion, support might have to be given to large numbers of differing religious bodies. As a result, the whole public-school system would be wrecked; further divisions in cultural and ethnic patterns would be widened; and the common grounds on which American democracy stands would be undermined.

Common Agreements

We may see, then, that in spite of differences in policy, a democratic society demands well-educated, intelligent people. The overwhelming majority of the citizens of this country believe this and are determined to have it so. To write this belief into public policy has been one of the longest and hardest fought battles for social welfare. It is almost common knowledge that Thomas Jefferson was one of the first American leaders who clearly and strongly advocated free public education. It was necessary for prosperity; without it democracy was unthinkable. Jefferson, although prophetic, worked under some of the limitations of his own time. He was unable, perhaps for practical reasons, to advocate free public education of more than three years for all

children. His plan for basic education was devised primarily for the common welfare. He nevertheless thought of the program as a method for the discovery of talented youth who by further education would become leaders in society.

Generally speaking, it was approximately the middle of the nineteenth century before the battle for free public elementary education was won. Even then and for a long time after that date, wide variations prevailed among the several states in the length of school terms and the number of years in elementary education. The policy of requiring attendance for a specified length of time was a much later public decision. The author attended a public school in Alabama. The school year was limited to three months, and attendance was entirely voluntary. Gradually the victory to lengthen the school year and require universal attendance for a minimum number of years recorded further progress. There are still many critical problems in elementary education: how to secure adequate support; how to recruit and prepare good teachers; how to improve the educational processes; where, how, and what kind of school plants and facilities to provide. The main questions are no longer who shall attend elementary schools, how long their terms shall be, or the number of years these schools shall be conducted, but rather the degree of excellency that may be attained in them. The great problem is how to meet the ever-increasing demands for equality of opportunity for all children in these schools. In a qualitative sense, salient points of present discussions are aimed at the *cardinal purposes* of elementary education and how to attain them.

Free High Schools

A further battle has been fought and generally won regarding free public high-school education. Common, although not universal, acceptance of these schools was reached toward the end of the nineteenth century. Even today there are a few systems that provide for eleven years only of free education. Twelve years is the minimum standard that will soon be practiced in all systems of all states. As a result of this further extension of free public education, nothing short of a revolution has taken place

in high-school attendance. Numbers today must be measured by millions instead of hundreds of thousands as was the case in 1900. Viewed in the light of the past, this revolution is all the more amazing because attendance for vast numbers is beyond the age of compulsion. Here, again, the question of attendance is far from being the greatest issue, although the actual holding power of the high school is of critical importance.[3] The loss of 50 per cent of students before graduation is regarded as a national issue and one that has raised very serious consideration about the high-school programs for all American youth. It has been stated that, "High schools don't make sense for 60 per cent of the students." [4] The cardinal aims of high-school education, the methods and facilities to carry them out, enough of the right kind of personnel to do the teaching effectively, and the building of programs of study to meet the needs of students and challenge their continuing interests are different in many respects from basic problems of half a century ago.

Equality of Opportunity

It is fully recognized, however, that equality of opportunity is far from being realized in rural as well as urban centers, in poorer states as well as in the more prosperous, for Negroes as well as for white people. Around this problem a profound debate has been in progress not only in many of the states but also at the national level. Lines of thought have been sharply drawn be-

[3] Hull, J. Dan. *High School, What's in It for Me?* Washington, D.C.: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1948. Other references that will be valuable on this subject are:

Caswell, H. L. (Ed.) *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

Planning for American Youth: An Educational Program for Youth of Secondary School Age. Washington, D.C.: The National Association of Secondary-school Principals, 1944.

Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life.* New York Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938.

What the High Schools Ought to Teach. Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1940.

[4] Hull, *op. cit.*, pp. 1–2.

tween advocates of the policy of Federal aid generally to elementary and high schools within the several states. Proponents say that it is impossible to approach equality of opportunity without Federal assistance; that the common welfare is sufficient justification for this aid; that it should now be as much a *policy* to give financial assistance to education as it is to assist the states in building good roads and in conducting many other functions of public welfare; that extensive migration of people between states lifts the need for equality above state boundaries; that the taxing power of the Federal government drains off the resources of the states and that this must be returned in some measure to offset this loss of funds.

Opponents of Federal aid, as a general policy for all states, may admit that it may be necessary to create a national equalization fund. It should be used to assist those states only that in spite of their best efforts are unable to provide minimum standards. Just as soon, however, as a state is able to take care of its own educational program, equalization payments should be withdrawn. Other opponents contend that education, with the exception of certain categorical forms quite largely vocational, is the full responsibility of each state. This same position has been taken in some states relative to the use of state funds for assistance to education in local school districts. The author, while serving in the General Assembly of Vermont, listened to arguments by a former college president to the effect that the state had no business "to interfere" with education in the local school districts; that among other prerogatives, each school district had a right to hire its teachers for whatever salary it might be able to pay. This man was a strong advocate of state aid to higher education and was always ready to approve Federal assistance for the State College of Agriculture. Generally speaking, opponents claim that the states are more able to finance education than is the Federal government; relatively, their indebtedness is much smaller; the percentage of per capita state income payments during recent years has been drastically reduced for education, even though the total amounts in dollars have increased; that more efficient organization and administration would result in sound economies and better education at the same time; that Federal

aid inevitably means Federal control; that ultimately the result will be centralization of educational policies in the hands of Washington bureaucrats, regardless of the protective legislative provisions in the act itself. Their position on this point is that whenever the national enactment finally filters down into departments, agencies, offices, divisions, field representatives, and perhaps further subdivisions of administrative authority, much of the original intent of the law will be lost in its application. And finally, they contend that Federal funds tend to build up groups of people with special interests. They set up pressures in one way or another to influence the Federal government, either for the *status quo* or for further extensions of power and funds. Set these centripetal forces in motion in government and the end result is national regimentation.

Opponents of Federal aid further contend that their position is sound, because it has been next to impossible to pass bills in Congress of a general nature rather than those for categorical purposes. The reason lies in the fact that there are always pressure groups ready to work for specific legislation, while it is very difficult to enlist public interest for legislation designed for the common welfare. Even though categorical legislation tends to throw state programs of education out of balance, it has always been relatively easy to obtain it. Specific legislation usually provides aid to states for designated purposes on a matching basis. Poorer states, therefore, in order to secure the benefits of national appropriations have a tendency to neglect basic needs on a broad scale and concentrate their funds to secure Federal money. This practice is proof of Federal interference, even though it may not have been intended.

In summary of the foregoing paragraphs, it may be said that citizens almost unanimously believe that free public education should be provided for all youth through the twelfth grade. This definite victory has been won, although it has taken a long time to win it. There are differences of opinion regarding the implementation of the principle. The role of the Federal government with special reference to appropriations of public funds to privately controlled education is an issue of current debate. Corollary to the concepts of a free society, however, are the convic-

tions that every child has an inalienable right to free education and that it is the duty of society to compel children to attend school; good citizenship and economic well-being demand it; the stability and safety of a democratic society require it; youth must receive this social opportunity so that youth in turn may adequately discharge social obligations. There is inherent also in this American concept the belief that human personality is sacred and fully worthy of the highest possible development for its own sake. Hence, the education of youth is not so much for the purpose of making him an efficient worker, or a greater consumer, or a larger taxpayer, or primarily anything else of greater importance than the kind of human being he has a right to be, in so far as the development of his native abilities is in harmony with the rights of all other human beings.[4a]

Further Extension of Education

The general principle of free public education as the right and need of all youth who can profit by it, generally won in public approval for the first twelve years, is now being advocated for extension through the fourteenth year. In fact, some states have gone even further. The constitution of Indiana declares that all education shall be free, even including college, graduate, and professional training. The constitutional principle has never been fully applied because its provisions have been by-passed by requiring the payment of fees. This practice has been in effect in several states, not only in senior institutions but also in community colleges. Education in California through the fourteenth year is completely free, but by a sort of gentleman's agreement, student fees are paid for student activities. Payment cannot be required legally, but by general understanding and student acceptance, social pressure usually operates effectively. The question arose in recent years regarding payment of these fees by the Veterans Administration for veterans enrolled in California com-

[4a] An excellent treatment on government and education may be found in Hollis P. Allen, *The Federal Government and Education, The Original and Complete Study of Education for the Hoover Commission, Task Force on Public Welfare* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950).

munity colleges. Although they were not required as legal payments, even the Veterans Administration recognized the force of common practice and paid them in addition to certain tuition charges based on cost of instruction and materials.

Present-day students and citizens will take part in the movement for this further extension of free public education. Today California has, as an entire state, legal and financial provision for this kind of education through the fourteenth year. A few other states are approaching the goal. In no state are there sufficient numbers of community colleges to provide equal opportunities for all youth. This is true in California as is set forth in its most recent survey of higher education.[5] One of the main defects of the community colleges in that state is the fact that while they are free, great regions are still inadequately served. In the more populous and prosperous sections, largely in and near the two great metropolitan areas of San Francisco in the north and Los Angeles in the south, distribution of colleges is fairly good. It has been said that California has a collection of community colleges rather than a system. A complete state-wide planned system would result in free public education for all the youth through the fourteenth year, not merely the privilege of those living in the more favored sections.

The philosophy of the community college in California in so far as public institutions are concerned is based on the principle that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling constitute the upward extension of free, public, secondary education. There are two terms used in this statement that deserve special attention. They are "upward extension" and "secondary." Around these terms some of the sharpest debates are in progress in practically every section of the country. It cannot be said that discussions have degenerated into quibbling over words. They deal with semantically fundamental concepts.

Around the meaning of "upward extension," various shades of opinion have become apparent. On the basis of these meanings, actual proposals and programs have been made. Several emerg-

[5] Strayer, George D. *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education.* Sacramento, Calif.: California State Department of Education, 1948.

ing trends are appearing in educational organizations of sharply differentiated character. One point of view was pronounced in 1916 by the late Dr. Alexis F. Lange,[6] of the University of California, who stated that

> the University of California has been trying, since 1892, to reshape itself around two organizing ideas, "one and inseparable." One was, and is, that, for theoretical and practical considerations alike, the university proper should begin in the middle of the inherited four-year college scheme; the second was, and is, that the work of the first two years, as a matter of history and fact, is all of a piece with secondary education, and should, therefore, be relegated as soon and as far as practicable to secondary schools.

The first term, "upward," involves some implications of the term, "secondary," but not all of them, as will be shown. Advocates of "upward extension" are committed to the thesis that the community college should be an integral part of the public-school system. When we come to a discussion of trends in the community colleges with special attention to their organization and administration, further evidence will be given regarding the various directions—upward, outward, downward—of the movement. The Lange concept is shared by other educators.[7] It envisages the community college as the further upward extension of free education in essentially the same manner as characterized the process that culminated at the end of the twelfth year.

In sharp contrast to this understanding, we may take as a good example the basic philosophy advocated for the state of Wisconsin. It is proposed that a university system be created for the purpose of administering and providing for practically all education beyond the high-school level, other than the strictly vocational and certain forms of teacher training. In this system, among several other considerations would be the educational programs in two-year institutions located within commuting distance of the

[6] Lange, A. F. "The Junior College with Special Reference to California," *Administration and Supervision,* Jan., 1916, reprint. (See Appendix, p. 343–344.)

[7] Sexson, John A., and Harbeson, John W. *The New American College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

vast majority of the young people of the state. The exact proposals follow:

> The Commission believes that the basic liberal-arts training and certain preprofessional training should be available within commuting distance of the majority of the young people of the state.
>
> We are of the opinion that this function should be carried on by existing units of the proposed integrated system and by such university extension centers as can be justified in terms of enrollment and costs. The distribution of these units should be a matter of further study by the board of the integrated system.
>
> We believe that all post-high-school training, except vocational training and that now carried on in the county normal schools, should be confined to institutions under the control of a unified board in order to provide substantially similar high quality of training. It is felt that the programs of junior colleges operated by individual communities would vary too widely in content and quality to be effective.

It is further proposed that, for the present at least, educational plants should be provided by the local communities, but that the state should pay the costs of maintenance and operation of the facilities. "It is felt," so states the report,[8] "that dividing the responsibility for the program by requesting the locality to make special and specific outlay to maintain the physical plant, and the university to maintain the educational program, may create unwarranted diffusion of control."

Surely, between the Lange and the Wisconsin concepts of the community college there is almost as wide a difference as is represented between the directions of perpendicular and horizontal lines. Respectively, one is definitely upward extension of the public secondary school and the other is outward extension of the lower division of the university. The content of the Wisconsin program, methods of control and supervision, and the limitations of the total system constitute in theory and in fact *university extension* per se. The program involves the almost exact duplication of university liberal-arts and preprofessional studies in the extension centers, with complete control of departmental super-

[8] Toepel, M. G., Executive Secretary. *Report of the Commission on Improvement of the Educational System.* Madison, Wis.: State Capitol, 1948. Part I.

vision resting with the resident department heads of the University of Wisconsin. If and when the state university system is finally consummated, coordination of all general and professional education will be achieved by *subject-matter fields,* either through committees or coordinators. The result will be a completely integrated system of general and professional education in all higher institutions of learning with the exception of the county normal and post-high vocational schools.

Further discussion of intermediate types of organization representing various points of view will be given, as before stated, in a later chapter. The striking examples are sufficient to illustrate two fundamental differences in the philosophies of community colleges.

The other term used in the California program of community-college education is "secondary." Many people believe that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of education may be as free as high school, under the same type of public support and supervision and yet not be secondary. They contend that it can be free, public, and *higher* education. Generally throughout the Southern, Eastern, and New England states community colleges are classified as higher; in the North Central region and the Northwest interpretations are not so uniform; in California, under the law of the state, classification is secondary, although the content, method of instruction, and educational facilities employed for students who expect to transfer to upper division work is definitely entitled "university parallel."[9] The question may be asked: Is university-parallel education secondary or higher? The problem may not be settled at all, and sharp differences of opinion may continue. If all senior colleges and the universities would classify freshman and sophomore studies as secondary and refuse to admit students until they had completed the fourteenth year, perhaps the solution would be accelerated but even then it would not be universally accepted. The community college is recognized by the U.S. Office of Education as belonging to higher education. It was so treated by the President's Commission on Higher Education. The American Council, the Depart-

[9] *California's Public Junior Colleges.* Sacramento, Calif.: California State Department of Education, 1947.

ment of Higher Education of the National Education Association, and the American Association of University Professors recognize these institutions or their teachers as being in the field of higher education.

A proposal was made in California in 1908 for the reorganization of education. The general scheme has become known as the 6-4-4 plan. It provides for six years of elementary education, four years of high school, and four years of junior-college instruction. The junior college begins with the eleventh year and extends through the fourteenth, with the work of the four grades organized and integrated as a single unit of education. When we come to a consideration of the organization and administration of the junior college, this subject will be treated more fully. It appears to this author, based on personal observations and readings, that the real attempt here is to extend *downward* into the traditional high-school years methods of instruction, and to some degree the content, of traditional college and university work. Some 6-4-4 colleges clearly recognize secondary classification, as in the case of Pasadena City College, even though the above-noted tendency may be very strong. Efforts are being made to abolish largely imaginary lines of demarcation, especially between the twelfth and the thirteenth years. It is expected that greater fluidity and a more continuous educational process will be accomplished without the sharp break at the end of the traditional twelfth year. The philosophy of the advocates is that the fourteenth year is the natural capstone of free secondary education; that it is the natural, logical, and psychological arrangement; that it is the most economical; that it is *necessary* to extend opportunities through the fourteenth year to all who can profit by them and to do so as a public policy. Regardless of the pros and cons of the 6-4-4 plan, and there are many of them that will be treated under organization and administration, it can be said that advocates are amongst the strongest supporters for the extension of free public education. To them it is necessary for continuity and completeness in secondary education.[10]

[10] Sexson and Harbeson, *op. cit.*

Koos, Leonard V. *Integrating High School and College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

Attitudes of Educators

The author, during nearly twenty years of close association with the junior- or community-college movement, and more recently from firsthand contacts made in practically every state, has found very little difference between the attitudes of people engaged in independent colleges and those in public institutions as to the necessity for extending free public education through the fourteenth year. Naturally, it is to be expected that people who are committed to professional careers in independent or church-related junior colleges will be convinced that they have certain freedoms and advantages that cannot be had in public institutions.

Nevertheless, one would have to seek for a long time to find a person in privately controlled education so narrow as to believe that private colleges, or any other type of privately controlled education, could by the widest stretch of thought meet the needs of all the people. The fact is that the author has found just as strong advocates of the philosophy of free public education through the fourteenth year among persons in private education as among those in public education or among citizens generally. Moreover, he has listened to many people in public education argue for privately controlled education. They have stated that this nation is not only committed to this policy, but also that public education makes more rapid advances in states where there are strongly supported private institutions. The author heard one of the leading men in public community colleges in California expound the theory that the University of California was a better institution because of the influence of Leland Stanford University, California Institute of Technology, and many others that enroll annually nearly fifty thousand students in that state.

Present-day thinking points, therefore, in the direction of free public education through the fourteenth year. There are sharp differences of opinion as to the best ways to carry out the program. The great majority believe that it should be done by extending upward the free public educational system; others, that it

should be done by a lateral extension of the university system; still others believe that it should be done by a combination of both. In all schemes, independent colleges will play an important role. There are wide differences of thought regarding the classification of the community college; some believe that it is secondary, and others, that it is higher in content and method. All citizens, however, who are intelligently informed as to the needs and functions of community colleges are inclined to the opinion that they are destined to have an increasingly important place in American education.

Guaranteed Freedoms

Enlightened public opinion regarding the further extension of education justifies itself by reason of the present complexity of society. In a totalitarian society, individuals may be put in their respective places by fiat. In a democracy, men must find their places by functional methods, by education, counseling, and guidance. Freedoms guaranteed to individuals in the Constitution and the Bill of Rights cannot be conferred on anyone. They are goals that must be achieved by individual effort with the full cooperation of society. The Bill of Rights creates a large circle for individual action and thought that is beyond the range of any government. In this sphere, the individual exercises his own judgment and assumes full responsibility for the results. There can be little reality to this freedom unless the individual is capable of thinking, speaking, and acting under self-control and self-guidance. As long as society was relatively simple in structure, individuals might think and act with little damage to their fellow men. Today, however, populations have become concentrated in great cities; a man's voice is heard around the world; much of what he does and says is almost immediately projected into the circles of other men's freedoms. A man may have the right, for instance, to throw his garbage out the backdoor, if he lives in some isolated spot. If he lives in a city, regulations become necessary, and legal arrangements are made for garbage disposal. Violators are punished. In a complex society, man's essen-

tial freedoms may remain inviolate only as he is capable of exercising them with intelligence.

Each generation arrives on the scene of life as raw and untutored as generations in preceding ages. In a sense, every child starts from "scratch." The author attended a celebration in honor of a teacher who had taught in the first grade of the same village school for fifty years. When she was asked what had impressed her most during all these years in which she had taught the children and grandchildren of former pupils, she said, "Each incoming class has been just about as unlearned as the one before it." Civilization, however, has accumulated wisdom from experience and thoughtful reflection, recorded it in the printed page, the expressive arts, and scientific equipment. The means of education with improved methods and skills have been developed, so that each succeeding generation may advance more rapidly and securely than the one before. A free and enlightened society removes artificial barriers in the path of its youth. Thus, it tends to ensure an equitable opportunity for each human being to advance as far and rapidly as his native abilities and efforts will carry him. The greatest possible circle of free education is a foundation on which a man may build his life to secure guaranteed freedoms in the Bill of Rights.

The Man and the Machine

When we come to a discussion of the *functions* of the community college, attention will be given to the relation of education to modern and future technology. Philosophies of the movement point more directly at human elements in present-day society. Man has always been more than dust. He is now more than an intelligent adjunct to a machine. Even the machine and the man who is skilled in operating it are inadequate for sustained production, unless the humanity of man is clearly understood and ample provision made to preserve it. Too often man has been considered as another cog in the machine for production, processing, and distribution. He has been treated with machinelike precision, used up in the process, cast aside to shift for himself or depend on the charity of society. That day is

rapidly passing. Eloquent witness to this fact is the shorter working day, the shorter week, vacations with pay, sick leave, higher wages, unemployment insurance, security of position and tenure of office, pensions and retirement benefits under social security laws and by voluntary agreements, as well as old-age and survivor's benefits. Now we are in the process of extending such benefits to other millions of citizens and workers. The humanity of the person in the machine age has by no means come to its full realization, but it is on its way.

Vast numbers of jobs in business and industry provide little or no personal satisfaction comparable to that achieved by men who were free to initiate and carry through processes of production from start to finish. The fact that the worker brought to completion something of usefulness and often with a touch of beauty satisfied his innate capacity for creativity. There was a degree of aesthetic satisfaction in his work. Assembly-line methods of production often chain men to treadmill processes. Education should be offered, therefore, for the proper use of leisure time. The machine must become man's avocation. His real vocation must be found in living a richer and fuller life. This objective is financially possible, if the fruits of production so enormously increased by the application of power to machines are equitably and fairly shared by all who produce these fruits.

The above-stated goals are impossible, however, unless the *wants* of men are increased and improved. Sustained employment with more earnings and ever-extending hours of leisure can be beneficial to society only as opportunities are utilized for the improvement of the employed and their associates. These developments have presently reached a critical stage and bid fair to make further gains so that increased education for essentially human interests is imperative. On this ground, the community college takes a firm stand. It insists that in the interest of a better society further education must be made more democratic, more popular among the masses of the people and more accessible to them.

In the final analysis, just what is the catalytic element in this discussion? Is it not the conviction that free men gain and retain their freedom by intelligence and that without it there can

be no guarantee of its survival? Is it not the belief that individual and social prosperity in a democracy requires personal and social competency, *sine qua non!* To give a larger measure of assurance for freedom and prosperity, there must be an ever-increasing diffusion of knowledge and understanding. The extent of learning should be gauged by the *capacities* of all persons; it should be a lifelong process; it should be one of the major provisions of cooperative enterprise through governments, as well as by privately controlled interests. In exactly the same manner and for the same basic reasons that have brought universal elementary and high-school opportunities to the masses, so the community-college movement, per se, stems directly from the further application of this principle.

Chapter 2. EXPANDING ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Essentially there are two types of two-year colleges, the independent and the community. Independent colleges usually draw their students from regional and even national areas. They are supported largely by constituencies. Of the 322 privately controlled two-year colleges in the United States in 1949, 180 were affiliated to a greater or lesser degree with religious bodies, 108 were operated on a nonprofit basis with independent boards of trustees, and 34 were classified as proprietary. By and large, these institutions cannot be considered as community colleges. This chapter, however, will present the case of some two-year colleges, operated under the private-enterprise system, that are performing practically all of the functions of community institutions. While the community college is usually supported at public expense, it is not necessarily operating *exclusively* in the community area. It frequently draws students from distances far beyond commuting range, even from out of the state.

What, then, is a community college and what did the President's Commission on Higher Education have in mind when the term was used? The first qualification is *service* primarily to the people of the community. The community institution goes to the people who live and work where it is located, makes a careful study of the needs of these people for education not being offered by any other institution of learning, analyzes these needs, and builds its educational program in response to the analyses. All too frequently people who are unfamiliar with the process are inclined to think of job analysis only, to the neglect of family life, civic, and cultural community interests. It is true that technical-terminal or other vocational curricula for the training of competent semiprofessional personnel for industry, agriculture, busi-

ness, and the professions center their interest largely in the analysis of jobs to be performed. Even here, however, junior or community colleges are increasingly aware that skill training is wholly inadequate to meet the needs of job performance. Vocational training of college grade should not be understood as mere vocationalism. The man is more important than his job. Consequently, his development as a whole person, including the development of his moral and cultural native abilities, which are common to all persons, is indispensable.

At this point, the American Association of Junior Colleges has taken a strong stand. The national organization has, since its founding in 1920, been engaged in stimulating the professional development of its members and promoting the growth of the junior-college movement. The stand of the Association is to the effect that no institution will be recognized as a junior or community college unless it provides a generous general educational program for all students. The amount should be just as great as possible. For this reason there are strong tendencies to discourage overemphasis on manipulative skills that can be learned better on the job. If there is enough skill developed in the college program for job entrance, the remainder of the time available can be spent to greater advantage in general and related education.

The community college, therefore, attempts to meet the needs of the people in the broadest cultural aspects as well as the vocational. And the two are basically one. General-education and vocational training make the soundest and most stable progress toward personal competence when they are thoroughly integrated. When we consider the *expanding* role of the community college, emphasis on general education for all students regardless of their ultimate vocational objectives should be kept in mind. What do persons living in the communities of this nation really need so that family relationships may be happy and conducive to the finest development of both children and adults? What do people need to make them effective citizens in their communities, dealing not only with local problems but also with state, national, and international questions that inevitably bear heavily

on local conditions? These needs, too, and many others of similar character enter the picture whenever the community college attacks its community program of education.[1]

Community Control

A second characteristic of the truly community college may be found in the manner of its *control.* Some two-year colleges are controlled by boards of trustees appointed by the governor of the state; others are under the supervision of city, county, or other local public-school trustees; still others are elected by the people who live in the community-college district, created by legal action of the citizens themselves. Most of the private institutions are under boards of trustees elected with little or no regard to geographical locations. Again, and this is largely applicable to a few states only, the community-college functions are being attempted by extension centers from state colleges or universities. Control in these instances is vested largely in the boards of regents or trustees of the universities. Many other examples of divergencies could be given, for there are wide variations in respect to institutional control. The President's Commission on Higher Education appears to be rather strongly committed to the plan of local community control of the community college.[2] The objection has been advanced that local control means local interference which keeps the administrator on the move with his political oil can. This objection may be well founded, but the process is a part of the American system of doing things. In the long run, it has been found to be the most effective practice. The objectors, on the other hand, are surely not unaware of political oil cans in the hands of state governors or university presidents! The form of control should be determined by the citizens of the com-

[1] Kelly, Fred J., *et al. Vocational Education of College Grade.* Washington, D.C.: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, *Bulletin* 18, 1946. This publication contains excellent examples of community-college curricula in various states.

[2] *A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947. Vol. III, pp. 5–14.

munity. If they prefer state or university control to that by persons selected in popular elections, that is their right. The decision, however, should be made by the citizens of the community. Under any circumstances, there should be advisory committees composed of local citizens. They should represent the business, industrial, agricultural, and professional interests from both labor and management circles and also persons interested primarily in the wider civic and cultural aspects of community life.

A good example of the above-stated principle of community relations may be found in the methods used by Pennsylvania State College in the establishment of undergraduate centers. David B. Pugh, in charge of the Division of Instruction, Central Extension Office of the college, presents the case as follows: [3]

The Pennsylvania State College is now operating seven large centers of the community-college type. In establishing these centers and operating them the college has kept constantly in mind the importance of maintaining close cooperative relationships with the communities served. These may be illustrated by discussing briefly a number of points connected with the establishment, staffing, and operation of the centers and in describing the nature of the services which they offer.

The Pennsylvania State College has never established a center until after a thorough survey of the community has been completed and the results carefully studied. A survey may be undertaken in any community of the state, if it is requested by a representative group of citizens of the community. This group must include delegates from such organizations as the administrative staff of the public-school system including the superintendent, the local board of education, the Rotary Club, Kiwanis, Lions, professional organizations such as American Association of University Women, engineering societies, medical associations, and organizations concerned with the community life and education of young people including the parent teachers association, American Legion, Veterans of Foreign Wars, etc.

When a college agrees to undertake a survey, three major steps are considered and studied separately.

First, is there the need and desire on the part of the high-school graduates of the community for the services of a center such as would be established by the college? This need is determined by use of a

[3] Pugh, David B. *Community Reception of College Centers.*

questionnaire given to the students themselves with an opportunity for study and signing by both students and parents. Time is taken here to discuss the program of the centers and their possibilities with groups of such young people and their teachers and with any organization in the community desiring the opportunity of discussing the subject with a representative of the college.

Second, if there appears to be sufficient need on the part of those to be served, the next subject to be considered is the availability of facilities which would be considered adequate by the college.

Third, since the Pennsylvania State College is a state institution, it has always worked very carefully to avoid duplicating services which would be available through existing institutions in the area. The presence of another institution of college rank does not in itself constitute duplication since a careful study must be made of the services offered by other colleges in the community and the extent to which these services would be available to the group under consideration in the survey.

The results of the survey with the recommendation of those making it are then presented to the president of the college for study and action before a decision is reached to establish a center.

The Advisory Committee—In every center operated by the college, the services of an advisory committee made up of representative men and women of the community have been utilized. The advisory committee is organized by the community and such organization, as may well be understood, involves considerable time and a number of changes in personnel before it takes final shape. This advisory committee has its beginnings in the group which asks for the original survey and works with the college in planning and undertaking the survey itself. The committee also continues to work with the college in establishing and operating the center. This group, representative of the professional, civic, and educational interests of the community, enables the college to keep under way a constant study of community needs and of desirable adjustments in the center program, and its relationship to the committee in accordance with needs as they come to light.

Financial Support

A third consideration is *financial* support. In this respect, variations are as wide as they are in matters of control. Some are supported by direct state appropriations; others receive rather

generous assistance based on average daily attendance and local taxes for current funds; still others receive no state support of any kind but depend wholly on income from local tax sources and student tuitions. A satisfactory plan provides for state aid, equalization funds for the poorer communities, and local tax revenues. Few states now provide community-college education free. California has made a notable achievement in spite of very great opposition. Apparently the principle of free public education through the fourteenth year, as explained in Chap. 1, has now been firmly established as a public policy. The community college has expanded in that commonwealth far more rapidly than in any other. It has the largest number of institutions, largest number of students, largest average attendance, largest single institution, and the highest rate of expansion in student enrollments. It should be clear, therefore, that if the community colleges are to have a properly *expanding* role in American education, adequate financial support is highly important. If all states now had the same ratio of students to their total populations as California has, there would be more than 1,000 community colleges with an enrollment of students in excess of two million instead of a half million. Why is it, then, that all states cannot do what California is actually doing?

In answer to the above question it is usually stated that California has more money than other states. It is well known, however, that this statement does not reflect the facts. There are other states with as large, some larger, or others with almost equal per capita incomes. Nevada, with the highest average income, has no community colleges, and New York has only a few compared to California. It is expected, however, that one of the next great expansions in colleges will be in New York. Moreover, the state with one of the lowest average incomes has the most complete state-wide planned and executed system of community colleges. That state is Mississippi. The system applies presently almost exclusively to the white population. Appropriations and efforts are being made to provide opportunities for Negroes in community colleges. A later chapter will contain rather exten-

sive data about the Mississippi system, what it is, how it came to be, and how it works.

There are no valid grounds for the contention that state resources are the main determining factors in the expansion of the community colleges. Their importance, however, is fully recognized. State-wide planning with cooperation between the state and the local communities; aggressive educational leadership; full recognition of the responsibility of the state to offer as nearly equal opportunities as possible to all citizens also determine the expanding role of the community colleges.

In all state plans, proper consideration should be given to privately controlled institutions. They must be sound financially and educationally, able and willing to attempt community functions. If some of these institutions cannot provide programs to meet community needs, they should encourage the establishment of publicly supported community colleges. This type of cooperative effort is being made by some privately controlled colleges. In Danville, Virginia, there are two well-established junior colleges for women. In recent years, the presidents of these two institutions have taken an active part in the establishment of a publicly supported junior college. It was established in 1946, as an extension division of Virginia Polytechnic Institute. It is generally believed that the division should become an integral part of public education in the city of Danville. To this end, the cooperation and encouragement of the two privately controlled junior colleges represents an enlightened point of view and attitude that might be emulated in other circles.

In Bradford, Massachusetts, Bradford Junior College is operated on a national basis with an outstanding program of liberal education for young women. Recently, the president said to the author, "We need a good public community college in Bradford. Our program is not designed to meet many of the needs of the young people and adults who live and work in the Bradford community. While we provide certain cultural advantages to the community by means of lecture and recital programs, we realize that a public community college is greatly needed. We shall do all we can to encourage the state of Massachusetts and the citi-

zens of the community to establish it." Bradford has program primarily for resident students drawn from large area or nationa constituencies. Independent and community colleges can oper ate to mutual advantage in the expansion of both types of insti tutions. If one of the roles of the community college is to in crease higher education's popularity by making it more readily accessible, all institutions both public and private, junior and senior, will share in the ultimate results. At least, all of them will have the satisfaction arising from the extension of education to greater numbers of people.

The Spread of Educational Opportunities

One of the expanding roles of the community college is the wider spread given to higher education. Figure 1 gives a graphic picture of the expansion of these institutions during the twentieth century, and Fig. 2 represents the enrollment expansions. The bold statement made by the President's Commission on Higher Education on what should be done to expand opportunities appears, nevertheless, to be deplored in some quarters.[4] One reason seems to be the fear that to spread opportunities will result in "thin" education. The fallacy rests on the assumption that there are only so many pounds of educational butter; and the butter is all of the same brand! You can spread them thick or

[4] Various points of view are presented in the following references:

Bogue, Jesse P. "The Community College." *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 1948, 34(2).

Conant, James Bryant. *Education in a Divided World.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. P. 208.

Davis, A. R. Address on "The Place of the Community College in a State Educational System." Washington, D.C.: Sixty-second Annual Convention of the Association of Land-grant Colleges and Universities, Nov. 10, 1948. Mimeo.

Farrell, Allan P., S.J. (Ed.) *Whither American Education.* New York: The America Press, 1498.

Gannon, R. I. As reported in *The New York Times,* Feb. 10, 1948.

Havighurst, R. J. "Social Implications of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education." *School and Society,* Apr. 3, 1948, 67:257–261.

Hollingshead, Byron. "The Report of the President's Commission on

thin. The same argument could be applied to all education. And it has been. The long fight for universal free education in elementary and high schools had to buck against this same argument. Is it assumed that higher education, as was expressed by a French educator at the conference at Utrecht in the summer of 1948, is "by the elite and for the elite"? Depth of education can be maintained with better results by spreading opportunities to ever-increasing numbers of people. There are many different kinds of educational programs. Some are intensive and deep. For these programs community colleges can discover persons with excellent ability and screen them into upper division studies of the universities.

Even so, each educational institution is still free to declare its purposes and build its program in response to them. It can limit its enrollment, decide what kind of students it will accept, the terms and conditions on which it will retain them. Some state institutions take issue with this position. They claim that it is almost necessary, because of public pressure, to accept practically all high-school graduates who seek admission. There is no

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Higher Education," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 1948, 34(2).

Hook, S. *Education for Modern Man.* New York: Dial Press, Inc., 1946. P. 66.

Jones, L. W. Address on "The Challenge of the President's Commission." Washington, D.C.: Sixty-second Annual Convention of the Association of Land-grant Colleges and Universities, Nov. 9, 1948. Mimeo.

Journal of Educational Sociology, April, 1949. (Symposium.)

Journal of Higher Education, April, 1948. (Symposium.)

McConnell, T. R. *Report of Preparatory Conference of Representatives of Universities.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1948. Pp. 145–146.

McGuire, M. R. P. Address on "The New Community College: Implications for Catholic Education." Mimeo.

Seymour, C. As reported in *The New York Times*, Mar. 14, 1948.

Taylor, H. "On the Report of the President's Commission: The Future of American Education." *American Scholar*, 1948–1949, 18(1):39–40. As reported in *Time*, Sept. 23, 1946, p. 53.

Turck, C. J. "The Immediate Goals of Higher Education in America." *College and Church*, 1948, 13(1):13–16.

Wriston, H. M. Address on "Implications of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education." Brown University. Typed copy.

reason, however, for an institution that decides on a limited e rollment with a program for academically well-qualified studer to raise objections against the expansion of other kinds of high education for other kinds of students. Moreover, it is poor log in a democracy to imply that students in one kind of education

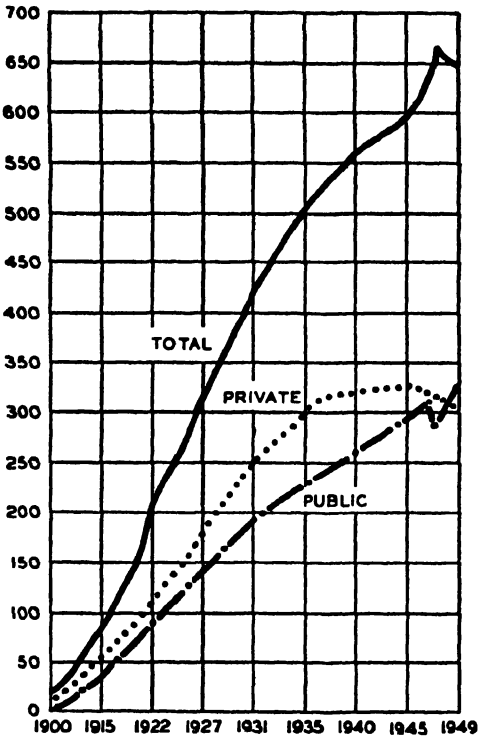


FIG. 1. Institutional growth.

program, arts and sciences, for instance, are better than student in other programs. People are different, but in a democracy, i they are developing their native abilities to reasonable limits who has been commissioned to say that one is better or highe than the other? An educational program is good, not in itself but in relation to the people who can profit by it.

Ability to reason clearly is recognized as an excellent intel lectual trait. Ability to apply principles to mechanical or socia or aesthetic performance is equally good. They are different, bu

one is not better than the other. Moreover, honors in a democratic educational system should be conferred on the basis of how well a person is using his talents rather than on how many or

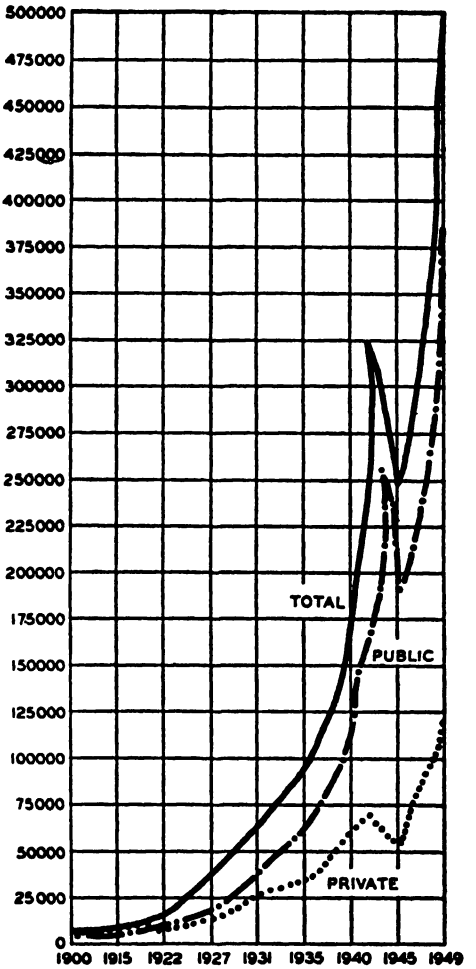


FIG. 2. Growth of student enrollments in junior colleges.

what kind of talents he possesses. Effort and the degree of improvement made by students should be considered in granting honors, not the attainment of certain grade points on our traditional scholastic measuring stick.

Expanding Role in Educational Programs

Originally the community college was thought of primarily as an institution to "save" socially immature students who might flounder in senior institutions. It was a bridge from high school to college. The very name used to designate the transfer curricula indicated this role. They were college "preparatory." These curricula are now called "university parallel." One function of the community college is the expansion of educational opportunities in university-parallel curricula to well-qualified students who cannot afford or who prefer not to attend college away from home for four or more years. These students have made records in senior institutions that, on the average, are commendable. On the whole, they have done as well and sometimes better during their junior and senior years as have students who have taken all four years in senior colleges.

Proposals have been made practically to eliminate university-parallel functions of the community colleges. President Conant in his recent publication states: [5]

> Those institutions which are now coming to be called "community colleges" offer the best hope of meeting the postwar surge for vast expansion of education beyond the high school. They likewise can serve most effectively as centers for adult education. Their curricula should combine general education and vocational training, and they should be defined as terminal two-year colleges. By and large, the educational road should fork at the end of the high school, though an occasional transfer of a student from a two-year college to a university should not be barred.

Practical experience in dealing with "all sorts and conditions" of students and surveys at state levels and in local communities show that it is unrealistic to eliminate university-parallel curricula.

The American Association of Junior Colleges has, however, for more than a quarter of a century been strongly advocating the development of so-called "terminal" programs. The name is inadequate and thoroughly disliked. No educational program

[5] Conant, James Bryant. *Education in a Divided World.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. P. 200.

should terminate, but should, instead, open more and broader paths for advancement and learning. Colleges and universities could help greatly in the solution of the problem of two-year programs, if they would change their attitudes and requirements. Students rebel against the thought that they are entering blind alleys. Patterns of education are of less importance than student ability and habits of study. If greater fluidity should be provided, therefore, for student advancement based largely on ability and habits, one of the chief barriers to the development of terminal two-year programs would be removed. While the terminal program is one of the chief functions of community colleges, it is not its sole function. Perhaps more research has been carried on by the Association regarding terminal programs than in any other field.[6] The expanding role of the community college can be seen clearly in the types of semiprofessional curricula in many of these colleges. There are more than a hundred of them.[7] In some colleges with large enrollments, there are many of them; in the smaller institutions, they are much more restricted.

Recent research in New York State regarding the need for a state university came up with strong recommendations for a state system of community colleges.[8] They were embodied into law

[6] Eells, Walter Crosby, *et al. Why Junior College Terminal Education?* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Eells, Walter Crosby, *et al. Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Eells, Walter Crosby, and Engleman, Lois E. *The Literature of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Ward, Phebe. *Terminal Education in the Junior College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

[7] Bogue, Jesse P. (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges,* 2d ed. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

[8] *Preliminary Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University.* New York State *Legislative Document* 33, 1947.

The following documents may be obtained from the Bureau of Publications, State Education Department, Albany 1, N.Y.:

Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University. Legislative Document 30, 1948.

Reeves, Floyd W., Henderson, Algo D., and Cowen, Philip A. *Matching*

July 1, 1948. On February 1, 1949, Governor Thomas E. Dewey recommended to the legislature of New York the appropriation of 2 million dollars to initiate the community-college movement. The functions of these community colleges are to be largely in line with programs dictated by practical necessity in community colleges across the country. Section 6303 of the New York State Act regarding curricula of community colleges is as follows:

Community colleges shall provide two-year programs of post-high-school nature combining general education with technical education relating to the occupational needs of the community or area in which the college is located and those of the state and nation generally. Special courses and extension work may be provided for part-time students.

Training for certain occupational skills may be limited to selected community colleges by the state university trustees in order to avoid unnecessary duplication or overlapping of facilities and programs.

The curricula in community colleges shall be designed to serve the needs of students who seek two years of post-secondary education and whose needs would not ordinarily be met by the usual four-year curriculum. However, such colleges shall nevertheless provide sufficient general education to enable qualified students who so desire to transfer after completion of the community-college program to institutions providing regular four-year courses.

Here we have a clear statement written into the law of a great state that the community college shall combine general and vocational education; provide for terminal students largely on the basis of community needs; make provision for special and adult students; educate those who desire to transfer to four-year col-

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Needs and Facilities in Higher Education. Legislative Document 31, 1948.

Perrott, George St. J., *et al. Education for the Health Services. Legislative Document* 32, 1948.

Berkowitz, David S. *Inequality of Opportunity in Higher Education: A Study of Minority Group and Related Barriers to College Admission. Legislative Document* 33, 1948. Supplementary studies by E. Franklin Frazier and Robert D. Leigh.

Studenski, Paul, assisted by Baikie, Edith T. *Costs and Financing of Higher Education. Legislative Document* 34, 1948.

leges. Originally, there were persons in New York State who believed that the technical institute programs, with little or no provision for transfer credit, would meet the needs of the state. Final results of extensive research, however, indicated the necessity for a much broader program. No more realistic example can be found for the needs of the community college on a statewide basis than that furnished by the New York State studies.

Special and Adult Students

There has been a striking development during the past twelve to fifteen years in the enrollment of special and adult students. In 1938 there were slightly more than 20,000 of these students, or about 15 per cent of the total. During the war years, beginning in 1942, there was a very rapid increase, so that by 1944 the enrollment of these students reached nearly 60 per cent of the total, or over 193,000. As the war came to a close, the numbers gradually decreased; but in 1947 they began to climb sharply upward, although the per cent of enrollment to the total decreased in 1948 to 36 per cent. Out of the 500,536 students reported in the 1949 *Directory,* nearly 185,000 are specials or adults.[9] The Association for the first time gathered statistics for this *Directory* on the numbers and percentages of students both in special and adult categories. Nearly 55,000, or 10 per cent, were in special studies and over 130,000 were adults, or 26 per cent of the total enrollment of the junior colleges for the academic year 1947–1948. In this respect, the state of California is far ahead of other states. In some colleges in that commonwealth, special and adult students outnumber by several times regular full-time students. One college reports more than 15,000 such students. In some communities it is claimed that one-half of the population is enrolled for one or more courses of study in the local colleges. If, then, we wish to put our finger on a very definitely expanding role of the community college, special- and adult-education programs provide one area.

[9] Bogue, Jesse P., and Sanders, Shirley. *The Junior College Directory.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1949.

TABLE 1. ENROLLMENTS BY CLASSES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

Class	Number	Per cent	
		1947 1948	1946–1947
Freshman . . .	196,510	39.2	46.3
Sophomore . .	119,080	23.8	14.8
Special	54,616	10.9	38.9
Adult	130,330	26.1	
Total	500,536	100.0	100.0

SOME EXAMPLES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

While programs for community colleges are still in an experimental stage in many sections of the country, they are no longer in the realm of theory. At Union Junior College, Cranford, New Jersey, a new development is under way on a beautiful campus of 56 acres formerly used by a golf club. The expanding program of community services, however, is of greater interest than the grounds and projected buildings. A recent statement of Kenneth C. MacKay, president of the college, is of interest:

> The trend in higher education is to integrate to the fullest possible degree the activities of the college with those of the community. The school is no longer an entity in itself, splendid in ivory-tower isolation. Today, a two-year preuniversity education is only one part of the function of the junior college. The other is literally to give every man, woman, and child living in a radius of 50 miles a chance to improve his education and broaden his satisfaction with life by using college facilities to the best of his ability and to the best of ours.

MacKay's statement was made on the occasion of one of the community nights at which time a motion picture on soil conservation was shown to students, citizens, farmers, and landowners. A glee club of regular students and members of the community provided the musical program. Concerts, lectures, dramatic productions, arts and crafts, and programs designed to pro-

mote interfaith and interdenominational understanding and cooperation for the elimination of racial and religious prejudice and discrimination are on the agenda. Only limitations of present space prevent the college from developing these programs to their fullest extent.

Union is an example of an independent college operating as a community institution. It has been able to carry out its program since 1936 without aid from public funds. "While the college will not refuse a gift," states MacKay, "it will avoid political control by financial grants." The idea that political control follows financial grants may not be universally shared, but it represents a point of view held by a large number of people. Increasing numbers of independent institutions are becoming aware of their community obligations and opportunities.

Del Mar College [10]

Del Mar College was established for the general purpose of furnishing educational advantages to the youths and adults of Corpus Christi, Texas. It is a community college. Its program is organized to furnish opportunities for all citizens of the city to further develop those intellectual and spiritual qualities essential to good citizenship, and to furnish training for profitable and independent economic activity. Specifically, the functions of the college are: first, to prepare young people to enter and pursue successfully the third year of studies in standard senior colleges and universities; second, to train the terminal student for immediate employment and home making; third, to offer the adults of the community opportunities for more general education or job training; and fourth, to serve the city of Corpus Christi through specially sponsored organizations such as the Fine Arts Colony.

The organization chart of Del Mar shows that at least twelve divisions of instruction have been created for the expanding role of this Southern community college. A full-time dean is in charge of the day college and is responsible for the following divisions: academic, music, art, forum, and business. The music division has charge also of the community symphony orchestra and the community chorus.

[10] Acknowledgment of information to E. L. Harvin, president, and Everett L. Williams, director of Adult and Vocational Education, Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Tex. See catalogue and other publications of this college.

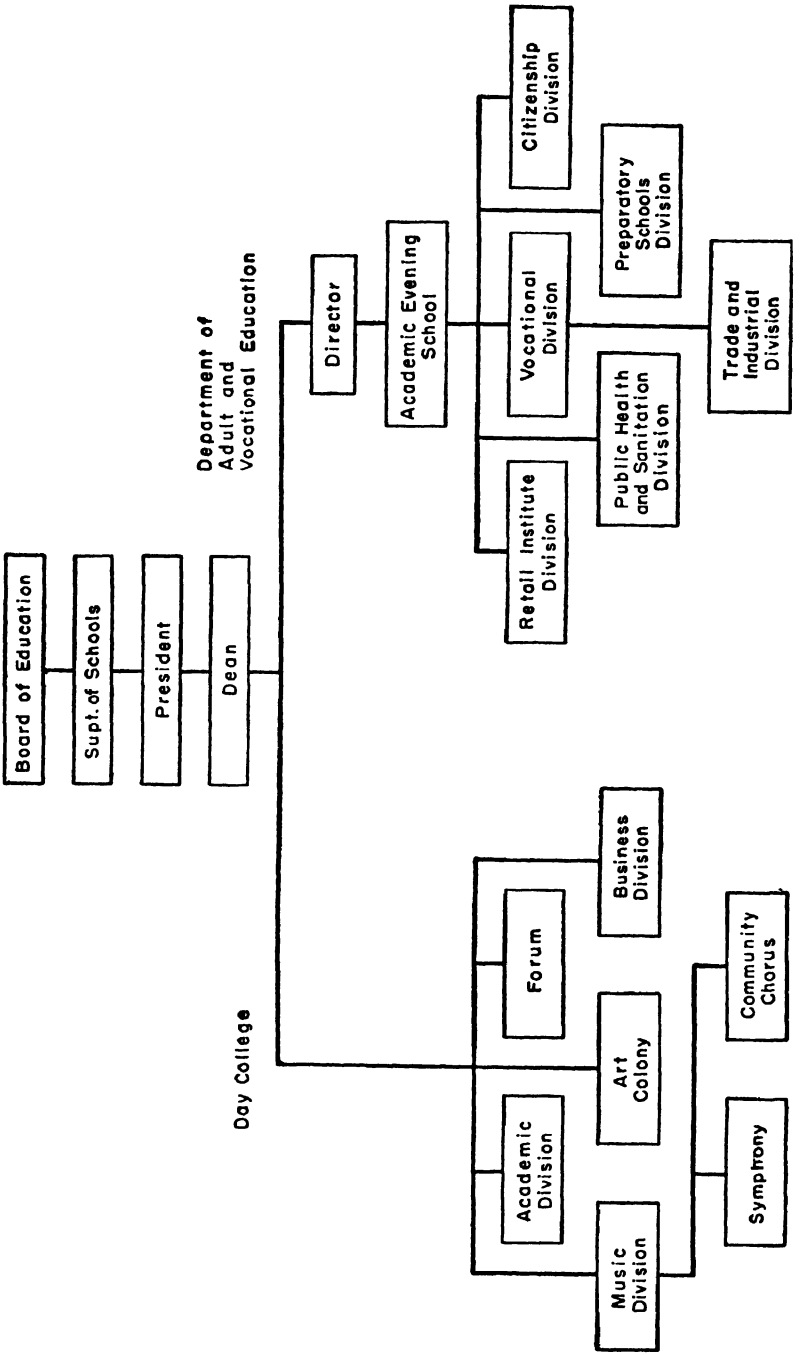


FIG. 3. Organization chart of Del Mar College.

The art division works with the Fine Arts Colony. A full-time director is in charge of the department of adult and vocational education. Under this department there are seven divisions: academic evening school, retail institute, public health and sanitation, vocational, trade and industrial, citizenship, and the preparatory schools.

With the exception of the 1936–1937 and the 1942–1943 sessions, the college has experienced a steady growth since it opened its doors in September, 1935. The first student body numbered 154 individuals. From this small enrollment the number of students has grown to 4,475 for the session of 1947–1948. The greater number of students are enrolled in adult evening classes and in short-term courses.

The phenomenal growth of the college is the result of several factors. The city of Corpus Christi has experienced a rapid growth. When the college was established in 1935, the population of the city was approximately 35,000 while today it is estimated at 130,000. Along with the increase in population, there has been a rapid expansion in the industrial life of the city. Many large industries have been located in the seaport city of Corpus Christi during the fourteen years that the college has been in existence. This has resulted in a demand for numerous classes for the employees of industry. Another factor is the realization of the administrators and faculty that the over-all function of the college is to serve the community in all educational fields pertaining to post-high-school academic levels, adult educational needs, and in-service training for industry.

The college naturally offers the regular university-parallel studies in both the day and the evening divisions. Entertainment for the community is provided in part by the symphony and choral series of concerts. The community forum is sponsored by a local newspaper and the college. The art colony offers cultural opportunities to adults, special students, and those in full-time instruction. There are more adults taking evening classes for college credit than there are in the regular day division, showing the extent of the interest of persons in collegiate work who never had a chance while they were of regular college age. The retail institute provides instruction in commercial art, salesmanship, psychology, speaking, and in many other subjects. The trade and industrial short courses are held at the college, in industrial plants, in union halls, or any other place readily accessible to an interested group. The slogan of the college is, "Classes will be organized for ten or more people at any time, to meet at any place, at any hour of the day or night, on any subject."

In conjunction with the County Health Department, instruction and training are given to waitresses, dairy hands, butchers, and other food handlers in the latest and best sanitary practices. Courses of instruction are given from the first through twelfth grade to hundreds of persons, many of whom have never attended school at all. Some of these people are over fifty years of age. They readily attend the junior college in association with adult students, many of their own age. Finally, the college offers instruction through its citizenship division to noncitizens and members of ethnic groups.

The rapid expansion of the services and enrollment of the college has demanded a like expansion of its financial resources. When the Corpus Christi Junior College District was organized in 1935, the voters of the District authorized a tax of 20 cents on each $100 of taxable property. In 1935 the Board of Education levied only 10 cents of the authorized tax and the taxable value of the property that year was $22,556,870. Today the full tax of 20 cents is levied and the present value of taxable property is $113,025,270. The second source of income is student charges. These have been reduced through the years to where the student now pays approximately $100 per school year. Further reductions are now being considered by the Board of Education to an approximate student payment of $50 per school year. A third source of income was established in 1943 when the state legislature passed its first act appropriating funds for the support of public junior colleges. The original appropriation was $50 per student per school year. This has been raised to the present appropriation of $175 per student.

Long Beach City College [11]

The rapid growth of the Long Beach City College is, in part, due to the rapid population growth of the district (76 per cent since 1940), the rapid development of Long Beach as a business, commercial, and industrial center, and the reorganization of the college in 1944 to meet the wide range of community needs arising from these trends. At that time it became a *community college* in the sense that an effort was made to provide a flexible program designed to meet the educational needs of all youth, young adults, and adults within the community. An intensive effort was made to develop and extend this

[11] Acknowledgment of information to George Dotson, director, Long Beach City College, Long Beach, Calif. See catalogue and other publications of this college.

program in the field of terminal-vocational education and community service.

Advisory committees were used effectively and successfully in developing down-to-earth vocational curricula which reflected the occupational life of the community. Representatives of management and labor have served harmoniously and with devotion on advisory committees in each specific training area in developing: (1) procedures for selecting students; (2) plans for course organization, buildings, equipment, shop and laboratory layouts; (3) standards of achievement consistent with local employment standards; and (4) machinery for the placement of students and their adjustment to employment.

In addition to short-term training, two-year terminal curricula leading to the associate in arts degree have been developed in the following areas: accounting, advertising, aeronautics, apparel merchandising, auto body repair, auto mechanics, business administration, carpentry, dental office assisting, Diesel engine operation and maintenance, drafting, electricity, electronics, food preparation, furniture upholstery, insurance underwriting, interior decoration, machine tool, medical assisting, naval shipyard apprenticeship, personnel technician, radio communications, radio maintenance, real estate, refrigeration, retailing, sheet metal, traffic and transportation, and welding.

Programs in the above-outlined areas have featured work-related training. The majority of students in the Business and Technology Division are engaged in cooperative or apprentice training. Acceptance and support of this program by the Board of Education, school administration, and the community has been so enthusiastic and generous that it has threatened to exceed ability to locate and obtain competent instructional personnel. This development is attributable largely to the effective work of deans and coordinators in their dealings with advisory committees and to good fortune in enjoying cooperation coupled with splendid educational vision displayed by leadership in management, labor, and the community at large. Long Beach firmly believes that a program in vocational education cannot exceed in quality the limits inherent in the quality of personnel serving on advisory committees and in the scope, vitality, and dynamics of the advisory committee program. Offerings in the field of industrial relations, foremanship training, and the like have been particularly well received.

Offerings in the area of community service have been enthusiastically received and patronized in the fields of family-life education, public-

affairs forums, citizenship training, literacy education, and the like. Where the Long Beach City College has not itself been able to meet clearly evident community needs, it has assumed the role of a promotional agency in seeking out and bringing extension services from other institutions to the community without claiming credit or enrollment for such enterprises. Illustrative of such an activity is the cooperative venture of the Long Beach City College and the University of California Extension Services in the organization, development, and promotion of an important element of the in-service training program for 1,500 teachers in the Long Beach public schools and for many additional teachers employed in surrounding school districts.

During the year 1947–1948, 6,014 individuals participated in the program of the Liberal Arts Division (general and preprofessional education), 10,120 in the program of the Business and Technology Division (vocational education), and 15,267 in the program of the General Adult Division (community service). No duplication or overlapping exists in these enrollment figures.

In brief, no community college need experience concern regarding its acceptance or patronage if its program accurately gauges the needs existing within its environment and if it provides a proper outlet for the aspirations and creative ability of its patrons. An institution of this nature must be willing to break with tradition and conventional organization. It must not content itself with half measures in providing a wide range of educational opportunity for all youth and adults within the community who can profit from education beyond the high school, nor can it always desist from offering necessary courses because they do not properly classify as truly collegiate in content and level of instruction.

New Haven YMCA Junior College

Still another type of community college is found in New Haven, Connecticut. This is an independent institution operating in the buildings and with the facilities of Yale University, known as the New Haven YMCA Junior College. It is doing for the community what Yale itself cannot very well do, but which Yale realizes should be done. Essentially the philosophy of the college is built around the idea of work-study. Following the first year in the college, students cannot reenter unless they are employed. The college receives cooperation from a great univer-

sity on the one hand and on the other from 350 business and industrial companies in the New Haven area. They cooperate with the college through coordinators and many with financial assistance. Here again we have the private-enterprise system at work in the community-college program. The enrollment is approximately 1,500, almost evenly divided between full-time and part-time students. The period of work-study covers three years instead of the usual two in community colleges. The *Coordinator's Manual* states,[12]

> The problems of business and industry are dynamic and can only be met efficiently with a dynamic and developing personnel. Through coordination the college staff seeks to anticipate local needs in technical education in the fields of business, engineering, and management. Thus the employed man or woman may return to the college again and again to broaden his usefulness to his company.

Many college graduates and some with advanced degrees are among the students. Surely, the connotations of the term "junior college" are inadequate to describe the functions of this community institution. A number of students have been taking courses of study for several years while fully employed. They look ahead to the next step in advancement and prepare for it. The program might be described as a three-step process of work—study—advance, repeated over and over again as long as the employee is ambitious enough to seek greater responsibility and more pay.

Cooperative relationships are made possible between the college and companies through employee training agreements. These agreements run for five years and supply "retainer funds" with which the college is able to add specialists to its staff needed to carry out the work with cooperating companies. Each person applying for admission to the college is interviewed in an attempt to find out his or her abilities and interests, the job opportunities available to him or her, and the adaptability of the person to a program available at the college. Thus, it will be seen, that the function of guidance for education and employment is placed at

[12] *Coordinator's Manual.* New Haven, Conn.: New Haven YMCA Junior College, 1948.

the center of the total program with individual attention emphasized.[13]

The entire program is characterized by thorough informality, no promises to give any individual or group predetermined kinds of experiences, no specifically prescribed pattern to be followed. Regardless of what motivates each, the objectives of the student, his employer, and the college can be reached more efficiently through a coordination of effort. That coordination is not easy to attain. The student has his own capacities and interests; the company has its own peculiar needs; the college must concern itself with matters of practical educational administration. But, in spite of these individual motives and needs, each profits when the interests of all are served.

Many more striking examples of the expanding role of the community colleges could be given. Those briefly described will serve the purpose of illustrating the kinds of expanding programs being offered, point the direction that could be taken in hundreds of communities, show the manner and means by which programs are being effectively developed. If the experiences of communities cited in this chapter are valid and if the findings of state surveys can be accepted, millions of persons in the United States could profit from the services of the community colleges.

[13] *Ibid.*

Chapter 3. BASIC FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Some of the basic functions of community colleges have been identified, at least by indirection, in the previous chapter. Examples of community programs set forth therein were primarily intended to show the expanding role of such institutions. Not only have they been expanding in number within the several states and in their enrollments but also in kinds of services. The expansion and more precise explanation of the theme of community services is the objective of this chapter.

The method of approach for the identification of functions follows the general plan recommended for colleges in their own communities. In 1948 the author collaborated with Dr. Lawrence L. Bethel and Dr. Frank B. Lindsay in writing a short service publication for McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., entitled *Junior College Terminal Education in Your Community.* The opening paragraphs [1] provide a statement for our point of departure.

The Community-junior-college Concept

The community junior college is for all the people of the community. Therefore, it is concerned with the community educational needs at the college level. To meet these needs the community junior college is free to explore and determine its own educational objectives.

Because it is a working part of the community where its students live, it is in a favorable position to study the educational needs of the community. If, as in many communities, most of the junior-college graduates will remain to work within a radius of at least 50 to 75

[1] Bethel, Lawrence L., Bogue, Jesse P., and Lindsay, Frank B. *Junior College Terminal Education in Your Community.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948. P. 1.

miles, the junior college can analyze with considerable accuracy the future-life demands of its graduates—the requirements of jobs and of community living.

There is nothing artificial about a really functional community junior college. It is so intertwined with the life and the resources of the community that one cannot define where its campus begins and ends. In fact, the whole community is either currently or potentially its student body. Mother, father, sister, and brother enter its halls for learning at all hours ranging from eight o'clock in the morning until ten at night. For the people of this community education is never-ending, because the junior college is providing education at varying points of need in the life of each individual.

It will readily be seen that basic functions of community colleges are not wisely determined by assumptions, preconceived notions, or by mere imitation of senior-college programs; not even by following the plans of other community institutions, however well they may be suited to meet the needs of the people of communities in which they are located. Communities differ in many respects. While some needs may be universal, as will be pointed out, they also vary according to the manner in which the people make their living. One community may be engaged primarily in agriculture, another in manufacturing, still another in public services. Yet within the framework of any given occupational designation there are wide variations. Differences in agriculture will be recognized as easily as the cattle on dairy farms in New England, cotton on the plantations of the Mississippi Delta, citrus groves in southern California, apple orchards of the Shenandoah Valley, the wheatfields of Kansas, beef cattle from the ranges of Montana, or cornfields in Iowa. Manufacturing is as varied as steel production at Pittsburgh, watches and clocks at Waterbury, automobiles at Detroit, airplanes at Baltimore, oil and chemicals at Houston, furniture at Grand Rapids, or clothing in New York City. It should be unnecessary to belabor these facts. They should be apparent to all people who are interested in community-college education. Yet, apparent as they may be as facts recognizable by superficial observation, they are the very ones most frequently overlooked when programs are being devised.

Moreover, methods essential to economical production, process-

ing, or distribution in any given field are subject to rapid changes. The community college must be alert to them and constantly alter its curricula for functional efficiency. Mere tradition has no place in the community institution. It must be as sensitive and responsive to changing conditions as conditions are changeable. Again, allow the three authors [2] of *Junior College Terminal Education in Your Community* to state the case:

> It is a continuous process to test the significance of survey data. Social, economic, and industrial conditions constantly change. Within fifteen years, the ratio of some semiprofessional positions to professional advanced from two to one, to four and sometimes six to one. This ratio will not remain static. Every community college must be alert, therefore, to meet the apparent needs of constituencies, and to discover and reveal new needs. In this respect, the faculty as a working organization will act in a pioneering capacity.
>
> The true *significance* of survey data lies in their bearing on the educational program of the college. The meaning can be interpreted by the committees through which the data were collected. Reduced to an oversimplified process, it runs something like this: The survey shows that our community annually needs fifty operating chemical engineers. Job analyses prove that professional chemists are not needed to do the work. In the light of the analyses, then, what should be the program of the college? Are there enough students with potential ability, aptitude, and interest in these positions to justify the college in offering a suitable curriculum? If so, then the program should be determined and offered in direct response to this need.

Changing Patterns

We may well consider the views of one of America's pioneers and prophets as to the distinctive field of service of the community college. Dr. George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, was chairman of the conference in St. Louis in 1920 which resulted in the organization of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Twenty-six years later, he was appointed chairman of the President's Commission on Higher Education which resulted in bold pronouncements regarding the

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

community college and its place in American education. Before, between, and following the years referred to above, the statesmanship and judicious opinions of this great leader have been brilliant lights on the path of the movement. Perhaps it will be in order to set forth here some of his ideas that have been clarified through his long years of experience and observations: [3]

There is now, as there was not twenty-five years ago, almost entire agreement that the whole youth population should have the opportunity for post-high-school education. Business, industry, and the junior professions demand both a more mature and a more specially prepared person than the high-school graduate. The home requires more preparation for parenthood and domestic duties than can be expected of the high-school graduate. Adult labor urges our young people to keep out of the labor market for another year or two. The country must have more fully informed citizens if democratic government is to be safe and effective.

And so the young people flock to four-year colleges, to junior colleges, and to in-service and evening classes as never before in our history. Socially, occupationally, and in the public interest it is the thing to do. We must realize therefore that both by choice and necessity an increasing proportion of the later teen-age group will be found in school or college on a full-time or part-time basis.

Now it naturally follows that whenever there is a strong demand, in education or elsewhere, there will be rather prompt attempts to meet the demand. Sometimes private schools which operate for profit see the possibilities first, and pioneer, as they did in the field of secretarial training. If public or nonprofit educational institutions enter the field they do so hesitatingly and without comprehensive plans.

That is our present situation in the junior-college field. Many people, deeply convinced of the function and place of junior colleges in the American educational scheme, have sought a place in the promised land but they have certainly not fully occupied it. . . .

No, the simple truth of the matter is a whole host of occupations and public services requiring preparation varying in length from one to three years beyond high school, which are likely to be undertaken only to a small degree in the four-year colleges and universities. This is the great broad field of what I still prefer to call the junior college.

[3] Zook, George F. "Changing Patterns of Junior College Education." *Junior College Journal*, May, 1946, 16(9):411–417.

Essential Characteristics

In order to provide communities with a general base on which to plan, the President's Commission set forth some of the essential characteristics of the community college. It was not the intention of the Commission that these should be comprehensive, but rather that they should indicate the broadest possible scale whereby the strong stand in behalf of *education for all* could be ultimately implemented. If the final goal, namely, proper education for all the people of the community without regard to race, sex, religion, color, geographical location, or financial status, is missed in the initial planning stages, the basic functions of the community college will be only partially provided. Whether or not full agreement can be made with the position of the Commission, it is worthy of sincere consideration. The pronouncements of this distinguished group of educators and laymen should be examined with great care at the time blueprints for the future are being made and by communities at periodic times for re-examination of fundamental objectives. The essential characteristics are: [4]

First, the community college must make frequent surveys of its community so that it can adapt its program to the educational needs of its full-time students. [The Commission sees these needs as both vocational and general.]

Second, since the program is expected to serve a cross section of the youth population, it is essential that consideration be given not only to apprentice training but also to cooperative procedures which provide for the older students alternate periods of attendance at college and remunerative work.

Third, the community college must prepare its students to live a rich and satisfying life, part of which involves earning a living. To this end, the total educational effort, general and vocational, of any student must be a well-integrated single program, not two programs.

Fourth, the community college must meet the needs also of those of its students who will go on to a more extended general education or to

[4] "Organizing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy. Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947. Vol. III, pp. 6–7.

specialized and professional study at some other college or university.

Fifth, the community college must be the center for the administration of a comprehensive adult education program.

Official Position of Junior Colleges

The general background for the application of fundamental principles at the community-college level was adopted at the national convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges by unanimous vote. The position of the Association antedates that of the President's Commission and doubtless had some bearing on the stand of the latter. Dr. Henry A. Dixon was a member of the legislative committee at the time the resolutions were presented and was active in drafting them. He was later a member of the President's Commission. The speaker at the convention, whose address followed the adoption of the resolutions, was Dr. Fred J. Kelly, at that time chief, Division of Higher Education, U.S. Office of Education. Dr. Kelly commented at some length on the resolutions following their adoption and stated in effect that these were the first resolutions ever adopted by a national organization of such comprehensive character; the first to provide for more equal opportunities at all levels and to guarantee their implementation in a single bill for Federal assistance to the several states. The meat of the national action of the Association may be found in the following statements.[5] With this background in mind, the present tendencies and future trends in community-college developments almost inevitably follow in natural sequence.

[5] Bogue, Jesse P., Chairman, Committee on Legislation for American Association of Junior Colleges. "Resolution on National Legislation." *Junior College Journal*, May, 1946, 16(9):421–422.

Students of this problem may wish to consult the following:

Committee on Education. *Education—An Investment in People.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 1945.

Norton and Lawler. *Unfinished Business in American Education.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and American Council on Education, 1944.

Norton, *et al. Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

A Report of the President's Advisory Committee on Education. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.

In the new age we are now entering, we must dedicate ourselves to a far bolder approach than ever before to education as a genuine and indispensable force in strengthening our democratic institutions and as an example for the rest of the world.

This approach to education must be directed not to any single phase of the problem, but to the problem in its totality. A comprehensive educational system is a basic necessity for an intelligent electorate and for the creation of an economy of full employment and production. We need a program of education so broad that it will inspire and challenge the united support of all groups truly interested in raising American educational standards and thereby improving the general social and economic life of our people.

As President Truman has said in his telegram to this convention, dated Washington, D.C., January 16, 1946: "Social, economic, and political conditions prevailing throughout the world can be solved only in terms of a lengthened period of education made available to an increasing proportion of the population." Because scientists have released forces too great for human resistance, and because the hopes and freedoms of mankind cannot rest in physical force, the urgency for the development of greater intelligence, integrity, and understanding cannot be overemphasized.

The American Association of Junior Colleges, therefore, pledges complete support to a policy of education throughout the United States so organized and financed as to extend full and equal opportunities whereby each individual may develop his capacities for his own benefit and for the best interests of the nation as a whole.

In this educational system we recommend that all unjustified forms of discrimination be eliminated and opportunities be equally available without regard to sex, race, color, or creed, and that it be the purpose of the schools and other educational institutions to teach the principles and practices of democracy, of respect for the dignity of the individual, and for such fundamental human rights as freedom of assembly, speech, the press, and religion, with unrestricted pursuit of objective truth and the free exchange of ideas and knowledge.

Such an educational system is required in the interests of world peace and security, the common defense, democratic participation in government, the development of science and the arts, employment in a fruitful economy, the wise use of leisure, and the general welfare. These are the essential factors in our long-cherished American way of life. . . .

Be it resolved, therefore, that the American Association of Junior

Colleges approve the above-stated policy for education and seek collaboration with all other educational organizations and forces in assisting in the passage of a single bill in the Congress of the United States which will give adequate Federal aid for the proper education of all persons, be they enrolled in preclementary, elementary, high-school, junior college, college, university, graduate schools, or professional schools, or adult educational classes.

Objectives and Purposes in California

All educational institutions are being called on today to define their positions with greater precision than ever before. This is especially true of the community college. The time of confusion must quickly pass. It is not necessary to adopt policies of regimentation in order to state positions. Persons deeply interested in the movement are committed to the philosophy that community colleges may differ widely in points of emphasis; that doors shall be kept open for experimentation; that the spirit of adventure shall be kept fresh and vigorous. Recently, the California Association of Junior Colleges was called on to state with clarity just what they conceived their purposes and objectives to be. In response to this request, statements were prepared, discussed, finally adopted by the Association, and presented.[6]

1. The junior college is committed to the democratic way of life.
2. The junior college recognizes the individual man as the highest value of the world and universe.
3. The junior college is committed to the policy of granting to the individual man the maximum amount of freedom, personal initiative, and adventure consistent with equal opportunities on the part of his fellows.
4. The junior college is committed to the policy of providing for all the children of all the people, post-high-school education which will meet their needs. This includes the training of adults as well as youth.

In accordance with this statement of basic principles, junior colleges have six specific purposes or objectives. They are as follows:

[6] *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education.* Submitted to the Liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the State Department of Education. Mar. 1, 1948. Pp. 5–6.

1. Terminal Education—A complete training should be given to those students who will finish their period of formal education in the junior college. This training which is commonly referred to as terminal education should be designed to achieve occupational competence, civic competence, and personal adequacy.

2. General Education—Every junior-college student should be given that training which will prepare him to function effectively as a member of a family, a community, a state, a nation, and a world.

3. Orientation and Guidance—It is the specific responsibility of every junior college to assist its students to "find themselves." A program of training and guidance should be provided so that every student may discover his aptitudes, choose a life work, and prepare for the successful pursuit of such work.

4. Lower Division Training—Each junior college should provide lower division or the first two years of senior-college work for the limited number of students who plan transfer to a university after completing two years in junior college. This training should be broad enough to include the lower division requirements in the liberal arts, scientific, engineering, and professional fields.

5. Adult Education—Every junior college should cooperate with other public educational institutions in providing instruction to meet the needs of adults living in the region. The program of training should include cultural and vocational education.

6. Removal of Matriculation Deficiencies—Junior colleges should provide opportunity for students who failed to meet entrance requirements to some university to remove such deficiencies and thus to qualify for admission in the higher institution of their choice.

Here we have an excellent example of basic functions set forth at the state level for the guidance of those engaged in community-college education and for the benefit of the people of the commonwealth.

The Student and the Community Needs

If the reader will now review the steps that have been taken so far in this chapter, he will readily see how we have arrived at a precision point in identifying basic functions. We have presented the community-college concept, brought it into focus on essential characteristics, narrowed the view to the official position

of the junior and community colleges, and finally adjusted our sight more specifically on the objectives and purposes of these institutions in one great state. We have deliberately taken these steps to make it clear that basic functions are arrived at by natural processes. Now we are in a position to see the individual student in his community against the background of this perspective. Just how shall the ability and interests of the student be matched with the needs of the community?

It is apparent that a community college is a hub for vast numbers of people. Vocational and cultural roads lead off in many different directions. Which one shall be taken? How shall we find out? These questions pose one of the first problems to be solved. After community needs have been discovered, student abilities and interests must also be identified. The best way to perform this task is through the services of a well-staffed and efficient personnel department. It is not within the scope of this chapter to set forth the technical details of student-personnel work. That is a field of study of such magnitude that it requires long, specialized attention. Neither can the administrator hope to assume the responsibilities for this work, even though he may be expert in doing so. He should, however, appreciate the necessity for it, make ample provision in the operating budget to support it, and be able to select the right people to do the job efficiently. Thus, it will be seen that guidance and counseling of the highest possible order becomes, in many respects, the most important function of the community college.

Emergencies often reveal needs that under ordinary circumstances would be neglected. The return of veterans to colleges in great numbers emphasized the need for counseling and guidance as never before. A great network of centers was set up by the Veterans Administration in cooperation with colleges and universities. The work has revealed a necessity for the continuation of the service at the community level, because it is not a task that can be done once and for all time. It is a continuous process, and its need extends into the entire community. In many ways, what the veteran needed, and will continue to need for years to come, is precisely what great numbers of people in each community need, both the youth and adults. It is altogether likely

that the work of the Veterans Administration has brought to light the need for an expanded function for the community college. If it is to serve all the people of the community, how can it possibly avoid the responsibility for counseling and guiding the people? To a certain extent, this kind of work has been done by the Federal and State Employment Services. When we think, however, in terms of a comprehensive program, employment services barely touch the hem of the garment of the basic function. In some way, and how better than through the channels of the community college, counseling and guiding services should be made available to all the people of the community.

The community college will need strong programs of personnel work, anyhow, for regularly enrolled students in the thirteenth and fourteenth years of education. The college cannot well think of its sphere of work as ending with these students. Its community function, reaching far beyond mere post-high-school education for the selected few, must embrace worthy services for all the people. The extension of personnel work to the community, therefore, appears to be a logical step.

The program itself is fairly well recognized; its full implementation is not generally provided. Observation at many colleges reveals the fact that only partial plans are in operation. In some places, it is treated as almost a side issue, if one may judge by the caliber of the personnel in charge, facilities available, funds allocated, and its understanding by the staff and faculty as well as the students. This is true even within the more restricted circles of the campus college; what must the situation be in respect to the entire community? In other places, only parts of the program are carried out. Testing may be done on a fairly extensive basis at the beginning of a student's career in college, but further periodical tests, especially for vocational interests, are almost totally neglected. Tests may be given and neatly filed away as though they were ends in themselves and not merely means to the real ends of the program. They may be given, but not fully interpreted to the staff and faculty whose cooperation is indispensable for their application.

A comprehensive testing service is necessary, but several fur-

point out in this paragraph. What do the tests mean? What do they mean to those who will use them? What do they mean to students and others for whom they will be applied? These questions, too, must be answered. Actual counseling is a long process, time and patience consuming, and demands places where it can be done with ease and complete confidence. It includes the whole person, not merely his vocational interests and aptitudes. It requires not only keen insight into the deep problems of human nature and the relationships of persons in society, but also a knowledge of vocational and cultural outlets for human talent. The greatest care must be taken, as a result, to secure well-adjusted counselors who possess sound judgment and a real liking for people. Another step in the process, aside from testing, follow-up testing, counseling, and guidance, is the placement of each person in a position where he may make further development toward worthy goals—further study in college or university, professional or specialized schools; placement in a vocation matched to his best interests, aptitudes, and enthusiasm; home life that may be satisfying to him and all who will associate with him in this intimate circle, both children and adults; civic responsibilities as citizen, voter, taxpayer, member of voluntary associations of many kinds. Then a further step is the follow-up program, so often neglected except for the records made by students fortunate enough to continue their education in senior institutions. Even this is not always done. Students are graduated and forgotten, and then the college wonders what the reason is for lack of alumni interest! All students should be followed up; wherever possible, all persons in the community who have sought personnel services should be accorded the same respect. The results of this phase of the program should be brought to bear on the college for the further improvement of its services. These are in mere outline some of the phases of an honestly conceived and executed plan to implement the basic function of personnel work of the community college. It may seem like a large assignment. It is. Only if it is regarded in this light will it be properly carried to its logical goal.

It is not claimed by community colleges that counseling and guidance constitute even a unique function to be performed by

them but rather that this function is fundamentally essential. It is unique with respect to the fact that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of education stand at critical forks in the roads. At last decisions must be made. The community college must, without exception or evasion, give expert assistance in the matter. Decisions are not made *for* those who need counsel, by the very nature of the problem; herein is the nub of the situation that demands knowledge, wisdom, and common sense on the part of the counselor. Dr. Roy Ivan Johnson [7] states the philosophy as follows:

> The recognition of counseling as an essential function in the education program is comparatively recent. The word "guidance" has been on the lips of administrators for years, but only within the past ten years has any widespread effort been made to provide effective counseling service for all students. Organizational plans for implementing this important educational function have pyramided rapidly—so rapidly, in fact, that we face the danger of mistaking *form* for *substance.* A good counseling organization, with neatly drawn charts and blueprints, does not ensure good counseling any more than a good administrative organization, with its rules and regulations, will ensure good classroom instruction.
>
> I do not minimize the importance of good organization and good administration, but I insist that all education must be evaluated in terms of results; that is, its impact on student thinking, on student attitudes, on the development of habits of behavior, and on the direction of student growth. Thus, all of us who are working in an educational program, teachers and counselors alike, must have a student-centered philosophy of education. This focus must not waver. It must not come to rest upon scholarship as the sole end and aim of college experience; it must not shift to regulations, transfer requirements, credits, and marks as the criteria of college success. These are in the picture, but only as they are components of a larger pattern of individual growth. . . .
>
> Another point to be kept constantly in mind is that counseling reaches far beyond the student's temporary problems. It is concerned with building the kinds of attitudes and habits, the kinds of discriminating judgments, the kinds of continuing interests and personal

[7] Johnson, Roy Ivan. "A Philosophy of Education for Counselors." *Junior College Journal*, March, 1949, 19(7):384–389.

drives that will project themselves into post-college years and ensure continued growth and increasing self-dependence in dealing with new problems and situations. Therefore, the counselor helps the student to explore and discover far more often than he charts a specific course of action. He points out alternatives and helps the student to weigh and consider values instead of "telling him what to do." The counselor stimulates the student to think his way toward intelligent decisions instead of making decisions for him.

General Education

The author is so completely convinced of the necessity for general education in the community and junior colleges that an entire chapter will be devoted to it. A brief treatment is being given at this point, because it must not be overlooked as one of the basic functions. It is the outgrowth of life situations. It points to the fact that man is a human being and not a robot for production, processing, distribution, and consumption of goods. Skill training, however necessary and efficient, is not the answer even to the problems in production, processing, distribution, and consumption of goods. More recently enlightened leaders of industry are realizing the truth of this statement as they never have in previous years. Students of this far-reaching problem of industrial relations find it a field of inquiry of great challenge. "Greater understanding is not easily achieved in any field, particularly in one where emotions are running high. Yet it is in just these areas of high emotional charge that understanding is most needed—understanding of fundamental issues involved, of the rights and duties of the contending parties, of the techniques of reaching agreement, and of the policies and procedures that will assure fairness to all concerned." Thus, one aspect of the present-day situation was stated by Dr. Edmund E. Day, president of Cornell University.[8]

In 1940 the report of the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions stated:

[8] Day, Edmund E. *Toward Mutual Understanding.* New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University. Geneva, N.Y.: W. F. Humphrey Press, Inc.

The most satisfactory and happiest human relationships are the product not of legal compulsion but rather of voluntary determination among human beings to cooperate with one another. Though we may legislate to the end of time, there will never be industrial peace and harmony without good faith, integrity, a high degree of responsibility, and a real desire to cooperate on the part of all parties concerned. Without this spirit of good will, all of the social, economic, and labor laws of man will prove eventually to be in vain.

Dr. Dwayne Orton, director of education, International Business Machines Corporation, apparently reflects the thinking of one of the great industrial concerns when he says: [9]

> The concept of education as an integrating factor in industry carries us beyond the limitations of the strictly economic interests. It implies that the strength of industry is enhanced by the strength of the people in it, by the health and general welfare of its people. The idea of education as an integrating force in industry recognizes the fact that economic institutions can no longer be judged by nor depend exclusively upon economic considerations. However, new dimensions of economic enterprise are being recognized. In addition to producing economic goods, employing labor, and utilizing capital, a business enterprise has a vital social responsibility.
>
> This fourth dimension is expressed in many ways. The personal factor in management determines business policy fully as much as economic considerations. The disappearance of the commodity theory of labor, the growth of social security, the development of scientific personnel work, and the prevailing concern for human relations are quasi-economic factors with which business has come to have great concern. This fourth dimension is manifest in the assumption of community responsibility and in long-term policy-making in which the general welfare is a significant conditioning factor. . . .
>
> The principle is found in the concept that *man* is both the means and the end of the economic process. The economic welfare of man is the reason for the existence of economic institutions. From his imagination and creative ingenuity stem the discovery of resources, the inventive design, the manufacturing skill, the organizing genius, and the promotional ability that keep the economic machine running. Upon man's recognition of needs expressed in demand for economic goods depends the existence of economic enterprises.

[9] Orton, Dwayne. "Integration in Industry through Education." *Issues in Integration.* Foundation for Integrated Education, Inc.

Or again the case for general education as a basic function of the community college may be stated: [10]

> What are these powerful sentiments in human beings that underlie and often supersede the obvious incentives of monetary reward and profit? That is a question that must interest not only employers, but salesmen, teachers, doctors, and dentists, in fact, anyone whose work calls for a deep-down understanding of people. Answers vary infinitely and gain by being specific, but here is a general conclusion reached by the Labor and Management Center of Yale University:
>
> The goals of the human organism, whether it house a floor-sweeper or the president of a company, are to gain—
>
> 1. The respect of his fellow men;
> 2. Material comforts and as much economic security as the most favored;
> 3. Increasing control of his own affairs;
> 4. Better understanding of forces and factors at work in his world;
> 5. A basis of integrity for living.

Democratic cooperation means more than topflight leadership. So to speak, it also means intelligent followership. It requires understanding and appreciation of the human elements involved at all levels. Therefore, because the community college finds its greatest service in educating and training persons for the semiprofessional fields of employment, this human product stands in a highly strategic position with respect to industrial and labor relationships. The situation demands far more than mere technical skill. We can find in these actual conditions in a single field of inquiry ample reasons why general education should be a basic function of the community college. It should be clear that there are many other situations, as will be explained in the chapter on general education, that require breadth of understanding for present-day living. Here it should be stated that general education is one of the constants in basic functions of community colleges. It continues in all communities, for all people regardless of the ever-changing industrial, business, agricultural, and professional methods or their variations between communities. Unless an institution performs this function well, it cannot claim to be a junior or community college. It may be a training school

[10] *Service Is My Business.* Chicago: Rotary International, 1948. P. 99.

of some sort, but it is not a college. General education should be at the heart of the community program.

Semiprofessional Education

We can't use ignorant farm hands any more. There was a time when we could give a man a mule, a plow, a hoe, 30 acres of land and let him share the crop of cotton. Those days are gone. We now use power machinery—tractors, planters, jet cultivating machines, airplanes with which to dust the fields, and picking machines, costing thousands of dollars, with which to harvest the cotton. Mister, you can easily see that the men who use these complicated and expensive tools must be educated. Whether we want to or not, we've simply got to do it or else our business is sunk.

That is the way a planter stated the matter to this author in a recent interview in one of our Southern states.

Rapidly developing technology in a great number of fields has created one of the largest demands in history for a particular kind of operator. It is sometimes stated as being between the trade level on the one hand and the professional on the other. The designation of "semiprofessional" is not always acceptable, but for want of a better name it is commonly used. A future chapter on technical education in the community college will expand the various phases of the problem. For the present, we identify it as one of the basic functions of community colleges arising, as it does, from fast-moving technological improvements that are taking place in nearly every field of production, processing, communication, distribution, professional, and other forms of service. Long, costly, and painstaking research in the state of New York resulted, as was stated previously, in a law to provide for a system of community colleges. At the time Dr. George D. Stoddard was commissioner of education in New York, he made the following observations: [11]

We may ask, What is the occupational or subprofessional need for the kind of training contemplated in the institutes? I am indebted

[11] Stoddard, George D. "New York's Plan for New Institutes." *Junior College Journal*, October, 1944, 15(2):62–63.

to Dr. Lynn A. Emerson and Dr. J. Cayce Morrison for the following data. They indicate the ratio of the "noncommissioned officer" or technologist to the "commissioned officer" or engineer, in various industrial enterprises.

Lumbering and wood processing (Washington)	20.0
Shipbuilding (Maine)	13.6
Pulp and paper manufacturing (Maine)	10.3
Electrical equipment manufacturing (Massachusetts)	10.0
Textile manufacturing (North Carolina)	9.8
Telegraph and telephone communications service (Illinois)	9.7
Rail transportation (Alabama and Utah)	9.1
Metal products manufacturing (Connecticut)	8.0
Iron and steel production (Pennsylvania)	6.0
Machine tool manufacturing (Connecticut)	5.5
Electric power production and distribution (Oregon)	5.3
Petroleum and butadiene production (Texas)	5.3
Metal mining (Colorado)	5.2
Automobile manufacturing (Michigan)	4.2
Industrial chemistry (Delaware and Missouri)	2.2
Hydroelectric development (Tennessee)	2.0
Ratio for above industries combined	5.2 *

* Computed by considering number of employees of different groups in the industries in the states named.

Similarly, a study in New Jersey of 99 industrial concerns, normally employing nearly a million persons, revealed a ratio of 4.4 technicians to each professionally trained engineer. Of course many of the occupations, preparation for which is implied in the institute plan, are not related to engineering, but to agriculture, nutrition, distribution, transportation, and personal services. It appears likely that the need for workers with definite skills and experiences of a subprofessional character would be even greater in these areas. Thus far, such workers have been prepared in a laissez-faire manner.

For great clusters of jobs that require little expert training, the curriculum could offer a varied diet in basic learnings, together with further work in the arts and humanities. A 40-hour work week leaves at least a 60-hour week of waking time, in which personal skills, experiences, and habits are of paramount importance. English, consumer education, general science, psychology, sociology, literature, history, government, and the arts, need no defense in the American way of life.

As a matter of fact, breakdowns in these areas, leading to ill health, delinquency, emotional difficulties, and domestic and civic unpreparedness, constitute a blot upon our record as a nation. We are great work-

ers and technologists, but we have not yet learned the secret of happiness, cooperation, and cultural progress. We have the natural resources, the technological development, and the social framework for giving a great lift to life in all its complexity. Nevertheless, it seems unlikely that we shall solve the major problems of adjustment and progress unless every citizen shares more bountifully in the fruits of education.

From an actual identification of needs, therefore, we arrive at the conclusion that a basic function of the community college falls within the area of semiprofessional occupations, but always integrated with general education.

The Role of Geography

"One-fourth of our young people who live within 10 miles of a college are attending college the first year after they graduate from high school. But among the youth who live more than 25 miles from a college the ratio is one in seven." This is the gist of the problem as stated in 1949 by the Minnesota Commission on Higher Education.[12] One of the results of this situation and others of similar character with respect to educational opportunities is presented by the Commission as follows:[13]

One-third of Minnesota's people live on farms. Their number is not increasing, however, because so many of their young folks—particularly the young women—move to the cities as soon as they are old enough to become self-supporting. This movement of youth is draining away from rural areas and small towns an alarmingly high proportion of their *most capable* young people. Enhanced vocational and cultural opportunities, growing out of farm improvement and a contributing educational program, can be used to hold more of these able youngsters in agricultural communities.

In the conservation and use of its human resources, Minnesota has been remarkably progressive in some ways but behind the times in others. We have pioneered in medical research to improve the health of our people. We have made a praiseworthy beginning in social legislation. We aid the sick and the old and the unfortunate. But we

[12] *Tomorrow's Resources.* Minnesota Commission on Higher Education. P. 7.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

do not yet provide all our people with the opportunity to develop fully their potential abilities.

Research studies in Minnesota largely confirm the findings of similar studies in other states and over a long period of time. Dr. Walter C. Eells [14] reported in 1931 in this manner:

Studies have shown that 90 per cent of the students in the average college come from within a radius of 100 miles. The homes of 50 per cent of University of California students are within 30 miles of Berkeley. Koos found that 41 per cent of the enrollment in 39 four-year colleges came from within a radius of 25 miles and that 27 per cent came from the immediate community. Green found that 96 per cent of the students in public junior colleges came from within a radius of 20 miles. Koos found in California that in counties having junior colleges the freshman enrollment was 71 per cent of the high-school graduates; in counties without junior colleges or other higher institutions, it was 38 per cent.

A survey on college attendance was made in 1934 by John Stuart Allen [15] of Colgate University.[16] A questionnaire was sent to high-school seniors in twenty cities in New York each having a population of 20,000 or more. Ten of the high schools and 2,039 seniors were in cities having no colleges; and ten others and 2,243 seniors were in college cities.

In answer to the question "Will you go to college next year?" these high-school seniors answered:

	In noncollege cities, per cent	In college cities, per cent
Yes ...	17.0	27.1
Uncertain.	35.0	32.4
No. ..	48.0	40.4

[14] Eells, Walter C. *The Junior College.* Cambridge, Mass.: The Riverside Press, 1931. P. 193.

[15] Allen, John Stuart. "The Need for Public Junior Colleges in New York State." *The School Review,* 45(I):37. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

[16] In 1949, vice-president of the University of Florida.

Ninety per cent of the "uncertain" group listed reasons pointing to the high cost of college attendance. Sixty-five per cent of the "no" group listed similar reasons. The 2,039 seniors in the noncollege cities were asked, "If there were a public junior college in your city offering two years of college work, would you attend next year, (*a*) if tuition were free? (*b*) if tuition were $75 per year or less?"

Of the 350 who had definite college plans, 58.8 per cent would not change their plans, but the others, numbering about 150, would attend the public junior college. Of the 700 uncertain ones, all but 9 per cent, or 63 students, said they would attend a public junior college in their city if available. Of the remaining 1,000 who stated they definitely did not plan on going to college, 35.7 per cent, or about 350, stated they still would not attend. The remaining 700 or so would change their plans and enter the public junior college the next year.

The seniors who indicated they would attend a public junior college gave the reasons given below:

	Yes group, per cent (350)	Uncertain group, per cent (700)	No group, per cent (1,000)
To live at home	34.2	18.5	8.8
Opportunity for further study	4.1	19.9	22.3
Opportunity for vocational training	5.5	16.7	45.5
To prepare for senior college	11.4	17.2	9.3
Financial reasons	44.7	24.1	14.1
Other reasons		3.6	

Two reasons given above are outstanding: the number who would attend a community public school for financial reasons and the number who would take vocational training but do not plan to go to a regular liberal-arts college.

It will be seen, therefore, almost without a single exception, that geography is among the most important elements to be considered in the democratization of educational opportunities. Studies made in Michigan in 1946 showed that in some counties with high per capita incomes, but without local institutions of higher education, the percentages of students continuing their education beyond high school were among the lowest in the

state.[17] While finance is an important factor, even in communities with colleges, geographical location of students with respect to institutions appears to be even more important.

The author is convinced that there are certain intangible elements that should be considered. His convictions are based largely on extensive observations, conversations with students over a period of sixteen years when he traveled in several states, mainly in New England, for the purpose of enrolling students in a junior college. Student motivation and family traditions, so he believes, exercise considerable influence. Often a rather high degree of persuasion and explanation became necessary in dealing with students, even when geography and finances as well as native ability were favorable factors. Family traditions should be made the subject of an exhaustive study. We know a junior-college administrator, a member of a family of twelve children. He is the only member of the family with a college education. All of his children are now college and university educated. Only one child from among the children of his brothers and sisters is a graduate of a junior college or of any other post-high-school institution. We know of another family with eleven children. Four received college education. All the children of these four men are either college educated or are now in college. Only one child among the twenty-eight offspring of the other seven families is college trained. It is recognized that mere recitation of a few examples is poor evidence. Extensive observations, however, that should have been reduced to objective data lead the author to recommend further studies relative to this factor.

Motivation studies have been made.[18]

The third obstacle to the realization of the commission's program has hardly been mentioned in the report. This is the problem of *motivation,* which is a *cultural* problem. Will practically all boys and girls actually want to finish high school, if given the chance, and will one-

[17] Mosier, Earl E. *Preliminary Report,* 1946. Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State Department of Education.

[18] Havighurst, Robert J. "Social Implications of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education." *School and Society,* Apr. 3, 1948, 67(1736):259.

half of them enter college, and will one-third of them go to college for four years if they are given the opportunity? To these questions the commission gives no explicit attention, but says, "The probable shift in social attitudes toward the desirability of increased education, together with economic aid, will lead more people to complete additional years of schooling. . . .

A more thorough study of the feasibility of the commission's program requires consideration of the distribution of *motivation* for higher education throughout the population. Do all kinds of people want their children to go to college? Or is this phenomenon pretty largely limited to people at the upper end of the socioeconomic scale? The answer is clearly that different social groups have different degrees of motivation for higher education.

The desire for higher education is found as a general rule only in people at the upper end of the socioeconomic scale. It is present only in exceptional cases among people at the lower end of the scale. Whereas three-fourths to nine-tenths of upper-class and upper-middle-class people send their children to college, about one-fifth of lower-middle-class youth go to college. But 40 per cent of the population are in the lower-middle class, and less than 10 per cent are in the upper-middle and upper classes. To be sure, economic barriers keep some lower-middle-class youths out of college, but there is evidence that lack of motivation for higher education rather than lack of money puts a stop to education of boys and girls in many lower-middle-class families.

A basic function of the community college, it should be apparent, is to make higher education available to larger numbers of people. This is being done by placing institutions where students can attend them while living at home; by reducing costs to students and their families; by helping to overcome student inertia and family tradition with respect to college education. Higher education must not only be made more democratic but also more popular, especially among certain socioeconomic groups.

What Happens to the Community?

Another aspect of the general problem related to the work of the community college is the community itself. More recently a considerable amount of attention has been given to it. The

Montana Study has been revealing.[19] Dr. Baker Brownell,[20] of Northwestern University, director of the study, states the case as follows:

The country boys and girls who went to college did not, and do not, return to their home communities. Quite the contrary. They got out for good. They were drained off by the college, or were pumped off, into urban districts where their family life and culture soon became extinct. Not more than one in ten college students, in the opinion of Arthur E. Morgan, distinguished former president of Antioch, has returned to the small community whence he came. Two-fifths to four-fifths of the students of many western professional schools, according to their deans, leave their community and their state forever when they graduate. More than half of the women at Montana State University, according to a recent poll, have no intention of living in Montana after they finish college. A college, it has been said, is one of the best ways to kill a small town, if the college has no community orientation. By fostering urban-centered values, suburban values, career values focused in individual ambition, it becomes a drainage ditch down which many of the more energetic youngsters of the community float never to return.

Again in 1949, Dr. Brownell expounded his position in an interesting article[21] entitled "Technology and the Human Limit."

This central community of life is possible in small groups. When those limits are exceeded, the result, however grandiose and massive, however refined in its specializations or powerful in its productive effort, will be humanly disintegrative. In small groups, men find the essential context and quality of integrated, stable living. But the nature of the large group is quite different and cannot be a rightful substitute. Though the larger organizations have relevancy to the human problem and may be justified in their external results, they have not the inner, intrinsically human qualities of the community. They are justified only when created in behalf of the little group. When they become a competitor and a destroyer of the smaller group,

[19] *The Montana Study.* Missoula, Mont.: Montana State University, 1946.

[20] Brownell, Baker. "The College and the Community." *The Journal of Higher Education,* June, 1946, 17(6):295.

[21] Brownell, Baker. "Technology and the Human Limit." *The Journal of Higher Education,* March, 1949, 20(3):124–125.

as today they so often do, they are a mortal peril to our democratic and liberal culture and our stable life.

The question is: Can a man live a good life when he knows only fragments of persons? It is a simple question, almost naïve. But it is fundamental. When a man knows only fragments of persons, as is necessarily the case in mass groups, in great cities, in large-scale organizations, and when other people in turn know only fragments of him, he can be integrated neither in experience nor in spirit. His life is broken, scattered, disunified. Because he has no communal life or love, no central wholeness or destiny with others, he is subject to whims from every quarter and to despotisms by every manipulator of power. He is little more than an aggregative and miscellaneous collection of behaviors. He is not a whole person. Without community, the life of the spirit is for him impossible. His soul decays. His integrity is a meaningless word. . . .

The facts of the decline are well known. As the Western world becomes more urban, the community life declines. The drainage of wealth and folk from the rural districts to the cities has become an erosive torrent. More than 51 per cent of the 3,072 counties in the United States are being depopulated, say Lively and Taeuber (and this does not include thirteen counties wholly urban). The declining counties are rural. Where people go, wealth ordinarily goes. More than twenty-five billion dollars are drained from the rural regions in a decade, incident to the migration to the cities, says O. E. Baker. This is in the form of educational subsidies, interest payments, rentals, mortgage payments, and inheritance. All of it is rural wealth moving down a one-way road cityward. It amounts to one-fifth of the value of the total crop and is an excess over wealth moving the other way. The educational subsidy alone paid by rural folk in educating their children, who then live their productive years in the city, amounts to $1,200,000,000 each year, or more than twelve billion dollars in a decade. In addition to this, rural people ordinarily must sell low and buy high because of the discriminatory effect of the tariff in favor of the city. Freight rates show the same discriminatory slant. So do educational, professional, and financial services and facilities, and the greater part of our cultural instruments and agencies. They are urban centered.

The community itself has a real stake in developing and enriching its own life. Otherwise, both its human and financial resources will be drained off into the larger centers. These mass

centers, according to Dr. Brownell, will inevitably fall by their own weight unless the smaller communities provide proper balance in people and material resources. Thus, it may be seen, the community college performs the function that helps to provide the more abundant life for the whole community—the safe balance between the larger and the smaller centers—and by this balanced culture and economy gives stability and richness to the national life of our people.

Adult Education

"In 1940 approximately one out of seven, or ten million of our adult citizens, were functionally illiterate (had not advanced beyond the fourth grade). Nearly three million of these had never attended school. Over four million illiterates are native whites; over three million, foreign-born whites; and nearly three million, Negroes." [22]

It would be difficult to find a more scathing indictment of our American way of life than the above-stated facts. When we remember that without education there can be no real freedom or prosperity for long, it is inconceivable that any community college anywhere could ignore the demands for adult education. Some colleges are doing yeoman service, as will be shown in the chapter on adult education, to wipe out the scourge of illiteracy in their communities. The problem, however, is far broader than that represented by the functionally illiterate. Dr. Ordway Tead, chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City, had the following to say in the Inglis Lecture of 1947 at Harvard University: [23]

Dr. Walter V. Bingham, chief psychologist in the Adjutant General's office of the War Department, whose experience with army testing included over ten million men, has the following to say (in an unpublished address before the New York Academy of Medicine):

[22] Caliver, Ambrose. "The Problem of Adult Illiteracy." *The American Teacher,* February, 1949, 33:16–19.

[23] Tead, Ordway. *Equalizing Educational Opportunities beyond the Secondary School.* The Inglis Lecture. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1947. P. 9.

"The sobering fact is that among more than three million men in these top levels with the intellectual ability required of leaders, the Army examiners found upward of a million who had not even completed a high-school course, much less gone on to a college, a technological institute or a professional school. . . . For the majority of these bright soldiers, the decisive reason for dropping out of school had been economic, you may be sure; a restricted family income."

Dr. George F. Zook [24] makes the situation clear, so it would seem, and about as pointed and forceful as possible:

To me it seems almost inconceivable that any junior college, whether publicly or privately controlled, can live in the throbbing life of our larger cities and larger towns without feeling a responsibility for educational leadership in the community and for the development of such part-time and evening instruction in all manner of subjects for which the people in a community yearn consciously or unconsciously. The education of the oldsters is no less the obligation of organized schools and colleges than the education of the youngsters.

Not only in the throbbing centers of population and the larger towns, but also in the rural districts and smaller towns is there need for adult education. Regardless of location, the community college cannot ignore the function of adult education, unless it is being cared for by some other institution, and feel that it is performing its task. Some leaders in education are of the opinion that adult education should be given first place among the functions of the community colleges. Surely the need readily identifies the function. This is all that should be said at this time, because the main interest is the identification of functions for community colleges.

University-parallel Education

Suggestions have been made from time to time that community colleges confine themselves almost exclusively to fields of instruction and training other than university-parallel studies. On the other hand, the tendency has been for some of these colleges to practice the same policies of selectivity as senior institutions,

[24] Zook, *op. cit.*, p. 414.

merely parallel academic programs of education to the neglect of the unique fields of service available to them. Extensive studies in terminal education have made this situation just about as clear and convincing as possible.[25] The position of the former advocates and the practices of the latter institutions are both wrong. While the most fruitful field for the community college is outside the first and second years of academic college education, nevertheless, practically every investigation has shown the need for this program. The elements of geographical location, family income, tradition, and personal ambition play just as important a role for the highly qualified students who must live at home for at least two years beyond high school as they do for students who either will not, or cannot, continue their formal education beyond the junior-college years.

The fact that one-half of the students who enter senior institutions never go beyond the second year cannot be blamed wholly on the students themselves. Is it not likely that many students in this category might have continued their education had they received greater personal attention, the values of instruction in relatively smaller classes, and more careful guidance and counseling? Perhaps no thorough investigation has been made of this question, and it would be difficult to carry it out by the very nature of the problem. The author recalls vividly scores of letters and personal conversations with his own students who completed the junior-college work and then transferred to senior institutions. The burden of these letters and conversations, with due discount for flattery, was to the effect that these students would have been lost in the university during the first two years. The junior college specialized in freshman and sophomore studies and gave the students a running start, sharpened life objectives, gave guidance in good study habits, and advised them on the next steps with respect to the proper institution to enter. The community college, close to the people as it should be, can discover, encourage, and send along to senior institutions excellent talent

[25] Eells, Walter Crosby, *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941; *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

that might otherwise never be developed beyond high school. The fact that 60 per cent of the students in the upper division of the University of California at Berkeley, according to the registrar, are graduates of other institutions, largely junior colleges, and that a high percentage in many other universities are in the same category, should speak for itself.

One of the trouble spots in the plan lies in the many differences for course and credit requirements. It is fully recognized that a junior college cannot offer a variety of studies broad enough to fit the demands of all institutions or of any considerable number of them. The College Entrance Examination Board in cooperation with the Educational Testing Service is attacking this problem. The Board has made a grant of $25,000 and the Educational Testing Service will carry out the project. The aim is to design examinations to be administered at the end of the second college year whereby it may be possible to identify both achievement in college and the aptitudes of students for further education. It is well known that habits of study and ability are of greater importance than courses of study.[26] For this reason, the general plan calls for examinations that will test the broad understanding of students and avoid just as far as possible any attempt to influence the precise pattern of studies for the thirteenth and fourteenth years. It is believed that the development of this program will prove to be one of the most significant in the relationships between junior and senior colleges.[27]

Many studies have been made as to the success of junior-college students in senior institutions.[28] In general, right across

[26] Chamberlain, Dean, *et al. Did They Succeed in College? Adventure in American Education.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942. Vol. IV.

[27] Resolutions passed by the College Entrance Examination Board at a meeting in New York on Apr. 6, 1949, and reported in the *Washington Newsletter*, May 10, 1949, 4(9).

[28] Anderson, John A. "The Transfer Student—A Junior College Viewpoint." *Journal of American Association of Collegiate Registrars,* July, 1942, 17:618–624.

Bogue, Jesse P. "Graduates of New England Junior Colleges." *Junior College Journal,* May, 1940, 10:580–581.

Compton College, California. "Here Is Something We Are Proud of. . . ."

Eells, Walter C. "Success of Transferring Graduates of Junior College

the nation, the success of junior-college graduates is no longer open to question. Even students who have taken terminal studies have demonstrated their ability to do upper division work acceptably. The study of Dr. Walter Crosby Eells [29] should have significant bearing on this question.

An analysis of the records of 2,080 graduates of junior-college terminal or semiprofessional curricula in 67 junior colleges, based upon detailed reports from the registrars of 319 senior colleges and uni-

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Terminal Curricula." *Journal of American Association of Collegiate Registrars,* July, 1943, 18:372–398.

Hall, Walter A. "A Follow-up Study of Chaffey Junior College Students." Los Angeles, Calif.: University of Southern California. Master's thesis, 1929. Manuscript. Abstract in *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals, January,* 1931, No. 34, pp. 88–90.

Hibbs, Wilma Ruth. "Follow-up Study of the Graduates of Junior Colleges in the States of Kansas and Illinois, 1928–1931." Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois. Master's thesis, 1932. Manuscript.

Humphreys, J. A. "Transfer of Junior College Graduates to Senior Institutions." *Journal of American Association of Collegiate Registrars,* July, 1943, 18:408–415.

Jacobs, Mark R., Jr. "A Follow-up Study of a Group of Junior College Engineering Students." Los Angeles, Calif.: University of Southern California. Master's thesis, 1940. Manuscript.

Maguire, Ruth E. "A Descriptive Study of 430 Junior College Students Transferring to Syracuse University from 1937 to 1946, Inclusive." Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University. Unpublished master's thesis, 1948.

McCune, E. H. "A Follow-up Study of Oklahoma Municipal Junior College Graduates into Later Senior College Work and into Occupational Careers." *Peabody Journal of Education,* January, 1944, 21:229–235.

McAlmon, Victoria. "Ten Years of Placement and Follow-up." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* January, 1942, 17:25–29.

Mohr, J. Paul. "A Study of Follow-up in Junior Colleges." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* October, 1940, 15:344–346.

Stewart, Cecil Clair. "A Follow-up Investigation of a Group of Junior College Graduates." Stanford University Doctorate, 1943.

The University of California, Admissions Office, has a regular report on the success of junior-college students transferring to the university. Grade points in junior college and grade points in the university are compared for each institution in the state.

[29] Eells. "Success of Transferring Graduates of Junior College Terminal Curricula," *op. cit.*

versities to which these students transferred, shows: (1) More than half of them (56 per cent) graduated from the senior institution or were still in residence in it when the report was made; (2) only one in twenty (5 per cent) withdrew for poor scholarship; (3) about two-fifths withdrew primarily for reasons other than poor scholarship; (4) two full years of credit was granted by the senior institution to three-fourths of the students who graduated or were still in residence; (5) only 6 per cent were given less than one year of transfer credit; (6) average grades of the students in the senior institutions were somewhat higher than grades of the same students in junior colleges; (7) many received graduation honors and other evidence of scholastic distinction.

On the basis of this nationwide evidence, it would appear that many senior colleges and universities could safely and wisely broaden and liberalize their policies concerning provisional acceptance of graduates of junior-college terminal curricula. Such a policy would tend to facilitate satisfactory guidance procedures in the junior college and encourage enrollment of students in curricula apparently best suited to their special needs without making the decision regarding possible subsequent work in a higher educational institution the primary factor in the choice of such a curriculum.

A later study confirms the findings of Dr. Eells.[30]

Junior colleges have been deeply interested in general education, largely from the discussion point of view. Their actual programs are too often determined by the plans and dictates of senior institutions to which their graduates expect to transfer. High-school programs also have been dictated by college requirements as to subject matter and sequence of studies, even though it is well known that the particular pattern of studies is far less important than the ability of the student and his habits of study. Conversations are under way in several sections of the country between junior and senior colleges looking toward better adjustment of these problems. In the spring of 1948, Ruth E. Maguire,[31] of Bakersfield Junior College, Bakersfield, California, based her master's thesis at Syracuse University on a study of 430 junior-college students who had transferred to that institution from 1937 to 1946. The most interesting aspect of Miss Maguire's

[30] Bogue, Jesse P. "From the Executive Secretary's Desk." *Junior College Journal*, February, 1949, 19(6):359.

[31] Maguire, *op. cit.*

study relates to the success of the terminal student who had entered the university. She shows that the student from the junior-college terminal or semiprofessional curricula "achieved as well, or better, academically than the student prepared in the general academic curriculum."

SUMMARY

By examination of life situations, of identifiable problems that need solution, on national, state, and local levels, we arrive at conclusions regarding the basic functions of community colleges. They are guidance and counseling for all students and for the people of the community; general education for all students regardless of vocational objectives; technical and other vocational training, and that on a continuing basis, for students who will not advance to upper division collegiate studies; the further democratization of higher education by surmounting barriers of geography and family financial difficulties; the popularization of higher education by breaking down family traditions and creating greater personal interest and motivation; adult education and university-parallel studies for those students who should continue formal education.

Chapter 4. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE AND FUTURE TRENDS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The reader has now been introduced to the philosophies of community colleges, the various directions in which their services are expanding, and probably has a fair conception of the basic functions of these institutions. These three phases have been discussed in the preceding chapters. At this point it is, therefore, in order to raise the question as to how the movement came into being. Who was responsible for it and what have been the influences that have caused its growth? Furthermore, questions will be asked in the latter part of this chapter regarding the trends of the community-college movement, the directions it may be taking, and predictions as to its future in American education.

It should be stated again, although it is probably unnecessary, that *The Community College* is not a status study. Statistical materials and documented historical evidence will be presented only as groundwork for the identification of principles, issues, and trends. Those who are interested in pursuing the historical aspects of the movement may do so by referring to the list of readings below.[1] A complete history of the junior and com-

[1] Harper, W. R. "The High School of the Future." *School Review*, January, 1903, 11:1–3.

Hedgepeth, V. W. B. "The Six-year High School at Goshen." *School Review*, 1905, 13:19–23.

Angell, J. R. "The Junior College Movement in High Schools." *School Review*, 1915, 23:289–302.

Brush, H. R. "The Junior College and the Universities." *School and Society*, 1916, 4:357–365.

McDowell, F. M. *The Junior College.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin* 35, 1919.

[Footnote continued on p. 78.

munity college in the United States, brought up to date, would require a volume. At the present writing, the author is acquainted with two projects by graduate students the purpose of which is the production of a complete history of the junior and community college.

Moreover, while reference will be made to certain legislative enactments, this phase of the movement, too, is one that deserves extensive investigation. Some investigations have been made.[2]

Corson, D. B. "Claims of the New Type Junior College." *Education,* 1920, 40:327–329.

Blauch, L. E. "Reorganization on European Lines Appears Imminent." *School Life,* 1923, 9:77–79.

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Bogue, Jesse P., and Sanders, Shirley. "Analysis of Junior College Growth." *Junior College Journal,* February, 1949, 19:311–319.

[2] Price, Hugh G. "Recent Junior-college Legislation in the Various States." *Junior College Journal,* April, 1948, 18(8):438–443.

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It must be said, however, that legislative status studies tend to be out of date within a short time. An examination of a thesis written by Albert G. Duke at Syracuse University in 1948 on public junior-college legislation in the forty-eight states reveals the fact that it is out of date in a number of instances, although the thesis was acceptable at the time it was written. As examples of what is meant by the foregoing statement, the following may suffice. New York State, listed by Duke as having no general legislation for community colleges, passed in 1948 one of the most comprehensive laws ever enacted for the establishment of a state-wide system and was the first state to designate these institutions as community colleges. Duke also indicates that no state aid is provided for junior colleges in Iowa. The legislature made an appropriation of approximately forty-five dollars per year per student in 1949. It is claimed that the limit of the local tax levy for current expenses in Texas is 20 cents on $100. It may be believed or not, but this limit has been recently increased up to 50 cents on $100! Moreover, the 1949 Texas legislature almost doubled the amount of state aid to the junior colleges; the appropriation provides for $175 per student instead of $100 for the previous biennium. These instances are given, not for the purpose of criticism of a thesis, but to show how very rapidly the status of the movement changes. This rapidity of change is one reason for bringing out a new annual issue of the *Junior College Directory*.[3] Any attempt, then, at a detailed analysis of community-college legislation would require very frequent revision in the interest of accuracy.

What has been said of legislation applies with almost equal validity to the regulations and standards by state departments of education for community colleges. These criteria are under almost constant reexamination, due in part to the better organiza-

College. Nashville, Tenn. George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948.

Duke, Albert G. "Public Junior College Legislation in the Forty-eight States as of June, 1947." Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University, Graduate School of Education, June, 1948. Thesis for the degree of master of arts in education.

[3] *Junior College Directory*. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges. Annual.

tion of state junior-college associations, better understanding and cooperation by state departments of education, the influence of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the strong position taken by the National Council of Chief State School Officers at their national convention in 1947. During the years from 1946 to 1949, the author took an active part in conferences on standards and regulations in at least a dozen states and extensive correspondence has been in process with several others. A status study of standards and criteria would be of value, there is no doubt, but its greater value would be to indicate trends for recognition of institutions and their work.

Standards for membership in or for accreditation by regional associations naturally change more slowly than state regulations. Even here, however, extensive changes are in the process of being made. The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, after long and careful study by a special commission, adopted what the author regards as the most acceptable standards to be found in any regional accrediting association. Largely because the standards were stated in terms of functions to implement the announced philosophy and objectives of each institution, as well as rapid progress in the development of the institutions themselves, nine junior colleges in the Northwest were accredited in 1948. Lest it be thought that standards in the Northwest were "watered down" to the low levels of the swamplands to permit so many accreditations in one year, it should be said that the standards are high to ensure all phases of good performance; thorough inspections were made by committees; but more important, the standards recognized the unique functions of the institutions themselves. The older idea that a junior college was just half a college was relegated to oblivion where it properly belongs.

A special commission is presently at work in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools whose aim is the identification of standards, qualitative and functional rather than quantitative and static. The Southern Association is engaged in the same kind of efforts. New England, often regarded as the land of America's greatest conservatism, is witnessing one of the

most vitally hopeful movements regarding standards in the entire country. The junior-college administrators, through their Council, have been working for mutual improvement of their institutions. They have paid into the treasury considerable sums of money to finance visitations and inspections of all colleges desiring membership in the Council, including those that have been members since its founding. Status studies, therefore, either for legislation, state regulations, or regional accreditation are practically all in the process of change. This fact is important as a prelude to further understanding of the vigorous, youthful, and swiftly expanding movement known as the junior or community college in the United States.

Historical Perspective

Extensive research would be required to discover the very first sources of various streams that formed the community-college river. Some advocates were influenced by the European system of education. This is especially true with respect to men like President Henry P. Tappan, an early president of the University of Michigan; Edmund J. James, onetime distinguished president of the University of Illinois; William Watts Folwell, first president of the University of Minnesota; and Alexis F. Lange, a longtime distinguished professor at the University of California. There were a number of other scholars and educational leaders who held ideas similar to those expressed by these men. The basic concept, however, follows the line of reasoning that the traditional freshman and sophomore years in the American college are secondary in character. With varying degrees of emphasis, all of these men believed that students should not enter the university until they were well prepared for specialized studies. In most European school systems, students enter the university at approximately the level of scholastic attainment of students who are ready for the junior year in American colleges. Quotations could be made at some length from a number of scholars who were proponents of what has been called the "continued growth at the top and a lopping off at the bottom" of the Amer-

ican university. For our purpose, it will be sufficient to present one paragraph from the inaugural address of President James delivered at the University of Illinois in 1905.

> My own idea is that the university ought not to be engaged in secondary work at all, and by secondary work I mean work which is necessary as a preliminary preparation for the pursuit of special professional, that is, scientific study. Consequently, our secondary schools, our high schools, and our colleges will be expected to take more and more of the work which is done in the lower classes of the different departments of the university as at present constituted, until we shall have reached a point where every student coming into the university will have a suitable preliminary training to enable him to take up, with profit and advantage, university studies in a university spirit and by university methods.

No serious sustained efforts have been made for the implementation of the above-stated position by the universities. In 1935, however, the College of the Pacific at Stockton, California, discontinued the freshman and sophomore classes and concentrated all its resources on the junior, senior, and the first graduate years. Stockton Junior College, and others of similar type, provide education for the first two college years. There is a closely working plan between the College of the Pacific and Stockton Junior College. Proposals to discontinue the first two college years were made at the University of Georgia in 1859, the University of Michigan in 1852 and again in 1883, at Leland Stanford in 1907 and again in 1927, and at The Johns Hopkins University in 1926. For one reason or another the proposals never materialized into full-blown plans.

Looking at the matter in retrospect, one may well wonder why it was not taken under more serious consideration. It is generally understood that the alumni caused the policy to be abandoned at Leland Stanford. In 1948, the author met with the chancellor and staff members of a state university and the presidents of twelve junior colleges. The purpose of the conference was the serious exploration of plans whereby the freshman and sophomore years of the university would be abolished except for students living within commuting distances of the university. A working agreement was considered whereby education for these two years

in the state would be given in junior colleges. The university would be free to devote its resources and personnel to upper division studies and greatly needed professional and graduate work. At this university nearly 60 per cent of the students were in the first two years. No graduate work was being offered beyond that for the master's degree; professional education was critically restricted and limited to a few fields. The logic of the proposal appeared to be conclusive, the needs great, and the facilities to carry it out at hand in so far as the work of the first two years were concerned.

What happened, however, may shed light on some aspects of similar situations at other universities. It is reported on reliable authority that when a spokesman appeared before the appropriation committee of the general assembly, he was so sharply challenged by the chairman, an alumnus of the university, regarding the plan that it was abandoned. It will not be difficult to read between the lines in this story. Often the most logical proposals are not ripe psychologically. Emotional attachments for the "old school" are not easily changed; alumni loyalties, highly commendable and necessary though they are, can also become blockades in the road of university progress.

There are, however, deeper reasons for the failure of attempts to eliminate the first two years of the traditional university. These reasons are set forth by William H. Cowley in the *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1942, under the title of "The War on the College." The thesis defends the program of the liberal-arts colleges, whether they are operated within or without the university system. More especially, Dr. Cowley's shafts are aimed at the University of Chicago for granting the bachelor's degree at the end of the traditional sophomore year in college, announced by the university on January 22, 1942. The claim is made that professional schools in medicine, law, and engineering have been constantly advancing their requirements for a greater amount of liberal education before entrance into professional studies. Dr. Cowley says: [4]

[4] Cowley, William H. "The War on the College." *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1942.

The educational theory of the educational attackers of the four-year college boils down, therefore, to this: (1) The purpose of education is intellectual training; (2) general education, intellectualistic in emphasis, should follow the German pattern and be completed at a point comparable to the end of the sophomore year in the four-year college. If these two premises are accepted by educators and the public, American education will be completely reorganized, and the major structural change will be the disappearance of the traditional college.

There are, of course, two issues involved: one, the kind and amount of general education that is needed for what Walter Lippmann describes as the "common faith, common body of principle, common knowledge, common moral and intellectual discipline"; two, organizational allocation of functions. On the one hand, advocates of the cooperative plan between community colleges and the universities might be at complete variance with the intellectualistic educational program. On the other hand, the division of functions can be effected for the attainment of precisely the same general objectives advocated by Dr. Cowley. As a matter of record, the end of the second year of college marks the completion of formal education for the majority of students who continue post-high-school studies. For those who are able financially, intellectually, and by motivation to continue upper division college work, there are no basic obstacles to prevent them from pursuing further liberal education before they enter the professional school. The two issues, namely, kinds and amounts of education and the division of programs, should be considered separately on the basis of their respective merits.

There has been a rather marked tendency for universities, especially those under state control and support, to move in the opposite direction from that "of lopping off at the bottom." Instead of the university having its legs chopped off, it has in a number of instances multiplied its legs as Walter C. Eells characterizes it "in centipedal fashion." Witness the University of Wisconsin with its fourteen extension centers; Pennsylvania State College with seven undergraduate centers; the university system of Georgia; the three junior colleges of Louisiana State University; three centers established in recent years by the University of

Wyoming; and still there are others. The fact will be barely mentioned here, because it will be discussed more fully in a later chapter on organization.

Historical Perspective for Upward Movements

The greatest significance historically must be attached to the extension of education from the bottom upward rather than from the top downward. The majority of junior colleges in New England, for example, have resulted from gradual evolutionary changes from private academies into junior colleges. Very few junior colleges in this section of the country have been organized *de novo*. Almost to the same degree the process has taken place with independent junior colleges in the Southern states. The main reasons for these changes have been the demands for post-high-school education. The rapid growth of public, tuition-free high schools made it practically impossible for a number of private academies to secure enough students to justify operations.

Sometimes educational scholars claim that privately controlled institutions wish to follow the liberal-arts pattern by moving into lower division programs while entertaining designs and ambitions of becoming four-year colleges. No doubt this idea has been in the minds of some administrators and their boards of control. The deeper reason, however, has been functional adjustment for financial survival. Many of the privately controlled academies were compelled by the force of circumstances to make adjustments in programs for meeting new needs, or die. Anyone who may be interested in detailed historical studies would do well to investigate the histories of the institutions themselves. Excellent examples may be found in such schools as Green Mountain Junior College at Poultney and Vermont Junior College at Montpelier, Vermont; Colby Junior College at New London, New Hampshire; Westbrook Junior College at Portland, Maine; and a considerable list of others. These institutions survived, grew, and prospered because they changed their functions to meet changed educational conditions and demands. They looked up, many of them being flat on their backs, because there was no other direction to look for survival. In the case of some of these

junior colleges, it is impossible to believe that they would ever have been established by private enterprise had there not been fairly good buildings and grounds already provided, a long history of educational work, and a constituency acquainted with the schools.

The most striking example for the historical upward movement of education into the community-college field may be found in such states as California, Mississippi, and Texas. Practically all the junior colleges in Mississippi are outgrowths of the county agricultural high schools. Better roads, the location of more high schools closer to the homes of the people, the demands for further education at costs the people could afford to pay brought about changes in a number of the county agricultural high schools in Mississippi, largely under the able leadership of Knox Broom. They were organized and promoted as "the poor man's college." On the basis of this constant appeal, they have received the enthusiastic support of the common people. The author recalls a statement made by Broom at a junior-college meeting in Jackson, Mississippi, in 1947. He said, "If ever you men in the junior colleges fail to emphasize the fact that you are close to and deeply interested in the common folks and their needs in their home communities, then you will have nothing to stand on in this state." Here again may be found the process of metamorphosis, change in functional form and structure of county agricultural high schools into the people's colleges. In more recent years, changes and additions have been made in the outward appearance of these colleges.

In the case of California, where junior colleges have experienced their greatest growth, historical beginnings are to be found in the extension of the high schools themselves. The simply worded permissive law of 1907 stated: "The board of trustees of any city, district, union, joint union, or county high school may prescribe postgraduate courses of study for the graduates of such high schools, or other high schools, which courses of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses." Under this legal permission, the first public junior college in California began its first session in the fall of 1910 at Fresno with twenty-eight students. Until 1917, the

junior colleges were maintained at local expense. At the time the Ballard Act was passed in 1917, providing for state and county support, there were at least sixteen high schools in the state interested in this legislation. While the Act of 1907 was superseded by that of 1917, the district junior-college law of 1921 did not supersede the Ballard Act of 1917. As a result, public junior colleges in California operate under two different laws: some under that of 1917, and others under that of 1921. While junior colleges organized under the district law of 1921 have never suspended operations, according to Frank B. Lindsay of the California State Department of Education,[5] a number of colleges organized under other enactments have not met with such good fortune. Subsequent to 1921, there have been a number of modifications, but in substance the Act stands as one of the best legislative enactments for junior colleges in any state.

In 1947, Dr. Lindsay gave a thumbnail sketch of thirty years of junior-college history in California. His two opening paragraphs [6] are worthy of the most careful attention by all who are interested in sound legislation for the organization and support of junior colleges:

> The experience of thirty years of public junior colleges in California should mean something. Since 1917, ninety-two public junior colleges have been authorized to offer courses for regular students. Of these, sixty-eight have operated in high-school districts. Twenty-four are maintained by the twenty-two junior-college districts, for Los Angeles and Pasadena Junior College Districts each have two junior colleges. Of the sixty-eight which have been established in high-school districts, twenty-one have operated continuously since inception, and twelve have been incorporated into junior-college districts. Six discontinued after one to eleven years of operation but were reestablished by district reapplication to the State Board of Education and, hence, are counted twice among the sixty-eight. Five were authorized in 1946 to offer junior-college classes for the school year 1946–1947 until new junior-college districts became effective. Eighteen are dead.

[5] Lindsay, Frank B. "California Junior Colleges: Past and Present." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* March, 1947, 22(3):137–142.

[6] *Ibid.,* p. 137.

Many of the issues of junior-college education become apparent when the chronology of junior-college births and deaths is examined. And it is at once evident that the state of California, its young people and taxpayers, have paid a high price for the lack of clear, consistent state policy in the authorization of junior colleges. The right of the people to make its own mistakes is a condition of democracy; but the role of enlightened government surely is to enable people to profit by experience. This thumbnail historical sketch of thirty years of public junior colleges in California proposes to examine the record in order to define, if possible, which false starts need not be repeated and also to determine the directions toward which junior colleges may be encouraged to proceed.

Dr. Walter C. Eells,[7] who by residence, long research, and first-hand knowledge was highly qualified to write with authority on the junior colleges of California, has listed eleven reasons for the remarkable growth in that state:

1. Constructive leadership of the University of California and of Stanford University, and especially of Dr. Lange and Dr. Jordan.
2. Constructive leadership of the state superintendents of public instruction and of their subordinates in the state department, especially in the formation of proposals for improved legislation.
3. Favorable constructive legislation, especially in formation of independent junior-college districts with generous state aid and encouragement.
4. Size of the state with its concentration of college and university opportunities in two areas 400 miles apart, leaving many population centers inadequately supplied with opportunities for higher education.
5. Favorable climate and an extensive system of paved highways, making daily transportation over considerable distances feasible for many students.
6. Admission requirements of the University of California, Stanford University, and other institutions of high standards. The requirement of fifteen units of recommending grade (A or B) automatically disqualifies from half to two-thirds of all high-school graduates in the state.

[7] Eells, Walter C. (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. P. 25.

7. Relatively small number of small colleges, especially denominational enthusiasm for founding colleges, so largely characteristic of middle western states, did not extend to California.

8. Large number and proportion of high-school students in the state and the holding power of the high school.

9. Ability of the state to support education. Superiority in wealth and income.

10. Large royalties from mineral lands, collected from the Federal government and devoted by the state to junior-college expenses, thus for several years in the formative period giving the state ability to support extensive junior-college development without tapping regular sources of income.

11. Lack of educational conservatism and tradition. Strong attitude of liberal state support for elementary and secondary education.

In the main, the above-stated reasons for the growth of the junior-college movement in California are still true. Many additional influences, however, have come into being, such as the Association of California Junior Colleges; the stanch legislative leadership of men like Dr. Charles S. Morris of the San Mateo Junior College, for a number of years the designated spokesman for the public junior colleges before legislative committees; and the expanding program of the colleges themselves in response to community needs based on surveys of their several communities. It would probably require as great an upheaval to uproot the junior college in California now as it would to abolish the high schools. It has become an integral and expected part of public education. The four-year junior college was authorized by law in 1937, consisting of grades 11, 12, 13, and 14. Before this date, however, this type of organization was in existence in California, where it has experienced its greatest growth.

There are very few, if any, direct parallels in legal provisions for junior colleges among the several states that have passed laws for their establishment. Almost without a single exception each state has followed its own plan, and in a number of states the junior college operated for a number of years on an extralegal basis. It has been said that junior colleges existed in Illinois for thirty-five years almost clandestinely. Why has this been true? In all probability, the common people in their communities and

local leaders who are closer to the vitally important problems of the people sense their needs before they are even thought of at top-level planning and legislative enactment.

On the day this chapter was being written, the author attended a meeting before the county council in one of our states in behalf of a small appropriation for the county junior college. Almost without exception, the people who appeared to offer their testimonies and to answer questions as to why the county should make an appropriation were engaged in activities that brought them close to the needs of the people. One man, an authority in one field of health research, voiced the demands in that field for medical technicians and medical secretaries who would be generally superior if trained in the junior college. This county is one of the wealthiest rural and suburban counties in the United States with an assessed valuation of 300 million dollars; yet the amount asked for was a bare $25,000.

Definitely, the community-college movement is one that is growing out of the needs of the masses of the people; it is a people's educational movement. In a number of states, it is becoming as true as it was in California in 1928 when Will C. Wood, former superintendent of public instruction, wrote that "the state is now committed to approve the establishment of a junior college in each community that wants the institution, provided the community has students enough to justify it, wealth enough to support it, and a will strong enough to have it."

No historical perspective of the junior college would be adequate without reference to the work and influence of William Rainey Harper. Some of his suggestions related to the creation of an independent unit of education. In 1900, he stated that there were in the United States at least 200 colleges that could render a far better service by becoming junior colleges. He further stated that 25 per cent of these colleges would survive; that another 25 per cent would become junior colleges, but he apparently did not wish to discourage the other 50 per cent in their death struggles by predicting their final outcome.[8] Eells stated

[8] Harper, William Rainey. Address on "An Analysis of the Small College." Charleston, S.C.: National Education Association meeting, July 10, 1900.

forty years later that a study of 203 colleges, with enrollments in 1900–1901 of 150 or more students, showed 40 per cent had perished, 15 per cent had become junior colleges, and 45 per cent had survived as four-year colleges. The 203 colleges under investigation in the report referred to by Eells may or may not have been the ones Harper was thinking about in 1900. His prophetic views for the ultimate end of the weak, struggling college, attempting to do work far beyond its capacity and resources, were apparently as clear as his ideas on many other educational subjects. What Eells calls "a remarkable bill of rights for all junior colleges" was set forth by Harper in 1900 with respect to the small four-year colleges. If they should accept the better role of junior colleges, he claimed that the following would be accomplished: [9]

1. The money now wasted in doing the higher work superficially could be used to do the lower work more thoroughly.
2. The pretense of giving a college education would be given up, and the college would become an honest institution.
3. The student who was not really fitted by nature to take the higher work could stop naturally and honorably at the end of the sophomore year.
4. Many students who might not have the courage to enter upon a course of four years of study would be willing to do the two years of work before entering business or professional school.
5. Students capable of doing the higher work would be forced to go away from the small college to the university. This change would in every case be most advantageous.
6. Students living near the college whose ambition it was to go away to college could remain at home until greater maturity had been reached—a point of the highest moment in days of strong temptation.

Within the past few years, there has been a trend for several junior colleges in various sections of the country, flushed with postwar enrollments and with larger funds by way of tuition payments by the Veterans Administration, to attempt four-year col-

[9] Eells, Walter Crosby. (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. P. 15. Eells' summary of Harper's points made before N.E.A. meeting, Charleston, S.C., July 10, 1900.

lege programs. The author has had the privilege of inspecting some of these ambitious institutions. In almost every case, no particular evidence was found that resources were available to develop a first-class senior institution. In fact, some of the colleges scarcely met the standards for a good junior college. In some instances, those in authority reasoned that it would be easier to secure funds and students to provide for a four-year program than it would for one of two years. In spite of advice to the contrary, based on accepted principles of educational support, student enrollments, and the fact that a few of the colleges showed alarming rates of attrition between the first and second years, some of them have proceeded with plans for expansion of curricula.

A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education, published in 1948, was aimed, in part, at a problem in that state for a number of junior colleges to become senior institutions. The recommendations were made and accepted in good faith, according to Dr. George Strayer who directed the survey, for proper recognition and allocation of functions between the University of California, the state colleges, and the junior colleges. In brief, each type of institution was strongly advised to keep within the bounds of its own field of service. Recommendations were made for the establishment of more junior colleges to meet the community needs of a number of unserved sections of the state, but not with the view that in time they would become state colleges. If the University of California should establish additional branches, and a few were indicated as desirable, they were to perform the functions of the university and not attempt to usurp the unique fields of service of the junior colleges. The same principle applied with equal force to the state colleges.

The situation in general in California with respect to the expansion of junior colleges is contained in the two following paragraphs from the *Report* [10] of the Survey Committee:

In several sections of the state the proposal has been made to develop junior colleges into four-year colleges. In the last legislature

[10] *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education.* Mar. 1, 1948. Pp. 9 and 12.

several bills to establish such new institutions were introduced, including one which would authorize the development of any junior college into a four-year college. In support of these proposals the statement was invariably made that the great growth of population in the state has outrun the capacity of publicly supported colleges and universities and that additional facilities are needed. Often the assumption was made that four-year colleges in sufficient numbers should be set up to permit all students to live at home while attending school. This was the opinion not only of members of civic groups but of some school administrators. . . .

Unquestionably if one or more junior colleges are expanded into four-year institutions, it will set the pattern for a host of other junior colleges. Indeed, at the last legislature there were submitted proposals for such expansions in the case of six junior colleges. Once open the doors, and it is difficult to see any end until every junior college in the state becomes a four-year institution. This would mean the complete destruction of the junior-college system. The financial burden on the state would be overwhelming, if, in addition to the University of California with its present four major teaching campuses and the seven state colleges (including the California Polytechnic College at San Luis Obispo), it had to support fifty-five institutions in offering third and fourth year work; indeed it is not improbable that a number of them would seek to offer graduate instruction as well. This picture is not at all fantastic when the Committee recalls not only the measures submitted to the last legislature but the presentations from several communities made directly to the Survey Committee.

The author is not an advocate of the *status quo* for any institution merely on the grounds of status. The history of education is filled with examples of institutional change, some for the better and others for the worse. Each institution will have to be measured in terms of its own location, resources, philosophy, and objectives as well as in terms of needs that have not been adequately met. However, a stroll through the graveyard of educational institutions should be made before plans are laid for ambitious expansions. Epitaphs on tombstones might possibly cause planners to reflect more seriously regarding how and with what means their objectives are to be attained.

At the time this book was being written, the author engaged with two university presidents in a state survey of the schools and

colleges of one of the larger religious denominations. In the space of twenty-five years of recent history, nearly 40 per cent of the schools and colleges of this denomination had either closed their doors or had ceased to exist for one reason or another under the auspices of the denomination. Warned by this handwriting on the wall, recognizing the financial limitations of the communicants, and realizing that it is better to do a limited number of things well than to attempt many indifferently, the survey was authorized. Its stated purpose was to gather all possible facts on which sound principles and policies could be based for a long-range program of educational improvement. Improvement does not always mean expansion. Sometimes it is attained by contraction and concentration: contraction of the base of operations, concentration of resources and personnel for higher quality of performance with proper allowance for diversity of needed services.

Thus, it may be seen, the swelling stream of the present-day community college has been formed from several sources: imitations of European systems of education; independent thinking of strong men like Harper and others whose concepts reach far beyond any one particular type of institution to meet the varying needs of all the people; extensions of universities into communities of some states; private enterprise in establishing new institutions and in transforming old academies into modern junior colleges; the assumption of a better and higher role of a few four-year colleges in becoming good junior colleges; the rushing waters of public education, sometimes as free as secondary education and at other times nearly so, but gradually approaching that goal. Great concepts such as the people's college, the further democratization of higher education, the continuation of education in the community to enrich the lives of the people who will live there, to train them for greater skills and efficiency; education as a never-ending process in the community, of the community, by the community, and for the community—these are the driving influences converging to swell the stream of the movement today.

Future Trends

What of the future? The President's Commission on Higher Education believed that community colleges would, in the future, serve the needs of the people in much the same manner as high schools do today. The National Council of Chief State School Officers went on record with unanimous approval for the extension of free public education to include the fourteenth year. California has adopted this plan. The Minimum Foundation Education Law of Florida looks in this direction and permits its future development. The Community College Act of New York provides for two-thirds of the expense from public funds. Texas is actually moving rapidly for the establishment of new colleges, the expansion of older ones, and in approaching tuition-free education in them. It is only a matter of time when junior colleges in Texas will be as free as they are in California. Were it not for an unfortunate provision in the laws compelling junior colleges receiving state aid to make the same tuition charges as the state institutions, this goal would have been attained by the present time. One college that opened its doors in 1949 did not apply for state aid in order that it might not charge tuition! The wealth of the local community is great enough to support the college without tuitions or state assistance, and the will of the people is strong enough to insist that this plan be carried out. Maryland, Iowa, Oklahoma, and Michigan are awakening to the responsibility of the state in support of junior colleges. This is one of the definite future trends. No one knows how long it will take to reach the goal of free public education through the fourteenth year. Many signs point in that direction. Its history in established institutions and states provides results rewarding and satisfying enough to the people so that they are determined to share the costs by community cooperation for its continuation.

What happens for the improvement of the people, their industry, business, agriculture, and professional services in one state inevitably influences what will be done in other states. Services may be imitated out of pride, out of self-protection, but even more from values, both economic and cultural, that may be seen

in neighboring states. Florida's salaries for teachers, for example, average a thousand dollars a year higher than in her neighboring states. Just what will happen? It requires neither a mathematician nor a prophet to give the answer. The strongest teachers from other states will flow into the state with higher salaries, and the weaker teachers from the latter will flow into the former. What is true with respect to teachers' salaries is true also when greater advantages generally are offered. No state can live long and well in isolation. It cannot disregard what others are doing for the advancement of their people. The very facts of economic competition will compel them to advance also, else they will stand by to watch the most virile and enterprising younger citizens migrate to other states.

Even yet, some of our states have apparently never taken seriously the economic and cultural losses they sustain year after year by the migration of great numbers of the youth whom they have reared. At the very time when they would become productive, taxpaying citizens, able to repay some of the expenditure made for their rearing and education, they take this investment with them and turn it to the advantage of other states in which they will reside. It has been reported that one-half of all young men who attain their majority in Vermont leave the state at about that time. One wonders how certain states can really be *thrifty* when these great financial and cultural investments are permitted to slip away. It is in reality, in terms of hard dollars, more akin to the truth of the penny and the pound. Studies made by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce have shown that countries with limited natural resources can, by a high degree of the right kind of education, create high standards of living and general prosperity.[11] Examples cited are countries like Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. On the other hand, countries may have great natural resources coupled with a poor system of education. The results are poverty generally, with all the other ills that inevitably travel in its company.

It has been stated previously in this chapter that no particular pattern has developed in the several states for junior-college legis-

[11] Clark, Harold. *Education Steps Up Living Standards.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 1945.

lation. At this point, however, there is a definite trend. Comparative studies have been made of legislation, even though more thorough and complete projects should be carried out. Such studies being made available to the states will influence legislation to a certain degree and tend to create some basic similarities. As an example, a bill was introduced in the Rhode Island legislature in 1949 modeled directly on that of New York State. Some states have requested copies of bills, and it has been proposed that a model be drawn for their guidance. Moreover, state surveys have been made by leading authorities such as Dr. George Strayer, Dr. Leonard V. Koos, Dr. George Works, Dr. John Dale Russell, and others. These surveys, being the work of well-recognized authorities, tend to follow certain basic principles of educational organization and support. With the further expansion of this type of scholarly investigation among the states, it is quite likely that more agreement may appear in legislation. This question has been one of considerable concern with the legislative committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Attempts have been made to arrive at common agreements on guiding principles. These general principles, drawn up in conference at the national convention in St. Louis in 1947, represent one among several efforts in this direction.[12]

1. There must be clearly recognized by the state the potentialities of junior-college education.
   a. A junior college should offer lower division work parallel to college or university courses, and, in addition, terminal courses should be developed in response to the needs of the community.
   b. An adult-education program, also in response to the needs of the community, should be developed by the junior college.
2. A survey of the state in reference to the need for junior colleges is recommended as a necessary prelegislative step.
3. School population is a necessary consideration. It is suggested that in most cases a secondary-school enrollment, public and private, of 1,000 be considered a minimum. A junior college with an enrollment of less than 200 students cannot be operated economically or effectively.

[12] Fariss, Gertrude Houk. *Report of the Committee on Legislation. Junior College Journal,* May, 1947, 17(9):386–387.

4. It must next be ascertained whether there is enough taxable assessed valuation within a district to support a junior college. There should be a sufficient assessed valuation to provide the capital outlay, which would include buildings and equipment, and a sufficient amount of valuation per A.D.A., in combination of local and state resources, to carry an adequate program. There should be available from local or state sources or both a minimum of at least $200 per student per year for operating expenses.
5. Petition for a junior college should come from the voting citizens of the district in which the junior college is to be organized.
6. Provision should be made for a combination of political subdivisions into a junior-college district, with a local board of —— members, under the general supervision of the state department of education.
7. It is a strong recommendation that the public junior college be tuition free.
8. Junior-college faculty members should participate in all of the privileges guaranteed to teachers under the regulations of the state department of education, *i.e.*, tenure, retirement pensions, etc.

It will be readily recognized that there are inherent dangers in attempts to identify quantitative elements too specifically. As an example, it is stated in the principles adopted in 1947 that a minimum of $200 per year per student should be available for current expenses. Preliminary studies made by the junior-college specialist of the U.S. Office of Education at the time of this writing show that by actual expenditures the estimated figure made in 1947 was out of line by approximately $100 per student per year. Future economic fluctuations could very easily affect any fixed quantitative standards as to expenses either upward or downward. The really important matter is that assessed valuations shall be great enough to provide adequate local funds without placing a real burden on the taxpayers; that understanding and general commitments shall be made by the state as an accepted policy. The New York plan calls for a division of current expenses on the basis of one-third each by the state, the local community, and the student with no definite amount specified. Standards of educational offerings to be determined by the trustees of the state university must be met. Local communities

may exceed these standards and also pay any amounts necessary to reduce or eliminate entirely the students' tuitions, if they are willing to do so. Some of the more important state surveys are listed below.[13]

[13] Information for each state survey is as follows: (*a*) Title and date of the report; (*b*) official body charged with responsibility for making the study; (*c*) legal basis of authorization of the study; (*d*) person or group actually making the study.

California: (*a*) *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education,* March, 1948. (*b*) Liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the State Department of Education. (*c*) Legislative act, 1947.

Florida: (*a*) *Education and the Future of Florida,* January, 1947. (*b*) Governor of the state by legislative enactment. (*c*) Legislative resolution, 1945. (*d*) Florida Citizens' Committee on Education.

Idaho: (*a*) *Public Education in Idaho,* 1946. (*b*) Idaho Education Survey Commission. (*c*) Legislative act, 1945. (*d*) Division of Surveys and Field Services of George Peabody College.

Illinois: (*a*) *The Junior College in Illinois,* November, 1944. (*b*) Commission to Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois. (*c*) Legislative act, 1943. (*d*) Leonard V. Koos.

Maryland: (*a*) *Higher Education in Maryland,* 1947. (*b*) Maryland Commission on Higher Education. (*c*) Legislative act. (*d*) John Dale Russell and staff for the American Council on Education.

New York: (*a*) *Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University,* February, 1948. (*b*) State legislature. (*c*) Legislative act, 1946; extended in 1947. (*d*) Temporary Commission on the Need for a State University.

Pennsylvania: (*a*) *A Community College Plan for Pennsylvania,* 1948. (*b*) Joint State-Government Commission. (*c*) Legislative act, 1947. (*d*) Post-high-school Unit; Joint State-Government Commission.

Washington (1): (*a*) *A Survey of the Common School System of the State of Washington,* 1938. (*b*) Washington State Planning Council. (*c*) Directive of the governor. (*d*) Washington State Planning Council.

Washington (2): (*a*) *A Survey of Public Education in the State of Washington,* September, 1946. (*b*) Governor of the state on authorization by a legislative act. (*c*) Legislative act, 1945. (*d*) Surveyors to be recommended by the U.S. Office of Education and not to be residents of the state of Washington. George D. Strayer.

Wisconsin: (*a*) *Junior College Needs in Wisconsin,* April, 1947. (*b*) Executive Committee of the Board of Regents of the State University. (*c*) Directive of the Board of Regents. (*d*) Committee (of University of Wisconsin) on Junior-college Needs in Wisconsin. J. G. Fowlkes and H. C. Ahrnsbrak.

Future Trends in Privately Controlled Junior Colleges

There can be no doubt about the role that will be played in the future by the free public community colleges if the thinking of leading authorities and commissions can be trusted. The large place that will be filled by these institutions does not affect adversely the unique role that can be played by strongly supported junior colleges operated by private enterprise. It may be true that they will not experience any rapid expansion in numbers of institutions or of enrollments. Neither one of these functions is of peculiar interest to them. They cannot possibly envision education for all the children of all the people. That objective must be accepted by publicly supported education because there is simply no other way of ensuring its attainment. Neither can privately supported junior colleges aspire to the enrollment of great numbers without distorting one of their valuable features. It is inconceivable that a privately controlled junior college, especially if it has boarding accommodations, can expect to do the kind of work that needs to be done with enrollments running into the thousands. How large should this type of college be? Many factors will influence an answer to this question, and there will be wide differences of opinion. From his sixteen years as an administrator and from wide observations throughout the United States, the author is strongly inclined to recommend a college of from 400 to 500 students. Granted a favorable location and strong financial backing from independent sources, the writer would plan for an independent junior college of 500 students for both men and women as coordinate education.

The reasons for this plan would be: one, enough students to provide economically for a strong administrative and teaching staff; two, income sufficient to bring to the college and the community a certain amount of good talent in various fields of artistic, literary, and social accomplishment; three, the number would not be too large for faculty-student fellowship or to prevent students from forming wide circles of acquaintances; four, coordinate arrangements would allow for one administrative staff, but separate resident campuses for men and women; five, the young men and

women would be near enough for necessary social contacts and yet not be thrown together as would be the case on a single campus; six, the whole social life of the students would be largely under the control of the staff and student government; seven, diversified activities in athletics and recreation could be enjoyed with general participation; eight, library, laboratories, and other educational facilities could be used for common purposes; nine, the base of educational offerings could be broad enough to meet diverse needs and yet narrow enough to ensure high quality of work with relatively small classes and individual attention to individual problems. This type of institution would not appeal to some people who prefer single-sex schools; it would have a strong appeal to other people who believe that later adolescents should have ample opportunities for social contacts under favorable conditions.

Criticism of other types of junior colleges is not implied. There is need for different kinds of schools. It happens, however, that experience and observation confirm the writer's ideal of an independent junior college. It is believed that a program of education could be devised and carried out that would need have no fears about competition from any source. Opportunities offered under this plan for growth and improvement of the whole person really constitute a twenty-four-hour-a-day program for the college. The fellowship of students, one of the most important factors in education, becomes deeper and stronger than is possible under almost any other circumstances. Just as long as there are considerable numbers of people who prefer to have their children educated in such institutions and the children desire to attend them, very little difference will be made by the growth of other kinds of colleges, if the privately controlled junior college provides for *quality* of living and education commensurate with its unique arrangements and opportunities.

The independent junior college has a distinctive role in American education. It is so important that the next chapter will be devoted to it. On the whole it needs no defense; it is deserving of praise. It has its shortcomings as do other types of institutions, but generally speaking it fills a real need in the lives of

large numbers of young people. Its main dangers appear to be in tendencies to forego some of its peculiar services.

It may be sufficient in this concluding paragraph to say that the observations of the author lead him to believe that independent junior colleges will continue as an integral part of American tradition in education. Reasons for this belief will be explained at some length, and examples of what is being done will be given, as stated above, in the following chapter.

Chapter 5. DISTINCTIVE ROLE OF THE INDEPENDENT COLLEGE

Statements have been made previously to indicate, at least by inference, the attitude of the author to the independent college. This attitude is one of generous appreciation. This chapter, therefore, is not defensive. Independent institutions have made their place in American education, in the affections and good will of millions of citizens. Many contribute for their support with great generosity.

Perhaps one cannot divorce his personal experiences, especially if they have been of value for the enrichment of his own life, from his attitudes. The writer has looked back on his academy and college days with a sense of appreciation arising from the fact that these independent institutions were largely responsible for his opportunity to share in some modest measure man's cultural heritage. Definite personal relationships and interests were apparent during those days of preparation that exceeded all bounds of contracts on the part of officers and teachers. The names, faces, and influences of men and women who went out of their way to assist and encourage a hard-pressed, struggling student naturally engrain themselves deeply into personality. The question may be asked if this attitude is equally shared by persons who have attended publicly controlled institutions. This may be true. It appears, however, that one's deeper affections tend to be with schools where classes have been relatively small and relations with teachers more than professional. This happened to be the author's experience in an educational fellowship. If students who have attended large public colleges and universities share in similar satisfactions, their "lines have fallen in pleasant places."

One of the distinctive roles that can be played by the rela-

tively smaller independent college is the cultivation of personal relationships and enrichment of interests among students and between them and their teachers. In these days of objective scientific evaluations, these more humanistic considerations may not rate so highly as they should. In times when numbers appear to attract public attention and the god of bigness sits high among the gods of education, it may not be entirely out of order to recall the nostalgic idea of the split log. Someone in recent years remarked that the split log, with teacher and student on it, is still a proper symbol of educational fellowship except that the log has become so long that student and teacher can scarcely see or hear each other. Public educational institutions are not the only ones that have fallen prey to bigness, with classes running into hundreds and enrollments into many thousands. A number of independent schools have gone the same way.

At one time, the junior college was relatively small. For the most part this is true today, but there are trends presently apparent in the opposite direction. A junior college with more than 10,000 students is not a small one. It is doubtful if some unique values of individual attention can be claimed by any institution of this size. With full appreciation for all honest efforts in eduvation whether in colleges large or small, it is nevertheless true that independent schools can determine the size of enrollments with greater freedom than can be done in publicly supported institutions. Within the bounds of smaller numbers of students, personalized associations and programs can be provided. In this respect, the independent college, and especially the junior college, can play a distinctive role.

It is readily conceded that smaller schools with boarding facilities cannot democratize educational opportunities for the masses of the people. It is not their distinctive function. The value of a restricted program is not to be underestimated just because it cannot be extended to the masses. It naturally operates within certain limits as to numbers and therein lies its opportunity. Intangible though this value may be, it is real and often more so than some that may be more easily measured by objective academic standards. The author has had experience in public edu-

cation and appreciates what it means in a great democracy. He has had the privilege of administering a junior college in which practically all students lived on the campus for nine months in the year. The responsibility for and opportunity with students who live, study, work, and play together as one big family day in and day out for this length of time are uniquely and incomparably greater than they can possibly be under any other circumstances. The independent junior colleges, of which there are more than three hundred, mostly with boarding facilities and relatively small enrollments, have opportunities to play an intensive role in guidance, in social development, in cultural relationships, in religious and character education not enjoyed by the average nonboarding public institutions.

The Role of Freedom

It is obvious that an independent college is free to provide religious instruction and conduct services of worship if it so desires. Some public institutions go as far in this direction as they can. There are limitations which they are compelled to observe that do not apply to the independent colleges. By plans of cooperation with various religious bodies and by general encouragement, centers for fellowship and worship are established near the campuses of public colleges and universities. While these institutions are limited in direct participation, indirectly their influence is constructive. No limitations except those of reason and good taste are placed on the independent college. It enjoys full freedom to offer, or even require, courses of instruction in religion and to provide for chapel services.

As an example, the Lewis College of Science and Technology at Lockport, Illinois, states its position as follows: [1] "As an integral part of its program, chapel services are conducted daily in the college chapel. All Catholic students are required to attend these services. Students of other faith will find public transportation to Joliet for attendance at the church of their choice." Here

[1] Catalogue, Lewis College of Science and Technology. Lockport, Ill.: 1949–1950.

we have a clear statement of the position of an independent college in which religious training is an integral part of the total program. Moreover, a two-hour-per-week course in Christian Ethics is required of all Catholic students. Natural Ethics, a course investigating the moral principles guiding human conduct, is required of all students who do not take Christian Ethics.

The author has observed in extensive travels and visitations to independent junior colleges a tendency for some of them to neglect their opportunities for emphasis on religious instruction and worship. Such institutions are failing to make good use of their freedom. There are considerable numbers of parents who want their children educated under religious influences. These people cannot be charged with being narrow. For the most part, they are deeply concerned about qualities of character, the attitudes of their children, and the cultivation of a sense of reverence. Independent colleges can, without being sectarian in outlook and teaching, provide constructive, positive programs to meet the needs of these people. In view of the fact that publicly supported institutions are limited in what can be done in this respect, it is rather puzzling that independent colleges sometimes neglect this field of service. The author has found that many Southern junior colleges under public support and supervision have programs of religious training. The prevailing sentiment of the people is in favor of it.

The Role of Quality Education

Consideration and praise must be given to public education, because responsibilities for the masses must be shouldered by it. Often public colleges, and this is true of junior colleges, are required to assume unusual burdens without adequate financial support. When the role of high-quality education for restricted enrollments of carefully selected students is described, it should be kept in mind that public colleges naturally assume additional obligations. The general rule today in practically all sections of the country is for public junior colleges to admit not only high-school graduates but all persons in the community who can profit by what is offered. The chapter on the expanding role of the

community college has shown how far-reaching many of the programs are. The independent college is not of necessity faced with this demand. If it does not aim at high-quality education, it is not justifying its existence. A greater amount of time can be devoted to each student; guidance and counseling can become thoroughly personalized and aware of the total needs of the student; individual attention can be given by teachers to special difficulties and to the acceleration of special talents; small classes make more frequent participation possible; and discussion methods can be developed to a high degree. It may be said that such methods tend to coddle students and prolong the years of infantile dependency. Of course, this could be the case if methods were not devised to do exactly the opposite, namely, to stir up and draw out the best talents of each student and demand accomplishments in keeping with natural abilities. When this is done, it is as far from academic coddling as is the careful training of the sprinter for the 100-yard dash in 10 seconds.

If, therefore, the independent college fails to take advantage of its unique position and to provide education of the highest possible quality, it is missing the mark. *Kind* of education rather than *extent* should be the source of its pride. There is need for the removal of artificial barriers in education; need to democratize opportunities to a far greater extent than ever before; but there is also an equal need "to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity" and to begin the process long before the days of graduate study. Well-financed independent schools and colleges that have held this aim constantly, that have made every reasonable effort to reach it, have maintained themselves before the world in high honor. They have not been carried away with the desire to be big institutions. They have remained relatively small by choice; accepted their distinctive role within this limitation. As a result, their contribution to society has been of great value. Independent junior colleges should be less frightened than some of them appear to be about what will happen when tuition-free community colleges may become generally established. They should aim at greatly needed fields of quality education, narrow their sights to a limited number of attainable objectives, build up their resources and husband them with care. If they are willing

to devote themselves to this type of program, their future should be as secure as strong independent senior colleges and universities that have followed a similar program.

It may be fully expected that weak colleges of all types will face hard times in the future as they have in the past. There is no cure for weakness except strength. Unless foundations and religious bodies sponsoring junior colleges have resources and the will to support them liberally, they should reduce the number under sponsorship or abandon them honestly. A religious organization whose presumed objective is high quality of living should never be a sponsor, much less the responsible parent, of an institution too weak to reflect credit on education. The author has visited a number of colleges, founded in the name of the Great Teacher, that were practically abandoned financially by the sponsors. The Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints pursued a far wiser policy in Utah. Carbon, Dixie, Cedar City, Snow, and Weber Colleges were all turned over to the state and became well-supported institutions of junior-college grade. The Church then concentrated its efforts for the fullest possible development of Brigham Young University at Provo. A similar trend is under way in Florida where some of the independent junior colleges have been given to cities or counties under provisions of the Minimum Foundation Education Program. One leader of education in a certain denomination remarked to the author that his church had been guilty of founding a large number of schools and colleges and of giving them scanty moral and financial support. Time and again, religious organizations have lost control over educational institutions because they were unwilling, or unable, to support them. Survival demanded generous gifts from other sources. The strings to the college purse passed to other hands, and with their passing general control followed.

It should not be assumed from what has been said in the foregoing paragraph that administrators of public institutions sleep in beds of roses. Far from it. They are compelled by public pressures to accept large numbers of students. The rate of dismissals for failure is usually high. The headaches and heartaches incident to the process are among the most unpleasant college staffs have to face. Time, effort, and expense are re-

quired. While some state institutions exercise a rather high degree of selectivity, they are nevertheless dependent on the good will of the general public for legislative appropriations. It is no easy task for them to offend persons who have influence in a state. The author lunched with the president of a great state university within a few months of this writing who had been importuned by a man of wealth and influence to admit his daughter at midyear. The daughter was transferring from another institution with a record of D grades in all subjects except one, and that was an F. These cases may be rare, but there are enough of them to create precedents and to place administrators in unpleasant situations.

Within the space of three weeks during the spring of 1949, the author visited with the chancellor of the university system of a Southern state and the president of a university in a Northern state. The appropriations had been reduced for the education of nearly 26,000 students to the amount formerly provided for less than half this number in the university system embracing fourteen institutions. In the Northern state, the legislature cut back appropriations to the amounts allowed for 1931–1932, although enrollments had more than doubled during the past few years. Both the chancellor and the president were held in highest regard in their states; there were no unusual criticisms of their institutions; both men were very capable. Yet the fact remained that they were forced to make more brick with less straw. The two examples are not isolated ones and in varying degrees could be duplicated several times. Some of the conditions under which public education is carried forward have been cited for the express purpose of emphasizing the distinctive opportunities of independent colleges. Independent colleges have their problems of public relations and finances, too, but they also enjoy freedom of action often denied to men in public life and affairs.

The Role of Finances

While the role of finances may not be the most significant played by independent schools and colleges, nevertheless, it is highly important. Any consideration of the work of private enterprise in educational and cultural advancement that ignores or

belittles this role does a disservice to institutions and the people who support them. So much has been said and written in recent years regarding safeguards against the possibility of allowing any division of public funds to independent schools that the liberal financial role played by them has been thrown into the shadows of the stage. If all funds now provided by individuals, foundations, and religious bodies for education should suddenly be abolished, the burden that would fall onto the shoulders of taxpayers would soon convince the most skeptical of their size and importance. Facts regarding finances in higher education, to make no mention of funds and free services in parochial and other schools, can be faced with justifiable pride by all who believe in independent schools as a part of the American way and system.

Statistical summaries may not be the most interesting reading, but they are necessary to maintain proper perspective in the educational picture. The Federal Security Agency of the United States government is charged, among other responsibilities, for gathering and publishing data on matters of education. This function is performed through the Office of Education. The *Statistical Summary for 1945–1946*, published in April, 1949, is a valuable document.[2] In spite of the time lag, the facts are regarded as being basically reliable and their significance is worthy of careful attention. Data presented cover 1,768 higher educational institutions. Of this number, 634 are publicly controlled and 1,144 are under the control of churches, other philanthropic organizations, or nongovernmental agencies. The fact that nearly twice as many colleges and universities are outside the bounds of governmental support as are within it should be sufficient evidence to show that the day of private enterprise in education is far from being outmoded. In reality, it is a hopeful fact in American life and letters! One hears a great deal about the influence of tax rates, perhaps higher than Americans ever dreamed of or dreaded, drying up the sources of private gifts and bequests.

[2] *Summary of Statistics of Higher Education, 1945–1946.* Washington, D.C.: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, *Circular* 256. April, 1949.

However this may be, the *Statistical Summary for 1945–1946* speaks for itself. For current expenses in higher public education, the several states spent $225,000,000; for education in independent schools during the same year $61,000,000 were made in private gifts, and $78,000,000 by income from endowments. As is well known, even endowments were largely created by free contributions. It should not be overlooked that individuals who attended independent institutions paid tuitions in excess of $160,000,000 while those who attended public colleges and universities paid less than one-third of this amount. For organized research, independent schools spent $10,000,000 more than was spent by those under public control; $48,000,000 as compared to nearly $38,000,000. Perhaps a considerable amount of these research funds come from governmental subsidies.

It may prove of interest to examine certain data regarding junior and community colleges. For some reason, only 464 junior colleges were reported. For current expenses, private institutions accounted for $31,000,000 compared to approximately $26,000,000 for the public. In view of the great expansion of public junior colleges, it is significant that over $5,500,000 were given for plant funds for the independent and $3,708,000 for the same purpose to public junior colleges from public funds. In all probability, future reports may show a changed picture from that presented for 1945-1946. Independent schools and colleges are presently a virile influence in American life and are destined to remain so for a long time, unless more radical political and economic changes take place than can be foreseen in 1950. The financial record alone indicates that there are great numbers of people who believe in this kind of education and are willing to pay large sums of money to maintain it, even though they could exercise the option of channeling all education through public institutions. In addition to their gifts and larger tuition payments to independent schools, they share in the payment of taxes for the support of public education. When one thinks seriously about the phenomenon, namely, free Americans paying large sums for something they are already paying for through taxation, it is almost amazing.

The Role of Academic Freedom

One of the first steps in the control of people in totalitarian governments is to throttle or abolish nongovernmental schools. The past two decades have presented the world with several examples. History is now being repeated in this respect in several countries under Communistic domination. Implications for our own free society may be easily drawn without in the least inferring that the public-school system or public colleges and universities are now less academically free than those that are nongovernmental. The very freedom of public education, however, is based on general freedoms guaranteed to citizens. Among these freedoms are the rights to establish schools and colleges outside of governmental support and control. Abolish these rights and the first long step will be taken to open the way for governmental regimentation of all education. Regardless of the status of present-day public education, no one would attempt to deny that it is far more responsive to political controls and legislative enactments than is the case with independent schools and colleges. Without the bulwarks of professional associations of educators, the influences of strong independent institutions, and courageous leaders who can speak without interference, one can easily imagine what could happen even here to public education.

Independent schools and colleges stand as a constant challenge to the threat of political encroachments on the liberties of all forms of American education. Those who may be interested in this challenge from a legal point of view would do well to review the famous Dartmouth College case,[3] the Nebraska case,[4] and

[3] *Trustees of Dartmouth College v. Woodward,* 4 Wheaton, U.S. 518, 4 L. Ed. 629 (1819), held that a charter granted to a private college is in the nature of a contract and cannot be revoked or altered by the legislature without the consent of those to whom it was granted.

[4] *Meyer v. State of Nebraska,* 262 U.S. 390, 413 S. Ct. 625, 67 L. Ed. 1042 (1923), held that a state law which prohibited the teaching of foreign languages to pupils in private schools deprived persons of liberty and property without due process of law; was an arbitrary interference with the liberty of parents to control and educate their children and with the liberty of teachers to pursue their lawful calling; and violation of the liberty granted by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

the Oregon case.[5] The first was decided in favor of a privately controlled college charter against the state of New Hampshire. The second was decided by the United States Supreme Court against state laws that attempted to forbid the teaching of foreign languages to children until they had completed elementary education as "arbitrary and without reasonable relation to any end within the competency of the state." When the Nebraska case was won, ten states had passed similar laws and in two instances the Supreme Court had upheld their constitutionality. The third, the Oregon case, prohibited the state from enforcing a law that would have compelled all children to attend public schools from eight to sixteen years of age. All these decisions were won by independent schools or persons interested in them. The free society of American citizens may take confidence in the security and perpetuation of democratic process by these decisions. They set strong precedents for guarantees of those areas of individual, group, and institutional action into which the hands of government may not interfere with impunity. This is precisely what is meant by the challenge of the independent school to undue political encroachment in education.

This chapter is being written in Cambridge, Massachusetts, on Independence Day. The day and the place have unusual significance, not merely in a historical sense and by long tradition, but also in present-day positions of a great university in controversies

[5] *Pierce v. Society of the Sisters of the Holy Names of Jesus and Mary*, 268 U.S. 510, 45 S. Ct. 571, 69 L. Ed. 1070 (1925), held that a state statute which required children between eight and sixteen years of age to attend *public* school was void on the ground that it was in violation of the liberty granted by the Federal Constitution in that it denied the parents the right to educate their children for purposes other than the state and that it deprived private schools of their property without due process of law.

Those who may be further interested in various legal aspects regarding relationships of colleges may well consult: *The Colleges and the Courts, Judicial Decisions Regarding Institutions of Higher Learning in the United States*, by Edward C. Elliott and M. M. Chambers, for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, 1936; the supplementary publication of 1941 on "Recent Judicial Decisions," by M. M. Chambers; "Disciplinary Action against Controlling Agencies of Publicly Supported Institutions," by F. B. Clark, *School and Society*, Dec. 6, 1947, 66(1719).

that are disturbing educational circles throughout the entire nation. Only a few hours ago, the author paused before a modest marker directly across the street from where the scion of the great elm tree grows under which General George Washington took command of the Continental Army. This marker states in simple language: "Here assembled on the night of June 16, 1775, 1,200 Continental troops under command of General Prescott—after prayer by President Langdon, they marched to Bunker Hill." Langdon was then president of Harvard College. The monument commemorating their deeds stands a few miles away. Within a short distance is Old North Church from which the signal light sent Paul Revere on his warning ride to Lexington and Concord. Nearby are the Boston Commons, Old South Church, and many shrines of freedom for patriotic devotion. But the author is also writing within the sound of the bell in the tower of Memorial Chapel, erected to the memory of Harvard men who gave their lives in the First World War. On the writer's desk is a statement from President Conant made on the night of June 22, 1949, to prominent alumni, deans, overseers, and visiting committee members meeting with the sponsors of the new Harvard Foundation for Advanced Study and Research. The statement belongs with Magna Charta, the Declaration of Independence, and the Bill of Rights, although the man who issued it would be the last to admit it, because his scholarship and courage are matched by his humility. Dr. Conant [6] said in part:

I do not have to tell this group of holders of advanced degrees that a university is first and foremost a band of scholars—members of that ancient and universal company to which the president of Harvard admits the recipients of the doctor's degree on Commencement Day. "To advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity" is the constant aim of the members of a university. In their efforts they must by definition be always concerned with difficult questions, be they in theology, philosophy, political theory, economics, or even the natural sciences. To difficult questions there are no certain answers; controversy and vigorous discussion in consequence are the very breath

[6] Conant, James B., president, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.: commencement-eve address, Wed., June 22, 1949. Statement released through the university news office for publication, June 23, 1949.

of life of a university. Through the centuries this aspect of university work has frequently led to criticisms on the part of some who view the academic scene from a distance. Sometimes universities are held to be too conservative and sometimes too radical. Indeed, it has happened that both criticisms were leveled simultaneously at a given institution. For example, Oxford and Cambridge were both belabored with hard words by Thomas Hobbes and John Milton at the same moment; in the one instance for being hotbeds of republicanism and rebellion, and in the other for being reactionary strongholds of the church and partisans of an autocratic king.

Today we are in a period of passing excitement in this country as a consequence of the reactions which almost always follow a war and the tensions created by a divided world. As has happened repeatedly in the history of the universities, Harvard, along with other American institutions of advanced learning, is being subject to criticism, most of which is based on a total misunderstanding of the nature of university work.

I feel sure that no one in this audience has any question as to the validity of the Harvard tradition of free inquiry on the one hand and the independence of the faculties on the other. However, lest there be any misunderstanding about our position today, I am venturing to take a moment of your time to discuss the situation which faces Harvard and other universities.

In this period of a cold war, I do not believe the usual rules as to political parties apply to the Communist party. I am convinced that conspiracy and calculated deceit have been, and are, the characteristic pattern of behavior of regular Communists all over the world. For these reasons, as far as I am concerned, card-holding members of the Communist party are out of bounds as members of the teaching profession. I should not want to be a party to the appointment of such a person to a teaching position with tenure in any educational institution. But with this single exception which is the unique product of our century, I maintain that a professor's political views, social philosophy, or religion are of no concern to the university; nor are his activities within the law as a private citizen. I do not have to remind this audience that this is the traditional Harvard position and will be maintained in the face of whatever criticisms may come. Admittedly, a university might be faced with a difficult problem if some member of the permanent staff should suddenly announce that he was a full-fledged member of the Communist party, but no such problem exists here at Harvard; and when it comes to the possible

presence of secret members of the party on the teaching staff of an institution, I can only endorse what has been so well said by Grenville Clark in his recent letter to Mr. Ober, namely, "The harm done by the effort to discover even a single clandestine party member would outweigh any possible benefit."

As long as I am president of the university, I can assure you there will be no policy of inquiry into the political views of the members of the staff and no watching over their activities as private citizens. Any suggestion that we should employ here a procedure comparable to that required by the necessities of secret government work and investigate the loyalty of our staff is utterly repugnant to my concept of a university. On this point I am sure you will all agree. You will likewise join with me in condemning "the careless, incorrect, and unjust use of such words as 'Red' and 'Communist' to attack teachers and other persons who in point of fact are not Communists but who merely have views different from those of their accusers." I quote from the report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association which I signed together with nineteen other educators.

It all adds up to the fact that a university is not a government bureau or a business organization; the conditions necessary for its spiritual prosperity have been determined by centuries of experience. Harvard was one of the first American colleges to become a university; we have, therefore, a special duty to uphold the university tradition in the years ahead. With your understanding assistance and that of the other alumni I am confident we can succeed.

The forthright statement of President Conant is in keeping with a long and significant tradition at Harvard. The *Harvard Alumni Bulletin* for June 25, 1949, published the entire correspondence between Mr. Frank Ober of Baltimore, President Conant, and Mr. Grenville Clark, a senior member of the Corporation, with the statement "that this entire correspondence has historical significance which extends far beyond the boundaries of the Harvard Yard." All students and Americans who are concerned with our freedom, not to say our academic freedom, as citizens in a democratic society should read the entire report.[7] The essence, however, of Harvard's position has been stated by President Conant.

A somewhat similar situation arose over protests against Pro-

[7] *Harvard Alumni Bulletin.* June 25, 1949, pp. 729–736.

fessor Hugo Münsterberg during the First World War. It was reported at that time that a certain Harvard man "had threatened to annul a bequest of $10,000,000 unless Münsterberg was immediately deprived of his professorship." [8] Münsterberg offered to resign if the donor would pay the Corporation $5,000,000. His resignation was rejected with a statement that needs no comment: [9] "It is now officially stated that, at the instance of the authorities, Professor Münsterberg's resignation has been withdrawn, and that the university cannot tolerate any suggestion that it would be willing to accept money to abridge free speech, to remove a professor, or to accept his resignation." From time to time, other controversies have arisen regarding the right of free speech. Without a single exception, they have been treated with the same attitude that has characterized Harvard's tradition through its long and distinguished history.

To clinch the point and to give wider circulation to one of the most judicious statements ever issued on the subject of the professor outside the classroom, three paragraphs [10] from the *Annual Report* of President Lowell of 1916–1917 are worthy of attention:

> The gravest questions, and the strongest feelings, arise from action by a professor beyond his chosen field and outside of his classroom. Here he speaks only as a citizen. By appointment to a professorship he acquires no rights that he did not possess before; but there is a real difference of opinion today on the question whether he loses any rights that he would otherwise enjoy. The argument in favor of a restraining power on the part of the governing boards of universities and colleges is based upon the fact that by extreme, or injudicious, remarks that shock public sentiment a professor can do great harm to the institution with which he is connected. That is true, and sometimes a professor thoughtlessly does an injury that is without justification. If he publishes an article on the futility and harmfulness of vaccination, and signs it as professor in a certain university, he leads the public to believe that his views are those of an authority on the

[8] Yeomans, Henry Aaron. *Abbott Lawrence Lowell.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. P. 315.

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 315–316.

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 310–312. Note: persons interested in the further history of the establishment of academic freedom and freedom outside the classroom at Harvard may read Chap. XX of Professor Yeoman's life of Lowell.

subject, approved by the institution, and taught to its students. If he is really a professor of Greek, he is misleading the public and misrepresenting his university, which he would not do if he gave his title in full.

In spite of the risk of injury to the institution, the objections to restraint upon what professors may say as citizens seem to me far greater than the harm done by leaving them free. In the first place, to impose upon the teacher in a university restrictions to which the members of other professions, lawyers, physicians, engineers, and so forth, are not subjected, would produce a sense of irritation and humiliation. In accepting a chair under such conditions a man would surrender a part of his liberty; what he might say would be submitted to the censorship of a board of trustees and he would cease to be a free citizen. The lawyer, physician, or engineer may express his views as he likes on the subject of the protective tariff; shall the professor of astronomy not be free to do the same? Such a policy would tend seriously to discourage some of the best men from taking up the scholar's life. It is not a question of academic freedom, but of personal liberty from constraint, yet it touches the dignity of the academic career.

That is an objection to restraint on freedom of speech from the standpoint of the teacher. There is another, not less weighty, from that of the institution itself. If a university or college censors what its professors may say, if it restrains them from uttering something that it does not approve, it thereby assumes responsibility for that which it permits them to say. This is logical and inevitable, but it is a responsibility which an institution of learning would be very unwise in assuming. It is sometimes suggested that the principles are different in time of war; that the governing boards are then justified in restraining unpatriotic expressions injurious to the country. But the same problem is presented in wartime as in time of peace. If the university is right in restraining its professors, it has a duty to do so, and it is responsible for whatever it permits. There is no middle ground. Either the university assumes full responsibility for permitting its professors to express certain opinions in public, or it assumes no responsibility whatever, and leaves them to be dealt with like other citizens by the public authorities according to the laws of the land.

There may be those who will claim that "it can't happen here." In truth it has almost happened here several times. If the camel's nose had been left in the tent, the beast would be occupying ad-

ditional space today. The measure of the influence of the independent college cannot be taken adequately by its financial outlay. In making this great contribution, however, to provide education from private resources and by protecting its own rights, it stands on guard with a flaming sword that turns in every direction to help protect the rights and liberties of all education. Surely no one would say that this role is a minor one in the drama of democracy. No attempt is being made to claim more for independent schools and colleges than rightfully belongs to them. There is no need to do so. The fullest recognition is given to public education and the part it plays that cannot be played by any other form or type of institution.

Nevertheless, the fact remains that the quality, freedom, and the opportunity to explore and experiment by independent educational enterprises tend to improve the quality, guarantee the liberties, and blaze the way for public education. The history of education shows that almost without a single exception private enterprise pioneered at every level and made significant advancement before public education entered the field. Once in the field, public education by the very nature of its support and by the rights of people for equality of opportunity surged ahead with programs far more extensive than could ever be provided through other channels. Both kinds represent the American way of life and complement each other to the advantage of all citizens.

SUMMARY

By reason of its opportunity to limit enrollments and select its students, the independent college can, if it will, create the atmosphere of genuine educational fellowship, intensify all phases of guidance and counseling for the total development of the whole person, draw out and cultivate native abilities of students with personal attention to specialized needs. By reason of independent income and its opportunity to assemble scholars and directors with professional freedom, privately controlled education can sometimes move into fields of service that are closed to public institutions. By using ample resources on a limited number of attainable objectives, the independent school can provide for

high quality of education. Financially, it helps lift the burden from the taxpaying public. It pioneers, explores, experiments, and by insisting on its own liberty it tends to guard the liberties of all education.

While the independent junior college represents only a segment of private enterprise in education, it is allied with the responsibilities and general objectives of the total movement; in similarity of basic purpose its kinship is readily recognized. Obviously, there are several types and various degrees in quality of work. The good colleges, however, will do their share to pioneer new ideas, to maintain freedom from group pressures, to demand that personal achievement shall match native ability, to enrich educational experiences through college community living, to emphasize the development of the whole person, to teach and exemplify democratic values and a high degree of flexibility in dealing with the problems of individual students. Moreover, the residential college, in contrast to the purely local community college, can lift its students into regional and even national association and thereby contribute to the breakdown of tendencies to provincialism. The faithful performance of these functions, however small in comparison to the total educational program of the nation, will contribute significantly beyond any measure of numbers or magnificence of plants.

Chapter 6. EDUCATIONAL COOPERATION WITH COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The day before this chapter was started, the author was interviewed by the associate director of the news bureau of one of the great Eastern universities. At the end of an hour of questions and answers, the interviewer's comment was to the effect that the junior- or community-college program was a real surprise to him. He had always thought of the movement as it might be expressed in a girl's finishing school; he knew for a fact that this idea was shared by most of his friends and associates. If this is the situation with some university-trained public relations personnel, what must be the understanding on the part of the rank and file of the lesser educated and intelligent!

It is possible, of course, that common people who are often closer to ground-swell movements for democracy might sense the program more quickly than some prepossessed with other interests. Probably the strongest resolutions ever passed by any national group in behalf of the junior college came from the American Federation of Labor in convention at Boston, Massachusetts.[1] The author has been unable to find resolutions expressing clearer understanding in the proceedings of any body of educators previous to the action of this great labor organization. It is unlikely, with the exception of the position taken by the National Council of Chief State School Officers in 1947, that declarations of equal force have been recorded by any group other than the American Association of Junior Colleges and the President's Commission on Higher Education.

Glancing backward over recent years of public experience,

[1] Proceedings of the convention of the American Federation of Labor held in Boston, Mass., 1943. P. 587.

many misconceptions and misunderstandings rise to the surface of one's memory: The commencement address of a state governor who constantly referred to the junior college where he was speaking as a junior high school; the president of an old-line liberal-arts college who roundly denounced the movement as another passing fad; the president of a leading university who said his state had no need for junior colleges because it already had a large number of degree-granting institutions; a research specialist in education who recently said that if the high schools were doing their work well, there would be no need for junior colleges—these, and many other instances that could be recorded, tend to confirm the confusion expressed by the newsman. While junior colleges have made efforts to inform the public regarding the significance of the movement, it is very apparent that not nearly enough has been done. On the other hand, deep-seated patterns of thought about social institutions and practices are not easily changed. Proposals to modify educational programs in colleges and universities often meet with almost impossible resistance within the institutions themselves. Anyone who has attempted to drive an automobile out of a well-worn slippery rut may be able to understand why reeducation is a difficult task.

The *Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education* caught front-page space with its pronouncement for community colleges. The great prestige of the Commission, created as it was by the most powerful elective office in the world, acted as an unusual sounding board for its findings. As a result, wide publicity was given to the idea of the community college. Nevertheless, the idea is still vague in the minds of great numbers of people. Some are confused by the dual usage of *junior* and *community* as names for the movement. Are they interchangeable, or do they mean that there are two different types of institutions? Before people had learned what a *junior* college was, they were bewildered by the introduction of another name. If this is the general situation with respect to names and superficial knowledge about the movement on the part of the public, it may be well understood that its more far-reaching implications in legal and professional relationships will require careful study. It is the purpose

of this chapter to point out some of the ways in which this is being done and others in which it should be done. This introductory statement may help to show the need for what is proposed.

Toward Educational Integration

Much has been said and written about the integration of high school and college. The point of view to be emphasized in this section is that coordination and integration should be an indispensable function of all educational effort; this continuous process should be vividly apparent in every year and at every level, and especially in the basic aims of education. What, then, does it really mean and how can it be achieved?

The meaning of *integrate* is taken as "to bring together into a whole." It would be easy to give a mechanical twist to the word and think of "the creation of the whole" after the fashion of putting pieces together in a jigsaw puzzle—each piece in its proper place with none left over and no duplications. Education, however, is a functional not a mechanical process. The wholeness of well-integrated learning cannot be described in mechanical terms or achieved by mere mechanical devices. Discussions have been confused at times with the magic of educational numbers; such as, 6-4-4, 8-4-2, 6-3-3-2, etc. It seems to the author that the child's experience during her first days in school might illustrate this attitude. The first day, she was told that 3 plus 3 make 6; the second day, 5 plus 1 make 6; the third day, 4 plus 2 make 6. At the end of the second day, she announced that she was confused; at the end of the third day, she denounced the school and stated that she would not return until the teacher had made up her mind.

It is not the author's purpose to underrate the values of sound organization, but organization at best is not integration. The one-room school with eight grades being taught by one teacher has been relegated to the junk yard by most educators. This is not a nostalgic view by any means, but after all when it comes to a consideration of real integration in learning, there is still something to be said for this discarded organization. The child studies and recites at the first-grade level and listens to recita-

tions, however confusing at the beginning, from the seven upper grades. As he advances, the process is repeated over and over with the additional advantage of having a daily review of what he has learned in the grades already passed. Moreover, he may be taught by the same teacher who knows him well, understands his difficulties, observes him and his progress in all subjects and, if he is a master-teacher as he would certainly have to be, the process of bringing knowledge together into wholeness, unity, and completeness at the eighth-grade level could be achieved.

Experiments are being tried to give teachers and students a lengthened time for common educational experience. In these cases, the teacher in a particular subject follows the students from one level of learning to the next until graduation. Thus a teacher of English in a junior high school may teach the same students in each of the grades in successive years and then start with another beginning group. These experiments aim, among other values, at better integration within a subject-matter field. Should the teacher be poorly qualified, results could be disastrous; if he were a master-teacher, an unusual opportunity in some respects would be offered. Various attempts at integration would make a long story if they were set forth in detail. There is real interest in the problems, and it goes far beyond considerations of organization. If progress is to be made toward the creation of wholeness in personal development and learning, organization will play its part, but it must be accompanied by dynamic functional activities.

Real impetus can be given to a continuous process of integration by the conscious acceptance of *basic purposes* in education at all levels. While there are certain more immediate goals in the students' progression, even these should be overshadowed by ultimate aims. For example, children are supposed to approach the mastery of some educational tools in the elementary school. However, this is the time during which attitudes and habits of study are being formed more rapidly and surely than at any other in the child's life. If the final objectives and outcomes can be substantially agreed to around this core of purpose, educational processes at each step can be determined and tested. The old story of the three workmen may illustrate the point: Their replies

to the question as to what they were doing indicated that the first was earning a certain amount of money, the second was carving a block of stone, but the third was cooperating with the architect in building the cathedral. Henry Steele Commager, in his introduction to *Democracy in America* by De Tocqueville, states that one of the many astonishing aspects of life in the United States discovered by foreign travelers was "the singular notion of free public education and the confusion of schools and colleges." European observers might suggest that this confusion could be resolved by the adoption of a rigid system of education. Americans will rather insist that for a democracy it can be done by the acceptance of common objectives; certainly they will reject any notion of regimentation as a necessary prerequisite for the attainment of their purposes.

The cardinal aims of education in America, while they have received a great deal of attention, have not been fully accepted on a basis of united action. The President's Commission boldly states that "democracy in every phase of living" should be the first objective.[2] Can it be accepted? Is it possible to practice democracy "in every phase of living"? If not, then in what respects must it be modified or rejected? Is it applicable in economic activities as well as political? Can democracy be taught, or is it, rather, the method by which we approach the solution of social problems? Do we teach the theory of democratic processes in the schools and colleges and practice something that is less? Are we willing to take considered risks, run the dangers of making mistakes or of slowing down progress in our plans of "covering so much work within a specified length of time" in order to give students a chance to achieve the sense of responsibility, initiative, imagination, and daring to participate more fully in social learning and action? The author makes no pretense of expounding the cardinal aims of education. He is merely stating that, in a democratic country, both the aims and the methods for reaching them constitute a basis on which *all education* at all levels

[2] "Establishing the Goals." *Higher Education for American Democracy, A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947. Vol. I, p. 8.

can cooperate in one continuous process of integration. Continuity and completeness in this respect apply primarily to persons, *how* they learn, and the final outcomes rather than to subjects taught or the organization in which they are taught.

Just where, it may be asked, does this kind of integration apply to the community college? First of all, its philosophy for the further extension of free public education is in and of itself democratic. Without the further equalization of educational opportunity to all the youth who can profit by it, democracy thereby loses much of its meaning. The real drive behind the movement is the belief that greater equality in any phase of life stems from a chance at equality of understanding and skill. Conceived in the spirit of democracy, the movement must remain consistent with this spirit in its methods. Community centered, community servicing, community controlled, it aims at the fullest possible participation by all members of the community. Extend this attitude into all processes and relationships in the college, extend it into relationships with the high school from which it flows and into the senior college or adult life into which it flows, and the concept of vital integration, continuity, and completeness will begin to clarify itself.

Coordination, correlation, and articulation of educational efforts at all levels, then, in the spirit of democratic cooperation will help to "bring together into wholeness" the educational experiences of free citizens. The concept applies with special force to the community college because it is the capstone of free public education on the one hand; and on the other, it is the bridge into further higher education or into adulthood. There are several kinds of integration: the *vertical,* in which attempts are made to coordinate essential elements of subject-matter progression; the *lateral,* whereby common principles underlying broad areas of knowledge are emphasized as, for instance, in the social sciences; *total integration,* wherein an ambitious attempt is being made to show the total interrelatedness of all knowledge. Then there is *functional integration,* based not primarily on subject matter but, rather, on ultimate purposes and the development of the mental habits and personality of the student. It is this type of integration which should flow as a continuous process through

all education. If it is to be achieved, it will require far more than cumulative record cards; it will demand cumulative efforts on the part of all educators with full appreciation and cooperation all along the educational line of progress.

Toward More Natural Transitions

Who shall be educated,[3] how far, and for what, are questions that have received serious attention. One of the barriers to a natural and more even flow of students from one level of education to another has been found in patterns of requirements. These barriers frequently apply with even greater force to the transition of students from the community and junior colleges to senior institutions. More recently, there have been trends in the direction of providing high-school programs to meet the needs of the great masses of young people in their home communities. Should this trend continue, colleges will be forced to reconsider more seriously than ever before just what constitutes a sound preparatory experience for college work. The author hopes sincerely that the trend may be extended, not only for the best interest of the great majority of students who will not continue in formal education but also for the best interest of the colleges themselves. This hope is based on the belief that any task undertaken with the thought that it will be completed for more immediate practical applications will be done better than might be the case where expectancy of having another chance existed. This motivation alone would not ensure achievement of sufficient quality for successful study in higher education.

If college entrance could be based on fewer requirements relative to the pattern and far more on quality of work, this author believes the results would be improved and certainly the flow of students would be more natural. For example, what sound reason is there for continuing English composition in the freshman year of college? Consider the number of people who must

[3] Warner, W. Lloyd, Havighurst, Robert J., and Loeb, Martin B. *Who Shall Be Educated?* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944.

Lynd, R. S. *Knowledge for What?* Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1939.

be employed and the time spent in this work. One requirement for college entrance should be the sufficient mastery of the English language as an indispensable tool for college work. If students and their teachers knew beforehand that high school would be the last chance to achieve this goal, results would, and could, be much different from what they are now. This is an example of what is meant by *quality* requirements for college entrance.

Opinions will vary widely on the identification of essential qualities and achievements that will give relatively accurate assurance of successful work as a student advances from one stage to another. Further experimentation and research will be required. The present project of the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service for more precise identification of abilities and achievements in broad areas of knowledge is a definite move in the right direction. These studies are to be applicable to the fourteenth-year level in somewhat the same manner as qualifying examinations are for graduate study. It is understood that they will go beyond the Cooperative Sophomore Examinations. These are applicable to definite subject-matter fields and attempt to determine achievements of students in a particular college in comparison with students in other colleges. The question is: Who gives promise of success in concentration work, in what field, and by what tokens?

In some respects, the intermediate examinations can be used toward the end of the second year of college for screening and prognostic purposes. The American Council on Education Psychological Examinations, and others of similar character, approach the problem for the beginning college students. Frequently, however, they are used for guidance and placement after admission to college and not as admission tests. Too frequently, college entrance is still based on the assumption that evidence of achievement in a pattern of study is valid, and the pattern plays a very important role. The general complaint of junior-college administrators across the country is to the effect that the pattern in the junior college is considered by senior colleges to be too significant as a determining factor. To return to the original question, it may be asked again, who shall be educated, how far, and for what? The fullest possible cooperation

in the solution of this problem can result in a more natural flow of students in their educational progress. Because the community-college program is essentially a continuation and, in a sense, the capstone of secondary education, and at the same time embraces the first two years of the traditional college, the solution of the above-stated problem is of critical importance for the community college.

Cooperative Experimentation

Courage approaches folly when any unit of education launches a program entirely on its own responsibility with the ultimatum that others can take it or leave it. A far better plan may be illustrated by the present cooperative action of all colleges and universities in Utah. In the early summer of 1949, a meeting was held at the University of Utah under the leadership of the Utah Conference on Higher Education. The purpose was the coordination of programs of general education in Utah institutions of higher learning. Staff and representative teaching personnel from every institution participated in the workshop. Groups were formed for the study of plans to implement new programs in the following areas: communications, humanities, life sciences, physical sciences, and social sciences. These groups worked for three days, and each made a report on common understandings and proposals. It is expected that every college will carry out at least one pilot program during the year. Other workshops will be held for the purpose of further study, comparison of experiences, and free exchange of information. It has been proposed, moreover, that demonstration classes be organized at the University of Utah so that all participants may discuss problems in seminars and then observe how the work is actually done. Any college may experiment in more than one area. Weber College at Ogden began work in the fall of 1949 in five fields of general education with the understanding that senior institutions would accept it at face value.

The Utah experiment is cited because it represents educational statesmanship in a state-wide cooperative enterprise. The eyes of the educators have been fixed on the students. They are asking, what can we do in unison to give the youth of Utah the best pos-

sible education by common understanding, cooperation, and the impact of united action? It would be much easier for subject-matter teachers to go their own way, for each institution to devise its individual plan; but it is in the best interest of students and society for the colleges to experiment and pioneer cooperatively. The significance of the movement for the community colleges is apparent. When the program has been more fully developed, it is expected that it will do two things at the same time: first, give students greater breadth of understanding in significant areas of learning for worthy citizenship; second, lay a strong foundation for concentration and/or professional studies. The experiment will be observed with keen interest by those who believe in cooperative pioneering. The author was honored to be an invited leader with President H. A. Dixon of Weber College and Dean O. Meredith Wilson of the University of Utah in the initial workshop. Cooperation has been a common practice in Utah where, by the same token, deserts have become fruitful gardens and mountains give up precious metals and fuels. The historical background, rewarding experiences, and present attitudes of the people provide an almost ideal setting for the cooperative experiment in general education.

Professional Leadership

One of the basic needs in community colleges today is professional leadership. However superficial this observation may appear, the need is profound. Staff members and teachers should have special training, but where can they get it? Universities should have well-qualified instructors with broad practical experience in community colleges to teach these teachers, but where can they be secured? New institutions are being organized and others will be, but where can they find enough available people who are adequately trained to take the leadership? There should be supervisors in state departments of education, but where can they be found? These are extremely important practical questions, as the author can testify from experience in attempting to discover and recommend suitable personnel for some of these

positions. At this writing, a national search is being made by the U.S. Office of Education for a junior-college specialist. At least three universities are looking for highly qualified men as teachers in junior-college education. After exploring possibilities for six weeks, an administrator was finally found for a promising junior college. A county voted to establish a junior college and offered from $12,000 to $16,000 salary per year for "just the right man." The reader should not be misled by the afore-stated salary. It is considerably above the general scale for such positions. What has been stated in this paragraph, however, is representative of a cross section of almost constant needs. Replacements alone for over 600 administrators and nearly 20,000 teachers represent a fairly large annual recruitment.

The logical source of professional leadership is the university. Because this is generally accepted, community colleges have been looking to them with increasing rapport. The junior-college movement was initiated largely by university presidents. Much of the sympathetic understanding and guidance through the years have come from several of them. It is quite natural, therefore, that graduate programs, seminars, and practically all conferences for junior colleges should be provided by or entertained on the campuses of the universities. Twenty-six of the twenty-seven conferences, seminars, or workshops held during the summer of 1949, for example, were at universities, and the universities paid the costs for all of them. The University of Chicago has completed three years of services in research and editorial work for junior colleges that required a generous financial outlay. The University of Texas has begun a similar service for a three-year period.

Genetically and historically, there has been increasing *rapprochement* between the community colleges and the great universities. In a real sense the future of the movement lies in the wisdom and leadership of the universities. If they will now establish graduate programs essential for the further education and training of staff members, teachers, and personnel for research and administrative positions for state departments of education, for teachers in universities in the field of junior-college

education, for leaders in professional associations and the national government, their contribution will meet the most crucial need in the movement.

In December, 1948, the author attended a conference in Boston representative of junior colleges and a number of universities in New England. At that time, Dr. Dale Mitchell, dean of Bradford Junior College, set forth the position of the junior colleges of the region with respect to certain problems of instruction. It was the first meeting of its kind in New England. In stating the case for the junior colleges,[4] Dr. Mitchell said:

In the past we have had to contend with the misconception that our students are second-rate material, not good enough for a four-year college. The records of our transfer students disprove such an assumption. We do not deal with the educationally halt, lame, and blind. For the most part our students fall into three groups: those who lack time and money for four years of college; those who are not yet sure of what they want to do; and those who do not fit into the academic pattern of the four-year college—for example, the young man or woman who wishes to major at once in art or music and yet desires general education at the same time.

We have two years in which to work; we know where we are heading; and we need to utilize our time to the greatest possible advantage. To do that, we must have the best teachers obtainable. We need teachers who teach. Our emphasis is entirely on teaching, not on productive scholarship. In short, we need the best teachers in the profession: teachers—and this is essential—very definitely on the college level.

An institution dedicated primarily to research can get along with a certain amount of uninspired teaching in the classroom. We are not dedicated to research, and for us poor teaching spells ruin. We find it extraordinarily difficult to get persons with the proper training for the very exacting job that they have to perform. For example, teachers with a long experience in high school generally do not meet our needs at all. They are used to dealing with a younger age group; their approach is often too elementary and too superficial for junior-college work. The college teacher completely immersed in one subject to

[4] Mitchell, Dale. "Statement of Junior College Needs in New England." Boston, Mass.: Dec. 4, 1948.

the exclusion of every other, or worse, completely immersed in scholarly specialization within one small part of one subject proves equally unsatisfactory.

When we go to the graduate school, we return with a candidate who has learning but whose learning is likely to be narrow. In English, for instance, he is a specialist in the eighteenth century, or he is a specialist in the poetry of the eighteenth century, or he is a specialist in one poet of the eighteenth century. When we go to the school of education, we return with a candidate who has adequate knowledge of method but not always of the subject that he is to teach. We should like something between these two kinds of training.

What precisely do we want in our teachers? It seems to me that a good teacher in the junior college must have at least four major academic qualifications:

First, and I put it first because it is fundamental—without it the other qualifications avail nothing—very thorough grounding in his subject, not elaborate specialization in some minor aspect of the subject, but the broadest possible knowledge. Let me stress that by broad I do not mean superficial. A nodding acquaintance with the high spots is insufficient.

Second, a consuming interest in teaching. That means not only a deep and abiding interest in his subject, but also an equally strong interest in students. The teacher must know his subject thoroughly, but he must always remember that in reality what he is teaching is not his subject, but persons. Education in the junior college is student-centered, not subject-centered.

Third, the junior-college teacher must have a broad background of general knowledge. The teacher is not of much use to us if his learning is lodged in watertight compartments. Since my own field is English, let me seek an example there. I should expect a teacher of English to know the whole field of English Literature, and in no superficial way. That, however, is not nearly enough. He should also be at home in some of the other arts, in other literature, and in history. We should like our teachers to have, in short, general education on the graduate level.

Fourth, he should have some understanding of the philosophy of the junior college, some knowledge of the kind of student he will encounter with us, and some conception of the kind of inspiration he will be expected to supply. A course in the history and philosophy of the junior college might help; so might a course in how to teach his

own particular subject. But back of these courses, if they are to be useful, must lie comprehensive training in the subject itself and in related fields, plus a natural liking for developing students' minds.

The junior colleges of New England were in substantial agreement with the academic specifications set forth by Dr. Mitchell. For many junior colleges, however, additional requirements would be listed, especially for teachers in technical education. To the four points in academic preparation and sincere interest in students, a considerable amount of practical experience would be required. The reason for this experience should be apparent. For highly qualified teachers in these many fields, junior colleges will probably have to turn to schools of engineering, agriculture, and business administration. In these institutions, it is likely that promising candidates might be found who, while proficient in technical fields and while interested in subject matter as such, are really more gifted and devoted to teaching than in practicing in a profession. At any rate, teachers of technical subjects in junior college will have to be better prepared in some respects than vocational teachers for high schools.

If the universities will supply the junior and community colleges with this type of teacher, they will go to the head of the class in professional leadership for the movement. The future direction of the junior college, the soundness of its program, its constant sensitivity and response to the evolving needs of the people in a dynamic society depend in almost full measure on the kind of staff members, teachers, and other professional leaders which universities supply. An equal responsibility rests with junior colleges to discover and encourage prospective teachers to go to the universities and prepare to teach. The experience of attending a junior college should be of great assistance to one who proposes, after further college and university preparation, to teach in it. Even beyond the recruitment for junior colleges, these institutions can be fruitful sources for the discovery and encouragement of good teaching talent for the whole field of education. In some states, this work is now being done very effectively. Future Teachers of America are organized on the

campuses of many junior colleges, and in some states a large percentage of the students in colleges of education have come from these groups.

Toward Better Understanding

There must be cooperation toward better understanding of the junior and community-college movement by all persons in the field of education. A recent examination of twenty-seven authoritative histories of American education showed, for the greater part, only a superficial treatment of the movement, and in some cases none at all. There appears to be no sound reason to neglect one of the most rapidly expanding segments of education; one that is destined to influence American life; one that grows by reason of its basic concept for better community living; that is being increasingly geared to present-day industrial and economic conditions; that aims at the further equalization of educational opportunities. It deserves more intelligent attention on the part of educational historians. It may be hoped that when new editions or new histories are written, the movement will receive sufficient treatment to give a better understanding to all students who may study the history of education.

A singular example of this lack of understanding by Americans was evidenced by certain recommendations for the reform of education in Japan. The *semmon gakko*, institutions quite similar to American junior colleges, have been in Japan for a number of years. They are three-year colleges, embracing the twelfth through the fourteenth years of education. Like the American junior colleges, approximately one-half of them are privately controlled and the others are supported by public funds. The objectives, in the main, of the *semmon gakko*, their status and problems, are remarkably akin to the junior colleges in the United States. However, a very strong recommendation was made that the Japanese government either abolish these institutions or change them into high schools or that "*semmon gakko* be elevated to *daigaku* wherever possible and as soon as possible."

Japanese educators deserve unusual credit for recognizing and meeting the need for the great and increasingly important area

of semiprofessional education. In some respects, it has been done more fully and satisfactorily than has been done in the United States. In spite of this fact, and with recommendations almost in direct reverse to trends in the United States, the Japanese government was encouraged to take action practically abolishing the *semmon gakko.*[5] Without going into the details as to the reasons, it is encouraging to know that this contemplated action was not carried out. In fact, it was reversed. In May, 1949, the Japanese Diet officially approved the organization of junior colleges. Back of this simple statement, however, were months of hard work by an American educator who thoroughly understood the philosophy and objectives of this type of institution. It is probably safe to say that without the presence in Japan of Dr. Walter Crosby Eells, adviser on higher education and former executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, a grave mistake might have been made. Perhaps someday the whole story can be told. It may be of more than passing interest that thirty sets of books on the place and unique functions of the junior colleges in the United States were shipped to Japan in June, 1947, arrived in July, and were finally cleared for distri-

[5] *Education in the New Japan,* General Headquarters Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, Civil Information and Education Section, Education Division, Tokyo, May, 1948, Vol. II, pp. 323–343, presents some interesting data: *Semmon gakko* are listed as colleges. There are 361 in number, 158 publicly and 203 privately controlled. Total enrollments as of Dec. 31, 1947, were 232,392; for the public, 84,593; for the private, 147,799; average enrollment for all colleges, 644; public, 535; private, 728. Total faculty, full-time and part-time, 15,481; average number of students per faculty member was 15, although this average would be higher if the equated number of full-time teachers were known. The founding of the *semmon gakko:* first one in 1879, before 1900 only three, and after 1940 there were no less than 170 established.

The *semmon gakko* fall into several classifications, such as industrial, mining, petroleum engineering, shipbuilding, electrical engineering, agriculture, medicine, industrial arts, foreign languages, physical education, religious education, pharmacy, veterinary medicine, and zootechnical, etc. Privately controlled colleges for women are listed as 103 in number. In these institutions it is natural to expect considerable offerings in general cultural subjects as well as in occupations suitable to women students, such as the home arts, nursing, business, etc.

bution to leading Japanese educators during the latter part of September. The example of what was done in Japan is cited to show the need for a clearer understanding of the junior- and community-college philosophy by all educators, both at home and abroad.

Another example may be considered at Panola County Junior College in Texas. When it was organized, the president realized that high-school teachers and principals, as well as members of his own faculty, were in need of information about the kind of institution the junior college really was. A special work conference was organized, and all principals and teachers were invited to meet at the college. Dr. C. C. Colvert and Dr. James W. Reynolds, professors at the University of Texas, both qualified by education and by experience in junior colleges, were brought to Panola as speakers and consultants. Even this comparatively short work conference resulted in much better understanding of the objectives and philosophy of the new institution and laid the foundation for closer cooperative action throughout the entire community. The main point of emphasis is that all persons in the field of education must have an opportunity to become acquainted with the movement. Progress could be made if histories of education would devote a reasonable amount of space for its consideration. Such action would be an additional step in the direction of fuller cooperation and understanding by all persons in the field of education.

State Department Leadership

Without doubt, the weakest link in the chain of cooperation for junior colleges is in the lack of authority for leadership and supervision at the state level. This defect in the whole field of education has been effectively pointed out by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce through its publication entitled *The Fourth R—Responsibility.*[6] By and large, the junior college in the United States has been growing without plan, general support, or super-

[6] *The Fourth R—Responsibility.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Chamber of Commerce, April, 1947.

vision, and in some states almost as an extralegal institution. This is not a criticism of the movement as such, but rather testimony to its vitality and the sense of responsibility of citizens in the several communities of the states. There appears to be no danger as yet that these colleges will be imposed on communities from the higher level of state administration! Moreover, this situation may be added evidence of the emergence of the movement from the grassroots, a fact that characterizes it as the people's college—the constant upward pushing of the deep sentiments and convictions of the people for the further democratization of education.

An analysis of all provisions, or lack of them, in the various states for financial support, accreditation, certification of teachers, building standards, entrance and graduation requirements, the granting of degrees or diplomas, libraries and laboratories, etc., would require fifty printed pages as a minimum. A few studies have already been made, and a more comprehensive one based on facts to be gathered by visitation of each state awaits publication. In general, however, the situation as it presently stands, while it gives evidence of progress, is not one that flatters state leadership in this level of education.

Twenty-six states now have laws of varying clarity and degree for the establishment and maintenance of junior colleges. By an interpretation on the widest possible basis, the following states give financial support to junior colleges: (1) Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, New York, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia, either on some general formula or by direct state appropriation; (2) Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Tennessee, Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming receive assistance for one or more of their institutions by direct state appropriations or through parent state colleges or universities. There is no general support for the local junior colleges in the second group of states. Michigan junior colleges have recently received some state aid for reimbursement of education for veterans. Just how state funds can be appropriated for some institutions and not for all of them on an equitable basis remains one

of the mysteries of legislative action. If the people's money, paid into the treasury of the state, is to be spent for the support of any institution, it should be paid for all of them that operate on a comparably equal basis. The tangled inconsistencies in the financial arrangements for junior colleges among the several states is glaring evidence of the great lack of strong leadership and authority at that level.

It is true that some states have made notable progress with the adoption of policies that apply with equal force to all institutions. One of the best examples is California. There are no tuition charges; the maximum local tax levy is fixed at 35 cents on $100; each institution receives $2,000 from the state and the balance is paid on a pro rata basis. The distribution of state funds is clearly based on the principle of equalization. Thus, in California, as in some other states, there has been established a well-recognized, state-wide policy of financial support. Recently, there has been considerable discussion regarding some changes in the policies. One of these looks in the direction of state payments to junior colleges for clock-hour instruction for determination of average daily attendance. The argument for this policy is that more actual clock-hour time is required for the instruction of some students than for others, notably those in scientific and technical fields. However, the author wishes here to make the point that California as a commonwealth has a clear-cut policy, founded on well-recognized and tested principles; that it aims at an equitable distribution of the people's tax money for the benefit of all citizens of the state who will avail themselves of it. It is difficult to see how any state can justifiably do less on any educational policy.

California not only has adopted regular policies for financial support of junior colleges; the State Department of Education is also empowered to prescribe regulations for the administration and supervision of all publicly supported institutions. The principal, or other designated head, is empowered to admit any graduate of a high school or any other person over eighteen years of age who, in his judgment, is capable of profiting from the instruction offered. Sixty hours of credit are required for graduation, and certain courses of study are mandatory, such as Amer-

ican History and Institutions. The associate's degree is awarded upon graduation. The minimum academic requirements for teachers is usually the master's degree or above. The faculty as a whole is measured by its functional adequacy with no requirements that a stated number or percentage of its members shall have degrees of prescribed levels. Library, laboratory, and other facilities are inspected and approved on the basis of their adequacy to meet the needs and stated purposes of the colleges in these respects. Building standards are determined by the State Division of Architecture and the Division of Schoolhouse Planning of the State Department of Education.

Here again, California has regular and well-understood policies for the proper regulation of its junior colleges and yet without merely quantitative standards that would tend to throttle the development of the institutions or retard local interest and initiative. It is important to note that California junior colleges are not accredited, even by the State Department of Education, but rather operate under general approval and supervision. The junior colleges themselves have consistently resisted accreditation in the belief that such practices tend toward regimentation. While, therefore, there are state standards, regulations, and support, there is also a great deal of freedom granted to each college.

To return to the original consideration of this section, it can be stated categorically that one of the great needs at present is far better state supervision, planning, professional leadership, and encouragement for junior colleges. They can no longer be allowed to grow Topsylike or left as educational orphans. The several states have a very definite responsibility. Wise leadership will assume this responsibility.

Regional Accreditation

A study of standards and practices for the accreditation of junior colleges by regional associations reveals conditions of thought that approach the chaotic. The associations have been made aware of this fact during the past several years by leaders in the junior colleges. The author attended two meetings during the same year in two widely separated sections of the country at which threats were voiced almost in anger. The burden of these

threats was that representatives of senior institutions, who had not the slightest understanding of the place and functions of junior colleges, were responsible for the standards in the first place and irresponsive to demands for modification or change in the second place. They could take notice that unless changes were effected in recognition of the unique place of junior colleges, these institutions would organize their own accrediting associations. As a matter of fact, the New England Junior College Council is now acting more in the capacity of an accrediting agency than is the case with the New England Association of Schools and Colleges.[7] The original standards, like those in some other regions, were predicated on the false notion that a junior college was half a college; therefore, one-half of quantitative requirements in all standards for senior colleges should be applicable!

Encouraging efforts are being made in some of the regional associations to rewrite accreditation standards and reform such practices. More junior-college representatives are being included among the officers, and their voices are being heard. When surveys and investigations are made, junior-college people are represented, but not yet in all sections of the country. In some states, junior colleges are subjected to inspection and accreditation by university representatives, some of whom have not the slightest idea of what a junior college is. These institutions are, as a result, shackled to the narrow subject-matter points of view of teachers in senior institutions. This practice went so far in one state, visited by the author, that a university teacher with a definitely foreign accent clicked his heels in the office of a junior-college president, after making classroom inspections, and delivered the ultimatum for the dismissal of one of the junior-college teachers!

A great deal of discussion has taken place from time to time regarding the desirability of creating a national accrediting association for junior colleges. It has been generally felt that if real progress could be made through regional associations, results would be better. The application on a national scale of standards

[7] "Standards for New England Junior Colleges" adopted December, 1948, by the New England Junior College Council.

and practices, requiring, as they do, careful inspections and sometimes several visitations, would become very expensive. Presently, sentiment appears to be that while progress is slow, it is, nevertheless, moving in the right direction toward better understanding and cooperation at the regional level. There is no doubt about the fact that some junior-college people themselves have been blameworthy. Too often they have stood by "with arms akimbo set until occasion told them what to do." Frequently they have not only been willing but anxious to cut their cloth to fit the patterns of traditional senior-college programs in order to wear the garb of academic respectability. These tendencies, however, are slowly waning; greater group consciousness is developing; junior-college leaders are becoming more articulate regarding their positions.

The final word is simply that cooperation and understanding have more than one side. All sides must be heard, and while compromises must be made from time to time, they must be made only in respect to matters that are not basically essential. Some of the more progressive groups of educators anxiously urge junior colleges to pioneer, to experiment, to blaze their own trails, and some of them are doing it. The junior colleges must assume more vigorous leadership for the improvement of quality of work, raise their own standards for the performance of more and better work within the circles of their distinctive services, insist on being heard in the cooperative enterprise, and thus put an end to "the missionary-cannibal situation" so graphically described by Alexis L. Lange as early as 1917.[8] Junior colleges have not, even to this day, accepted a national scale of minimum standards for themselves. Unless and until this is done, they may expect states, universities, and regional accrediting associations to prescribe what those standards shall be.

Toward Division of Labor

Closely related to the needed cooperation for reasonable standards and practices by professional groups is the relationship of

[8] Lange, Alexis F. "The Junior College—What Manner of Child Shall This Be?" *School and Society*, 7:211–216. (See Appendix, pp. 369–370.)

junior colleges to the universities. One of the points for critical attention in this relationship is the strong tendency of departments in universities to assume the role of accrediting agencies for similar departments in junior colleges. The author attended a work conference at a state university in 1949. When the question of the relationship of the junior colleges to the university was raised, the presidents of two universities insistently warned those present against the dangers of allowing university department heads to prescribe courses of study. They were emphatic that relationships should be worked out between institutions, that nothing less than detailed domination would result if departments of instruction were granted authority. "Men trained solely for the exercise of university functions cannot be expected to regard the work of the first half of their institution as anything but introductory. To them the junior college is not the dome of the secondary-school edifice, but merely a university entrance hall or vestibule." [9] Speaking further on this matter in 1917, Dr. Lange's statements [10] are timely after more than thirty years have elapsed:

> Not only will there be preengineering, prelegal, premedical, preanything-you-please courses, each directed by a university department, but there are not likely to be any prostudent courses. Worse still, the junior college being directed by the university, will do unto the intermediate and high school as it is being done by. Shall the new secondary-school system, too, like the old, answer to Plato's definition of a slave, one whose conduct is shaped by another?
>
> Here is one alternative. The other is for the junior college to cooperate with the university in the selection of foundation courses for this, that, and the other profession, and then to conduct them strictly without reference to possible professional superstructures. The aim must lie within the junior college. The suicidal idea of a deferred education must remain excluded from the nonvocational as well as from the vocational departments. As to the nonvocational type of courses the true test is whether they are adapted to students who do not look forward to basing a profession on them.

[9] *Ibid.*
[10] *Ibid.*

Lest it be thought that Dr. Lange's position is outdated, a statement made in 1949 may be of interest. The author's proposal for a fusion curriculum in engineering was presented for discussion before a meeting of junior colleges, technical institutes, and senior institutions. The dean of an engineering department of a university said: "Your plan is excellent. Someday I hope it can be realized, but don't disturb the junior colleges of my state. We have them right where we want them. They are doing a good job in university-parallel studies." This was a statement of fact. It was also a fact that, in some cases, not more than 10 per cent of the students taking university-parallel engineering studies survived to enter upper division work. The American Association of Junior Colleges has based its membership on accreditation by state departments of education, state universities, or regional associations. As a matter of fact, several states do not accredit any institutions, neither do some state universities; in some states, as a result, junior colleges are placed at the mercy of department heads in universities.

What is really needed is a clearer policy for the division of labor between the junior and senior institutions. Junior colleges must develop their own programs to meet the needs of students just as though this educational experience would be their last in a formal sense, as indeed it is for the great majority. With emphasis on high quality of performance, thorough personnel work, complete honesty in recommending students for university study, the universities should fully respect the integrity of the junior college and honor its work as an institution. If and when its integrity and quality of work can no longer be trusted, the junior college by university action should lose its right to a place in the circle of institutional cooperation. If this plan should require departmental adjustments in universities, as it probably would, that too would simply be a part of the cooperative division of labor.[11]

One thing is clear. No university department must be allowed to direct or prescribe for the corresponding junior-college department.

[11] Lange, Alexis F. "The Junior College—with Special Reference to California." *Proceedings of the National Education Association.* Washington, D.C.: 1915. Pp. 119–124. (See Appendix, p. 349.)

My own strong conviction is that the junior college can, and should, be something better than a conglomerate of departments pursuing a hodgepodge of aims. To forestall such a development, the university will have to do more adjusting in its lower division than the junior college should be expected to do. I should add that this process is going on at Berkeley and that in most of our departments no revolutionary changes are involved.

In a truly cooperative division of labor, the junior colleges can lift a great burden from the universities by educating ever-increasing numbers of lower division students. They can greatly reduce the costs of education to vast numbers of young people by providing tuition-free instruction near their homes. They can screen students so that only those who are highly qualified for concentration and professional studies will be recommended for such work. They can liberate the universities for the kind of work they are truly expected to do. If more of courageous university leadership will come forward now as it did fifty years ago in such men as Harper of Chicago, James of Illinois, Jordon of Leland Stanford, and Lange of California, there is not the slightest doubt but that one of the greatest achievements in American education can be made. On the other side, junior colleges must match this courage with their own by raising the standards of quality performance and in the exercise of exacting records and tests for recommending students for further formal studies.

A great deal has been written about the dangers of educational mediocrity, because of the ever-increasing pressure of high-school graduates "to claim admission to the university as a right." Not only does this question trouble American educators, as is shown in the annual report, 1948, of Charles Seymour, president of Yale University, but also those of Great Britain. In the same year, the University Grants Committee of Great Britain commented on the matter as follows: [12]

> In the period of reconstruction which has now opened, the dominating task which confronts the universities is that of maintaining, and ultimately of improving, the quality of university education notwithstanding the pressure of student numbers hitherto unknown.

[12] *University Development from 1935 to 1947.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1948.

In the United States, I. L. Kandel [13] comments:

> The problem is the same in the United States—how to maintain the quality of education and at the same time provide that equality of educational opportunity, which is an essential aspect of the democratic ideal. . . . The maintenance of quality is the obligation of all institutions that serve the nation and not only those institutions that enjoy the "privilege of independence." One thing of which no institution can be independent is its responsibility for setting and maintaining a standard of quality.

If the community colleges and the universities can come to better terms respecting their division of functions, the former institutions can assist immeasurably in the solution of many problems for the education of the masses. Many kinds of education are essential. For the welfare of vast numbers of students themselves, they should be channeled as far as this can be done by counseling and guidance into educational programs other than those of academic quality. Yet because programs are different, designed to meet different native abilities, they should not be placed in the category of mediocrity, much less that of inferiority. The community colleges are as sincerely interested in quality education as is the case with other institutions. They ask, however, the question: Quality for what and in what? For students who are capable and interested in further formal education in the university, the community colleges are now performing a significant service. It can very well be extended to a point where the pressure of numbers on the universities could be greatly relieved.

Understanding by Legislative Bodies

Close kinship exists between state departments of education and state legislative bodies. It is a superficial but equally necessary observation that school systems operate under legal enactments and appropriations. These actions stem from the awareness and understanding, or lack of them, among the men and women in general assemblies. The community-college move-

[13] Kandel, I. L. "Responsibility for Quality in Education." *School and Society,* Jan. 8, 1949, 69(1776):20.

ment itself must share a part of the blame for neglecting to inform and educate these people who, in a large measure, hold the key to educational progress. For this reason, the legislative committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges has been active during recent years in making available to general assemblies information regarding the junior-college movement. Much information in state surveys has been too complex. Sometimes embodied if not embedded in complicated and lengthy studies, for legislative action, this information might just as well have never been published. The legislative committee, as a result, has become aware of the need for greatly simplified and more exact models of legislation and statements of principles by which success has been achieved in a number of states. To become realistic about the matter, one needs only to sit down with a few state educational committees in general assemblies. This experience will convince even the most skeptical that whatever information is given must be in a compact and simplified form. Therefore, a graphically illustrated, short, and simply written publication has been prepared by the legislative committee for use in general assemblies. To make the publication even more pointed and usable, a model bill has been drawn.

In order to secure action by general assemblies, no great reliance can be placed in the leadership of some state departments of education. This situation is common enough to shock those who are interested in action into a sense of reality. By and large, personnel of state departments of education are the creatures of political appointment or popular elections. Because of this fact, their activities are sometimes prescribed by political circumspection, to say the least. The National Citizens Committee for the Public Schools evidently realizes that progress must be stimulated from grassroots community groups of citizens and educators. Already good results have been brought about by the dynamic leadership of local citizens interested in practical considerations for school improvement.[14]

[14] Larsen, Roy E. "The Growing Interest in the Public Schools." *A Report of the Harvard Summer School Conference on Educational Administration.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Graduate School of Education, 1949.

Of all citizen groups, the parent teacher associations have consistently made the greatest single contribution over the years to the public schools. However, the needs of the public schools grow faster than the parent teacher associations have been able to expand their own program. Therefore, the interest and help of all citizens are needed, not as temporary consultants but as full-fledged partners. The goal is to offer the best education possible for every American child on completely equal terms.

The above statement was made by Roy Larsen, president of Time, Inc., July, 1949, at the Harvard Summer School conference. It is a clear-cut statement of basic strategy on how public education can be constantly improved in America. It is likely that it is the only way real progress can be made within the framework of democratic action. Because the community-college movement stands for the further extension of free public education to all who can profit by it, the greatest possible degree of community cooperation should be given to the National Citizens Committee. In short, the real forces for proper legislation at the state and local levels must arise from community understanding, united and determined action. The education America must have for her common welfare at home and her security abroad should be lifted far above party politics and group pressures. In times of war and national emergencies this action is possible; in times of peace it should be equally so!

SUMMARY

The junior- and community-college movement is an integral part of America's efforts to ensure her freedom and prosperity. The greatest possible degree of coordination and articulation should be made in these efforts from the beginning to the end of every child's education. The adoption of clearly seen aims, the understanding of just where the nation is headed, more precisely what are the basic objectives in all education can be the synthesizing core of ideals around which functional integration can be continuously woven. It is apparent that cooperation in mutual respect and helpfulness will be required to ensure the even flow of each student from one level of education to another, based on

the quality of his native abilities, his habits of study, and his achievements in broad areas of learning. In order to provide for the further attainment of this goal, it is essential that educational experimentation and pioneering be carried forward on the widest possible scale.

The keystone position in this arch is the university, charged, as it is, with the creation of the highest type of professional leadership. The rather unique functions of the junior and community colleges must be better understood by all persons engaged in education; by state departments of education whose authority, resources, and leadership must be greatly strengthened; by regional and other professional accrediting agencies; by both community colleges and universities for a better division of labor in education; and by legislative bodies in whose hands are the issues of legal enactments and financial assistance whereby progress will be retarded or accelerated.

Chapter 7. GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

It has often been said that education in America serves a dual purpose: to help the citizen make a good living and to live the good life. The author takes issue with this statement. Real life affords no such dichotomy. Who could possibly either draw a line or mark areas where one ends and the other begins? Common daily observations of what people are and do are sufficient to show that to live and make a living are inextricably integrated as one continuous process.

If an individual will observe and write down his own actions, thoughts, memories, imaginations, conversations, and relationships with other people even for one day, he will become convinced of the impossibility of attempting to divide his own life into compartments—one in which he makes a living, the other in which he lives. From the time he arises in the morning until he retires at night and arises the next morning, either waking or sleeping, he is living as he makes a living. Rest and activity, vocation and avocation, by productive labor and by recreative relaxation, by doing and knowing, and by his appreciations of others and what others have done or do, he weaves his tapestry of life. It is one tapestry, although it might be said that it has within it various elements: warp, woof, and design. The warp, or the threads of the "creative and constitutive activity of the self," persist from birth to death; the woof, or the experiences of life, are woven constantly into the making of personality; the general design is the kind of person one becomes in response to ideas, ideals, environment, and the social patterns of his associates.

Does man merely adjust himself to his environment, physical and social? The author makes no apologies for holding a modified form of idealism for himself and for the human race as a

whole. According to this view of life, man also reacts to his total environment, changes and modifies it in many ways so that it may become adjusted to himself. The electric lights that now illuminate this room while this sentence is being written, the typewriter being used to record these thoughts, the ringing of the telephone bell that just interrupted this phrase, the sound of the compressed-air drill in the street below, the roar of automobiles and trucks, the thoughts of men and women printed in pages of books and magazines filed on the shelves around the walls of the room or piled on desks for reference—these, and many hundreds of other things could be enumerated to show that man has acted upon his environment to change it and make it serve ends and purposes arrived at by chance, by the force of circumstances, but not the least of all by the creative activity of his own mind.

Herein, the creation of purposeful designing and planning by man, for the making and remaking of environment both physical and social favorable for his attainment of worthy life objectives becomes a means as well as an end of education among civilized people. There is no intent in the above statements to underestimate the necessity for adjustment of the individual or groups of persons to the physical and social environment. Changes and modifications of human nature itself are fully recognized and valued. Adjustments to environment and changes for the better in human nature do not preclude the fact that environment, too, must be modified as far as possible so that it may become the servant as well as the master of people. In this continuous process of adjustment to environment, modification of human nature and its expressions, and changes in environment itself, who can untangle the interwoven threads of living and making a living?

Educational Camps

Would not a single purpose in education, the useful life of satisfaction, help in resolving some of the differences between educational camps? On the one hand, there are those who are inclined to denounce vocational education as not being education at all, but merely skill training; on the other, there are those who

deplore with equal zeal liberal education as a waste of time in so far as practical values are concerned. There can be, as a matter of fact, the development of such extremes in each point of view as to distort and confuse the issues regarding the right kind of education. It is true that narrow, rigid skill training for the performance of a single operation can be given. An examination of the curricula set forth in *Vocational Education of College Grade* [1] shows that in some institutions the tendencies in this direction are apparently very strong. Observations made by the author of vocational education in a considerable number of junior colleges in some sections of the country lead him to believe that reimbursable vocational education "of less than college grade" formerly given in high schools has been lifted in whole up into the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling. Responsibility for this kind of program may be placed in part on directives of the Federal government relative to types of programs that may receive funds through several categorical legislative enactments.

If one wants to find Federal interference in state and local programs of education, let him start with certain categorical acts and appropriations and follow the trail down into the shops of schools offering certain types of vocational education. The author recalls a conversation with a research specialist in education for one of our great states regarding the development of the community-college programs. When the author asked the specialist if plans were being made to take advantage of appropriations for vocational education "of less than college grade," the reply was an emphatic "No." The reason given was to the effect that the program for the state could be devised and promoted far better without Federal aid and its controls than with it. A national study made in 1938 gave some strong pronouncements regarding the integration of general and vocational education with respect to the public schools that apply with equal force to community colleges.[2]

[1] *Vocational Education of College Grade.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1946.

[2] Toepel, M. G. "Vocational Education in Wisconsin." *Report of the Commission on Improvement of the Educational System.* Madison, Wis.: March, 1949, Part III, p. 24.

The close relationship between vocational and general education indicates that within the state the program of vocational education should be set up as an integral part of the regular school system. Every pupil in the secondary school needs the opportunity to explore and develop his talents, both along vocational lines and along the other lines of study normally offered in the school system. The segregation of opportunity for vocational training in a separate educational system is inefficient and undemocratic, and should not be encouraged by the state or local organization.

An argument given at times in defense of vocational education is that such programs exert holding power over the students to keep them in school. There is doubtless truth in this position, but it can be easily exaggerated. Wisconsin, for instance, is one of the states in which vocational education has been developed probably to an extent matched by few other states.[3] By law

> . . . all towns, villages, and cities over 5,000 population shall establish such a system unless they border on Milwaukee. . . . Under the present law the city must levy a sum sufficient for the operation and maintenance of the vocational school but not to exceed two mills. Levies for debt service are in addition to the two-mill levy. The city council or commission has no real power of review of the expenditures for this function if they do not exceed two mills. . . . The elective or appointive school board appoints the vocational board, which in turn operates the vocational system with no responsibility for its actions to the school board, the city council, or the people.

Surely, if one wants to find a state where vocational education has been given a free hand, Wisconsin is the right one. Yet it is interesting to analyze the data collected in 1949 in respect to the gradual shifting of the ages of students enrolled in these schools. It is stated that not more than 5 per cent are within the compulsory school age. In 1932–1933, $11\frac{67}{100}$ per cent were within the age brackets of fourteen to sixteen; in 1947–1948, this group had dropped to 3 per cent. In the same comparable periods, those students sixteen to eighteen years of age dropped from 54 to 32 per cent; those over eighteen years of age increased from 34 to 65 per cent of the total enrollments.[4] It would seem, therefore,

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 22.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 30.

that student interests would make possible more general education in the school system before students entered fields for specialized vocational training.

Looking at the other side of the picture, there is deep dissatisfaction with programs of so-called liberal education designed to give rather intensive instruction in various unrelated fields. There is no reason to repeat here indictments of this plan. Those who may be interested in studying the issues may find ample materials.[5] From the number of publications and the ever-recurring subject of general education for discussion and debate, it appears that it is one of the most important themes for consideration today. Various experimental attempts are being made to solve problems that have been raised. By and large, in both community and senior colleges, no one could claim that extensive developments have taken place. This is especially true in community colleges where the best possible chance is offered for presentation of programs in general education. If the reader will select at random catalogues of junior colleges from various parts of the country, from various types as to size, control, and enrollments as to sex, he will find that there is a deadening sameness of lower division imitation of the older type of liberal-arts colleges. Offerings by broad areas with provision for integration of subject matter are conspicuous because they are not present. Subjects are given with the provision that they are prerequisite to further subjects within the same field of specialization, although it is well known that the vast majority of subjects taken by students in all colleges will be the only ones taken in that particular discipline. Thus, the student may graduate from both the college and professional school with his formal knowledge of science limited to one course in chemistry, or biology, or physics.

Moreover, full recognition may be given to the essential difficulties for the implementation of general education: the inertia and lack of understanding by faculties, vested interests of teach-

[5] *Five College Plans.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1931.

Greene, Theodore, *et al. Liberal Education Re-examined.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Meiklejohn, Alexander. *Education Between Two Worlds.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

ers in specialized subjects, lags in the production of suitable teaching materials, difficulties in securing new teachers who are competent to deal with broad areas of knowledge, differences of opinion as to the best methods for organizing curricula for the accomplishment of objectives and the achievement of outcomes that are desired, recognition to be given general education for accreditation, etc. When one traces the problem down to the grassroots, as the author has done many times with junior-college faculties and in summer workshops and seminars, he finds something similar to the following: Mr. Brown has been teaching mathematics for twenty years; mathematics was his major in college and for graduate study; he was taught in a certain way and he is teaching as he was taught; he has his daily plans worked out to cover his subject within the specified length of time within the college year, perhaps even to the jokes he will crack in connection with a particular assignment; his special interest is in students who will major in the department of mathematics!

Frank admissions will seldom be made of all points set forth above, but underneath the surface, convictions and emotional attachments are there and can be identified as the discussions proceed. This Mr. Brown, and thousands very much like him, constitute one of the greatest barriers that must be surmounted whenever a college attempts to move ahead into fields of general education. It has been said that the Children of Israel wandered in the wilderness for forty years, although the Promised Land was in sight, simply because it was necessary to wait until a new generation could assume control and leadership. It may be predicted with safety that a new generation of teachers and educational leaders will need to arise before the Jordan will be crossed into the land of general education. To this end the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education has stated the case for the kinds of teachers needed for community colleges: [6]

> Probably half of the 30,000 should be vocational-technical instructors with experience in business, industry, public services, and professions. They are particularly needed because more than 80 per cent of the

[6] *Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. 3–4.

students graduating from the two-year community colleges or institutes will go immediately into business, industry, agriculture, or public service in the community or region, along with equal numbers who enroll but take less than two years. The remaining 15,000 should be venturesome instructors in general-education fields—in science, in social studies, in communication skills and arts—who have the capacity to adapt general information to community needs, as well as to provide strong general preparation for the 20 per cent of the students who transfer to the upper divisions of liberal-arts colleges or to advanced professional schools. Among the 30,000, of course, there is need for a considerable number of specially prepared vocational-technical and general-education instructors who may aim, not at publicly controlled community colleges, but at pioneering, privately controlled junior colleges and technical institutes which, like Stephens College and the Rochester Institute of Technology, will develop procedures which can serve other institutions, public and private. Junior colleges which are essentially two-year liberal-arts colleges presumably will continue to seek their instructors from the same pool that the liberal-arts colleges depend on.

What Can Be Done

The main purpose of this chapter is that of setting forth basic principles for the development of general education in community colleges. For this reason, the author has avoided any attempt to review or analyze extensive writings that have been published in recent years in respect to the nature of general education. It might be said, however, that the subject is not new, even though a great deal of attention has been devoted to it during the past few years. William Watts Folwell in explaining his plans for the curricula of the University of Minnesota in 1870 stated: [7] "All students to be instructed in those principles of Agriculture (including Horticulture), the Mechanic Arts and Hygiene, which every educated man or woman needs to know." In response to this proposal, Charles W. Eliot, then president of Harvard University, wrote to Folwell as follows: [8]

[7] Buck, Solon J. (Ed.) *William Watts Folwell, The Autobiography and Letters of a Pioneer of Culture.* Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1933. P. 206.

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 204–205.

Is there anything "which every educated man or woman needs to know" except the mother tongue? I am sure that a knowledge of Agriculture, Horticulture, and the Mechanic Arts would be quite easily spared by most people. Is not the notion that this, that, or the other thing is essential to education a thoroughly mischievous one? Why should everyone know how a suction pump works? or how roses are best propagated? To my mind the construction of a steam engine may as well be a mystery to most people as the anatomy of a horse. An average lawyer or an average wife has no more need to comprehend the doctrine of the rotation of crops than an average farmer has to understand the uses of the subjunctive mood. We have all of us need to get our water, and to love roses, and to travel fast, but very few have need to know the ways and means of these things. . . .

In conclusion, I may say that if your experience proves to be anything like mine, your difficulties will arise, not in laying out a broad and even magnificent plan of operations, but in getting good teachers, paying them enough to live upon, and keeping up their enthusiasm for practical instruction. We have manufactured very few scholars in this country. Competent teachers of university studies are rare.

The Sage of Harvard may have taken issue with the young president of the new University of Minnesota on the nature of general education, but he did not underestimate the value or importance of curricular studies for a university. He pointed rather to the fundamental difficulty then and now "of getting good teachers, paying them enough to live upon, and keeping up their enthusiasm for practical instruction." It is not implied that the curriculum is unimportant. Perhaps general agreement may be found with the position of Mark Van Doren on this matter, even though teaching personnel would be the primary consideration in arriving at objectives. Van Doren's [9] position is this:

The college is meaningless without a curriculum, but it is more so when it has one that is meaningless. What things shall be studied, in what order? A system of education which avoids those questions and concentrates on the problems of administration or teaching method, or which broods in public upon the metaphysics of student life, has lost its aim. All other problems are solved when the problem of the cur-

[9] Van Doren, Mark. *Liberal Education.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1943. P. 108.

riculum is solved; student life, for instance, becomes the life of study. Whatever the limitations of Herbert Spencer may have been, no one can sensibly disagree with him concerning "the enormous importance of determining in some rational way what things are really most worth learning." No one? Yet many educators do disagree with him. For the curriculum is not something which it is fashionable to ponder; and as for being rational about it, few oddities are more suspect. The problem itself is given up as hopeless, or at any rate as one for which there is "no time." That is to say, it is not accepted as a real problem. Were it so accepted, and its importance granted, its solution might be within the bounds of likelihood.

It is worthy of note, therefore, that along with a greatly increased interest in the curriculum for general education, efforts are being made to improve the quality of college teaching. Some persons have assumed that if a man knew his subject, he could teach it *in college*. The assumption apparently did not apply to teachers in the elementary and high schools. There is now a growing conviction that a person may know his subject ever so well, that knowledge is indispensable, yet knowledge alone may not give assurance that one who possesses it will be a satisfactory, much less an inspiring, teacher. Programs may be splendid, materials may be at hand, but teachers must be in full sympathy with them, skilled by natural gifts and training to present them in a manner that will create enthusiastic participation on the part of students; otherwise, very little learning will result. Students will continue to characterize some efforts at teaching "as a waste of time." If this point is of importance for all colleges and universities, it is more so for community colleges. One of the basic boasts of the latter is that faculty members are master-teachers; that they are more vitally interested in the classroom and student contacts than they are in research. This claim of community colleges must be demonstrated in fact. It is not enough merely to make the claim.

To this end, a number of universities are in the process of planning programs for the education of teachers for community colleges. The University of Texas has probably gone as far in this direction as any in the United States, especially with the projection of comprehensive areas for a graduate curriculum. In gen-

eral, the Texas plan calls for a two-year program along the following lines: the candidate for the degree (not specified at this writing) will pursue studies in his major teaching field to a point where competence to teach in the community college will be assured. Subjects offered in these institutions do not require the extensive amount of research in a single field usually found necessary for the doctor of philosophy degree. The teacher of chemistry, for instance, in the community college is not expected to instruct students in advanced specialized studies, but he must be able to do excellent work in basic courses. Whenever the candidate's graduate study plan includes enough work in his special field, he then selects closely related subjects. Chemistry teachers will be advised to elect other science subjects for the purpose of attaining greater breadth of understanding of the interrelated aspects of the world and man's relations to it. In this manner, it is hoped that the future teacher will attain both specialized knowledge and general education in the field of science. The great majority of students in community colleges probably study not more than one or two science subjects.

Moreover, adult education is becoming an increasingly important function of these institutions. If science teachers, for some time to come, are destined to offer the more traditional type of courses, there are no valid reasons why they cannot present them in their broader aspects. The course, for example, may be called General Inorganic Chemistry, but relationships with other sciences and the bearing of all science on the advancement and culture of the human race could very well become an integrated aspect of its presentation.

The author was fortunate in his undergraduate days to take a course called Chemistry of Everyday Life. Biology had been taken as the required laboratory science. Instruction was excellent and lifelong values for a better understanding and appreciation of flora and fauna have resulted. The course, however, was taught as a prerequisite for further study of the life sciences; long hours were spent in collecting and classifying specimens or in technical laboratory procedures. In contrast to the course in biology, Chemistry of Everyday Life was presented by means of carefully selected and planned demonstrations; lectures by a

master-teacher who by natural gifts, training, and experience arrested the attention and aroused the interest of his students. As the name of the course implies, it was designed and presented to give students something of a breadth of understanding of scientific principles in relation to man's everyday life. Looking back across the years, the author can say frankly that insights given and interests created by this course have probably been as fully valuable as the longer and more technical study of biology. Chemistry of Everyday Life at the college was short-lived, because tradition smothered it in its cradle.

President Conant is attempting to demonstrate at Harvard the workability of his thesis "that science can best be understood by laymen through close study of a few relatively simple case histories." [10] Universities interested in the education of community-college teachers in the field of science and curriculum builders in these colleges would do well to observe the Harvard experiment. President Conant's "proposal for the reform of the scientific education of the layman" should be carefully considered by the community college: [11]

> Let me now be specific as to my proposal for the reform of the scientific education of the layman. What I propose is the establishment of one or more courses at the college level on the Tactics and Strategy of Science. The objective would be to give a greater degree of understanding of science by the close study of a relatively few historical examples of the development of science. I suggest courses at the college level, for I do not believe they could be introduced earlier in a student's education; but there is no reason why they could not become important parts of programs of adult education. Indeed, such courses might well prove particularly suitable for older groups of men and women.

The Texas plan for community-college teachers further provides for studies in the history and philosophy of education with special reference to the community college itself. The Teacher Preparation Committee of the American Association of Junior

[10] Conant, James B. *On Understanding Science.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1947. P. 1.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 16.

Colleges and the executive officers of the Association have been engaged in promoting a number of plans for better understanding of the unique nature and place of the movement in American education. It is well known that large numbers of teachers have very limited knowledge or appreciation of the movement. Therefore, in-service study groups have been formed among community-college faculties, preregistration seminars have been held, and summer workshops are in the process of being developed rather extensively.

During the summer of 1949, for instance, twenty-seven universities provided for workshops, seminars, or regular courses of study in community-college education. They were located at Harvard and down the Eastern Seaboard to the University of Florida; across the South and West to the University of Texas, University of Denver, University of Colorado, University of Utah, and the University of California; up the West Coast to the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Washington, and the Washington State College; through the North Central states from Drake University, Iowa State University, University of Illinois, Northwestern University, and University of Michigan. The summer workshop program represents a vital and extensive cooperative program by universities for professional assistance to the community-college movement. The program is predicated on the thesis that one of the indispensable needs of the community college is a better understanding of its philosophy by staff members and teachers. It is expected that summer workshops may be expanded in a number of universities into full graduate offerings similar to those given at the University of Chicago for a number of years and the new program at the University of Texas.

A third salient feature of the Texas plan deals with teaching techniques. The Committee on the Cooperative Study in General Education appointed by the American Council on Education has something to say in its final report about this particular matter, although it is dealt with rather sparingly: [12]

[12] *Cooperation in General Education, A Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Cooperative Study in General Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1947. P. 219.

It is clear that the committee believes that graduate-school training should be modified so as to provide a broader base for specialization, some time for relating specialized work to other fields, and some training directed toward the actual problems of college teaching including some supervised practice in college instruction in programs of general education. The Association of American Colleges and the American Association of Junior Colleges have long urged this reform, and it is to be hoped that some of the leading graduate schools will pioneer in the development of effective educational programs for college teachers.

At the University of Texas, teaching techniques will go further than "some supervised practice in college teaching." At least a half year, and some people recommend a full year, is to be spent in a teaching internship. Even so, it is of considerable concern that teachers who use the spoken word to a great extent should be able to speak clearly and effectively. Try to imagine, if you can, an actor, singer, or radio announcer without voice training for enunciation and diction! The author recalls, although the case is extreme, a teacher with his Ph.D. in economics from one of the leading universities whose pronunciation sounded like the following might be pronounced: "Now, Mr. Shoptawr, what is the lawr in Utahr?" Another teacher in a graduate school constantly interrupted his train of thought with so many "oohs," "aahs," grunts, repetitions, and backlashes that his students characterized his lectures as "that damned endurance test."

Now, just a final word regarding the teacher in general education. We may have a splendid curriculum, ample materials for the various disciplines in the program, faculty members who have been educated in these broad areas of learning and trained in techniques for their presentation and yet not have general education. Obviously, the process of *integration* goes on, if at all, in the minds of teachers and students. The teacher of general education must be capable of setting up what may be called, to use an atomic expression, a chain of mental reactions. His students must be inspired to indulge on a broad basis in connection forming; to think through to the logical implications of facts; to reason regarding the results of their practical applications. Perhaps the author may be aiming at standards that are not easily

attainable. This is fully admitted. Yet it is useless to discuss general education unless we discover how it is to be done as well as what needs to be done. If a generation of master-teachers is reared, schooled, and skilled in the art and science of instructing in honestly conceived programs of general education, the intellectual quality of the profession as a whole will be lifted to a higher level. Regardless of subject or areas to be selected for the program, in the last analysis general education means the ability and habit of making generalizations and evaluations, reaching logical conclusions, and forming sound judgments.

In 1918 the British Parliament passed a law called the Fisher Act. Its purpose was the establishment of day continuation schools. The movement practically failed and was replaced by the Education Act of 1944. In appraising the reasons for the failure of the Fisher Act, British critics [13] pointed out one of special significance for community colleges in the United States.

> The second cause was the lack of suitable teachers. The new scheme naturally attracted many who were enthusiastic and ready to experiment with new methods and approaches, but there was no carefully thought-out course of training for them and few of the assistant staff had adequate experience of working boys and girls or of their working environment. Added to this was the reluctance of many successful teachers in other types of education to transfer to work that was being established in unpromising conditions.

Under the Education Act of 1944, every teacher for county colleges (the present name of the movement), regardless of his education and experience, will be required to spend at least six months in special training. While county colleges in England and Scotland differ in a number of respects from the community colleges of the United States, there are some striking similarities. One of these is found in the need for special education, training, and indoctrination of the people who will do the teaching.

[13] Ministry of Education. *Youth's Opportunity, Further Education in County Colleges.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1946. Pamphlet 3, p. 5.

What Is Being Done

In the foregoing section of this chapter, some basic problems in respect to general education in community colleges have been identified and partial solutions suggested. This chapter is not intended to be an analysis of general education, but rather a consideration for implementing a reasonable program of such studies in community colleges. The author wishes to call attention to the list of writings that may be consulted by students who wish to explore the field of general education.[14] A great deal has been written and more will be as various schemes are tried out. General education is approaching the time when it will become an organized movement. The University of Denver set up a workshop in general education during the summer of 1949 with the purpose of helping "the many colleges and secondary schools that are seriously exploring the problems of general education and experimenting with new approaches and new programs. Opportunities for cooperative study and interchange of experience, with the assistance of qualified specialists, have been extremely limited. The university is providing one of the first possibilities for such study." Similar workshops were held at Michigan State College during the summers of 1948 and 1949; the junior-college workshop at the University of Utah in 1949 was devoted exclusively to general education at the request of those who participated in it; practically all of the twenty-seven seminars, courses of study, and workshops in junior-college education during 1949 gave a great deal of attention to general education.

In the capacity of editor of *American Junior Colleges*, second

[14] Brouwer, Paul J. *Student Personnel Services in General Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1949.

Cooperation in General Education, A Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Cooperative Study in General Education. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1947.

Dunkel, Howard Baker. *General Education in the Humanities.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1947.

Levi, Albert William. *General Education in the Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

edition, 1948,[15] the author had an opportunity to examine exhibits from more than five hundred junior and community colleges. Those who may be interested in a composite picture of curricular offerings may consult this publication. *The Community College* is not a status study and, therefore, general exhibits are not presented. Some of the trends, however, are listed with examples for illustrative purposes.

A considerable number of junior or community colleges have a tendency to call subjects such as English composition, American history, government and institutions, general education. In a sense, this may be true; but in the understanding that broad areas in the various subject-matter fields are to be presented, the description is overdrawn. It is usually understood that traditional English composition gives way in a program of general education to one organized and pursued in communications. It involves far more than technical study of grammar, theme writing, and criticism in class and conference sessions, consideration of models of various types of composition with emphasis on spelling, sentence structure, punctuation, the paragraph, and so on. Descriptions of courses in English composition seldom approach the statements found for this course at the Basic College of Michigan State College,[16] even though such courses may be called general education.

1. Written and Spoken English (Communication). Everybody but a hermit talks. Everyone not illiterate writes. The effective person talks and writes clearly, logically, and concisely. He also reads and listens with understanding and critical evaluation. The soldier issuing or carrying out orders, the salesman offering his goods, the farmer attending his co-op meeting, the mother managing her home, the research worker interpreting his findings—these illustrate the fact that everyone finds a need for effective communication often as pressing as that of the platform speaker or writer of books.

The work of this course in communication reflects these various needs. The student speaks, writes, and studies the mechanics of both

[15] Bogue, Jesse P. (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges.* 2d ed. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

[16] *The Basic College, A New, Practical Approach to the Needs and Interests of All Students.* East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State College, October, 1946, 41(7):4.

skills. Effective communication depends on the logical organization of ideas and on considerations of interest, clarity, and brevity. It involves skillful use of the tools of the grammarian, the primary concern being how to use such tools rather than what to name them. All writing in this course is done in writing laboratories under the guidance of experienced teachers.

There are other objectives, too. This course should teach an appreciation of the resources, beauty, and dignity of the English language; an understanding of the role communication plays in the functioning of a democracy; and an acceptance of responsibility for intellectual honesty in writing and speaking.

The course description of communications of the Basic College is one part of what is called a "new, practical approach to the needs and interests of all students." All colleges, both junior and senior, would do well to use precise terms in describing programs of general studies. Less confusion will result if colleges will announce their plans and philosophies in a forthright manner without attempts to straddle educational fences by employing new terms for old practices. It is not implied that dishonesty is deliberately practiced; nevertheless, confusion is the end result. Confusion may cause as much damage as dishonesty. Someone has said that one man can't tell a lie, another can't tell the truth, but the third is the worst, because he can't tell the difference.

An excellent example of just what is meant by a clear, forthright position may be found in the statement of philosophy of Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Massachusetts. The author has visited this college and studied its program. While it is difficult to give it a particular classification, it would probably approach the truth to say that Bradford is "evolutionary-progressive" in the best sense of the term as it applies to its total educational program, content of courses, methods of presentation, and student personnel procedures. Bradford offers both academic and general curricula, but a general curriculum is not called general education. There are two survey courses, one in physical sciences and the other in biological sciences. Neither is described as general education, but simply "designed for general students." Apparently, the administration and faculty of this college do not plan to use the term "general education" unless and until it can

be presented in fact as well as in name. In part, the position of Bradford [17] is as follows:

> Bradford, a junior college for young women, has a well-defined educational policy that may be stated simply. Bradford believes that the function of education in the first two collegiate years is to supply a basic minimum of instruction in material vital to the ultimate well-being of every student, regardless of what her future occupation or way of life may be. It is Bradford's conviction that this basic minimum is to be found in the liberal arts and sciences; that such knowledge is essential to a well-rounded development of intellect and character and to satisfaction in life; and that this way is the best way in which to provide a foundation on which to build later. . . .
>
> This philosophy of education implies a certain amount of standardization. The fundamental problems of existence are common to humanity, and Bradford believes that all its students need certain courses that help to solve these problems. It does not therefore follow that the program offered at Bradford is rigid. Actually a high degree of flexibility is sought for and attained, but flexibility within a carefully chosen province—the province of the liberal arts and sciences. Here a wide variety of choice is made available, in order that the girl with particular talents or interests may develop them as fully as is consistent with the larger plan governing her education as a whole. . . .
>
> This, then, in brief, is the educational philosophy on which Bradford bases its work. In this time of rapid change, no institution can remain static; and in innumerable details Bradford is constantly modifying current practices, to keep them abreast of contemporary needs. To what extent the future will demand further change, no one can say, though change there is bound to be. That these changes, as they become necessary, may be made within the basic framework herein presented seems likely.

The cause of general education can be advanced more securely and rapidly by a gradual process of internal adjustment and change in content of courses, constant efforts to integrate and correlate the various disciplines, improvement of instructors' understanding of and sympathy with methods and objectives than by changing names. From the author's acquaintance with Bradford,

[17] *Bradford Junior College Bulletin,* Bradford, Mass., January, 1949, 17(1):16–17.

it is safe to say that "every effort is being made to assist students in solving the problems that confront them and to give them the kind of advice that will make them discriminating, self-reliant adults." This is an approach to general education whether or not it is so called. This example has been cited for the express purpose of showing that the goal can be attained by "evolutionary-progressive" changes within the total framework of a college program for mature evaluation, sound judgment, and ability to reason to logical conclusions and to think through problems for their implications and applications.

Another junior college in Massachusetts, Pine Manor at Wellesley, carried on extensive studies within its faculty a few years ago and adopted a new program as a result. The position of Pine Manor [18] is set forth as follows:

> Pine Manor Junior College offers a two-year plan for general education in the fields of liberal and fine arts. This plan is the result of a careful reconsideration of the curriculum in the light of current educational trends and is based on the belief that courses should be developed as integral parts of a body of knowledge essential to personal competence and intelligent community living. In the major areas of communication, the natural sciences, the social studies, and humanities, required basic courses are designed to give the student an over-all view of the field of knowledge, while a wide choice of coordinated electives gives opportunity for the development of individual interests and aptitudes. . . .
>
> As has been already announced, the curriculum at Pine Manor Junior College has been somewhat altered in response to a study of trends in education as reflected throughout the country.
>
> *For all students* there is a universal requirement of four basic subjects, one each in the fields of English, social studies, science, and humanities. Of these four, the basic course in English must be taken in the first year, and the basic course in humanities in the second year. The other two basic courses may be taken in either year.

Three of the basic courses are commendable in their approach to general education, namely, the humanities, history, and sci-

[18] *Pine Manor Junior College Catalog.* Wellesley, Mass.: November, 1949, 13–14, 24.

ence. Our Cultural Heritage is the designation used for the humanities and is announced as "a comprehensive study of the development of philosophy, literature, architecture, sculpture, painting, and music from the Greeks to the present day." The United States in a World Setting is described in part as "a survey of significant forces and events in the history of western Europe that have influenced American philosophy and institutions. The main emphasis in the course is on the development of the United States —the basic factors that have affected our thinking and our history, the major problems that have arisen with the evolution of our political, economic, and social institutions. The last quarter is devoted to a study of the United States as a world power." The aim of the course is "to prepare students for vital and constructive citizenship." Introduction to Science aims at "a fundamental knowledge of both the physical and biological sciences, so that students may live more intelligently in a scientific world." The author wonders, however, why English composition, "a course in fundamentals for those who need it; for others, training in good writing in a variety of modern forms; reading in contemporary literature," was not developed for some of the more vital aspects of communications as a whole. This question is raised especially in view of the approach made by the college in the humanities, history, and science.

The Board of Education of Chicago maintains the Chicago City Junior College in three branches—Herzl, Wilson, and Wright. General education is organized around four survey courses required of all students. They must pass comprehensive examinations in each field before they are qualified for graduation. Tentative credit only is granted on completion of the first half of a year's course; the final comprehensive is designed to cover the work for the entire year and is prepared by the Department of Examinations in cooperation with the faculties concerned. The four general fields are: biological sciences, humanities, physical sciences, and social sciences. The basic curriculum constitutes the framework for the organization of each student's program of studies with allowance for a total of thirty semester hours of credit in subjects elected by students in keeping with their in-

terests, abilities, and with the assistance of counseling services. The framework of the program may be seen in the following: [19]

The Basic Curriculum

All two-year curricula include prescribed courses in English, social science, biological science, physical science, humanities, and physical education. These courses constitute the basic curriculum. They are designed to introduce the student to the principal fields of knowledge and to provide the breadth of training desirable in a well-rounded education. Competent counselors assist each student in choosing elective subjects, in addition to the basic subjects, so as to adapt the curriculum to the educational or vocational plans of the individual. The following summary shows the usual distribution of basic and elective subjects throughout the two years.

First Year

First semester	*Semester hours' credit*	*Second semester*	*Semester hours' credit*
English Composition	3	English Composition, or elective	3
Social Science 101	3	Social Science 102	3
Physical Science 101, or Biological Science 101	3	Physical Science 102, or Biological Science 102	3
Electives	6	Electives	6
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	16	Total	16

Second Year

First semester	*Semester hours' credit*	*Second semester*	*Semester hours' credit*
Humanities 201	3	Humanities 202	3
Physical Science 101, or Biological Science 101	3	Physical Science 102, or Biological Science 102	3
Electives	9	Electives	9
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	16	Total	16

[19] *The Chicago City Junior College Announcement.* Chicago, Ill.: 1946–1947. P. 17.

Significant developments in general education are taking place at some of the senior institutions. The Basic College of Michigan State College has been previously referred to; at the University of Chicago a program is organized on the basis of four years, beginning with the traditional third year of high school and ending with the second year of college; others are the lower division of the University of Florida, the General College of the University of Minnesota, and the General College of Boston University. There are still others, but those who are interested in this development may discover general trends and divergent patterns by consulting announcements and programs of the institutions here named. Because the General College of Boston University is a two-year institution, it may be well to give further attention to its philosophy and program with special reference to its bearing on general education in the community college. It was established in 1946 with the declared purpose of being "one attempt to restore collegiate training to meaningful and intelligent unity, with some relation to the actual, present, observable, complex world in which we live." The philosophy of the General College [20] is set forth in the following statements:

The General College is devoted exclusively to the task of providing a thorough *general education* for *all* its students. The curriculum represents a definite reform of the conventional college program; its primary purpose is to relate the cultural background and knowledge of our time to the shifting complexities of present-day affairs and of modern life problems.

Here *general education* is conceived in a new pattern which shifts the *whole* emphasis of college education in the freshman and sophomore years. Turning from the conventional stress upon memorization of facts or the acquisition of knowledge and techniques within narrow fields—such as chemistry, physics, psychology, sociology, or English literature—it converts the educational process to the goal of knowledge and understanding in its broadest sense. The role of *general education* at Boston University is to relate the students' mental and educational processes, not only within the college curriculum, but also to establish functional relationships with the problems of successful and intelligent living in a world of accelerated change. The aim is to equip the

[20] *Boston University Bulletin*, Boston, Mass., Jan. 29, 1948, 37(4):11–13.

student with the means for responsible adjustment to that complex social environment within which he must operate, locally on the level of the worker and citizen, and nationally and internationally as a member of the world community. . . .

"Total Integration" versus "Partial Integration"

In response to the demand for academic reform, many educational institutions throughout the country are now in the process of setting up broad courses of instruction which include material drawn from several related fields. Most commonly, the subject matter for these programs is presented in an "end-to-end" fashion, in which the student is introduced to selected material drawn, for example, first from physics, then in turn from chemistry, geology, and biology. Not infrequently, these subjects are taught by a series of specialists who cover their own fields exclusively. Such a course differs little from the conventional "survey course," save perhaps in the time devoted thereto, and number of credit hours assigned. At best, such a program may correlate and integrate in a single course material drawn separately from the broad area of *science*, or *social science*, or the *humanities*.

The primary distinction of the General College program derives from the "total integration" of its program of study, in contrast to these instances of "partial integration." The aim is to unify our courses of instruction so that they constitute, in effect, one single course, in which the material drawn from *all fields* is synchronized and correlated at every feasible point to emphasize significant relationships and to promote meaningful generalizations, consistent knowledgeable attitudes, and critical appreciation. There are no limits to the area in which such helpful relations may be established, and in this program no field or subject is out of bounds.

As differentiated from the "partial integration" now becoming conventional to college curricula, the aim of *general education* thus defined is the search for interrelationships wherever they naturally exist and whenever these cross references may aid in understanding and in dealing with the everyday affairs of life. It is our thesis, furthermore, that these facts, rules, scientific laws or principles are most useful when brought into relationship through the consideration of complex practical problems. It is not enough, for example, that the student should know the principles of animal and human learning, human motivation, cultural patterns, or Christian ethics. Nor does it suffice even when these subjects are woven into a meaningful pattern. To be

fully effective this material must be related in addition to general biology, physiology, and the principles of genetics, as well as to kindred precepts drawn from economics, the problems of labor relations, and generally, to a consideration of social stresses and strains. Likewise, a knowledge of the laws of physics, mechanics, and electricity does not meet the demands of *general education* until the student has been enabled to understand their relationships to biology, physiology, psychology, and sociology, and more broadly, to the social implications of such a project, for instance, as the Missouri Valley Authority; and all these, furthermore, must be brought into line with the practical problems of population, production, and distribution.

The function of counseling and guidance receives a great deal of attention throughout both years in the General College as an integral part of the total program. The reason is the expressed conviction that general education should precede the selection of a field of specialization and further that "an educated" vocational choice can be made by following this method. The program of the college is presented as Fields of Study: [21]

FIRST YEAR

1. Introduction to Science. Five hours a week throughout the year (9 hours' credit).
2. Human Relations (Introduction to Social Science). Five hours a week throughout the year (10 hours' credit).
3. English and the Humanities. Five hours a week throughout the year (10 hours' credit).
4. Personal and Occupation Psychology. One hour a week throughout the year (2 hours' credit).
5. Physical Education or Military Science (R.O.T.C.). For men.
   a. Physical Education. Two hours a week throughout the year (1 hour credit).
   b. Military Science 1 and 2. Three hours a week throughout the year (2 hours' credit).

   Physical Education for Women. Two hours a week throughout the year (1 hour credit).

   Personal Hygiene for Women. One hour one semester (1 hour credit).

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

Second Year

1. Science. Four hours a week throughout the year (7 hours' credit).
2. Human Relations. Four hours a week throughout the year (7 hours' credit).
3. English and the Humanities. Four hours a week throughout the year (8 hours' credit).
4. Political Economy. Four hours a week throughout the year (9 hours' credit).
5. Physical Education or Military Science (R.O.T.C.). For men.
   a. Physical Education. Two hours a week throughout the year (1 hour credit).
   b. Military Science 3 and 4. Three hours a week throughout the year (2 hours' credit).

   Physical Education for Women. Two hours a week throughout the year (1 hour credit).

Total Integration

The general scheme for total integration at the General College of Boston University is illustrated in Fig. 4. The plan is clear and needs no further comment. It may be said, however, that the General College scheme as a whole might be too "tight" for the average community college. It is one completely unified program with little or no opportunity allowed for electives. Nevertheless, there are real values in the plan. They are worthy of thoughtful consideration. The framework of the Chicago City Junior College would lend itself for adoption among community colleges because it offers a basic program with room for electives. Perhaps some privately controlled junior colleges could seriously consider the Boston plan. Students should be appraised in advance of its nature and the limitations imposed for electives. Moreover, General College operates within the total organization of Boston University and probably does not face some of the problems for the acceptance of credit that might be experienced by community colleges in some sections of the United States. It would be well for a community college, should it consider the adoption of the Boston plan, to arrange for working agreements

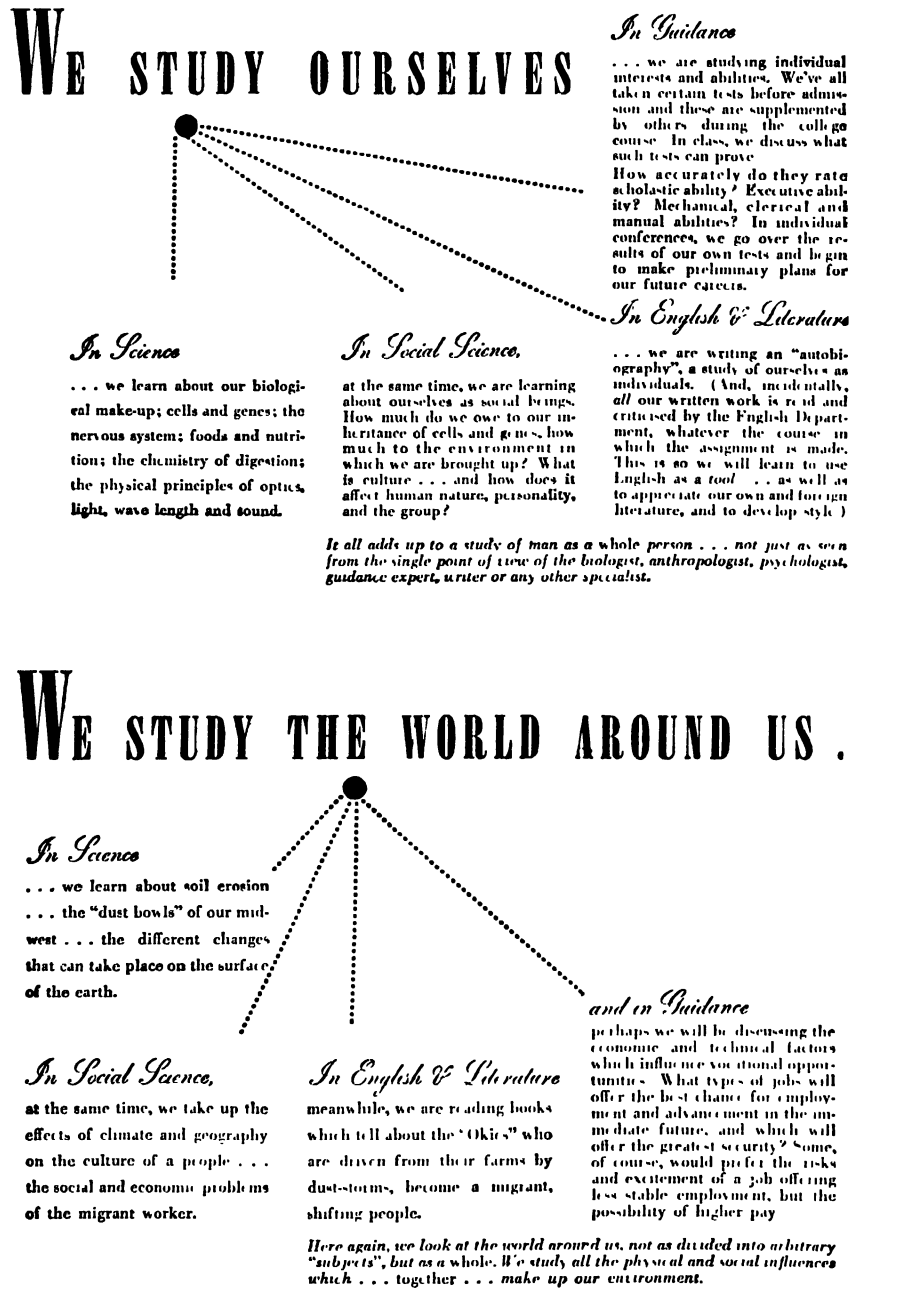


FIG. 4. General College study scheme of Boston University. (*By permission and courtesy of Boston University.*)

with senior institutions for recognition of graduates who might wish to advance into upper division specialization.

It appeals to this author that community colleges in the state of Florida should enjoy an almost ideal situation with respect to general education and its full recognition by the state university. Florida will probably experience a great expansion in its community-college program under the influence of the Minimum Foundation Law passed in 1947. Certain principles for educational cooperation have been pointed out in Chap. 6. The implementation of a far-reaching and sympathetic scheme for such cooperation in general education in Florida is not only entirely possible but highly desirable. It can be given in community colleges for students who desire two years only of general education, for those who will pursue two-year programs of general and vocational education, and for students who wish to transfer after graduation to the state university system. If the majority of senior colleges and universities had general-education plans similar to those now in a limited number of institutions, general education in community colleges could naturally move ahead very rapidly. The movement is on its way, but time and patient understanding between many different types of institutions will be required before all-out plans can be wisely adopted.

SUMMARY

The author has attempted to point out that in real life there is no dichotomy between living and making a living; they are but two phases of the same thing and whatever helps one also helps the other; general education is aimed at the development of habits of thought and emotional stability by which the individual may not only adjust himself to his environment but also adjust environment to himself; narrow fields of specialization, either academic or vocational, are equally unacceptable in the community college. Difficulties to be faced in implementing general education have been recognized, and certain trends have been identified with special reference to staff and faculty members who hold the key to its success or failure. Some examples of actual developments have been given with a few suggestions for cooperation

all along the educational line. Perhaps a progressive, evolutionary process toward the goal of better educational programs will, in the long run, be better for all concerned than attempts to effect changes that may be too radical, and it will certainly be far superior to tendencies to alter names without realistic alteration of substance. Programs, materials, and teachers are important; the end result to be attained is the thoughtful, judicious, self-reliant adult.

Chapter 8. TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Traditionally, education in the United States has been caught short at two segments. One has been in basic research; the other, at the intermediate level of education and training for technical positions. Until more recently, we have depended largely on European countries for much of our knowledge derived from basic scientific research and for the supply of labor in many highly technical occupations. Two disastrous world wars within the lifetime of vast numbers of people and the drastic curtailment of immigration to the United States have, among other factors and reasons, made it absolutely necessary to develop these two missing segments in our educational programs.

In both fields, therefore, America's needs have been acute, especially during the years of our swift technological progress in the twentieth century and by reason of new and frightful employment of present-day means of warfare. In the interest of national security, self-defense, survival as a free people, we have been shocked into the realization that our position among the nations and our traditional freedoms can be maintained only as we apply ourselves to basic research on the one hand, and on the other to the education and training of the right kind and proper numbers of technicians. Over the long pull, we can no longer depend with security on stockpiling knowledge and skills from other nations. It is a commonly known fact that science has developed several weapons of warfare almost any one of which could mean the total destruction of civilization. We find ourselves in a race between the acquisition and application of knowledge for the mastery of our physical environment and the indifference or general ignorance that would retard the attainment of these objectives.

Of greater importance, however, than national defense is the issue of national welfare and basic security to be attained by extensive conservation of our natural resources. Anyone who has read Henry Fairfield Osborn's *Our Plundered Planet* [1] will realize, even if he accepts only a partial amount of the author's contentions, that the prosperity and stability of the nation in times of peace and its ability to defend itself in times of war must be founded in the last analysis on the soil. Thus, we may witness the development of movements such as the National Farm Chemurgic Council, organized in 1935, one purpose of which is the creation of materials and wealth rather than the exploitation of natural resources. Dr. Karl T. Compton,[2] chairman, Research and Development Board of the National Military Establishment, at the Third Dearborn Conference in 1937, said:

To my mind, the most significant of all encouraging signs is the phenomenal growth of this farm chemurgic movement which is now sweeping the country despite opposition from those who misunderstand it or who believe that their personal interests will be served by its failure. But it will not fail, because it is pointed in the right direction of progress; it is based on the new philosophy of creating wealth and opportunity for all rather than the age-old instinct of taking wealth from others; it is essentially cooperative between agriculture, industry, and the general public, rather than competitive between them.

Presently, therefore, we are engaged in the creation of the National Science Foundation, in the implementation of extensive basic research projects in colleges and universities, and the establishment of special institutes for original research in the field of health such as the National Health Institutes at Bethesda, Maryland. Dr. E. U. Condon, director of the National Bureau of Standards, stated the case for research in an address [3] on "Science and the National Welfare." He said:

[1] Osborn, Henry Fairfield. *Our Plundered Planet.* Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1948.

[2] Weibel, R. O., and Burlison, W. L. "What Is Chemurgy?" *Think,* March, 1949, 15(3):3.

[3] Condon, E. U., director of National Bureau of Standards. Address on "Science and the National Welfare." Washington, D.C.: American Council of Commercial Laboratories, Dec. 8, 1947. P. 1.

Society is at this moment at the threshold of an undreamed of mastery of our material environment, for science, which provides that mastery, is in its Golden Age.

In particular, achievements in nuclear physics promise incredible advances in the years ahead. Energy from atomic power plants has been much talked about, but even more important are the tools provided by nuclear physics for research in other fields. Radioactive isotopes, for example, will permit us to explore the structures and constitution of molecular aggregates, for such isotopes can be introduced into a system as scientific detectives. They will behave as the usual atoms of the particular element behave, and they can be traced and studied by means of the radiation they emit. Tracer studies of this kind will unravel secrets in biology, physiology, medicine, chemistry, and metallurgy.

Dr. Condon then listed and explained that in several fields America had in previous years depended on basic research by European scientists. Basic knowledge regarding atomic energy was largely developed by scientists in Europe, and European scientists who came to this country contributed heavily to America's success. While American scientists have made significant contributions to research in radar, during the first half of the recent world war they depended quite largely on British scientists. Other fields have been synthetic rubber and optical glass. Moreover, the 10 billion dollar construction industry lags for lack of basic research, and the same can be said for many problems in mental health. The range from atomic energy to mental health may appear to be a rather wide one, but the end results for the general welfare of the nation and the world hinge on the concurrent development of all phases of scientific and social inquiry. Science itself not only affects general human welfare, but also it is retarded or advanced by human factors and cannot be divorced from the total scheme of social and personal well-being and recognition. Even if we have restricted, objective scientific ends in view, what happens to the minds and emotions of men inevitably affects those more immediate results.

There are no valid reasons to belabor the argument for general welfare except that its clear understanding is not always appreciated as a condition for proper progress in scientific fields of inquiry and practical development. An editorial in *Chemical*

Engineering[4] states the case for research as it may be affected by the infiltration of personnel with Communist leanings:

> No man can worship one god and create for another. The mere presence of such misfits (often planted) in a research organization can quickly create the seed for a cancerous growth of dissatisfaction, inefficiency, and disintegration. For there have always been cases—and there will almost certainly be more—where professional research men have been taken in, albeit unwittingly, by the spurious logic of a handful of Communist or near-Communist agitators. And, full of synthetic resentment and dissatisfaction, they become less than worthless in any creative research effort.
>
> Creative research is, basically, a delicate state of mind that results from a rare fusion of knowledge, imagination, hard work, and unwavering faith. Not the least of these is faith. And by faith we mean belief in the moral right of the individual, in the organization for which he works, and in the system of enterprise that sponsors both. Foster this faith, and creative research will blossom and bear abundant fruit. Destroy it, and true creativeness will wither and die.

It has been estimated that "for every thousand scientists adequate to contribute in a rather routine way, there is only one with great and inspiring creative ability." It would appear to be clear that conditions should be well-nigh ideal for the discovery and development of this rarest of qualities for scientific and human progress. If the premise on which this thesis is based is sound and the facts as stated are correct, then the conclusion is logical that general social welfare constitutes the road on which scientific advancement is made. Our thesis, however, goes even further and leads us into a consideration of the special phases of education which are the real objectives of this chapter. We are concerned with the functions of technical education in the community college. What has been written about pure research and its relation to progress on all fronts, not merely in science alone, bears directly and heavily on the kind of education needed for the operating engineer and all those who work on the level of applied science. The author's contention is that the same general conditions for man's well-being that contribute to the pro-

[4] "Red Rottenness." *Chemical Engineering*, May, 1949, 56(5):90. Editorial.

ductiveness of research are also necessary for the proper application of the results of research.

The Program for Technical Education

The program for technical education in the community college is gradually but slowly emerging from newer basic concepts in the field of human relations. People are becoming increasingly convinced that the spirit and processes of democracy apply with equal force and value to business, industrial, and professional development as they do to any other aspect of life. There was a time when an employee, perhaps of less than professional standing, was regarded as a hired "hand." Today, however, in a democratic society this concept is giving way to that of the dignity and worth of the *man* who labors with his hands; views him as a person endowed with all the rights, emotions, and desires of all men regardless of their so-called station in life; regards him as actuated with the same fundamental motivations and incentives common to all human beings; and emphasizes the force of this recognition in the worker's productiveness. Labor can no longer with reason be classed as a commodity along with capital invested or goods produced, processed, distributed, and consumed. Labor at all levels of employment represents *persons*, and in this light employees must be considered and treated; in this light employees must consider and treat others.

The author made inquiry of Dr. Dwayne Orton, director of education for International Business Machines Corporation, as to why the corporation supported its extensive educational programs. In reply Dr. Orton [5] said:

> The foundation conviction which Mr. Watson has is that "to build business you must build men"! This has led to the development of educational activities throughout the entire corporation. Much of this activity has no relationship whatever to the business processes or to the person's occupational activity. It is general education. It is leaven in the loaf of the organization to such an extent that educational processes are used to develop ideas and policies in all levels of the organization where traditional industrial management would ac-

[5] Extract from a personal letter from Dr. Dwayne Orton, Apr. 19, 1949.

complish the same things by regulations and directives. For example, a typical practice of developing more efficient methods in a business is for methods departments and specialists to study various operations and correct procedures for work simplification and more effective work flow. In IBM, we are currently embarking on a program of methods refinement and simplification in one of our largest factories by the method of training each department manager (usually called foreman) in the doing of the job with his own people without the interference of the overlordship of specialists. In this process, we are relying on teaching rather than on the directive services of the expert and authoritarian approach of the outsider who dictates the job. It is also in contrast to the method of making absentee decisions at the policy level and passing them on down by order.

The author of the above-quoted letter further stated the position of enlightened industrial opinion in an article [6] entitled "Human Relations Are Everybody's Business."

"We want bread but we want roses, too." This sign carried in a parade of protesting workers reveals in eloquent terms the priority problem of American industry. "Man does not live by bread alone." The fine standard of living developed by education and business enterprise in America must be balanced by an equally fine standard of human relations. The paraders' sign could have read: "We want a high standard of living but we want good human relations, also."

Here is the new frontier in American business. On the geographic frontier, we have learned how to discover and exploit the material resources of a great continent. On the technological frontier, we have opened up unlimited vistas of achievement through the application of science to human welfare. On the human frontier, the task is to cultivate and draw out of human resources the finest personal qualities and social attitudes. On the technological frontier, we have learned how to compound metals and unite them in chemical and mechanical combinations to accomplish the most work with the minimum of strain and friction. On the human frontier, we must learn how to harmonize the diverse interests of people in the common tasks of humanity. . . .

Strikers in parade are not alone in seeking the "roses." They were merely reflecting in their way the most significant issue of our time.

[6] Orton, Dwayne. "Human Relations Are Everybody's Business." *Dun's Review*, January, 1948.

Integrated Education

The reader may be inclined to believe that the author is wandering far afield to arrive at the objective of technical education in the community college. Thus far, he may be able to follow the route of reasoning with some reservations as to the bearing of what has been written on the essential problems technicians at the intermediate level of occupations may be asked to solve. Present-day technology, however, is cast in the total framework of world civilization and it cannot be separated from it, even though we may attempt to do so. Many important problems in the education of the technician, as of all other persons, are not technical in the restricted sense of the word. They are fundamentally problems of human relations and as such they can be solved only as all persons involved in them approach common understandings. Because of this fact, it is not enough that there shall be general education for the engineer of professional rank or for the rare genius, the one in a thousand who is a creative research specialist. In so far as possible, this knowledge must have universal sharing in a free, democratic society. "Education," said Lord Brougham, "makes a people easy to lead, but difficult to drive; easy to govern, but impossible to enslave." When Aristotle was asked how much superior educated men were to those who were uneducated, he replied, "As much as the living are to the dead."

Let us pursue this philosophy of technical education a step further. The Foundation for Integrated Education in an editorial summary[7] of discussions held on February 12, 1949, sets forth a thesis that "every stable society rests ultimately upon a generally accepted insight, which encompasses the science of a given era." Moreover, the welfare and present safety of American society, in the thinking of at least some members of the Foundation,[8] can rest securely only on a synthesis of knowledge established on data and concepts of the twentieth century.

[7] "Integrative Research." *Main Currents in Modern Thought*, Spring, 1949, 7(1):4. Editorial summary.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

The welfare and safety of American society, in particular, and of mankind in general, are deeply involved. The leaders of the Soviet Union appear to believe that they have such a correct and durable interpretation of man and nature that new scientific information may safely be accommodated into their dialectical framework. An honest and competent inquiry will show wherein they are mistaken, and help the Russian people, but it will also help us, although our problem differs. We are happily committed to certain magnificent ideals, such as freedom, equality of early opportunity, abundance, stability, and the like, but we have found our difficulties increasing since 1917 in realizing these ideals *as one whole;* until at last we have come to abandon some traditional values and practices, such as having no military conscription in peacetime and noninterference abroad, in order to save other values, and then we find we are losing ground all along the line of truth and freedom. Many people hunt scapegoats for these failures, but the deepest cause lies here at home, in the conceptual breakdown. Our history shows that the eighteenth-century concepts of the universe, out of which the American political and economic system arose, were gravely impaired in the nineteenth century. The Founders' philosophy was one which had a general conviction of a sublime spiritual order which could and did validate freedom. That philosophy has declined, but it can be, and must be, reestablished on data and concepts which the twentieth century richly affords. There, most deeply, we can rest our security.

It may be contended that the masses of the people are incapable of holding convictions "of a sublime spiritual order" on which our freedom is validated. If this contention is true, how can the masses of the people understand the basic principles of the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights? American people need now what Lincoln called "a new birth of freedom" in respect to faith in the ability and reliability of the common man to grasp the meaning of basic social concepts. It may be contended further that there is not sufficient time in a limited program for technical education to provide for liberal education. It is recognized that there are time limits. Final results, however, depend largely on the nature of general education, the degree to which it is integrated within the total program, and the fact that time limits may be extended with continuing adult education.

When the question is asked as to how much general education should be included in a technical program in a community college, the answer is that there should be just as much as possible. While no claims for universal application of this principle can be made for the community or junior colleges, it can be said that it represents the official position of the American Association of Junior Colleges. It is supposed to be one of the distinguishing marks of the community college to be implemented in every curriculum. Actual practice, it is admitted, lags far behind the basic principle. It is a heaven, as Browning stated, that exceeds the grasp of the community college, yet these institutions are reaching for it, because they realize that it is an indispensable goal for modern education. If general education is the common fund of knowledge, insight, and appreciation which all people must have for security and production in a free society, then ways and means must be found for the people to have it.

Perhaps this section on technical education may be brought fittingly to a close by quoting the final paragraph in Dr. Condon's address,[9] referred to before in this chapter.

> The sciences, like those other truth-seeking activities of men, require a free environment, an environment above all free of fear, petty arbitrariness, and tyranny. The pursuit of the sciences is fundamentally nothing more—or less—than the pursuit of truths. In the last analysis, all of man's activities are subservient to what happens to his spirit—his spiritual welfare, "For what shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul?"

The author cannot emphasize the point too strongly that all men must be "free of fear, petty arbitrariness, and tyranny." The men who apply the findings of science and inventions are the same kind of persons as scientists and inventors. The atmosphere in which they work must be of the same invigorating quality required for all persons in a democratic society. Mere craftsmanship, the mastery of a few manipulative skills, may have served a useful purpose at certain stages of industrial development. Such a program is no longer acceptable. Narrow vocationalism

[9] Condon, E. U., *op. cit.*, p. 19.

is rejected on all counts. As Newton Edwards [10] says: "The great majority of entrants into occupational life today must possess qualities of adjustability and adjustment, must know how to do not one thing but many things, must be able to transfer from one job to another, must be capable of sustained attention and quick reaction, must be more intelligent, and must be able to get along with other people, to work with them, to direct them, and to serve their needs."

Alfred Kähler and Ernest Hamburger in *Education for an Industrial Age* contend that "narrow training for a single job is undesirable from every point of view" even in the vocational high-school system.[11]

> One of the most critical and most complex questions in the entire field of in-school vocational education and training is what constitutes proper breadth of training in operational skills. It has repeatedly been established by this study that narrow training for a single job is undesirable from every point of view. The wider limits, however, are far more difficult to define. Any number of factors—the interest of the student, the facilities of the school, the demands of the economy, the attitude of organized labor—must be given due consideration in attempting to reach a sound and reasonable conclusion on this subject.

Present Tendencies in Community Colleges

In Chap. 3, it was pointed out that one of the basic functions of the community college is the preparation of persons for job entrance at a level of employment in broad areas somewhere between the skilled trade on the one hand and that of professional planning, designing, or managerial position on the other. No extensive evidence needs to be presented here in support of the need for this type of trained personnel. Ample evidence has been secured, both at the national and state levels, and may be consulted by those who are especially interested in this data. Re-

[10] Edwards, Newton. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939. P. 139.

[11] Kähler, Alfred, and Hamburger, Ernest. *Education for an Industrial Age.* Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1948. P. 229.

sults from research in this field of occupational needs have become so abundant that general understanding and acceptance are becoming increasingly common. The technological nature of practically every process in our present industrialized society needs no elaboration. Its extension in the future is a foregone conclusion. About all one needs to do is to make observations. These observations constitute the accepted pattern in the mind of every normal school child. While many children may not have seen the inside of modern factories, they have seen and experienced the products in radios, automobiles, airplanes, and trains, electric stoves and refrigerators, and hundreds of machines and gadgets used in the home and community.

Moreover, it is well known that the age of employability has been gradually increasing; that greater maturity is required in age and judgment for what is essentially an adult's world of work; that in addition to manipulative skills, many of which can be learned in a relatively short time on the job, general understanding and ability to cooperate on an extensive scale are required. Figure 5 [12] will show the reader at a glance what has taken place during the past several decades; first, the constant reduction of pure manual labor; second, the ever-decreasing use of animals for the performance of work; third, the swift increase in the application of mechanically generated power; and fourth, the resulting multiplication of unit productivity in goods, services, and wealth. The real question, therefore, is no longer what is needed in education, but rather how it can be met successfully.

In attempts to meet the needs of employment at the intermediate level of occupations, sometimes called semiprofessional, community and junior colleges are giving a great deal of attention especially at the top-planning stages. Progress is being made, although it must be confessed that it is neither extensive nor rapid. Why this type of educational program should be offered in the community college has been clearly set forth.[13] The move-

[12] Carskadon, Thomas R., and Modley, Rudolf. *U.S.A.: Measure of a Nation.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949.

[13] Hillmer, Myrl Allen. *Terminal Curricula Offered and Standard Tests Administered in Public Junior Colleges in the United States.* University of Texas: May, 1949. Unpublished thesis.

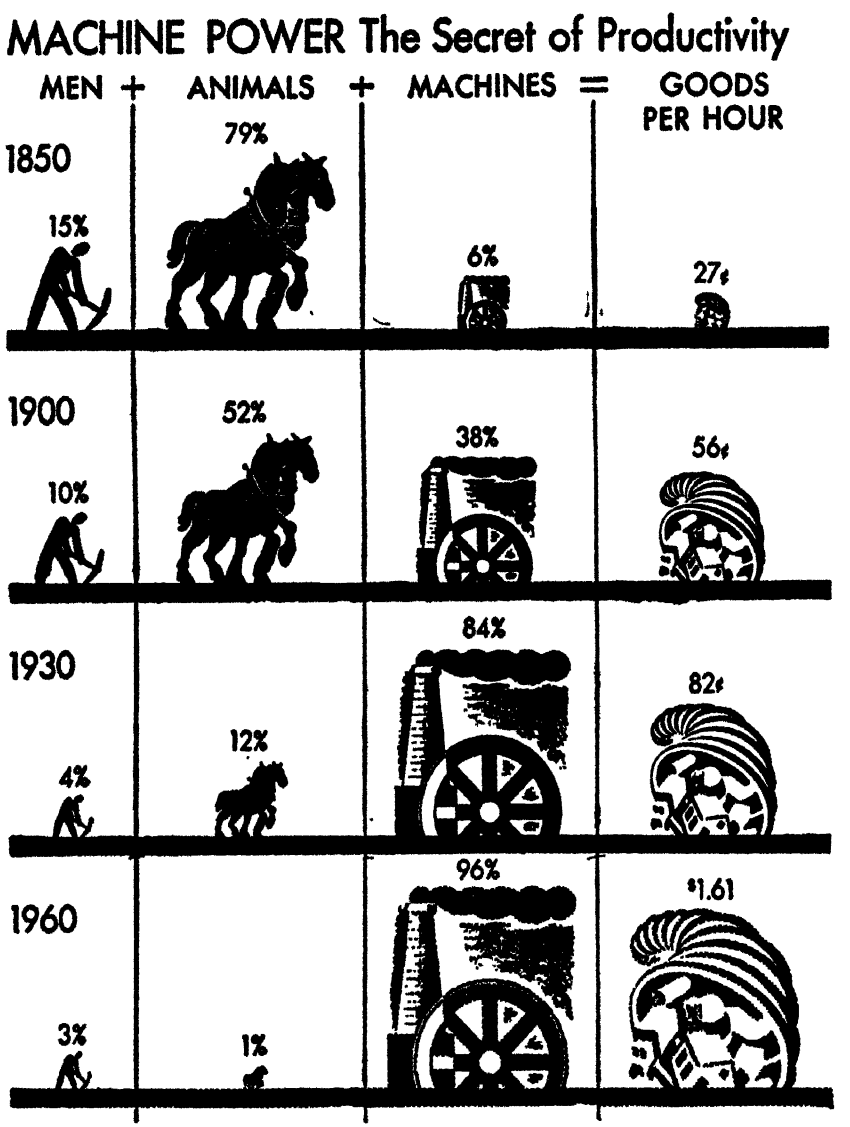


FIG. 5. Back in 1850 men and animals supplied most of the energy for our work. By 1960, with machine power supplying 96 per cent of the energy we use, we can turn out six times as much per man-hour of work. Future progress lies in raising our output per man-hour through increasing use of machine power. (*From U.S.A.: Measure of a Nation. By permission of The Twentieth Century Fund.*)

ment as a whole, however, has fallen short in vigorously promoting the practice of its findings among institutions. There are encouraging signs. As evidence, it is of interest to have certain facts discovered in a status study of this problem made during 1948 and 1949 by Mr. M. A. Hillmer at the University of Texas. In an unpublished thesis, accepted at the university in May, 1949, Mr. Hillmer shows that in public junior colleges in the United States approximately 47 per cent of the students enrolled during 1947–1948 were in so-called terminal curricula.[14]

According to status studies made in 1940 by Walter Crosby Eells, the following data were revealed: McDowell found in 1917 that 18 per cent of the catalogue listings were terminal in nature; in 1921, Koos discovered that these listings had increased to 31 per cent; by 1930, Hollingsworth and Eells stated that listings were 33 per cent of the total, but in the next year, Christensen showed that while the catalogue listings may have represented a third of the total curricula, only 20 per cent of students were enrolled in them; Colvert's studies in 1937 indicated that 35 per cent of listings were terminal, and the following year Eells produced encouraging figures to show that the same percentage of students, namely, 35 per cent, were actually in these programs.[15] Now, with Hillmer's findings that enrollments have increased to 47 per cent, we might have some confidence that gradually the community colleges are moving in to possess this field of education to a greater extent than ever before.

When we make a closer examination of the curricular enrollments, however, it is found that a relatively small percentage of students are actually in technical programs. Fifty-two per cent, according to Hillmer, are in general cultural studies, 21 per cent in distributive education, 13 per cent in industrial or trade, 7 per cent in agriculture, and the same per cent in homemaking. Contrasting Hillmer's findings for 1947–1948 with those of Eells for 1938–1939, we may discover some interesting likenesses and differences. Eells found that only 23 per cent of students were in

[14] *Ibid.*, pp. 24–25, and compiled from Eells, Walter C. *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941. P. 22.

[15] Eells, *op. cit.*

general cultural studies, but that 43 per cent were in distributive education. These two fields show an almost complete inversion during the ten-year period. Industrial or trade, agriculture, and homemaking remained at about the same percentages during the periods studied by Eells and Hillmer. The inversion of the general cultural and distributive curricula, mentioned before, is all the more striking because it is known that in 1947–1948 a considerable percentage of students in public junior colleges were former servicemen.

Moreover, presence of veterans in the colleges did not appear to have changed enrollments on the percentage basis for agriculture or for industrial or trade occupations. It is true that numbers in 1947–1948 were almost twice as great as they were ten years previous, but the percentages remained almost the same in spite of all that was said about the veteran student wanting short-cut education of a more practical nature for immediate and usable skill occupations. If Hillmer had included privately controlled institutions in his investigation, it is quite likely that an even higher percentage of students would have been found in general cultural curricula, because many of these institutions are for women. The prevailing type in respect to enrollment in public junior colleges is coeducational. As possible interpretations of Hillmer's findings, it appears that either there were more students on the whole who wanted general cultural education, or that those who wanted short-cut occupational training did not enroll in junior colleges. It is more likely that students aiming at engineering and other technical fields were enrolled in the junior colleges in university-parallel curricula.

The Curricular Problem

What has been said in the foregoing sentence leads us into one of the most difficult problems in the whole field of education today, namely, how to guide students into the educational programs best suited to their abilities. It is well known that this problem is not applicable exclusively to community colleges. The fact that across the nation almost 50 per cent of the youth who enroll as freshmen do not, for several reasons, survive to enter the

third year of college shows its acuteness in senior institutions. In colleges of engineering the rate of attrition is as great as or even greater than it is in colleges and universities of all types. At Texas A. and M. College only 32 per cent of the students who enter engineering studies finally graduate. Not all of the 68 per cent drop out of college, because considerable numbers of them change to other fields of study. At a conference at Texas A. and M. College in 1948, H. W. Barlow, dean of engineering, presented the results of investigations, the basis of which served as prognostic information on the probable success of students in engineering. Dean Barlow said: [16]

As a starting point, we believe that it might be satisfactory to limit entrance into the freshman year in engineering to those students who are above the 40 percentile mark in A.C.E. tests, with a high-school average of 80 or more, and with not less than two years of algebra. A further stipulation would probably be made to provide special algebra work for students whose only weakness was a shortage in this subject. All other students not meeting the requirements would be given an opportunity to take special college entrance examinations, which, if passed with a satisfactory grade, would enable them to enter directly into the freshman year in engineering.

All others would be required to enroll in a preengineering year in the School of Arts and Sciences. That is, they would not be barred from entering college, but would not be given permission to enter the School of Engineering until they had demonstrated that their preparation and mental ability were adequate to the task they were assuming.

One is forced to ask himself why entrance requirements are not applied with greater emphasis when the facts discovered over a long period of time constitute a sound basis for the prediction of the success of students. Publicly controlled institutions often reply that they are under pressure to accept almost any graduate of high school and to give him a chance to demonstrate his ability to succeed or fail. The total price paid by students, however, appears to be so high that ways and means should be found for

[16] Barlow, H. W. Paper on "The Preparedness of the Texas High School Graduate for the Study of Engineering." Texas A. and M. College: Junior College Conference, Apr. 23, 1948. Pp. 3–4.

the proper solution of the problem. What solutions may be considered is a fair question.

It is believed, first of all, that the community colleges can be of assistance, if working arrangements can be made with senior institutions. One of the functions of the community college is that of offering students an opportunity to explore their possibilities in fields of collegiate studies without too great a loss of time, money, and sometimes resulting frustrations incident to failure. We would suggest, therefore, that the entrance program for engineering be planned on a broader basis than is generally available at the present time. It is well known that a number of colleges of engineering have organized their curricula on the basis of five years of work. Columbia is a good example, although others could be named. Engineering at Harvard is offered as a graduate field of study. It is known that Massachusetts Institute of Technology and some colleges of liberal arts have working arrangements whereby students may enter the former institution with advanced standing after three years of satisfactory work at the latter.

Other colleges, as for example Michigan State, are requiring all students, regardless of their final objectives vocationally, to pursue or pass examinations in a number of broad fields in general education. The Basic College of Michigan State commends itself to this author as one that should receive greater attention by both community colleges and senior institutions. The program in itself in communications, physical sciences, biological sciences, social sciences, effective living, history of civilization, and the humanities should challenge the attention of educators. Even for students who plan to remain at Michigan State for two years only, and with no further regard for immediate vocational objectives, at least five of the seven basic core courses are required.

The reader's attention may be called to a digest of replies received from 180 colleges and universities as it is presented by Henry H. Armsby, specialist for engineering education, Higher Education Division, U.S. Office of Education, in the May, 1948, issue of *Higher Education.* The title of the digest is "Colleges Teach and Practice Democracy." It is interesting to see the extent to which engineering colleges are requiring curriculum revi-

sions "designed to make education for democratic living more effective." [17]

In the same issue of *Higher Education,* H. P. Hammond, dean, School of Engineering, Pennsylvania State College, has written an article entitled "Preparation in Engineering Education for Democratic Citizenship." Dean Hammond traces briefly some of the efforts of the American Society for Engineering Education during the past twenty-five years "toward broader and more fundamental preparation of engineers for professional life and the exercise of the duties of democratic citizenship." He then outlines the general plans in the following language [18] for the implementation of the suggestions:

> The recommended objectives of the humanistic-social stem of the curriculum, which bear specifically on the title of this paper, follow: (1) Understanding of the evolution of the social organization within which we live and of the influence of science and engineering on its development; (2) ability to recognize and to make a critical analysis of a problem involving social and economic elements, to arrive at an intelligent opinion about it, and to read with discrimination and purpose; (3) ability to organize thoughts logically and to express them lucidly and convincingly in oral and written English; (4) acquaintance with some of the great masterpieces of literature and an understanding of their setting in and influence upon civilization; (5) development of moral, ethical, and social concepts essential to a satisfying personal philosophy, to a career consistent with the public welfare, and to a sound professional attitude; and (6) attainment of an interest and pleasure in these pursuits and thus of an inspiration to continued study.
>
> It was clearly recognized in the reports that chief emphasis in curricula in science and engineering must, from their inherent nature and purposes, be devoted to scientific-technological studies; but it was recognized also that sufficient time must be devoted to humanistic-social studies to achieve the broad purposes here enumerated. It was recommended that not less than 20 per cent of the curriculum be devoted to these latter studies, elementary drill courses in English com-

[17] Armsby, Henry H. "Colleges Teach and Practice Democracy." *Higher Education,* May 1, 1948, 4(17):196.

[18] Hammond, H. P. "Preparation in Engineering Education for Democratic Citizenship." *Higher Education,* May 1, 1948, 4(17):200.

position and courses in business, finance, and management not being included in this allotment.

It was further recommended that in the attainment of the objectives of the humanistic-social subject matter, courses be arranged in an integrated, uninterrupted sequence extending through all semesters from admission to graduation.

Dean Hammond then concludes his article in the following two paragraphs [19] with an encouraging prophetic note at the end, based no doubt on facts gathered in a questionnaire study made in 1944 by Leslie A. Rose and responded to by 100 institutions:

It is to those ends that engineering educators are directing their present efforts. Indications point to substantial progress. The general pattern of engineering education has been delineated, and curricula, regardless of their duration, are being framed to conform to it. Advocacy of the longer period of undergraduate curricula is consistent with these broad aims. So, too, are the changes being put into effect in the more common four-year programs.

As these measures are being taken, it becomes clear that preparing subject matter in the humanistic-social area which will be broad in scope yet purposeful in relation to engineering careers, and at the same time suitable to the needs, interests, and aptitudes of engineering students is a much more difficult problem than is the planning of the curriculum itself. And it is still more difficult to devise methods of presenting these subjects to engineering students so as to conform to their accustomed methods of work, that is, doing things for themselves instead of having them laid before them in didactic fashion, than it is to prepare the subject matter. It is in these areas—subject matter and teaching methods—that the next phases of the development of the humanistic-social element in engineering education, with its component of training for democratic citizenship, will be taken.

Adjusting the Technical Curricula

If and when the recommendations of the American Society for Engineering Education are generally carried out, it seems possible that more effective working relations can be made between the community colleges and the schools of engineering. Perhaps adjustments may be possible in the actual building of curricula

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 201.

whereby a considerable proportion, although not all, of the humanistic-social subject matter could be included in the first two or three years of the total program. Such an arrangement would make it possible for community colleges to devote their efforts to a larger amount of general education in broad areas of learning, and at the same time provide for basic subject matter in mathematics and the sciences, give understanding of fundamentals in some chosen field of specialization, and provide minimum skills for an entry job.

The author participated in a two-day conference at the New Haven YMCA Junior College, New Haven, Connecticut, in January, 1949, on this problem that is now receiving attention throughout the country. It was commonly agreed among the twenty-six participants, who represented various phases of educational interests with special reference to technical education, that the following goals were desirable and attainable in the community colleges: (1) understanding of the world in which we live; (2) acquisition of fundamental skills in communication; (3) appreciation of social, political, and economic institutional organizations; (4) exploration of areas of occupational specialization; (5) understanding of fundamentals in the chosen field of specialization; (6) acquisition of minimum skill for entry or beginning job in the chosen specialization.

It was frankly recognized that some of these goals will be almost a lifetime undertaking for each individual. He will attempt to progress toward these goals both through his experiences in the classroom and laboratories and through his lifetime activities as a productive citizen of his community and of the world. In this respect, education in the philosophy of the community college is never-ending. Community colleges have a right to and must free themselves from the fetish of numbers. The concept that these institutions are merely two-year colleges has no place in present-day thinking and planning, except that senior colleges and universities as well as accrediting agencies may place restrictions on the amount of earned credits that may be accepted for further formal education. The great majority of community-college students will continue to live and work in their native communities. The real aim of these colleges, there-

fore, should be to assist these people in a continuing educational program to do better what they are going to do anyway and to help them live richer and fuller lives in their homes and community relationships.

The real meat of the New Haven Conference was in the declaration that the basic program for technical-engineering education should be one program, and not two. Sharp lines have been generally drawn in most states and community colleges between what are called university-parallel and terminal curricula. The choice is either, or; the colors, either black or white. This writer contends that there should be basic programs of studies, geared to the abilities, aptitudes, previous achievements, and interests of students and directed toward fields of employment that offer opportunities for making a living. It is well known that adjustments may become necessary in prerequisite studies as students may advance into further formal education. The mere fact that there may be some loss of time and credit should not be a serious consideration. The greater consideration should be the welfare of the 50 per cent of students who do not continue their education in senior institutions beyond the second year and the overwhelming majority of the community-college students whose final, full-time formal education is completed in these colleges.

The community college should provide each student with organized blocks of education, each of which should represent a complete and unified intellectual experience. By complete, it is not meant that there is nothing more to be learned, but rather that it is complete in the sense that periods of education are well rounded. By unified, we mean that a single, integrated program should be built, tailored to the specifications of the individual student; that it should be integrated with previous educational experiences and capable of being integrated with what may follow, either in upper division studies, other specialized fields, or in the occupations to be entered for further training and advancement.

Figure 6 shows graphically the general scheme arrived at by the participants in the New Haven Conference. Instead of attempting to set up two separate and distinct programs for each field of technical-engineering education, there should be essen-

tially one program with a dual function. Because it is practically impossible, for several reasons, to predetermine the direction students in community colleges will take, the doors should be left open for them, either immediately or at some later time, to advance in either a perpendicular or a lateral manner for further education and training. Entrance through these doors should be based on areas of competency rather than on narrow course con-

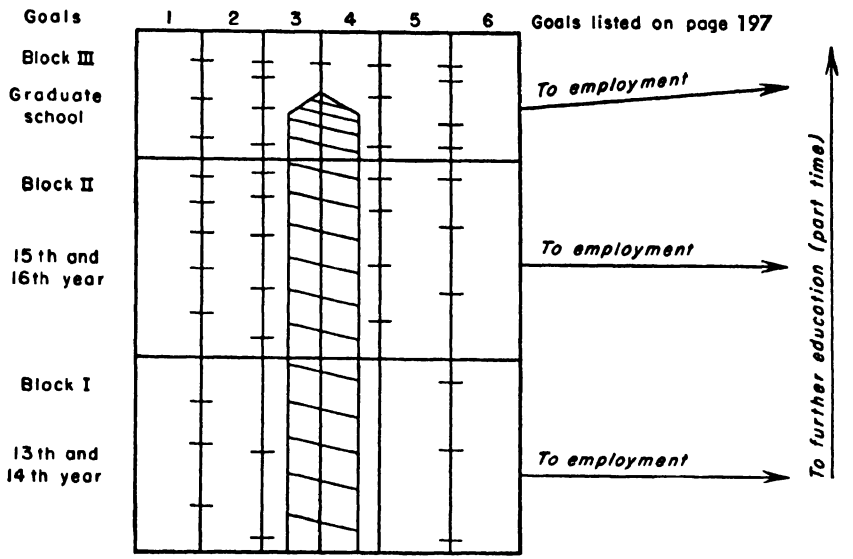


FIG. 6. Blocks of educational experience.

tent, on the evidence of sufficient knowledge and skill in a particular area rather than on mere sequence of study, and in general on the students' native abilities, aptitudes, and habits of work rather than on a narrow interpretation of the subject-matter fields. It is believed that this program would be feasible not only for community colleges but also for senior institutions.

The view just expressed in the foregoing sentence is evidently shared by some engineering educators. William L. De Baufre, chairman of the Department of Engineering Education, University of Nebraska, stated his views on this matter in *The Journal of Engineering Education*, October, 1946.[20]

[20] De Baufre, William L. "Technological Education in a Democracy." *The Journal of Engineering Education*, October, 1946, 37(2):154.

For every graduate, however, one or more nongraduates have been forced to leave college for financial or other reasons after attending college one or two years only. A few technical institutes for highly specialized training in certain industries should undoubtedly be established. But it would seem desirable for engineering colleges to recognize the conditions inherent in our democratic way of life and organize engineering curricula so that each year in college will prepare students for more responsible positions in industry as well as for more advanced engineering studies.

How to Achieve the Goals

Details of curriculum building will have to be left to each institution; indeed, each department of instruction should work out its own plan. There are many ways in which a person may complete one or more blocks of educational experience. He may devote full time for a given number of years for formal education extending perhaps into graduate studies in a university; or he may wish to pursue a cooperative plan where work and study are carried concurrently; or he may interrupt his cooperative plan, seek employment on a full-time basis and take part-time studies. It is the clear responsibility of the community college to provide these alternatives in accordance with the needs of the community. No one alternative should be permitted to demand priority consideration except as it is dictated by community needs. Each alternative may be worthy of all the services and techniques which contribute to a well-organized and administered block of educational experience.

A study made by Harold P. Rodes, assistant director of relations with schools, University of California, in 1948, on the curricular offerings of California junior colleges reveals some interesting facts. In the first place, all but four of the fifty public junior colleges studied are offering preengineering curricula, called university-parallel in that state. At the other end of the program, all but two of the institutions are offering one or more programs of the trade-type training, usually of "less than college grade." In between these two extremes, only twenty colleges are offering programs designed for the intermediate level of occupations.

Writing in the *California Journal of Secondary Education,* January, 1949, Dr. Rodes [21] points out perhaps an example of what can happen under this "either-or" system.

In September of 1947, one moderately sized public junior college in the state had an enrollment of 280 students in its preengineering curriculum which it intended to prepare for transfer to the junior year of any college of engineering. By the end of the academic year about 100 students remained in the preengineering program, and somewhere between 25 and 50 of these will transfer to a college of engineering. In other words, 80 to 90 per cent of the students originally enrolled will fail, for one reason or another, to achieve the transfer objective of the preengineering curriculum. Moreover, aside from the small amount of drafting or surveying included in the preengineering program, these students will have very little in the way of any salable skill or understanding with which to obtain placement in their field of major occupational interest.

In concerted efforts to arrive at proper solutions, Relations with Schools of the University of California is attacking the problems on a cooperative, functional basis. The work involves not only the university, but also the State Department of Education, under whose authority and supervision the junior colleges operate, and the California Association of Junior Colleges. Out of working conferences and discussions in a face-to-face, all-cards-on-the-table manner, progress is being made toward understandings on all sides. As evidence of this progress, we quote further [22] from Dr. Rodes' statement:

Perhaps the primary deterrent to the selection of terminal curricula is the fear on the part of students that such a selection will preclude all possibility of later transfer to a university with credit. In this connection, the University of California recognizes that the greatest stimulus it can provide to the development of technical-terminal education is a liberal transfer policy. If technical-terminal programs are of sufficiently high caliber, they are bound to attract some students who probably should continue with training for professional engineering. At the December, 1948, meeting of the university's Board of Ad-

[21] Rodes, H. P. "Technical Training in the Junior College." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* January, 1949, 24(1):26–27.

[22] *Ibid.,* p. 27.

missions and Relations with Schools, the following statement of transfer policy was adopted unanimously:

"Students who wish to transfer to the College of Engineering from a technical institute or a junior-college terminal program will be expected to meet the existing university requirements for admission to the freshman year. In consultation with a faculty adviser, placement in engineering courses will be determined by the student's previous scholastic record and his performance on an appropriate aptitude or achievement test. After demonstrating an ability to do the work required in the College of Engineering with a satisfactory grade point average, the College of Engineering will evaluate his noncertificate terminal courses and recommend transfer credit for them to the extent that they are found to have served the student as preparation for his advanced work in engineering."

There is growing evidence in other sections of the country for the gradual merging of interests, points of view, and program that will serve the dual purpose of the community-college educational experience set forth in this chapter. The author had the stimulating experience of visiting the LeTourneau Technical Institute of Texas at Longview and witnessing the program in action. He is indebted to Dr. Walter J. Brooking, former dean of the institute, for a concise statement of the program and the manner in which it serves the dual purpose of further education or immediate job entrance at the intermediate level: [23]

1. The school's entire program was established to serve industrial vocational-technical objectives. (Enrollment is limited to men only.)
2. Industry cooperative vocational courses for all students were established, the courses to be continuous throughout the student's stay in the institute so he could obtain real experience in skills and knowledge of some branch of industrial vocational work. All students consider the vocational-technical objective as the "major" study, and other courses in the curriculum are taken in the light of that interest.
3. Classes were organized and presented in the theory of the cooperative industrial shopwork, equivalent to the lecture course related to chemistry or physics laboratory courses.

[23] Excerpt from a personal letter, Mar. 22, 1949, from Walter J. Brooking, formerly dean of LeTourneau Technical Institute, Longview, Tex., and now administrative head, Engineering Division of the Special Products, M. W. Kellogg Company, Elizabeth, N.J.

4. There was provided and required the same general-education curriculum, including English, chemistry, physics, economics, mathematics, government, engineering drawing, and Bible study, as is given in conventional junior colleges or the first two years of liberal-arts four-year colleges.

5. The school obtained college accreditation for the junior-college years (freshman and sophomore), which provided transferability at full par value for all courses offered, both general-education and vocational-technical.

6. The school extends its curriculum beyond the junior college for two years, providing further experience in the vocational-technical cooperative industrial courses and advanced courses in mechanics, economics, industrial management, mathematics, physics, time and motion study, and industrial safety, such courses being the equivalent of similar courses in industrial management and industrial engineering in other schools. These courses lead to a bachelor of science in industrial science degree, approved by the State Department of Public Instruction.

It is our belief that the combination of short, alternating periods of work and study, each day half day respectively, provides almost optimum learning stimuli for both the vocational skills and the applied science or general education.

While most of the students in the institute have no intention of transferring to other objectives, to our knowledge no student who has done good work at the institute and has desired to transfer to other schools has had difficulty in transferring credit, wherever the subjects he studied at the institute applied to his new objective. (As much as three complete college years have been transferred to teachers colleges where the institute shopwork was looked upon as being superior to that offered by teachers colleges because of its having been paid employment with instruction in an industry.)

We conceive at least the first two years of our program (the junior college) to be representative of what a division of most community colleges, especially those in large industrial areas, could and should be. According to the 1948 *United States Statistical Abstract,* 24 per cent of the gainfully employed in the United States earn their living from the manufacturing industry alone. The formal education providing the skills and general education necessary for that segment of our population who will be manufacturing industry leaders is greatly in need of expansion in the direction that the LeTourneau Technical Institute has taken. A study of over 4,000 industrial foremen, super-

visors, and other men in responsible charge of manufacturing operations made by the National Foremen's Association two or three years ago, indicated that over 60 per cent of such men in industry have less than a complete high-school education. Those with more than a high-school education were found to be immensely more productive as leaders.

We believe that a great educational service can, and should, be rendered in this field, and believe that the already accomplished development and acceptance of our program is evidence that it can be developed similarly in many other existing, or to be created, community colleges.

The Eastern view of the matter is summed up by Dr. Lawrence L. Bethel,[24] director, New Haven YMCA Junior College, in behalf of the New Haven Conference held in January, 1949:

Experience with Eastern universities has shown that students of community colleges who have carried programs as described in this report (dual-purpose) can transfer to universities without major difficulties. Several studies have been made of the progress of these students after transfer. In general these reports show that such students do as well, if not better, in their advanced studies as those students who have carried the more traditional academic program. One study at Syracuse University revealed that work experience concurrent with study in the community college appeared to be particularly influential in increasing the probability of success in advanced study.

This group assembled wishes to commend colleges and universities for the flexibility of their transfer policies which have made possible much of the effectiveness of the elementary blocks of post-secondary education. Universities in some instances are even taking the initiative in urging community colleges to look more to building programs for individuals in place of slavish adherence to traditionally prescribed patterns of subjects. Furthermore, consideration by these universities in individual evaluation of progress and development is indicative of the sincerity of these recommendations.

[24] Bethel, Lawrence L., Chairman. *The Community College.* New Haven, Conn.: Conference Report, Jan. 14–15, 1949. P. 6.

SUMMARY

It may be concluded that there is insistent demand and need for ever-increasing numbers of men and women in semiprofessional occupations; that their programs of education must provide for unified and integrated curricula of general and vocational-technical instruction and training; that the flow of students into more advanced fields of study can be effected by better understanding and cooperation between junior colleges and technical institutes on the one hand and the colleges of engineering and other types of higher professional schools on the other; that even colleges of engineering could reorganize their lower division studies whereby students leaving at the end of the sophomore year would have enough basic knowledge and salable skill for job entry; that the concept of the community college merely as a two-year institution does not square with the needs of men and women in their communities; that work-study-advance arrangements can be made for student-workers to continue the learning processes almost as long as they live and work; that the junior-college program and the technical institute program are aimed at essentially the same goals, each having a great deal to offer the other, and that a closer cooperation and *rapprochement* between the two should be created.

Chapter 9. ADULT EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Adult education is a relatively new function assumed by the community-college movement. At the time junior colleges were started, approximately at the beginning of the present century, these programs were being offered largely through extension divisions of state colleges and universities. At the time the American Association of Junior Colleges was formed in 1920, little was said regarding adult education, although some attention was given to it. By 1925, however, a sense of community responsibility was expressed, but not explicitly in terms of adult education. *The Junior-college Movement* by Koos, written in 1925, does not list adult education either in the table of contents or in the index of the book.[1] One of the first systematic efforts to determine and state the basic functions of the junior college was in a doctoral dissertation by F. W. Thomas (Stanford University, 1926). Four functions were listed and since that time they have been widely quoted. They were popularizing function, preparatory function, terminal function, and guidance function. It will be noted, therefore, that in terms of primary aims no mention was made of adult education. In 1931, Dr. Walter Crosby Eells published *The Junior College.*[2] His reference to adult education is confined to one short section as follows:

Adult education. The junior college can give additional cultural training to adults who are prepared to profit by it.

"The new junior college will take over the functions of the old liberal-arts college and will extend the benefits of such college training

[1] Koos, Leonard V. *The Junior-college Movement.* Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925.

[2] Eells, Walter Crosby. *The Junior College.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931.

to adults in hours of leisure. . . . There will be classes in history, economics, finance, international affairs, etc., for those citizens who have had earlier benefits of high school and college education." [3]

As early as 1905 President James of the University of Illinois expressed his belief that the junior college would relieve the university of the burden of extension work and do it more economically and effectively.[4]

When *American Junior Colleges* was published in 1940, however, Eells referred to adult education as a function of the junior college [5] with the following statements:

With reference to possible adult enrollment in the late afternoon and evening classes and to other types of cultural and vocational opportunity, it is only necessary to note the example of one junior college with an enrollment of 800 regular students and of adults of almost 8,000 to see the great possibilities of expansion in this significant field. Perhaps it is not impossible to anticipate an adult enrollment ten times as great as that of regular students in the local junior college which fully meets the needs and opportunities of the community which it serves.

In the spring of 1932, a special committee of seven members, operating under the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, engaged by the governor of California by legislative resolution, made its report. Adult education was definitely identified at that time as a function of the junior colleges in California: [6]

The function of adult education may be associated with the junior college as a supplementary service. It concerns not the regular full-time student body but the citizens of the community, both men and women, who have terminated their formal schooling and wish to advance their self-education with the stimulus, direction, and aid which the present-day organization of adult or extension education provides.

[3] Cooper, W. J. "Adult Education in the Junior College Program." *California Quarterly of Secondary Education,* October, 1928, 4:36.

[4] Eells, *op. cit.,* p. 195.

[5] Eells, Walter Crosby (Ed.) *American Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. 36–37.

[6] Seashore, Carl E. *The Junior College Movement.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1940. P. 26.

Junior colleges are local community institutions and may well be cultural community centers.

The New American College by Sexson and Harbeson, published in 1946,[7] shows how very definitely adult education had become established as an integral service of the college from the time it opened in the morning at 8 o'clock until it closed at 10 o'clock at night. Writing of "The Community Education Function," the authors state their unequivocal position in these words:

For the successful performance of this function, the junior college should become the center of the educational and cultural life of the entire community. This function rests upon the philosophy that education is a lifelong process, extending from birth to death, and the time will never come in the course of one's lifetime when he can say that his education is completed.

To facilitate the process of lifelong learning, the four-year junior college is in a strategic position. As the topmost unit of the public-school system, it is the logical organization to assume the responsibility for adult education. The organization of an evening high school or school of education unnecessarily complicates the machinery of public education. In fact, the traditional distinction between regular and adult education should be abandoned. Adult persons who are free during the regular day should be permitted to enroll in day classes if they desire. Adolescent students might find it more convenient or profitable to enroll in late afternoon or evening classes. What is needed is not a separate school of late afternoon and evening classes, but an extended day in the junior college—a day extending from 8:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M.—chock-full of rich educational offerings for the entire community without regard to age or walk in life. This is indeed a significant function of the junior college. . . .

Terminal Education in the Junior College by Phebe Ward was published in 1947. With respect to the extension of personnel services of the junior college to the entire community, Miss Ward states [8] the position of the Terminal Education Commission of the American Association of Junior Colleges:

[7] Sexson, John A., and Harbeson, John W. *The New American College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946. P. 58.

[8] Ward, Phebe. *Terminal Education in the Junior College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947. Pp. 128–129.

Traditionally, the junior college has felt little or no responsibility for the college-preparatory student once he has transferred to a four-year institution. Consequently, many institutions would feel that once a terminal student has been placed in a full-time position, the junior college is relieved of all further responsibility toward him by virtue of the fact that he is now an adult in the community. However, personnel workers and instructors in successful terminal programs are keenly aware of the need for helping former students.

In terminal programs, there is little opportunity for the training institution to slough off its responsibilities for its former students as though it were a cat that is given to abandoning its young, leaving them to shift for themselves. Fortunately for the junior college, its terminal offspring—if encouraged—return to the training institution for more services. And in providing them with additional training and personnel services, the institution becomes interested in aiding other adults in the community.

In further consideration of the genesis and growth of adult education in the junior colleges, it is of interest that the first official report of attendance of adult students was made in 1933. At that time 225 colleges reported enrollments of only 6,785 special and adult students.[9] There was no attempt made in 1933 to divide special and adult enrollments. The *Directory* for 1949 of the American Association of Junior Colleges indicates that no less than 271 institutions were enrolling adults and the attendance had reached 130,000 students.[10] As an indication of the increasing interest in this function of the movement, the annual reports for 1949 broke down for the first time enrollments for students taking special work and those who were listed as adults. An arbitrary line was drawn for the reports which indicated that students beyond compulsory school age who were taking courses without credit were adults; all other students, regardless of age, who were taking either part-time or full-time work were listed in other categories, freshmen, sophomores, or specials.

From 1933 to 1937, "other" students, who included both special and adults, comprised less than 15 per cent of the total en-

[9] Campbell, Doak S. *Directory of the Junior College, 1933.* Stanford University, California: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1933.

[10] Bogue, Jesse P., and Sanders, Shirley. *Junior College Directory, 1949.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1949.

rollments. Beginning with 1938, however, a phenomenal growth set in, and by 1945, the percentage of the total was 64.8. This high mark was caused largely by the wartime services of the colleges in special training classes; it became a convincing proof of what the colleges could do as community institutions once they were aroused to their responsibilities and opportunities. By 1949, the percentage of the total enrollments had dropped to 36.9, but the actual numbers had greatly increased. During the ten-year period from 1939 to 1949, it is of great significance that students other than those enrolled for full-time work increased from 33,204 to 184,796!

As an indication of what may be expected throughout the United States when all junior colleges awaken to their adult educational functions, as may be seen in California, the enrollment of special and adult students in this state in 1949 reached the encouraging figure of 105,599. If a comparable achievement had been made in all states, there would have been nearly ½ million adults in junior colleges. Surely, this record, entirely within the reach of the community colleges in the United States, would constitute a service whose magnitude and values would be one of the greatest within their power to render.

Perhaps with this possibility in mind, the President's Commission on Higher Education recorded its convictions in these words: [11]

The community college seeks to become a center of learning for the entire community, with or without the restrictions that surround formal course work in traditional institutions of higher education. It gears it program and services to the needs and wishes of the people it serves, and its offerings may range from workshops in painting or singing or play writing for fun to refresher courses in journalism or child psychology.

If the health of the community can be improved by teaching restaurant managers something about the bacteriology of food, the community college sets up such a course and seeks to enroll as many of those employed in food service as it can muster. If the community

[11] "Establishing the Goals." *Higher Education for American Democracy, A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December, 1947. Vol. I, pp. 69–70.

happens to be a center for travelers from Latin America, the college provides classes in Spanish for salespeople, waitresses, bellboys, and taxicab drivers.

The potential effects of the community college in keeping intellectual curiosity alive in out-of-school citizens, of stimulating their zest for learning, of improving the quality of their lives as individuals and as citizens are limited only by the vision, the energy, and the ingenuity of the college staff—and by the size of the college budget. But the people will take care of the budget if the staff provides them with vital and worth-while educational services.

When the Commission set forth the definite functions of community colleges, it was stated with emphasis: *"The community college must be the center for the administration of a comprehensive adult education program."* This was not the first time, however, that such convictions had been voiced in America, but the weight of the Commission greatly increased the attention of the public in this basic objective. A somewhat similar view was expressed in 1940 by Carl E. Seashore,[12] then dean emeritus of the State University of Iowa:

> The junior college is designed to be a community institution with wide functions. It aims to meet the educational needs for the occupations prevailing in the community. It becomes a center for the development of community interests in the smaller cities in the same way that the municipal college or municipal university assumes leadership in the various fields of learning, such as music, art, social service, and civic movements. It becomes a medium through which adult education can be organized quite regardless of rigid standards for admission. It aims to dovetail its educational activities with the occupational needs and develops ways and means of integrating the education with the occupational life of the community.

No apologies are made for returning to a theme that has been recurring time and again throughout this book, namely, that of breadth of education, understanding, and appreciation for all the people of the community. It is possible for adult education to become geared to the prevailing occupations of the community in a narrow sense to the exclusion of the more humane aspects of

[12] Seashore, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

cultural life to which all people are entitled by their rights and natures as human beings. A. N. Whitehead in *The Aims of Education* sets forth what he terms "the Benedictine ideal" based on the concept that the "monks rejoiced in their labors because they conceived themselves thereby made fellow workers with Christ." He continues by saying [13] that all

> work should be transfused with intellectual and moral vision and thereby turned into joy, triumphing over its weariness and its pain.
>
> The immediate need of the nation is a large supply of skilled workmen, of men with inventive genius, and of employers alert in the development of new ideas.
>
> There is one—and only one—way to obtain these admirable results. It is by producing workmen, men of science, and employers who enjoy their work. View the matter practically in the light of our knowledge of average human nature. Is it likely that a tired, bored workman, however skillful his hands, will produce a large output of first-class work? He will limit his production, will scamp his work, and be an adept at evading inspection; he will be slow in adapting himself to new methods; he will be a focus of discontent, full of unpractical revolutionary ideas, controlled by no sympathetic appreciation of the real working of trade conditions. If, in the troubled times which may be before us, you wish appreciably to increase the chance of some savage upheaval, introduce widespread technical education and ignore the Benedictine ideal. Society will then get what it deserves.

The Purposes of Adult Education

The apt words of Professor Whitehead, the great scientist-philosopher, should be a fitting introduction to a consideration of the purposes of adult education, not only in the community colleges but also wherever the program may be properly offered. Reasons are sometimes given which may be acceptable as far as they go, but they fail in their comprehensiveness of purpose. One of these reasons may be regarded as an emergency measure, often termed "education or chaos," or as "the race between education and destruction." It is said that the time is too late to depend

[13] Whitehead, Alfred North. *The Aims of Education.* New York: The New American Library, 1949. Pp. 53–54.

on the education of the youthful to save society; it must be done much faster by educating the adult population which is now responsible for the social, economic, and political conditions under which the world is tottering; their better judgment and decisions must be aroused and enlightened if total destruction of civilized society is to be prevented. However well one may agree with this thesis, and if there were no better one on which to base adult education, it would suffice; yet as a stable, fundamental reason to sustain efforts over the long pull, it can at best be regarded largely in the light of the drowning man and the straw. It is commonly recognized that the mastery of scientific gadgets and techniques has far outstripped the mastery of social techniques and that this situation has created emergencies on almost every hand and in every field of thought and activity. The education of the adult, however, like the education of all other persons, cannot be sustained merely because there are emergencies to be met. There will always be emergencies of one kind or another. Any program built on the assumption of meeting them will result in a crazy quilt of patchwork.

A far better approach requires the concept of a thoroughly undergirded citizenship, progressively enlightened and armed with facts as a matter of national policy. This view of the matter is succinctly stated by David Lilienthal with respect to such problems as the Tennessee Valley Authority and the control of atomic energy. He insists that the advancing power of technology can become the source of human welfare "determined by the choices made by the people." "The means whereby the people make their decisions depends upon a sacred and inviolable process—the dissemination of knowledge." Writing further on the subject of "Machines with and without Freedom," Mr. Lilienthal states: [14]

> Those decisions to be genuine democratic decisions require facts in the hands of the people. Indeed facts and the dissemination of knowledge are the very foundation of self-government, are the very foundation of any effort to direct technology toward the protection of the free spirit of man. . . .

[14] Lilienthal, David E. "Machines with and without Freedom." *Saturday Review of Literature*, Aug. 6, 1949, 32(32):62.

It is well to recall our basic tenet: that this democracy of ours is founded upon a faith in the judgment of the people as a whole. It is founded upon a belief that when the people are informed—honestly and clearly informed—their conscience and their common sense can be relied upon to carry us safely through any crisis. The direction of applied science and the machine by the judgment and the conscience of the people as a whole requires that we be an informed people.

Faith in the people must have as its corollaries faith in the facts, faith in the power of knowledge, faith in the free flow of ideas, and hence faith in education and the processes of education. These are the very pillars of our free society.

The thesis of the author is that adult education is fully justified by the same fundamental reasons that justify education for any age, group, or class of people. The saying that you are never too old to learn should be restated that you are never too old to need to learn. This view envisions education as one of the basic and continuing services which a democratic society requires and provides for itself through its cooperative efforts. This view has been clearly expressed at the Pasadena City College where the total program is open at all times to all the people just as long as they wish to take advantage of its offerings. Under this plan, it is entirely possible for a citizen to attend the college as long as he lives. Del Mar College of Corpus Christi, Texas, has been referred to in Chap. 2. The slogan of this community institution is "We will teach anyone, anywhere, anything, at any time whenever there are enough people interested in the program to justify its offering." This type of educational program is as wide as the community, as varied as the needs and interests of the people, and as long as the lives of the people. It is an emerging concept for the community college, so often regarded as a two-year college and that only. Under the adult-educational plan, the needs of the community are not only served but they are also served as long as the people wish to learn.

Adult Education in England

Light can sometimes be thrown on our own problems from the experiences of others. While adult education in England is

looked upon at times as an effort to give adults a chance to make up for deficiencies in earlier years, it goes far beyond this mark. Too frequently, literacy education, the attempt to bring the people to bare minimum standards, has been looked upon as a main objective of education for adults. The English workingman's point of view of this subject is expressed by Harold C. Shearman [15] in *Adult Education for Democracy:*

> The working-class movement in particular has every reason to lay stress on the importance of education. Its members include very many who have had to struggle against the handicaps imposed by a meager educational provision. Many of these have left their mark on both their political and social organizations and on local and national government. In order to do so they have had to get knowledge as they could. Many of the early trade unionists, cooperators, and chartists accordingly placed working-class education in the forefront of their programs; in the present century the working-class movement has developed its own educational agencies and has made good its claim to the service of those already in being. . . .
>
> It is vital to democracy that government should not become the sole concern of the specialist, whether bureaucrat or statesman. It must be studied and reflected on by the ordinary man and woman engaged in the affairs of life. It is vital in particular to the labor movement, that industry and economics, local administration and international relations, the social relation of science and the arts, should be studied by those whose lives they most directly affect, in an atmosphere of free inquiry and critical discussion.

"The core and center of any worth-while system of adult education must be in studies which illumine the real problems of life." With further reference to these problems, W. E. Williams,[16] *Adult Education in England and the U.S.A.*, says: "The question is, how to make it possible for the largest number of men and women to face these questions and feel braced by them, instead of feeling, as they so often do today, crushed and frustrated by

[15] Shearman, Harold C. *Adult Education for Democracy.* London: Workers' Educational Association, 1944. Pp. 8–11.

[16] Williams, W. E. *Adult Education in England and the U.S.A.* London: British Institute of Adult Education, 1938.

the burden of a social order which they do not understand and feel powerless to influence or control."

In addition to the idea that adult education is largely an emergency movement, that it is mainly for adults who have been denied earlier opportunities and who must make up in adulthood what they lost in youth, there is also a tendency to regard its aims as designed primarily for further vocational training or simply to take up the slack left by leisure time. While any or all of these reasons may have their place in adult education, they do not reach down to the taproots of the matter. The British Ministry of Education,[17] planning under the Education Act of 1944, makes this point emphatic:

> The aim of any program of adult education must be to provide men and women with opportunities for developing a maturity of outlook and judgment, for increasing their sense of responsibility and awareness, for helping them to evolve a philosophy of life and to develop interests which will enrich their leisure. This is an immense task: since the potential student body is not, as in secondary schools or in universities, selected by age or by ability, but comprises the entire adult population of all ages and all degrees of ability and taste. It is well, however, that the reach of all concerned with adult education should exceed their grasp, and that they should keep before them a clear idea of the ultimate aim; applying this as a touchstone to experiment, so that quality may be preserved and education be more than entertainment.

The county-college movement in England, like the community-college movement in the United States, is directing its attention to the more universal and continuous needs of the total population.[18] "A high level of civilization requires that as many people as possible should share in some measure in the appreciation and understanding of cultural traditions and achievements. Adult education must therefore seek to attract to liberal study as many men, women, and young people as are able to benefit from it." There are extensive plans for practical activities geared to the needs of business and industry, home life, and the professions;

[17] Ministry of Education. *Further Education.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947. Pamphlet 8, p. 44.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 45.

these plans, however, constitute only a fraction of the total program of adult education under the Education Act of 1944. The philosophy voiced by England should be heard by Americans. It would prevent overemphasis on mere vocationalism.

Adult Education in Denmark

Anyone who is interested in grasping the philosophy of adult education, its aims, methods, and objectives, should read the life of Bishop Nicholi Frederik Severin Grundtvig. Born in 1783, educated at the Latin school of Aarhus and the University of Copenhagen, he was always more interested in the common people, their relation to the native soil, their folkways and customs, than in formal classical education. He stated at one time that his days at the Latin school "were wasted because of the methods and the nonsense of the students." In 1825, because of his openly expressed views on freedom for the people, he was fined in a public prosecution and denied the right to preach within the kingdom for a period of seven years. If ever a seeming humiliation was turned into one of the greatest of exultations, it was this prosecution of Grundtvig. This incident caused him to travel and study in England where he did extensive research at Oxford, Cambridge, and the British Museum, attempting to unlock the "secrets of the North." Here he formulated the ideas and ideals on which he later founded the folk high schools. While in England, he became thoroughly acquainted with the philosophy of education of Rousseau and steeped himself in the Englishman's sense of personal liberty. He incorporated in his own thinking these two principles: one, "Nothing is sacred save those things that minister to the life of man"; second, "that which the Englishman calls *freedom*"—a freedom that reaches far beyond any political concept because it is grounded in respect for the rights of the individual man. He further combined these two principles, that of the sacred and that of respect for the rights of the individual, with two from his native country: the Danish sense of integrity and personal responsibility and the wealth of the folk culture.

In 1832, he returned to Denmark where he spent the next

twelve years in writing and in synthesizing the various elements of his thinking into a more definite philosophy for the folk high schools. Many of the hymns now sung in the folk schools came from Grundtvig's pen during the years of further preparation for his great work among the people. In 1844 he started the first folk high school. He was not a practical administrator and the venture failed. Consequently, a shoemaker by the name of Kirsten Kold founded, in his own home, the first successful folk high school in 1851. While the movement was in the making, the disastrous war with Germany ended in 1864, and with its close the province of Schleswig-Holstein was lost. This was another opportunity for Grundtvig. He aroused the people with the slogan, "What is lost without must be won within." In almost the lifetime of one generation enough wasteland had been reclaimed for cultivation to make up for the loss of the province to Germany!

An example of misunderstanding and some omissions regarding the Denmark achievement may be found in *Country Gentleman* for September, 1949. The article in question is entitled "A Nation That Farms Well and Lives Well." It was written by Robert H. Reed with respect to a trip which he made in midsummer "with a group of newspaper and magazine men to attend the agriculture fair at Bellahoj, at Copenhagen and to visit Danish farms and experiment stations." Mr. Reed speaks of the folk high schools which have been developed from the philosophy of Bishop Grundtvig as agricultural schools. There is no mention of the fact that the Danish farmers are organized into one of the most complete cooperative systems of production, selling, processing, and purchasing in the world. It is implied, especially by means of a fourth-page illustration, that the highest standard of living in Europe is built on animal agriculture. What Mr. Reed has written is probably true, as far as it goes, but the author's understanding embraces a number of essential features which are necessary to round out the picture. As to the schools, it should be said that they are entirely controlled by local boards of citizens and are not in any sense of the word under the government. Appropriations are made for their support and for scholarships to students. At that point the function of the government ends. In founding the schools, the views of

Grundtvig were kept in mind when he said: "Nothing could be more undesirable than the complete regimentation of mind that must come from the complete surrender of the control of education to the state."

The primary aims of the schools are not to give information and skills, although they have transformed peasant farming into scientific agriculture, but to awaken the personality and to give a real sense of personal responsibility, as Grundtvig himself declared. They do not teach lessons out of books nor allow such materials to interpose their short-circuiting influences in the classroom. "The living word" is used in the classroom by teachers who are called "inspirers"; students are thrown onto their own intellectual resources and judgment; their purpose is to liberate the student by making work intelligent, by transforming the drabness of duty with imagination, by making it possible under a system free from top to bottom for students to become resourceful and creative. Grundtvig's principles for the folk high schools, although they are not to be confused at all with American high schools, were three: [19] "First of all, they were to be free from old forms and methods existing in the public schools with freedom and personal responsibility emphasized at all times and in everything; second, they were to devote themselves to the development of the native integrities of the people in the countryside; and third, they were to bring to the people the cultural treasures of their own heroic past." What a contrast to an agricultural high school! Perhaps a view of the schools observed by Eduard C. Lindeman [20] may assist in understanding their aims and methods:

I saw farmers studying in peoples' colleges (*Volkshochschulen*), studying for the purpose of making life more interesting: these same farmers were members of comprehensive cooperative enterprises—dairies, creameries, cheese factories, egg-shipping associations, slaughtering plants, banks, stores, insurance societies, etc.—enterprises which performed so many functions that the farmers were freed for other activities; and there could be found neither wealth nor poverty in the

[19] Hart, Joseph K. *Light from the North.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1927.

[20] Lindeman, Eduard. *The Meaning of Adult Education.* New York: New Republic, Inc., 1926. Pp. 16–17.

land. Here, it seemed to me was a culture which included many of the attributes which have been desired since the time of the early Greeks; besides, it was founded on rigorous science and a degree of economic freedom—both of which were absent in Greek culture.

Perhaps one further statement about the folk schools of Denmark from the point of view of a German observer may be valuable, especially in the light of what has transpired in his own native land before and since his views were expressed. Mr. Hollman is quoted by Joseph K. Hart in *Light from the North.* Hollman's *Die Volkshochschule,* published by Paul Parey, Berlin,[21] according to Hart, makes the following observations:

These schools are called high schools because they deal with the things of high concern in the life of the community; and they are called people's high schools because they are related to the whole life of the people. Their aim is the creation of a popular national culture which will ramify out into whatever special interest may be found in human nature, but which in its fundamentals is homogeneous and the possession of all. The path to this goal is by way of the education of the personality; only through the inner freedom of personality can such culture develop.

In order to secure this high sense of common living, the individual must be freed from the stifling constraints of the mass: He must come to know himself as a self-directing person. Therefore, inner freedom is the highest law of these schools: They do not breed submission or regimentation of spirit, but they teach the comradeship of all in the life of the community. In a word the spirit of these schools is the spirit of democracy. It stands, therefore, in opposition to both the current popular opinion of our times and to the doctrine of the overlordship of the state in the midst of which we have been lately living and whose form, now broken, lies behind us.

Hence, it is obvious why these schools could not have been accepted, hitherto, in any land where the idea of the supremacy of the state has prevailed: there is no room in such a state for the spirit of these schools. However, the less welcome such schools are in an authoritative, magisterial state, the more room there must be for them in the people's state. Otherwise we shall find ourselves presently demonstrating that caricature of democracy of which Herbert Spencer wrote: "New democracy is but an old despotism differently spelled."

[21] Hart, *op. cit.,* pp. 20–21.

The truth of Hollman's observations needs no comment as to its application to the freedom of the Danish folk schools, or to the disastrous results to his own native land which followed a path completely in the opposite direction from that of Denmark. People in America who would attempt to represent the folk high schools as centers of vocational training, even in a primary sense, do a disservice both to the philosophy of these schools and to the kind of education that is desperately needed in America.

The movement gradually spread from Denmark to Norway and Sweden, but because of certain variations in school systems and geography, as well as other aspects of cultures, the spirit of the movement has been expressed in different forms. The democratic, practical, and popular spirit of the movement has remained the same in all three Scandinavian countries. Mr. Reed says: [22] "The Grundtvig crusade paid off in the highest standard of living in Europe. I never saw healthier children or happier ones. During and since the war Denmark has been an oasis of plenty on a continent of despair and want. Surely no person in Denmark has ever been truly hungry. And its farmers seem financially stable." This condition, however, was not created merely by the sturdy Red Dane, or by animal agriculture as a whole. It came through the kind of education Bishop Grundtvig advocated in the folk schools. *Education* of the right sort paid off—it was an *investment* in people! The people were aroused. Their native sense of integrity and personal responsibility was enlightened and strengthened. Work was dignified and interfused with imagination. Through greater intelligence, social cooperation for their economic well-being was highly developed. As a consequence, the soil yielded its fruitful increase and animal husbandry was developed, including the improvement of the famous Red Dane, in response to the qualities of industry, thrift, ability to cooperate, and by the application of intelligence. All the measures of community life have been leavened by the more than 30 per cent of the rural population that has been educated in the folk high schools. Denmark, Norway, and Sweden are

[22] Reed, Robert H. "A Nation That Farms Well and Lives Well." *Country Gentleman,* Curtis Publishing Company, Philadelphia, September, 1949, 119(9):160.

examples of cultures in which the horse always precedes the cart —character, enlightenment, dignity, and personal responsibility in labor first; economic development as a natural consequence.

Clarifying Purposes in America

The general conviction is rapidly developing in America that adult education has functions that transcend merely the primary education of the illiterate, or provisions for upgrading vocational skills, or attempts to take up in profitable ways the dividends of leisure time accruing from the development of technology, or even social education based on the assumption that crises and emergencies must be met successfully. In May, 1948, at the National University Extension Meeting in Chicago, the purposes of adult education in the university were stated in harmony with the newer concepts: [23]

Modern society is too complex for adults to depend upon the random experiences of daily life as their chief sources of learning. New knowledge, skills, and understandings are developing so rapidly that elementary and secondary education would, even if it were done well, be inadequate for adult living. The preservation of a free society depends not upon formal education of schools and colleges alone, but upon the continuous lifelong and somewhat systematic learning of the great masses of the people in a wide range of studies. University credit and noncredit courses, short courses and institutes, on the campus or out in the local communities, serving both individual requests and group and community requests, dealing with real life needs of mature people are the means at the disposal of the universities and colleges for attaining these ends. The great concentration of knowledges, skills, and understandings of the combined faculties of all the colleges and universities are the rightful possession of the people of the state that should be taken to them.

"There are several ways in which adults differ from young persons in educational needs," according to the Pasadena City College.[24] "For

[23] Minutes of National University Extension Meeting in Chicago, May, 1948.

[24] Essert, Paul L. *Creative Experiences in Adult Leadership.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: 1948. Sec. I, p. 1. A discussion guide for two education courses (Organizing and Financing Programs of Adult Education and Administration of Adult Education).

example, adults have the responsibility for earning a living for themselves and their families and assisting in the economic stabilization of their community. They have the responsibility of being good parents, providing wholesome adjustment to home and family relationships. They have the responsibility for building a better social, civic, cultural and spiritual atmosphere for both the present and the oncoming generations."

Statements of similar character could be quoted from many sources and from practically all sections of the country. The startling fact that from 1 to 1½ million pupils drop out of the primary and secondary schools each year should mean something for both the purposes and the methods of adult education. The return of veterans to colleges, universities, and many types of schools below the college level is proof that they have done so not merely because of financial assistance from the Federal government. A great deal of the motivation stemmed from their mature and adult experiences. This motivation and maturity has been revealed in the records which veteran students have achieved and in their expressed discontent with many of the old methods of instruction. The fact that by June 30, 1949, only 2,000,000 of the 6,600,000 veterans had gone to colleges and universities cannot be explained by eligibility alone. It is significant that 4,460,000 had entered fields of education and training which appealed to vast numbers of them as far more realistic than could be found in the programs and methods of the colleges and universities. These facts should serve as a warning and a guide to all who propose to engage in programs for adult education.

The Methods of Adult Education

Whether adult education is to be provided in community colleges or in any other form of organization, it is of primary importance that adults will attend and continue only if they are interested and properly motivated. They do not have to attend in the first place, and in the second, they do not have to continue. It becomes necessary, therefore, to build the programs of study around the voluntary and expressed interest of the adults themselves. Studies in primary and secondary schools are quite

largely prescribed; colleges and universities *announce* what they will offer. The author has an advertisement of a community college on his desk at the time of this writing which *announces* to the public what will be given in the adult-educational program for the college year. This method is wrong. The college should find out what the people are interested in and allow them to decide freely what they wish to study. If there is one principle in successful adult-education programs that should be kept in mind at all times, it is that of freedom. The first application of the principle is in respect to the interests of the adults themselves. It is not for the colleges and other schools to attempt to give the people what the colleges think they ought to have; it is for the people to decide for themselves what they want. They should be encouraged not only to initiate by voluntary expressions the fields of study but also they should be given an opportunity to participate to the fullest possible extent in plans and control of the programs in cooperation with educational agencies.

This principle has further valuable aplication in respect to the full freedom of inquiry and discussion on the part of adults. The method of instruction might be termed nondirective. It is not easy to achieve, and there are teachers who are totally incapable of following it. Their methods are didactic rather than Socratic. While they may be successful at certain levels of education measured in terms of grades achieved by formal examinations, they are usually fatal when employed in adult education. Many adults will enroll for further education who dropped out of schools, not because they were incapable of learning, but rather because they "could see no sense" in either what was being taught or the methods of teaching. The people must be free to decide the areas of interest around their own life problems and projects; they must be free to express their own ideas and pursue inquiries. People who lack faith in the ability of adults to assume these responsibilities, or who fear that "ground will not be covered" by freedom of inquiry, should either learn better or stay away from adult education.

It has been found in many of the community colleges, furthermore, that some of the best instructors were never trained as professional teachers at all. They have been recruited from vari-

ous walks of life in which practical approaches are essential in finding solutions to concrete problems; in which the give-and-take of free discussion, the hammer and the anvil method for shaping the hot metal, and contending forces seem to work against each other and yet really cooperate to attain desired shape and pattern. The instructor in this process becomes a director, a moderator, and inspirer, a friend and guide.

The method of freedom is not a matter of theory with the author. He has tried it in practice for several summers in workshops and seminars. The seminar in Junior College Education at Harvard University during the summer session of 1949 offered an opportunity of unusual freedom, although final grades and credits were required of some students. The seminar was conducted by nondirective methods. The extent of voluntary readings, investigations in local communities by shoe leather and doorbell ringing, field trips taken on extraclass time and over week ends, and final reports on individual projects exceeded by far any normal expectations one might have entertained from any group in a summer session—one of the hottest and most uncomfortable summers on record at Cambridge. The real life of the group of thirty-three persons from fourteen states, however, was in the free and untrammeled discussions. Instead of the director of the seminar having to raise questions or suggest lines of thought, the real job was to keep too many people from talking at the same time! Informal groups foregathered at eating places, or wherever they could, and carried on discussions sometimes for hours after the class sessions. Correspondence with members after the close of the six-weeks session discloses the fact that further readings and investigations have continued—the real test of the value of any educational program.

Much the same method was used at the junior-college workshop at the Iowa State University during the summer of 1948. Here again, voluntary discussions would burst out whenever or wherever a group would come together. About twenty of the members of the workshop dubbed themselves the Stoics because they often congregated on a great porch to discuss, reason, and argue. Unlike the Stoics, however, this group was far from being stolid, indifferent, or impassive! The author claims no credit

for any success except that of his faith in human nature. It is not too much to say that a new day dawned in the development of junior-college education in Iowa from the workshop of 1948.

Grundtvig's plan for the folk high schools called for no courses of study as such, no examinations, no credits in the formal sense. Credits, grades, examinations, and time-serving arrangements, so often the dead hand in all of American education, can be and should be put aside in adult education. While there should be ample supplies of good reference books, pamphlets, newspapers, magazines, audiovisual aids, etc., these should all be considered secondary in value to the reliance of the student on his own thinking, the formulation of his judgments, and his stimulation for further thought and open-minded investigation. There may be persons who will believe that freedom will result in a narrow range of subjects or that the groups will fall into mere political debating clubs. The experience in other countries does not confirm this belief. Political issues are considered whenever the groups decide to do so. As Dr. Hjalmar Öhrwall, the famous physicist, has said, "We should not avoid controversial issues—but rather concentrate upon them."

Bjarne Braatoy states in *The New Sweden*[25] that: "The subjects covered by adult education show, moreover, that politics do not monopolize adult education. Music, general history, ethics, philosophy, psychology, hygiene, nutrition, physical education, navigation, literature, history of art, foreign languages, and special subjects natural to the different organizations compete with political subjects proper in Swedish adult education." The question of method in adult education is relevant to the basic issue of democracy: the extent of our faith in the masses of the people, their conscience and enlightened good sense. The issue stems from the primary objectives of adult education: to assist people to acquire the intellectual equipment to form and test their own opinions and improve their skills according to their felt needs.

Perhaps a word is in order with respect to the places of meeting and facilities for use in adult education. Dr. Paul L. Essert,[26]

[25] Braatoy, Bjarne. *The New Sweden.* New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1939.

[26] Essert, *op. cit.*, Sec. II, p. 55.

Teachers College, Columbia University, one of America's leading authorities in adult education, states in "Creative Experiences in Adult Leadership" that

> Little thought based upon known needs in adult education is given, as a rule, in planning of public buildings (such as schools, libraries, universities, museums, community centers, and parks) to adult education as a recognized part of community planning. Very few factories, business houses, or labor headquarters plan their building space with adult education needs in mind. In most instances adult education is an "afterthought" of community planning, fitting in where it can, with the accompanying danger that the facilities will determine the program.

The British Ministry of Education is giving an unusual amount of attention to the planning for premises, buildings, and facilities suitable for adult education. The buildings, according to plans under consideration, should be simple, functional, and the appearance should be almost as unlike an institution or a traditional schoolhouse as possible. Extensive use is to be made of attractive design and color. "The use of primary schools for evening classes, for example, is common; and there can hardly be a more ill-assorted box-and-cox partnership than this." [27] It is the belief of many who are committed to the plan of the community college that its buildings and facilities can be well adapted for adult-education purposes. The following statements regarding the buildings and facilities of Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California,[28] will illustrate this point of view:

> One of the major advantages of combining an adult-education program with a junior-college program, or in other words, the development of a community college, is that the junior-college plant is, as a rule, far more useful for adult education than is the ordinary high school or other buildings in the community. In Pasadena, for example, the Pasadena City College having a program of extended day education for adults can make the entire excellent plant of Pasadena City College available for adult study including an excellent library, gym-

[27] Ministry of Education. *Further Education.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947. Pamphlet 8, p. 16.

[28] Essert, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

nasium, laboratories, and science buildings as well as the classrooms and shops which are built for the physical needs of adults. The Pasadena campus is one of 40 acres and its main buildings are beautifully constructed and on an excellent site. The shops are not only well equipped for the ordinary machine and auto shops but there is an excellent shop in aeronautics, a good physical science building, a splendid library, cafeterias, social rooms, and other types of physical equipment that make them conducive to good adult-education work. On the campus itself are many areas of play and recreational space that can function for the adults as well as the junior-college people.

In brief, by bringing these two programs together probably no adult-education program in the country has better facilities for operation of a good adult-education program. The problem of mixing of age groups on a junior-college campus is furthermore less of a factor for keeping adults away than it would be in a high-school building. On the whole, there is considerable advantage both to the young and to the older students for this association of youth and adults.

The community college is in a strategic position from the standpoint of its basic philosophy, its relation to the community, its facilities either actual or potential, and by clear responsibility to provide for adult education on a far more progressive and inclusive scale than is the case at the present time. It would seem that every college, regardless of its size or method of control, should seek out and encourage adults in the community to improve themselves and their occupational status. It is not only an unusual opportunity to extend the circles of the college's cultural and training influences, but it is also a responsibility which every educational institution owes to the society which, in one way or another, makes its existence possible. Even if the college is thinking only in terms of enlightened self-interest, its services to adults can be, as they have proved to be in many communities, one of the surest and soundest ways to build strong and favorable public relations. Many of the problems now facing public-school systems owing to the indifference of taxpayers could be resolved by services to the adults of the community.

The State Is the Campus

The author recognizes that a great degree of flexibility must be present in meeting the needs of the vast numbers of communities in the United States. No one type of organization will be able to care for all the programs that should be offered. Colleges, universities, public-school systems, and community colleges, either as a part of those systems or organized on some other basis, all have a responsibility; the efforts of all will be required in a coordinated program for adult education. Wherever a community college exists, or can be organized, the adult-education program should become an integral part of its services.

One of the states that has undertaken an ambitious program on a state-wide basis is Wisconsin. Many years ago the university adopted the slogan: "The campus is the state." The author is deeply indebted to Dr. William H. Hanley, director of instruction in the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin, for valuable assistance with respect to the work in that state. Through Dr. Hanley's generous help, the author met with the department heads of the university and later visited a number of the extension centers. The information contained in the following paragraphs was supplied in a special report from Dr. Hanley,[29] for which the author gives his sincere appreciation:

The concept of the Wisconsin State University as a great social instrument dedicated to research, to resident teaching, and to an extension of its services to Wisconsin people in their home communities clearly existed in the minds of great educational leaders prior to the year 1900. Long before that time faculty members with a sense of social responsibility traveled out from Madison to offer both individual lectures and lecture-class series. In addition an agricultural extension service had already been organized. As the university grew, and as a philosophy of service to the state became even more generally accepted as a part of the tradition of the institution, university leaders saw the need for the creation of a college or an administrative division whose function should be one of correlating off-campus educational needs, in fields other than agriculture, with services that could

[29] Hanley, William H. *Report on University Extension Teaching Educational Trends.* University of Wisconsin, 1948.

be made available from the university. Thus in 1905, at the request of the university, the Wisconsin state legislature approved the establishment of a general extension division and appropriated a sum of money sufficient for its first biennium.

Extensive Class Programs

The public lectures and lecture series that had preceded the establishment of a university extension division were continued and in time were supplemented by regular classes offered for academic credit to properly qualified people who could meet the exacting standards required for university work. As the general educational level in the state advanced in the decades following 1900, and as high-school graduation rather than the eighth-grade diploma came to mark the generally accepted terminal point in formal education for more Wisconsin citizens, the demand for university credit work to be offered out in the state became increasingly insistent. This was particularly true in large urban communities. In Milwaukee at the close of World War I the needs of veterans for a full-day class program of college credit courses led to the offering of more and more classes. In 1923, the university board of regents gave their approval to the operation of this first two-year University Extension Center. Subsequently the Wisconsin state legislature appropriated funds for the construction of the present Milwaukee Extension Center building.

The number of individual courses, carrying university credit, offered in cities other than Milwaukee also was increased in response to local demands. This was particularly true in the "depression years" of the 1930's when many able and deserving young high-school graduates simply could not afford to attend colleges outside their home communities. The situation led to the establishment, after 1933, of university freshman centers in many Wisconsin communities. In 1939–1940 there were eighteen such centers in operation. During the years of World War II most of the centers were discontinued and course offerings in others were sharply curtailed. With the end of the war and with the return of large numbers of veterans to their homes, the University of Wisconsin through its Extension Division accepted the responsibility for providing to the enterprising young men and women of the state a beginning college educational opportunity on as broad a base as possible. To help equalize educational opportunities thirty-four extension centers were distributed over the state in a geographic pattern which would minimize any possible conflict with ex-

isting state or private institutions. The total enrollment in these centers in 1946–1947 was about 5,200, of whom 3,271 were veterans.

When the immediate pressing demand for an opportunity for veterans to begin their college work had been satisfied, the extension program was reorganized to meet the altered situation. Seventeen of the smaller centers, located in less densely populated community areas, and justified the preceding year when the enrollment of large numbers of returning veterans supplemented that of the usual number of recent high-school graduates, were discontinued. To meet the insistent demand for the sophomore year of work in centers with large enrollments, the curriculum in nine urban centers was expanded so that students could complete two years of academic work before transferring to the university or to other colleges.

Probably the most distinctive feature of the University of Wisconsin plan for exercising leadership on a state-wide basis in the field of post-high-school education is the manner in which the college-credit phase of the program is integrated with the instructional program of the university at Madison. *Courses are the same as those offered in residence and all faculty members are selected, approved, and supervised by the respective subject-matter departments in Madison.* The actual field supervision is effected through extension subject-matter department heads who hold status in both the Extension Division and in the residence departments. Through this device it is possible to assure instruction out in the state of the same quality and standards as at Madison, and also to guarantee credits earned by students in extension centers as fully equivalent to similar credits earned in Madison.

The results of this plan of centralization are noteworthy. A statistical analysis of the records of all students who transferred from freshmen centers to the resident campus in the 1930's indicates clearly that the average which these students maintain at Madison is distinctly *not less* than that maintained by those who complete their freshman work in residence at Madison.

The offering of regular university credit work is only one phase, however, of the extension center program as envisaged by the university. Channeled through these centers are graduate credit courses, undergraduate credit evening courses, noncredit courses, lecture series, musical events, educational exhibits, conferences, institutes, and a wide variety of other activities designed to enrich the lives of people in Wisconsin communities. Because the university has unique resources for serving adult educational needs, there are almost unlimited opportunities for the development of additional services. In a true sense

the centers might well be termed "regional community colleges" serving both youth who desire to begin a college education while living at home and adults of all ages desiring new knowledge for professional or cultural purposes.

While emphasis has been placed in preceding statements upon the role of the extension center in the pattern of Wisconsin's higher educational system, the offering of university credit classes is by no means restricted to these centers alone. Both graduate and undergraduate credit courses are made available wherever the demand is sufficient. This past semester, for example, the list of communities in which University of Wisconsin graduate credit courses in education for teachers were offered included a number of the smaller Wisconsin cities, such as Amery and Spooner in the northwest, Cottage Grove in the southeast, Darlington in the southwest, and Two Rivers in the northeastern lake-shore area.

Noncredit Classes

The evolution of the present credit class program as a concomitant of the general upward trend in the formal educational level of the people of the state has in part overshadowed the contributions which have been made by the University of Wisconsin through its Extension Division in the field of so-called noncredit classes for adults. Throughout the history of the Extension Division the principles which guided developments in this educational area appear to have been: Is there an educational need not being adequately met by any other agency? Can that need be met economically through the university Extension Division?

After its organization in 1905 the university Extension Division was especially active in offering courses of a vocational nature to adults working in Wisconsin industrial establishments. Extension leaders recognized that most of the courses offered could not be truly of college level and were very active in encouraging the development of local vocational training schools. After the present vocational system was established by legislative enactment in 1913, the Extension Division adopted a policy of encouraging vocational and apprenticeship training in such schools and gave assistance only when requested by local authorities.

More and more emphasis shifted to the offering of adult classes which could meet the following additional criteria: Can university standards be maintained in course offerings, in type of instruction, and in the quality of work required of students? The challenge was

met vigorously by Wisconsin men and women whose general educational attainment level was constantly increasing. Throughout the state today, adults assume that the best is expected of them, and they expect the same, when enrolling in a "noncredit" course tailored to fit their particular needs. More often than not, the course is "noncredit" only because it does not conform to some existing course on the campus at Madison and not because it differs in standards.

As a matter of fact, increasing numbers of full-time students in extension center day classes who intend to complete a "terminal" college course of only one or two years enroll in some of the "noncredit" courses offered as well as in some of the regular credit courses. The challenge of the need for more college-level terminal work in our higher educational system and the opportunity for the university to continue to exercise leadership in this area is thus brought to a focus in the extension centers in urban communities such as Milwaukee, Racine, Kenosha, Sheboygan, Manitowoc, Fond du Lac, Menasha, Green Bay, Marinette, and Wausau.

Correspondence Study Instruction

In order to supplement the traditional class-lecture offerings which had preceded the establishment of the Extension Division in 1905, and in order to make a university service available to every home in the state, one of the first enterprises of the new organization was the development of a wide range of courses to be offered through the medium of correspondence study. The first correspondence study student, later a vice-president of General Foods Corporation, registered for a course in "Political Economy" in 1906.

In the years that followed, the University of Wisconsin Extension Division met the challenge of commercial correspondence schools which had been draining hundreds of thousands of dollars from the state, and clearly proved to educators and students alike that correspondence study can be an entirely valid medium for learning. The concept that payment for a correspondence course is a payment for instructional services to be rendered when lesson assignments are submitted rather than a payment primarily for texts and lesson materials was something of an innovation. . . . As a favorable reputation grew, even on a national scale, the number of course offerings was increased and the volume of registrations rose. The current active enrollment totals approximately 25,000 students per year. . . .

The record of Wisconsin is an impressive one: extension services in an average of fifty-five communities during 1946–1947 by a single institution with an average enrollment in all types of off-

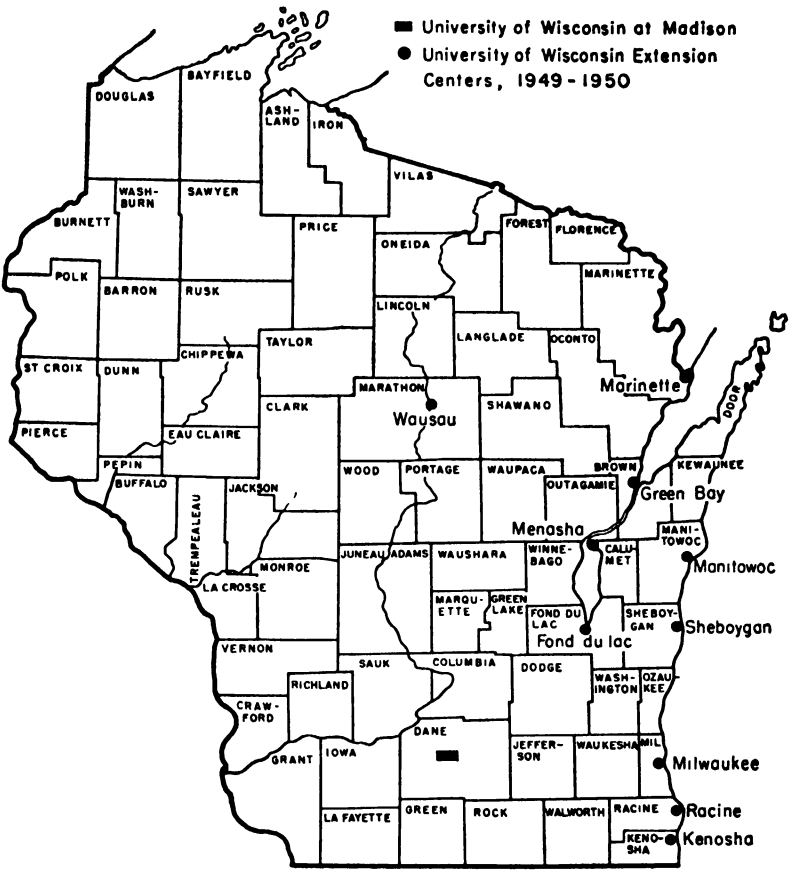


FIG. 7. The ten extension centers in operation during the year 1949–1950: Fond du Lac, Green Bay, Kenosha, Manitowoc, Marinette, Menasha, Milwaukee, Racine, Sheboygan, Wausau. (*Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, August, 1949.*)

campus programs, credit, noncredit, full-time, part-time, and by correspondence for 36,592 persons is an accomplishment of which any institution can be proud. The author wishes that less fluctuation could be attained in offerings to some of the communities; that many now not being reached through centers, as can be seen by the map of the state (Fig. 7), could be provided for. From

his observations in many states, it is his conviction that a system of community colleges, professionally assisted by the great university and their services supplemented by it, would achieve both of these stated objectives. Moreover, because 80 per cent of students in vocational schools in Wisconsin are beyond the compulsory age of school attendance, and because greater maturity for employment in an age of ever-increasing technology is a definite trend of the times, there is every reason to believe that community colleges could be organized throughout the state with vocational and technical education provided for as one of the distinct features of each institution. Or again, it would appear to be in line with present-day trends for the university to recognize and grant credit for courses taken through extension work, when it is of college grade, even though these courses may not be offered on the resident campus at Madison. Any suggested change of organization or policies, however, should not distract the attention of the reader from the outstanding record of Wisconsin to carry its cultural advantages to the people of the state—to make the entire commonwealth into its campus.

The concluding paragraph of a Federal survey of adult education [30] for 1947–1948 may serve as a stimulating thought for the further development of our American concept of democracy:

> In this survey 1,951 districts in communities of 2,500 and above reported a total enrollment of 2,104,032 adults and out-of-school youth. Enrollment reported by 135 smaller districts was 72,659. Additional information leads to the estimate that a total of approximately 3 million adults and out-of-school youth were provided some type of organized educational service in 1947–1948. Adult education is relatively highly developed in a number of schools and in a few states. The limited number of adults served by most public schools reflected against the widespread and growing interest of adults in further learning leads to the conclusion that a great many districts are providing far too little opportunity for continued education beyond the years of full-time schooling.

[30] *Adult Education Activities of the Public Schools. Report of a Survey, 1947–1948.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1949. Pamphlet 107, p. 21.

SUMMARY

It has been seen that adult education is one of the most recent functions that community colleges are performing. By the very reason of the philosophy for the further democratization of education, the function is inescapable for the colleges which profess to serve the entire community. Adult education cannot be properly conceived as an emergency program, or as one to make up deficiencies in earlier education, or to provide merely for further vocational up-grading of the workers, or yet simply to take up the slack of increasing leisure time. It is basic to the essential progress of society itself and rests on the same fundamental assumptions that are necessary for "democratic citizenship, sound individualism, and humanism." Much of help can be drawn from the philosophy and experiences of similar movements in other countries, notably Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and England. Basic to success in adult education is the sense of freedom that must pervade the program in every respect. Community colleges can, if they will, play a significant role for the further education of all the people. The attack on the problems on a state-wide planned basis by a great university is well illustrated by Wisconsin. Adult education has become an integral part of the far-flung services of the university to all the people of the commonwealth.

Chapter 10. ORGANIZATION OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

It has been stated previously that the community college is not an institution. It is a movement. This idea should become clearer as various aspects of organization are set forth. One of the difficulties in understanding what the community college is stems from confusion in identifying various forms it is taking. When one speaks of a college, he usually thinks of a four-year institution of arts and sciences. A university is regarded as a rather definite type of organization within which a number of colleges or schools are operated with varying degrees of autonomy. A high school, semantically, falls within the three- or four-year pattern of education beyond the elementary or junior high school. In some sections of the country, however, even high schools appear under such names as English, Classical, Technical, or Vocational. This is notably true in some parts of New England where the college-preparatory function of secondary schools is sometimes refined not merely to college entrance in general, but rather to certain types and grades of colleges. Students in essentially college-preparatory high schools are classified according to ability and purpose for first-, second-, or third-rate colleges, etc. While there is general understanding of what a high school is, definitive descriptions would require answers to another question, namely, what kind of high school?

If this situation is applicable to one of the most universally accepted levels of American education, it may readily be understood how easily confusion may arise regarding a new intermediate educational development. The author will attempt to explain and illustrate some of the more pronounced types and forms of organization through which various functions of the movement

are being performed. These have been mentioned at times in previous chapters, but they have not been set forth in detail.

The Junior College

The first definitely organized and recognized efforts in the movement began with junior colleges. They came about, for the most part, in one of three ways: by cutting down small liberal-arts colleges to two-year programs, strongly advocated by Harper and later described by Lange as the college with its head cut off; by the addition to or the transformation of privately controlled academies; by *de novo* creation. The original name of *junior college* seemed appropriate to these institutions, because they were largely junior to the senior colleges in objective and function. The name also having been applied to the lower division in the college of the University of Chicago was carried over to these other institutions by the natural process of imitation. The force of both function and name went forward to stamp the first national effort to organize the movement in 1920 with its name and its general implications of purpose. It was the American Association of Junior Colleges. Its function was essentially that usually performed in the freshman and sophomore years of liberal-arts colleges, as was implied, at least, at the time of the first organizational meeting in St. Louis, Missouri.[1] This implication flowered into a definition of a junior college at the second annual meeting of the Association, Memphis, Tennessee, in 1922. It was an institution offering "two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade."

At the time of the founding of the first junior colleges and for many years afterward, there was deep concern over the wastage due to the elimination of students from college and dissatisfaction with their programs. It was generally felt that the blame was not all on the side of the student. The author vividly recalls many of his experiences as a student in a Middle Western college and the manner in which they sharply contrast with procedures today. Forty years have not dimmed recollections that no corre-

[1] *National Conference of Junior Colleges, 1920.* Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin* 19, 1922.

spondence had been carried on with the college, no entrance examinations were required, no tests were given, and if there was such a thing as an orientation program, it was never in evidence. With eighty dollars in his pocket, all his belongings in a small suitcase, he appeared on the campus on registration day; preliminary ceremonies were as simple and almost as short as this phrase; and with the exception of being relieved of most of his cash, there was nothing unpleasant in the process. Where to live? That was his own responsibility. Where to eat? Wherever he could find a job. How did he find a job? By hunting for it. There was plenty of personal freedom, but it was balanced with responsibilities, and the two kept the scales fairly well matched at all times. If you failed to work hard, you had nothing to eat and no place to sleep. If you didn't get your lessons, you got out and there were no elaborate ceremonies about it. It was the old rule of sink or swim; the chances and the outcomes were about "fifty-fifty." In fact out of nearly 300 who started as freshmen, only 128 completed the four years of the college course.

The picture sketched above may not be fully representative of college practices during the first two decades of the present century. Such practices were common enough, however, to shock educational leaders into action for improvements. One of these was the emergence of the junior college, an original purpose of which was to offer the first two years of college and do a better job than was being done in the senior colleges and universities. This educational unit was envisioned as an intermediate step between high school and upper division work of the senior college. In this respect it was regarded as preparatory for concentration studies. Around this concept, the plan was developed for a school with a limited enrollment, small classes, close contact between student and teacher, and a greater degree of personal attention to individual needs and differences.

There was a vague feeling, also, among many parents that the gap between home and college, between secondary and higher education was too wide; that some students were socially too immature to be thrust all at once into the university environment; that others who had good ability had never faced real competition academically and therefore had fallen into poor habits of

study. There were other students who did not measure up to senior-college patterns of preparation or whose grades were too low to warrant their admission. Still others were completely at sea regarding life and vocational objectives. They needed a chance to prove themselves and to explore various fields of work. Whatever the reasons, and there were many of them, the initial steps in the junior-college movement and the salient features of its program that made a strong appeal were built around a real concern for the student as a person.

Largely on this distinctive philosophy the public made its response to the junior college. This is not a matter of theory with the author. For sixteen years, he traveled thousands of miles annually to cities, towns, hamlets, and to country homes. He sat down with students and their parents in their homes and discussed their problems with them. Often it was necessary and rewarding to meet them in the fields or at other places of work. It was out of these grassroots experiences with people that he came to appreciate the necessity for student-centered education; for the development of a thorough personnel program; for greater and more intelligent efforts to teach certain techniques of study in each discipline; to provide for social programs of the highest possible order within the limits of a small school's budget; to grant workships and scholarships and secure loan funds for worthy students. These efforts by the junior college, often faltering and sometimes failing, nevertheless created the friendly atmosphere and the aim that "the student is the measure of all things." The general plan filled real needs; it met with a measure of success; and became a type of school best described as a junior college.

In the early 1920's, the national movement began to recognize the needs of students who "could not, should not, or would not" continue collegiate studies for more than a year or two. Various kinds of so-called terminal or culminal curricula were being offered, especially by public junior colleges which were then appearing in greatly increased numbers. In 1925, the American Association went on record in favor of two-year programs suitable to the needs of students for social, civic, religious, and occupa-

tional responsibilities in their own communities.[2] On the whole, privately controlled junior colleges were much slower in responding to this second announced objective than were those under public control. One reason is probably obvious, namely, public control and student groups drawn from an immediately surrounding community created greater pressure for this response than was the case with an independent college which drew its students from a wide constituency. Other reasons must be found in the initial purpose of the movement that has exerted a strong influence right up to the present time.

Today, large numbers of the institutions, both public and private, in name and in fact are junior colleges. By emphasis and by stated purposes they are engaged largely in lower division, freshman and sophomore, college work. There is honor in the name by reason of the place it has made for itself. No school should be ashamed to use the name, if it is a junior college by choice. The question relevant to the real issue is not the name, although that should be descriptive of primary functions, but rather the degree in which the school is meeting the needs of students. The announced objectives of a college could be wrong; they should be examined and analyzed in the light of what will happen to the people if they are implemented.

The Community College

The general concept of the community college has resulted from the projection of the original junior-college functions to include many others needed by the community itself. A few voices were raised before 1920 expressing concern that the movement should enter wider fields of service. In 1917 Dr. Lange[3] had the following to say:

It is, of course, an inevitable phase of growth that as yet not one of the junior colleges I know about has fully found itself. Growing

[2] Minutes of the Second Annual Meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Memphis, Tenn., Feb. 24–25, 1922. Washington, D.C.: 1922.

[3] Lange, Alexis F. "The Junior College as an Integral Part of the Public School System." *School Review*, 25:465–479. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1917. (See Appendix, p. 356.)

pains cannot be escaped. Even a butterfly has to spend its infancy and youth as a caterpillar. But now the uncertainties that exist relate rather to ways and means than to fundamental conception and aim. . . . Accordingly, the junior college, in order to promote the general welfare, which is the sole reason for its existence, cannot make preparation for the university its excuse for being. Its courses of instruction and training are to be culminal rather than basal.

Convictions expressed by Lange and others were insistently increased in the 1920's by authorities like Leonard V. Koos, further advanced by Walter Crosby Eells and others during the 1930's, then arose to something of a crescendo in the 1940's. It was during this last-mentioned period that definite investigations were made, workshops were held, and nine pilot demonstration experiments were carried out. Monographs on the subject were published on terminal education.[4] In 1947 and 1948, *A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education* was published. One of the focal points of the *Report*[5] was on the community college:

Many young people want less than a full four-year college course. The two-year college—that is the thirteenth and fourteenth years of our educational system—is about as widely needed today as the four-year high school was a few decades ago. Such a college must fit into the community life as the high school has done.

Hence the President's Commission suggests the name "community college" to be applied to the institution designed to serve chiefly local community education needs. It may have various forms of organi-

[4] Eells, Walter Crosby, and Engleman, Lois E. *The Literature of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Eells, Walter Crosby, *et al. Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Eells, Walter Crosby, *et al. Why Junior College Terminal Education?* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Eells, Walter Crosby. *Associates' Degree and Graduation Practices.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

Ward, Phebe. *Terminal Education in the Junior College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

[5] *Education for American Democracy,* etc. Vol. III, p. 5.

zation and may have curricula of various lengths. Its dominant feature is its intimate relation to the life of the community it serves.

The Commission then set forth in concise language five of the basic purposes and functions [6] of the community college:

First, the community college must make frequent surveys of its community so that it can adapt its program to the educational needs of its full-time students. These needs are both general and vocational.

Second, since the program is expected to serve a cross section of the youth population, it is essential that consideration be given not only to apprentice training but also to cooperative procedures which provide for the older students alternate periods of attendance at college and remunerative work.

Third, the community college must prepare its students to live a rich and satisfying life, part of which involves earning a living. To this end, the total educational effort, general and vocational, of any student must be a well-integrated single program, not two programs.

Fourth, the community college must meet the needs also of those of its students who will go on to a more extended general education or to specialized and professional study at some other college or university.

Fifth, the community college must be the center for the administration of a comprehensive adult-education program.

The foregoing declaration of position and purposes should make clear what the essential differences are between a junior college and a community-college organization. The former name can, of course, and probably will be retained by many colleges while they are engaged in carrying out all the objectives of community institutions. "Junior," however, is being dropped by a number of colleges with the substitution of "City," or with no substitution at all. It is being done, for the most part, with the conviction that the name is not comprehensive enough to describe the essential aims of the colleges. It is not without significance that movements in other countries, for instance in Great Britain,[7] face similar problems of name and function.

[6] *Ibid.*, pp. 6–7.

[7] Ministry of Education. *Further Education.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947. Pamphlet 8, p. 9.

The name by which an institution is known is often a matter of considerable local significance, especially where that institution is to play an intimate part in the daily life of the community. In this pamphlet the term *college of further education* is used as a generic description for a center of educational activity; but whether it is a title which will prove acceptable and appropriate to any particular locality, it will be for that locality to decide. For our immediate purpose the term is used to include technical, commercial, and art colleges, institutes of adult education, village colleges, county colleges when these are established, and other further education establishments whatever their original bias may have been. The colleges of further education so conceived will provide the framework of further education as a whole. Within this framework will be developed a more detailed pattern which will include smaller and more intimate centers of social and educational activity: community centers, youth clubs, village halls, and the like.

The New American College

In 1946, John A. Sexson, superintendent of schools, and John W. Harbeson, principal of the Pasadena Junior College (now Pasadena City College), California, were the authors of *The New American College.*[8] The book grew out of sixteen years of experimentation with organization and administration of a distinctive unit of education which includes the eleventh through the fourteenth years. Many educators have been impressed by the fact that a striking similarity of purpose exists between the eleventh and twelfth years of high school and the freshman and sophomore years of college; that there is considerable duplication of content in subject matter. In 1928, what is known as the 6-4-4 plan or organization was launched in the city of Pasadena with the junior college committed to the program of education for the third and final unit as the free, public, secondary capstone. It is the best known example of an attempt to articulate and integrate into a single unified program educational offerings on this new basis. The authors summarize the basic principles[9] on which the plan operates as follows:

[8] Sexson, John A., and Harbeson, John W. *The New American College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 44–46.

1. The freshman and sophomore college years are a logical part of the secondary-school system, rather than of the standard college or university.

2. Being secondary in character, these years should be closely articulated with the rest of the secondary system.

3. The most efficient and economical articulation is the union of these years with the eleventh and twelfth grades as a single four-year institution, for the following reasons:

a. Practically all students in the eleventh grade and above are in the upper adolescent period, thus giving a social and psychological homogeneity to the student body.

b. With a proper orientation and adjustment program in the eleventh grade, the upper classes (including the twelfth grade) can be held to a standard of accomplishment in no way inferior to that maintained in the traditional freshman and sophomore college years.

c. The junior college organized in accordance with the 6-4-4 plan requires one less school plant for the community than when it is organized as an isolated two-year institution on a separate campus (6-3-3-2 plan).

d. The junior college organized in accordance with the 6-4-4 plan results in a more integrated educational program and in a more unified and efficient administrative machinery than when it is organized as a separate two-year institution and housed in the same plant with a separately organized high school.

e. Curricula worked out over a continuous four-year period, beginning with the eleventh grade, more readily facilitate the elimination of duplication and overlapping of subject matter than when these curricula are organized as two separate and distinct units.

f. Terminal curricula in particular, when begun in the eleventh grade, result in an earlier and more definite arrangement of subject matter to meet the objectives sought, as well as a wiser selection of the liberal offerings, than can be possible when but two years are provided for the organization of these curricula.

g. A diploma granted at the conclusion of a four-year course carries greater weight and dignity than one granted at the conclusion of a two-year period.

h. School traditions and school spirit are more easily developed and maintained in a four-year institution than in a two-year institution in which the school opens every fall with a majority of students who have never been in the institution before.

i. A guidance program can be more easily organized and administered over a four-year period than over one of two years.

j. The four-year junior college gives, even in the smaller communities, a student body of adequate size for efficient student classification.

4. The junior college as the topmost unit of the public-school system must be neither traditional high school nor traditional college, but must develop character and individuality of its own, with methods and policies adapted to the ages with which it works.

5. The four-year junior college is an institution of sufficient size and span to be a complete unit in itself. It is not a fractional part of a standard college transplanted from its native habitat into the local community.

6. The twelfth grade is not a logical stopping place, inasmuch as it falls two years short of the completion of the secondary span.

7. The assumption of full responsibility of general or secondary education by the local community will give the university full and untrammeled freedom to concentrate on its proper sphere of specialization, research, and professional training.

The writer has had the pleasure of visiting Pasadena and a number of "the new American colleges." Discussions and correspondence have been carried on primarily for the more exact identification of the manner in which articulation and integration are actually achieved. Practically all the objectives of the new American college would likely be granted by authorities who are not in full sympathy with the methods and form of organization by which it is claimed these objectives can be achieved to the best advantage. The essential nature of secondary education, its place as the capstone of the free public-school system, the desirable size for an efficient educational unit, the fourteenth year as the logical stopping place rather than the twelfth, ways and means to give the university untrammeled freedom to concentrate on its proper sphere of specialization—all would be granted.

The question of effecting the greatest economies in school systems, however, cannot be answered by any simple formula. It presents many complicated issues, such as, density of population, transportation, terrain and climate, whether or not a single or multiple salary scale prevails, teaching load, and the extent to which space and facilities are used by various educational units. It is generally agreed that traditionally wide variations in the costs

of educating children at various levels are in some respects without justification. Variations will naturally appear in expenditures for shop and scientific equipment and for housing space. If there is, however, a single salary scale, if preparation and qualifications of teachers are as high for the first year as they are for the fourteenth, if proper space and facilities are provided for all units of education on an equitable basis, and if the teachers' daily pupil-hour loads are more nearly equalized than they are now, some claims for economy on the basis of organization alone will have to be reexamined.

The four "if's" in the foregoing sentence add up to some of the basic defects and inequities in the entire school system. When they are fully recognized by public opinion and eliminated for the best interests of all the children of all the people, some of the wide variations in cost per pupil will disappear. The child in the first grade will then have as good an education (which, indeed, he should have) as he may hope to have in the fourteenth year. Some claims for economy in education are based on false ideas of what our whole educational system should be. For example, consider that a primary teacher has 30 pupils, five hours per day for five days in the week. Her pupil-hour load is 750 for the week. The teacher at the fourteenth year has twenty-five students in five different sections, meeting for three hours per week, or for a total of fifteen class hours; the total student-hour load is 375 for the week. For good measure, sixty additional hours may be added for preparation and correction of papers for the fourteenth-year teacher, but the first-year teacher must also have some consideration in these matters. Now, suppose that some of the four "if's" are wiped out so that pupil-hour loads and salaries are made more equitable, then the question of unit costs demands an answer other than the traditional one.

Naturally, if time can be saved without the sacrifice of quality by avoiding unnecessary duplication of subject matter, that is to the good. To the author, better quality of education seems to be the "nub" of the matter. In order to pin it down more precisely in the case of Pasadena City College, a letter was addressed to Dr. William B. Langsdorf, assistant principal, with whom the author had discussed the matter. He, in turn, put the question to

the heads of a number of departments of instruction. The essence of the question was, in effect: Just where does articulation and integration take place? An excerpt from Dr. Langsdorf's reply and reports from some of the department heads [10] will assist the reader to answer this question for himself:

Of course, I could have given you a general answer and pointed out some specific illustrations without resorting to statements from our department chairmen. For example, our guidance and student activity program carries through four years, and therefore all students who are with us for that length of time have the advantage of an integrated guidance and activity program. Also there is abundant evidence that students will continue through the thirteenth and fourteenth years in an institution which offers a four-year span such as ours, when a large number of these students would not do so if they found it necessary to enter a new institution at the end of the period of their compulsory schooling, that is, at the end of the twelfth year. The great majority of our students do continue from the twelfth year into the thirteenth year. We do have a problem of integration in that about one-half of our thirteenth-year students are new to the institution. They come to us from the surrounding high-school districts, and therefore whatever curricular and other integration we provide for our own students does not necessarily apply to them.

A major concern is, of course, curricular integration. We think we have a great deal more than appears on the surface in our catalogue or curricular bulletin. For one thing, nearly every teacher teaches students in the eleventh through the fourteenth years. Therefore, teachers can plan their work in English, for example, so that courses taken by students in the thirteenth and fourteenth years do not unnecessarily duplicate those in the eleventh and twelfth grades. I think that all of us feel that some duplication is necessary where the same teachers teach courses on different levels, but such duplication will be planned.

You refer specifically to the California Code requirement that we must have American History both in the eleventh or twelfth years and in the thirteenth or fourteenth years. It is true that a minimum of a year is required, normally in the eleventh grade, and a two-semester, two-hour course in American Constitution and History is required for

[10] Personal letter from William B. Langsdorf, assistant principal, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., July 27, 1949.

graduation from all junior colleges or colleges in the state. The State Code also provides that credit for this latter course may be transferred from one collegiate institution to another. We interpret the Code in such a manner that the eleventh-year course in United States does meet the requirement for graduation from fourteenth year, and therefore, a student who takes the eleventh-year course here does not need to repeat the Constitution in the thirteenth or fourteenth year. However, since the eleventh-grade course will not be counted as transfer college credit to other colleges and universities, students who are expecting to continue their work toward an A.B. degree are strongly advised to take the two-unit year course in the thirteenth or fourteenth grade. We also plan that course so that it is not a duplication, but aims at the treatment of certain broad trends and issues in a different manner than does the eleventh- to twelfth-grade course in United States.

You may be interested in some of the specifics of our integration which have been described by some of our department chairmen. I am therefore enclosing some of their statements. Among other things, these statements point out the extent to which twelfth-grade students can take, and are taking, what would customarily be considered thirteenth- or fourteenth-year courses and therefore not available to them in twelfth grade at a traditional high school.

I hope that this is the information you desire. Both Dr. Harbeson and I feel that we have not as yet taken full advantage of the opportunities for integration which the four-year junior college offers. I think we have made progress, but there is still some yet to be made. I do realize that there are other four-year junior colleges in which some of the integration which we are attempting does not take place. For example, I know of one where practically all teachers are considered either high-school or college instructors and do not have students of both grade levels.

Music [11]

1. A four-year junior college makes it possible to set up several four-year sequence courses of study in such music subjects as theoretical subjects (Music Theory, Musicianship or Solfegge, Elementary Harmony, and Advanced Harmony), or four years of piano (Beginning, Intermediate, Advanced, and Repertoire) or a three-year course in

[11] Statement of Lula C. Parmley, Chairman, Music Department, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., 1949.

Elementary Voice, Advanced Voice, and Voice Repertoire; also possible in the fields of development of skills in such courses as instrumental instruction on band and orchestral instruments and four-year vocal and instrumental organizations. By following these carefully worked-out courses of study, a student may meet all the requirements for the preparation for the major without any duplication or repetition and may enter the four-year university as a full-fledged junior-year music major.

2. By this setup many talented students who are advanced beyond their years in music skills may take work in upper division classes while they are still lower division students and are, therefore, not held back as they would be if they were in an institution where the advanced work is not offered.

3. By planning a logically developed four-year course in music where the eleventh and twelfth years are included in the junior college, a music major saves two years in the period of his training as in this city the junior highs have never gotten specialized music training started in the eleventh and twelfth years. Consequently students used to have to start this specialized training in the thirteenth year when they first reached this institution while now they are able to start it in the eleventh year.

This is particularly important as music training in general, and specifically speaking in such courses as require manual and vocal dexterity, takes a much longer span of years to develop skills, and it cannot be started too early.

Physical Science [12]

1. The Physical Science Department gives the following lower division courses: Chemistry 2, Physics 2, Physical Science 1A-B, Chemistry 1A-B, Physics 1A-B. Physical Science 1A-B may be considered as aimed at those who will not go into upper division chemistry or physics without Chemistry 2, Physics 2, or Chemistry 1A-B and/or Physics 1A-B.

2. With grade of A or B, on completion of Physical Science 1B, and Chemistry 2 and/or Physics 2, a student may go on into upper division chemistry and/or physics. It is apparent that what is said below regarding Chemistry 1A-B and/or Physics 1A-B will therefore apply to Chemistry 2, Physics 2.

[12] Statement of B. W. Howard, Chairman, Physical Science Department, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., 1949.

3. There is frequent criticism by educators of the apparent duplication of subject matter and laboratory experiences between elementary chemistry and college chemistry and between elementary physics and college physics. It is our belief that in some schools there doubtless is unnecessary duplication of effort in these areas. I believe, however, that is not true in our own courses.

4. One thing which is not always evident to the nonscience-major educator is the desirability—yes, the necessity—for a certain amount of duplication. Both elementary sciences contain a great deal of *descriptive* material, as well as totally new principles which are not mastered or even remembered intelligently simply because of exposure to them in more or less nonquantitative, only mildly mathematical form.

5. The elementary classes contain many students who are merely after laboratory science credit and who will not continue on in upper division chemistry or physics. For these the courses should be as *generally educative* as possible, but closer integration with upper division courses will first be apparent in its effect on the general educational tone or quality of the subject. If the majority of students in lower division chemistry were quite sure to go into upper division chemistry and if the same thing were true for the lower division and upper division physics courses, it is evident that more integration of subject matter could be accomplished.

There still should be considerable repetition of much of the material, however, if for no other reason than that an eleventh- or twelfth-year student has matured somewhat as a thirteenth-year student and often grasps more of the real significance of a subject about which he already knows something, if it can be presented to him again but from an expanded and more detailed viewpoint. And it should be reiterated that merely because he has learned something about chemistry and/or physics, is no reason that the college science teacher can take it for granted that a good deal can be omitted when the more quantitative and purposeful thirteenth-year development is carried on.

6. It is not possible here to give many detailed examples to illustrate the many ways in which both upper division chemistry and physics courses repeat parts of elementary laboratory experiences with a very different purpose and with a much expanded significance. The generation of hydrogen may be repeated but with drying tube added and a weighed sample of CuO to be reduced quantitatively. In upper division physics undoubtedly a lower division experiment on accelerated motion will be repeated but with very accurate measuring and

timing and with curves plotted to show various mathematical relationships.

If in lower division chemistry we omit the generation of hydrogen because the upper division student has to make it, the 50 per cent or more who do not go into upper division chemistry would not do this important experiment. In lower division physics we should not omit a fundamental experiment on the acceleration of gravity for the same reason. These examples could be multiplied many times, yet a mere check of details might seem to show a great deal of topic repetition.

7. Last but not least should be mentioned the fact that our instructors generally know quite definitely what is being taught in lower division and upper division courses. This certainly is a 6-4-4 advantage. As a consequence they know a good deal about where repetition is needed, or where our lower division development means that, for upper division purposes, certain other emphasis must be made.

8. In conclusion, may I point out that I have interpreted "subject-matter integration" to mean "vertical" integration in a given subject rather than "horizontal" integration as between, for example, English, history, mathematics, and chemistry. We attempt to insist, for example, on reasonably good English. We naturally put a certain amount of emphasis on the historical significance of so many discoveries, inventions, etc., in chemistry and physics. Obviously we must insist on correct mathematical procedures. There is naturally some tie in with some Life Science facts and principles, especially in chemistry.

Probably more of this sort of integration could result if there was the opportunity to study the various subject-matter fields with a representative group. It is my opinion, however, that with most of us subject-matter specialists, it would be extremely difficult to make efficiently functional, a more "general educational" method. I fear we still would labor under the present specialist viewpoint that there is so much that we wish the student could learn in our field, that we would not very satisfactorily take time from that field to integrate with other equally important areas.

Mathematics [13]

1. Many of our teachers teach both high-school and college work and have thereby firsthand information as to what preparation is

[13] Statement of P. W. Stoner, Chairman, Mathematics and Astronomy Department, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., 1949.

needed for the college courses. It is thereby possible to determine a content of the high-school courses which will best prepare the student for the college setup. We are making extensive use of this opportunity.

2. Algebra 5AB is given to our better grade of high-school students and the course is strengthened up to such a place that it covers the necessary college algebra. Many students are thereby saved a semester's work as they may enter their calculus work immediately on entering the thirteenth grade, or even the 12-2 without taking a course in college algebra.

3. Solid Geometry. About one-third of the time of solid geometry is spent in giving the student a thorough acquaintance with the algebraic problems which he will meet in the calculus, thereby giving him a superior preparation for the advanced mathematics.

4. Trigonometry. In the trigonometry course, we pick out the items which the student will be using in his calculus and give them a greater amount of special emphasis. Our students are thus much better prepared for the calculus than the normal high-school student.

5. It is possible for the 12-2 student to start his calculus work, in fact, by taking 63AB he may complete a full year of calculus in his twelfth grade.

6. It is the hope of this department to build a unified course in mathematics from elementary algebra through the calculus. This would be impossible in separate high schools and colleges.

Business and Commerce [14]

1. In looking at this matter of integration and duplication, I think that we have to take into consideration the fact that our thirteenth- and fourteenth-year courses are given as diploma and certificate courses. Without regard as to whether the upper division student is working for a certificate or a diploma, I would express the opinion that integration is so complete in the following areas that there is no duplication thus saving considerable time due to our four-year setup. Those areas are: office machines, typewriting, shorthand, filing.

2. In addition, there is elimination of duplication in the subjects offered for our lower division students and many of the terminal students in such areas as accounting and bookkeeping, commerce and industry, law, and many of the merchandising subjects.

[14] Statement of L. M. Pryor, Chairman, Business Department, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., 1949.

3. At the present time I do not see where we can carry this integration and elimination of duplication much further. In fact, there are several instructors in the department who feel that it has already been carried too far.

ART [15]

1. Specific course examples in subject-matter integration at Pasadena resulting in avoidance of repetition of subjects as would commonly occur for a student who transferred from a four-year high school to a four-year college are: Freehand Drawing 64A, parallel with U.C.L.A. 4A, is taken by college-bound art majors at Pasadena in 12-2. Ordinarily students would be taking "general activity art" in high school and would wait until 13-1 or 13-2 to take this advanced, university-credit drawing course. Comparison has shown that Pasadena work in this course is more competent in organization and execution than that at the university. This is due to the training of students in an integrated progressing pattern of courses in basic, intermediate, and advanced drawing. The same comparison holds true with Watercolor Painting 54AB, parallel with U.C.L.A. 14-A, which is taken by college-bound art majors at Pasadena in 12-2 or 13-1, but at the university would not be taken until 13-2 or 14-1.

2. Pasadena university-level courses are stimulated and receive more definite direction and enrichment because they meet the requirements of various types of terminal schools to which the students transfer. These courses must be of professional art school as well as university value. Pasadena students who do advanced work in other schools are constantly checked for these evaluations.

3. We believe this program offers definite values to the students—in the transitional period of adjustment; in prevocational training under general-education-protecting teaching; in association with fellow teen-age students from the eleventh through the fourteenth grades which develops greater poise in the upper grade students; in the fact that Pasadena students are more successful as juniors in U.C.L.A. than are the native students at the university.

Other values in the Pasadena program are greater security for students by reason of their competence, the thorough recognition of basic art concepts, the ability to move ahead into the university without a break, and because of this competence other adjustments in the uni-

[15] Statement of Helen B. Hunt, Chairman, Art Department, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, Calif., 1949.

versity are made more easily. Moreover, students save time in their advancement through the establishment of over-all objectives in the Pasadena sequence courses.

Presently, a city-wide secondary-school committee is at work on clarification of aims, objectives, procedures, and terminology in the field of design. The purpose of this study is to secure greater vertical integration between the junior high school and the college.

The author has listed the testimony of the teachers at Pasadena, because many people raise the question of exactly where does real integration take place. It would appear that the new American college aims not merely at the upward extension of public education through the fourteenth year with two years of college set on top of the traditional high school, with neither the college nor the high school in association with it; but, rather, it is an effort to rub out the sharp lines between the twelfth and thirteenth years by means of functional, vertical integration of subject matter, by the development of a more continuous student personnel program, by increasing the holding power of the school to the end of the fourteenth year, by the reorganization of culminal curricula to provide more of the right kind of general education for technical and other vocational students and the deferment of skill training until the approximate time of its application. There are variations of one kind or another in the 6-4-4 plan at different colleges. For example, it is understood that Bakersfield, California, is experimenting with the reorganization of curricula for terminal students only. Those students who are not headed for senior institutions will begin their work in four-year integrated curricula in the eleventh year; those who intend to enter the university will follow the more traditional pattern of studies.

Whatever may be said pro or con regarding the new American college, and differences of opinion will be sharply divided and others only mildly so, there is great need for honest experimentation. Some will contend that the main values of vertical integration can be secured by means of functional cooperation all along the line, either in association between the high school and junior college or by the separate and distinct organization of the junior college on its own campus. One point seems clear, namely,

there is a real need for a much greater degree of subject-matter integration and for more vital and continuous services in student personnel work. It is probable that these values will be attained by various methods and organization; that no one particular type will be suitable for all communities.

It would be easy to make extravagant claims either for or against the new American college. It is certainly not "sweeping the country," although this fact is not necessarily an argument against it. High-school traditions are deeply entrenched; they are surrounded with the bulwarks of local pride; conditions of many kinds vary widely in thousands of communities in the United States. These hard facts must be considered in the promulgation of any type of organization. The essential matter, so it would seem, is to develop the kind of organization best suited to meet the needs of students; to keep a sharp eye on the basic objectives of education and attain them in the most economical and efficient manner possible.

University Extension

There is still another form in the general movement for the extension of educational opportunities beyond high school. It is to be found more specifically in the organization of "centers," notably in Wisconsin and Pennsylvania. They represent, for the most part, a lateral extension of the lower division of the university into several communities of the states. The three junior colleges of Louisiana operate under the general supervision and budgetary control of Louisiana State University. This change in policy came about because during the depression years local tax income in the communities where junior colleges were then in existence were insufficient to support them. In Georgia, five junior colleges operate within the university system. They are under the general supervision of the state board of regents and the chancellor of the university system. Support from the state is derived from allocations of funds appropriated to the university system by the legislature. The institutions are called simply "college" and, with the exception of Abraham Baldwin Agriculture College, they are named for their locations, Middle, South,

Southwestern, and West Georgia. The head of each college is called "president," is directly responsible to the chancellor, and is endowed with rather unusual authority and responsibility. The author visited all these colleges in the spring of 1949 and gathered the impression that the presidents would welcome more professional leadership and educational assistance from the university system. The general plan assumes the form of area or regional organization with emphasis on some division of functions between the several colleges.

The unique plan in Wisconsin has already been set forth in Chap. 9 because of its closely knit functions in relation to adult education, its extension services of many kinds, and its far-flung correspondence work. The system in the Pennsylvania State College has been mentioned in Chap. 3 with respect to the manner in which community surveys and services are implemented. It will be well to enlarge at this point on some phases of the plan as an organization. Presently, there are seven, called "credit centers," located at Altoona, Behrend in Erie, DuBois, Harrisburg, Hazelton, Pottsville, and Swarthmore. Each center has an administrative head who is directly responsible to the president of Pennsylvania State College through an assistant in charge of community colleges. The centers constitute a part of the general extension services of State College. An officer is in charge of instruction, and all academic work and facilities are determined by resident department heads of the Pennsylvania State College. Instruction in the centers is intended for three classes of students: high-school graduates preparing for entrance to upper division college or university work; those whose formal education will terminate at the junior-college level; employed special students who wish part-time instruction, either vocational or general or both. The credit centers have the definite status of junior colleges in purpose, in the content of curricula that are offered, and in the qualifications of instructors and staffs. There are community advisory boards for each of the centers; the centers arose from local community requests for such services.[16]

[16] "Credit Centers." The Pennsylvania State College *Bulletin.* State College, Pa.: Pennsylvania State College, 1949–1950.

They are a far cry, however, from the California junior colleges, created in local districts by popular vote, established under the permission, supervision, and authority of the State Department of Education, operating under local boards of trustees and supported by state and local funds for free education provided through the fourteenth year. In contrast, the credit centers charge full-time students $360 per year for tuition; in addition, the student government levies fees of $15 per year for activities and health, both of which are collected by the centers. In a survey of the state, made in 1948 for the legislature, Dr. Koos, who was responsible for the junior-college section, could not discover that the centers had effected college attendance, especially from the lower income groups, to any appreciable extent.[17] Because it has been discovered that a charge of $50 per year for tuition and fees will prevent some students from attending a junior college, even when they may live at home, it can be easily understood why tuition and fees of $375 per year will prevent a considerable percentage of students from attending.

State Organization

As the author indicated in Chap. 6, the part that has been played by the several states in the development of junior colleges is not of any great significance. There are variations from this general rule, and a few states have distinguished themselves by progressive professional leadership. Any attempt to write the history of the movement by states with any satisfactory degree of accuracy would require far more space that can be allotted in this book. There are signs of awakening interest, witnessed by the Minimum Foundation Program of Florida, the community-college movement in New York State, the Marbury Report in Maryland, the recent Report of the Needs of Higher Education in California, the present state survey in Oregon, the continuing survey in Minnesota, etc. They indicate conscious, scientific ef-

[17] Koos, Leonard V. "A Community-college Plan for Pennsylvania, I," *The School Review*, April, 1949, 57(4):202–216; "A Community-college Plan for Pennsylvania, II," *The School Review*, May–June, 1949, 57(5–6): 286–294.

forts by some states to grapple with the problems of further education on a state-wide basis. Two poles of extremes may be noted in an examination of the roles of the states in junior-college education: One is to establish and control them almost entirely by state acts; the other is to do nothing at all. In between these two extremes there are middle-ground positions presenting a well-balanced cooperative enterprise between the state and the local community. Each performs its own function to the best advantage of both.

As an example of this cooperative enterprise, the organization of junior colleges in Mississippi deserves special attention. It is being used as an illustration of a sound, working organization. The author has been privileged to visit all the junior colleges with the exception of two that were organized in 1948. He is indebted to Dr. L. O. Todd, president, East Central Junior College at Decatur, for valuable data and assistance. As the story unfolds, the reader will be able to identify several important features: the organization itself, how it started, how it was developed, and the practical political wisdom that was used in its development.

There are fourteen public junior colleges in Mississippi; thirteen of them are owned and controlled by one or more counties; the other is a municipal junior college operated as the upper level of the 6-4-4 school system in the city of Meridian. All the colleges are supported in part by the state. They have separate boards of trustees with no organic connection with any other school. The thirteen county-district colleges have boarding facilities.

The genesis and growth of the junior colleges in Mississippi have their own peculiar backgrounds. The dominant type grew out of county agricultural high schools which were established under legislative enactments in 1910. A county, or group of counties, could organize two of these schools, one for each race, on at least a county-wide basis. At the height of this development, there were 52 county agricultural high schools for whites, owned and operated by 54 of the 82 counties in the state. They made secondary education popular, incidentally laid the groundwork for junior colleges, and gave a state as poor as Mississippi

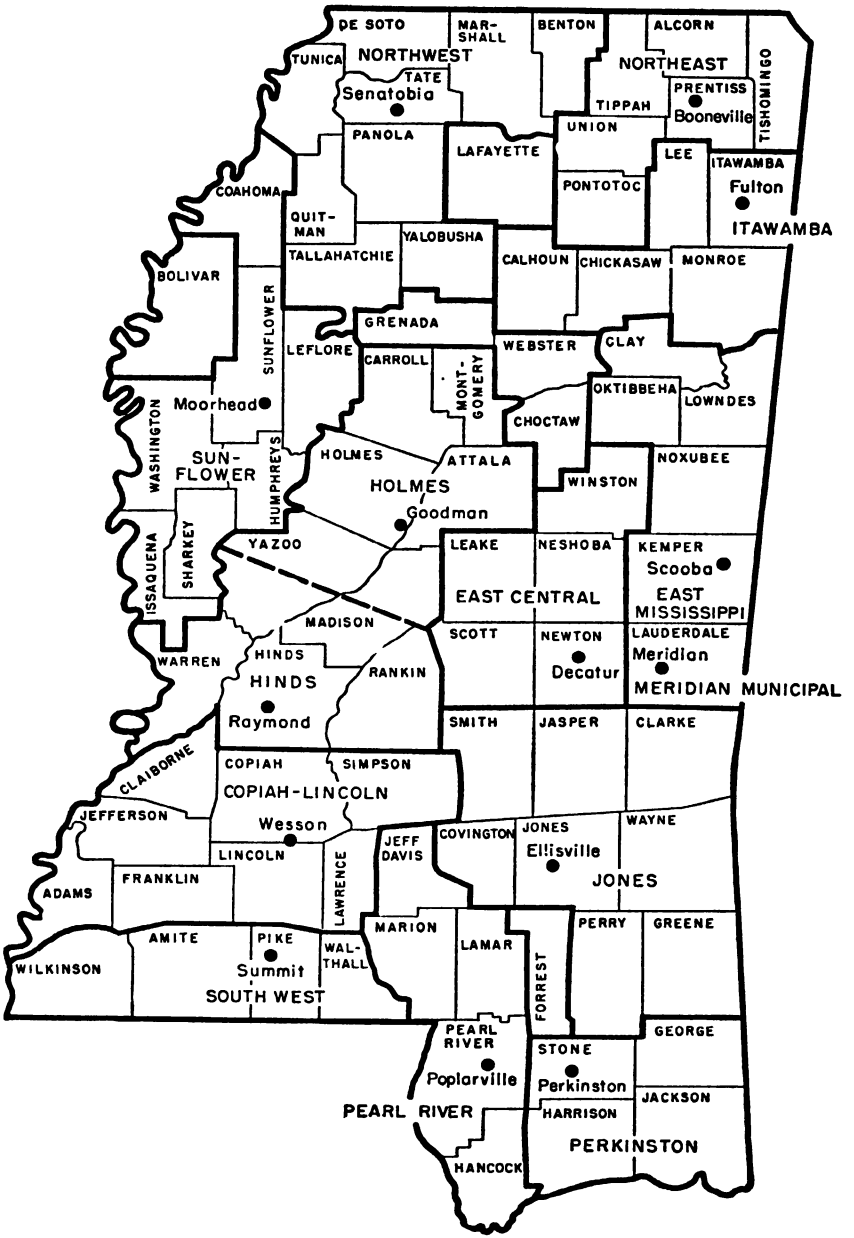


FIG. 8. Mississippi public junior colleges: Copiah-Lincoln, at Wesson; East Central, Decatur; East Mississippi, Scooba; Hinds, Raymond; Holmes, Goodman; Itawamba, Fulton; Jones, Ellisville; Meridian, Meridian; Northeast, Booneville; Northwest, Senatobia; Pearl River, Poplarville; Perkinston, Perkinston; Southwest, Summit; Sunflower, Moorhead.

an early lead in developing them into a state-wide planned system.

The junior colleges were started, in the early 1920's, for the following reasons: Greatly improved rural roads made consolidation of schools possible, and this resulted in the demand of the people for their own local high schools. Consequently, the county agricultural high schools gradually found themselves without students. The question was what to do about these changing conditions. At about this same time, a nationwide interest in junior colleges made its appearance. This interest, coupled with the conditions before mentioned, gave the stronger county agricultural high schools an opportunity to set the stage for the development of junior colleges. They had ready an organization that suited the purpose, the physical plants including boarding facilities, an established county-wide tax base, and the timing was perfect. This was the tide in the affairs of the junior colleges in Mississippi; it was taken at the flood and led on to good fortune. The physical and functional organization and the awareness of the educational leaders were the most important factors that made possible the junior-college system in Mississippi.

Junior-college work was initiated in 1922 at the Hinds and Pearl River county agricultural high schools. Sporadic efforts broke out almost immediately in various parts of the state, and for a short time numerous schools were offering junior-college work. Keen interest in the movement plus the zeal of communities, counties, and individuals to transform their own agricultural high schools posed a real problem. The answer was found in *controlled development* under the leadership of Knox M. Broom, supervisor of agricultural high schools in the State Department of Education. As a result of this wise leadership, the entire state was zoned into thirteen districts. Almost every county was included in one of the districts with general agreements that have always been honored. In 1928, the state legislature set up the Commission of Junior Colleges and endowed it with legal control at the state level. The Commission limited its functions almost entirely to establishing and accrediting the colleges. It designated the Mississippi Junior College Accrediting Commission as its agent for accreditation purposes. Actual control of each college resides in the local board of trustees.

Following the leadership of Mr. Broom, the Commission of Junior Colleges set up definite criteria in establishing the various zones. These criteria included transportation systems and facilities, population, proximity to state four-year colleges and universities, the development of elementary schools in the area, assessed valuation, and the interest of the people in junior colleges. The counties within each zone were given an opportunity to bid for the location of the junior college. A location commission composed almost entirely of senior-college representatives took all factors into consideration and by 1929 located eleven of the county-district junior colleges. This work was so generally accepted that no other districts were established until 1948. Moreover, no junior college once established under this system has ever been discontinued.

The early days, however, were difficult ones. Generally speaking, the four-year colleges were suspicious of the quality of work and the emergence of new institutions that would compete for students and public funds. The intelligent understanding of such men as Professors M. Latimer of Mississippi College, G. L. Harrell of Millsaps, and O. A. Shaw of the University of Mississippi were of great value. Moreover, the problem of really building a new zone into an operating district and securing tax levies from counties that had failed in their bids for a junior college was hard to solve. Mississippi counties at that time had little or no experience in cooperative activities. The present development, therefore, is a monument to the sagacity and tenacity of the pioneers. The people in general, the superintendents, teachers, newspaper people, and leading citizens had to be "sold" on the junior college. Finally, boards of supervisors in the several counties had to be induced to levy a tax to support a college in an adjoining county. This called for unusual leadership and a knowledge of politics and politicians at the local level. The pioneers proved themselves to be practical operators in this sphere. Counties are now levying a tax, from a token to a mill and a half with an average of approximately one mill. The main idea of the districts is now firmly established as a common-sense plan of state and local cooperation for junior colleges in Mississippi.

Another step was necessary, namely, to win the support of the

state legislature. At first there was strong, open opposition to any state appropriation, but interest grew until in 1936 the state appropriated $190,000; in 1944 it was $360,000; in 1946 it was $440,000; in 1948 it was $1,270,000! Today the junior colleges are among the most popular public institutions in the state. The growth of this popularity and support is the result of a basic pattern that has been set up by the junior colleges for their work in the state.

One of the first and most important factors in this pattern is that these institutions are the people's colleges. There are no tuitions for Mississippi students, fees range from ten to twenty dollars per year, and the average cost for board and room is about twenty-five dollars per month. Practically all district colleges have large farms, and opportunities for work are offered whereby any worthy student may attend, regardless of his financial ability. Junior-college leaders have made every effort to be responsive to the needs and interests of all the people. They have gone out into the byways and hedges to serve the people, to find out their needs, and to secure their support. They have sought out promising young men and women, encouraged them to attend the colleges and improve their status as workers and citizens. This work has represented almost a house-to-house educational, evangelistic campaign. By building from the grassroots, access to legislative halls and the office of the governors has become easy during the past twenty years.

Another factor in this pattern is the active interest and support of the junior colleges for the *total school program,* common, secondary, and higher, in the entire state. This has resulted in the support and confidence of the public-school people. Three presidents of the Mississippi Education Association between 1936 and 1946 were junior-college presidents. A junior-college president was elected state superintendent of education in 1935, and the present incumbent of this office was a junior-college president prior to his election.

A third factor is emphasis on high quality of work. The junior colleges from the beginning realized, and the suspicion of the senior institutions and the public generally made them realize even more, that public confidence could be won and held only

by quality of performance. In order to win "academic respectability," the colleges at first emphasized university-parallel curricula. Graduates who have advanced to upper division studies in the senior institutions have given a good account of themselves. The schools have now enlarged their offerings for semiprofessional work and skilled occupations, for general education as well as the strictly university parallel. Agriculture, business, engineering, industrial education, home economics, music, the medical services, liberal arts, and education and training in at least twenty-two skilled trades are being offered in some or all of the junior colleges. By common agreement, certain curricula are allocated to one, or a few, of the colleges to meet state needs and effect economies. High values are placed on education for character and citizenship. In most of the schools there is a strong religious bent among the students and faculties. By 1949, all but the two new colleges were fully accredited by the Mississippi Association of Colleges and nine were members of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

A fourth factor in the pattern of work is great emphasis on guidance, counseling, and supervision. The junior colleges have a measure of control over dormitory students far beyond that of the four-year colleges. Opportunities to associate in living-working groups in residential campus life, the chance for academic and personal guidance by association and example as well as by word have been stressed from the earliest days. Teachers have been chosen for their guidance point of view as well as their ability to teach. Deans of men and of women are important functionaries. In-service training programs for teachers and staff members for a better understanding of the junior-college philosophy have been promoted. The *first workshop for junior colleges* was promoted by the Mississippi Junior College Association in 1940 at George Peabody College.

A final factor may be found in lively student activities and organizations. Music, publications, forensic, Future Teachers of America, athletics, and several other forms of student participation are carried out locally and on a state-wide intercollegiate basis. Some All-American and a large number of All-Southeastern Conference football stars spent their early college days on

Mississippi junior-college gridirons. In all of these and other state-wide activities, there is one key organization that has barely been mentioned. It is the Mississippi Junior College Association. This group works together at all times in every public undertaking as a single team. This type of action was largely responsible for the fact that between 1945 and 1949, most of the colleges practically doubled their floor space and the value of plants and equipment.[18]

From the standpoint of the state, it may be seen, Mississippi provides an excellent example for general lines of organization. Improvements can be made, and no one is more conscious of this fact than the leaders in the state. An additional step is needed to make available to the Negroes, who constitute approximately one-half of the population, further education in extent and kind to meet their needs. Efforts are being made along this line. Enlightened Southerners realize that the home life, citizenship, and economic well-being of the total population, Negroes as well as whites, depend in a large measure on the proper education of all the people. The same solution for the problems of health, moral character, industry, and thrift applicable to any one part of the population are, by the same token, equally applicable to all parts. Lack in civic and economic cooperation among people stems from cultural status and patterns rather than from those of color and race. If the million Negroes were as well educated and cultured as the white people are, Mississippi could be now, as it was at one time, one of the most prosperous states in the nation.

Moreover, simple democratic justice in our American free society requires equality of educational opportunity, as far as it is possible, for all the children of all the people and that without regard to any other factor. The best defense of American democracy is to improve it and demonstrate to the world that our faith is well founded in "liberty and justice for all"; that this faith is based not solely on a philosophical theory but on practical results. If free enterprise means anything at all, and it certainly

[18] The author is indebted to Dr. L. O. Todd, president, East Central Junior College, Decatur, Miss., for the data and the story of the state system.

TABLE 2. MISSISSIPPI JUNIOR COLLEGES, 1948-1949 *

Name of institution	Date founded as junior college	Number of high-school grades	Number of supporting counties	Enrollment 1st semester 1948-1949				Plant value
				H. S.	Coll.	Voc.-Tech.	Sp.	
Copiah-Lincoln	1928	4	4	178	371	33	2	644,700
East Central	1928	2	5	68	378	147	—	864,000
East Mississippi	1928	4	3	62	183	—	—	510,664
Hinds	1922	3	1	150	368	145	3	845,859
Holmes	1925	3	2	52	317	92	—	762,867
Itawamba	1948	2	3	238	114	257	2	750,000
Jones	1927	4	7	649	542	294	—	706,500
Meridian Municipal	1937	6-4-4	City	573	310	104	161	1,038,000
Northeast Mississippi	1948	2	5	99	333	150	—	450,000
Northwest	1926	4	7	141	238	—	—	546,500
Pearl River	1922	2	5	120	279	65	—	599,100
Perkinston	1925	2	4	68	265	157	4	772,000
Southwest	1925	2	2	11	194	320	3	383,500
Sunflower	1926	4	3	183	162	6	—	235,460

* Courtesy of L. O. Todd.

does, fairness to participate in its stems directly from equality to start with as few handicaps as possible. James Madison, a great American and Southerner, once said: "A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both." The application of this principle to popular government is not enough. It applies with equal force to all civic and economic affairs in a free society. The theory of democracy without practical democracy in education can never be defended. America's indefensible lag for equality in education and training is her heel of Achilles. The solution is total immersion.

Regardless of logical theory, however, or the rule of simple justice, the practical problem is one of *how* and with what means. Some of the states can never solve these problems merely with their own resources. Mississippi is one of them. Unless and until Federal aid is provided, equality of educational opportunity comparable to that of the most favored states remains an impossibility; failure to give proper assistance will be, as it is now, a standing disgrace to the United States rather than a blot on the flag of a single state. Billions for the recovery of European and

Asiatic countries may be fully justified; the sharing of American technical know-how for the improvement of various nations with scientific and technical lags deserves applause; but neither can be justified at the expense of serious problems in America's front yard. It is not a question of responsibility. The *nation* is responsible for conditions which it created. Unless and until the *United States* performs its own clear duty to solve the problems which it created, the finger of accusation must be pointed at the real laggard, not at any one, or a few, of the overburdened states.

Iowa Studies

The two maps of Iowa, one showing the present location of junior colleges (Fig. 9), and the other, what the proper distribution might be under a well-planned, state-wide system of community colleges (Fig. 10), should give the reader a better understanding of what is needed in every state. The author is indebted to Dr. J. A. Starrak, professor of Vocational Education, Iowa State College, and Dr. Raymond M. Hughes, president emeritus, Iowa State College, for permission to use these maps. In 1948 the authors stimulated a great deal of publicity and discussion through *The New Junior College: The Next Step in Free Public Education.*[19] More recently they have made extensive studies of Iowa in which they have presented data regarding the community-college districts: land area, property evaluation, number of counties, number of high schools, total population, population of the town centers, number of high-school students, number of high-school graduates, youth fourteen to seventeen, eighteen to twenty, and twenty-one to twenty-four years of age. It is the kind of study that should be made in all states.

SUMMARY

The rapidly growing movement in the United States for an intermediate level of education has appeared under various forms of organization and names. The junior college is the best known

[19] Starrak, J. A., and Hughes, Raymond M. *The New Junior College.* Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College Press, 1948.

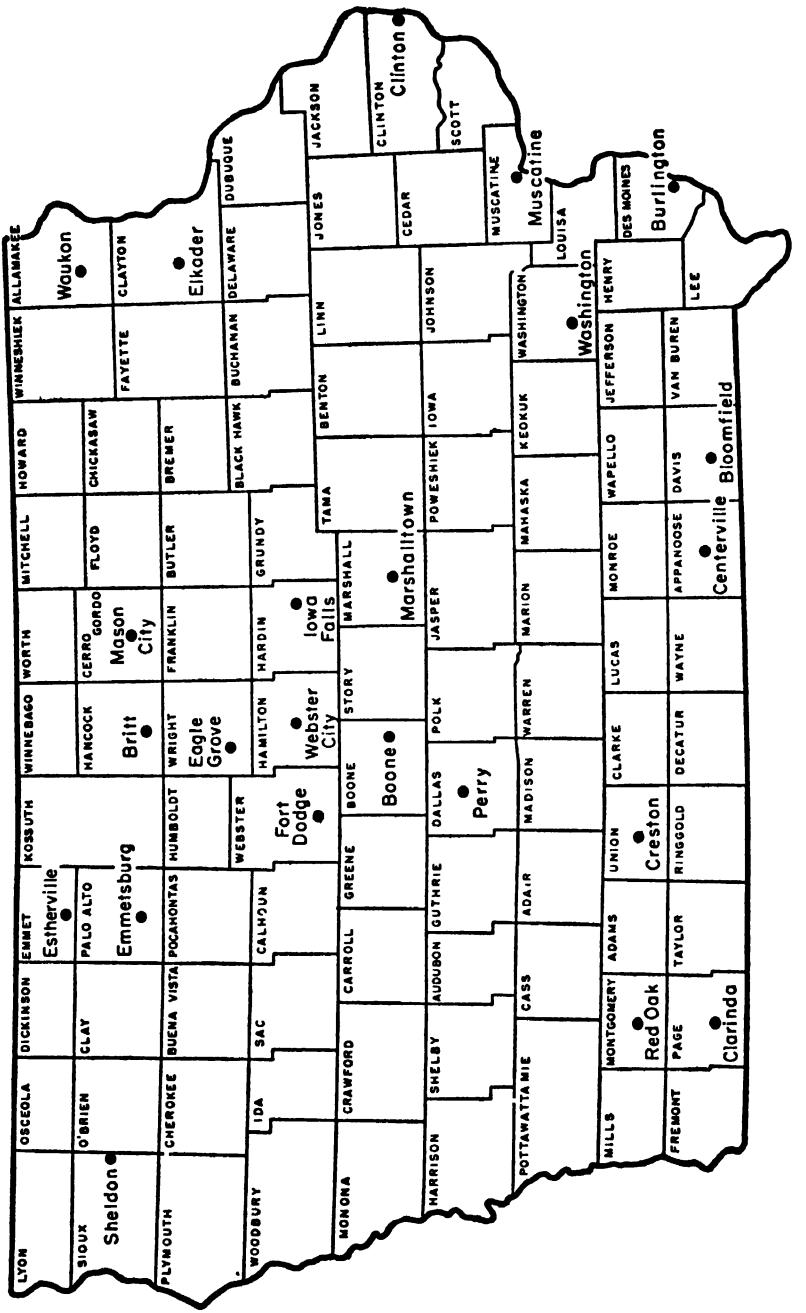


FIG. 9. Location of public junior colleges of Iowa, 1947–1948. (*Courtesy of Starrak and Hughes.*)

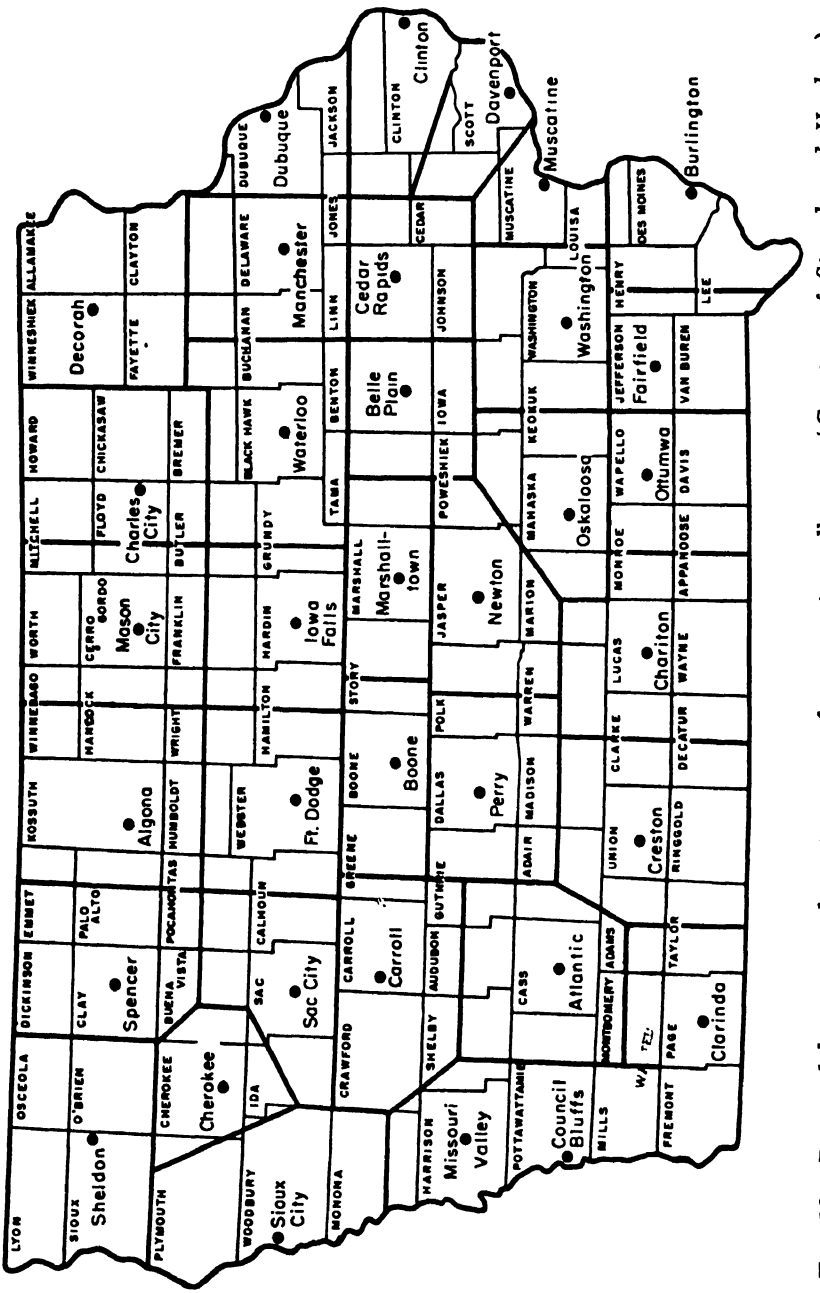


FIG. 10. Proposed locations and service areas of community colleges. (*Courtesy of Starrak and Hughes.*)

and is used most extensively by institutions operating by private enterprise or by public control and support. Its genetic meaning was well understood in relation to its emphasis of function during the first and second decades of the present century; it is still applicable to those institutions which by choice limit their functions to those essentially akin to the first two years of senior-college work; it is used by a large number of colleges which are no longer "junior" to anything. The community college, designated and made more popular by the President's Commission on Higher Education, is a better and more exact name for the college of the community, by the community, and for the community.

The "new American college" represents a definite effort at vertical articulation and integration in subject-matter fields offered from the eleventh through the fourteenth years, for continuity in student personnel services, and for the organization of a distinctive four-year unit of American education with the logical capstone at the end of the fourteenth year. Two-year junior or community colleges, public or private, in association with high schools or as independent units, represent American demands for further education for better citizenship and greater competence in a highly complex and technological society. They also lay claims to continuity and completeness of the educational processes. While forms of organization have their importance, forms should be determined by conditions under which they must operate. An acquaintance with the vast and various circumstances of communities is convincing proof that no one type of organization is best suited to meet the needs of all.

University extension centers, state-owned and -operated junior colleges and technical institutes, privately controlled institutes of many kinds—all have moved into a field of service dictated by the needs of a new day. There is room and need for extensive experimentation. In the end, the people will decide what form of organization will best serve their needs, with equality of opportunity for all and desirable control by the communities themselves.

The contention that education is a matter of local financial responsibility is entirely outmoded by the radically changed con-

ditions of the times. The several states themselves must provide for a much greater amount of financial assistance, more authority, and better personnel for professional leadership to ensure fairness and a greater degree of equality of educational opportunities for all citizens within the state. In order to secure comparable equality between the states as well as within them, Federal aid must be made available to those with incomes insufficient to guarantee this equality. Mississippi has been used as an example because it represents state leadership, state support in cooperation with local and student effort, and a state-wide planned system for junior colleges. It has been used also because it is typical with respect to its needs for Federal aid for the further extension of a truly democratic educational plan.

Chapter 11. ADMINISTRATIVE PLANS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Administrative plans, principles, and practices in community colleges are naturally closely associated with internal organization. Organization is simply the arrangement through which administrative functions flow. Hence, the two are intimately tied together. While community colleges have certain features that vary to a greater or lesser degree from commonly accepted administrative plans in education, they are nevertheless largely in line with such plans. It is possible for an organization to be effected in such manner that good administration becomes wellnigh impossible. On the other hand, in spite of the general acceptability of an organization, it is possible for an ineffective administration not only to go astray but also to destroy administration by ignoring or by running counter to the organization itself. In order to accomplish desirable results, both the organization and the administration must be generally acceptable. A good college needs form and performance; structure and content; mechanism and power. Neither can be effective without the other and both must work harmoniously together.

The previous chapter dealt chiefly with general organizational aspects of the movement as a whole. It will be necessary in this chapter to consider internal structures of community colleges, because of their intimate association with administration. No claims will be made that any one particular system is the best. General plans and basic principles can be devised and practiced in various systems. Systems will have to be modified or expanded to meet needs and make for effective administration in various sizes of schools; with or without boarding facilities; and for the functions which each proposes to perform. Indeed, there will be variations from state to state and between com-

munities according to the temper and attitudes of the people. The author recalls a vigorous protest against local control of community colleges by an administrator from one of the Southern states. In effect he said:

I have had a nose full of all this talk about control by a local board of trustees. The school board of our county, for instance, is nothing but a bunch of peanut politicians who were elected because they promised to play ball with the big taxpayers. They care nothing about our schools and what's more they know nothing about education. One man is a common crook, another is a drunkard, a third is completely illiterate—never went to school a day in his life, the fourth has a little education and a lot of land and money which he wants to get out of paying taxes on; then, I'll admit that there is one member with a college education—he's a good man. The others are so lowdown they could walk under a snake's belly. Now, just what would you do with a board of trustees like that? As far as I am concerned, I'm mighty glad to have remote control for our college!

Two days following this frank statement by the Southern gentleman, a former superintendent of schools and dean of the junior college told the author the inside story of his administration in one of the Northern states. In the city about which this story is told, the organization was excellent. There were clear understandings and agreements as to the allocation of functions, lines of responsibility, and where certain power and authority rested. These understandings, however, were made apparently with reservations by the school board. There was no intention of keeping them when they were made. The superintendent soon discovered this fact when he, in his natural rounds of inspection, found that cases of milk delivered at the school cafeterias contained only eight bottles instead of twelve. Acting within his authority, a change was made for the purchase of dairy supplies. He was promptly and emphatically told that this change could not be effected. The battle was on and in the end the superintendent won. Of course, no one needs to be told that the school board had agreed to award the contract for a price and the dairy company was permitted to make up the amount and enough besides for risk money by simply cutting the children short. Following the winning fight with the school board, in one year's time

$100,000 was saved in the purchase of supplies for the school cafeterias.

It was readily noticed that a considerable number of "employees" in the school system had nothing to do. It was agreed that they should be dismissed. As soon, however, as local pressure groups took members of the school board to task, action for dismissal was forthwith rescinded. Again, the superintendent stood firmly by his guns and won on the grounds of initial agreements that had been made. As the story unfolded, it became more complicated and amazing. Some readers will not remember the days, for instance, when teachers were paid in scrip. Did it really ever happen in the United States! But that is only half the story. Arrangements were made whereby scrip would be honored for certain items, listed locally by categories. Teachers who were compelled to cash the scrip were paid 75 cents or less on the dollar. Just as soon as school funds were large enough to make some cash payments, the people who had bought the scrip at big discounts were notified before general announcements were made. They appeared, collected 100 cents on the dollar and an additional 6 per cent interest. By the time teachers could arrive, the treasury for the school was empty! Tenure for this superintendent was naturally a short one. The scandal of the scrip was not confined to big cities, if one may believe reports from persons who were in a position to know; it crept into the villages. Scrip and what are known as town orders were refused at the bank, so the story runs, until after the directors had bought them at wide margins of discount. Then the policy was changed so that scrip and orders were honored at face value plus the customary rate of interest.

The Constituency

The author could continue with this type of story, but what has been said is sufficient to emphasize the necessity for the right kind of constituencies in order to have good schools. Citizens may be inclined at times to sympathize with the position of dictators; that democracy rests on an impossible assumption; that parliamentary governments have had their day; that popular

government is only a hopeful illusion. The author in no way shares this point of view. Unless the level of honor in local communities can be raised by civic pride, what guarantees can be given that the state and national levels can be improved? Rascality will still be the practice and that on a larger scale. With all its faults, it is far better to muddle through democratically than to abolish the responsibilities of local citizens by ukase. The former process is slow, often inefficient, sometimes corrupt; Americans, however, have faith that over the long pull the people themselves "are the only reliance for the preservation of liberty." Even a poor school with liberty is better than a so-called efficient one without it. Without freedom it is impossible to have the right kind of school in a democracy because freedom is essential.

In his farewell address, Washington bequeathed to the people of the nation some sound advice when he said: "In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." Mr. Madison said: "Knowledge will forever govern ignorance, and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives." Harold C. Shearman in *Adult Education for Democracy* [1] comes to the heart of the matter when he writes: "We must ultimately be concerned not with education as a function of society but with nothing less than the creation of a society which itself is educative; an ideal which is so far from being realized at present that it implies a social revolution." Attempts being made to reeducate the German people are blocked by the solid wall of facts that education stems from the total structure of a society; that no significant changes can be made permanently until the basic structure is changed in the society from which education grows; that culture cannot be imported or imposed; that it must gradually evolve out of the experiences, customs, mores, predominant temper, and fundamental character of the people. It should be borne in mind, moreover, that state departments of education and professional associations can often be of value in local situations. In the final analysis, however, the community itself must be educated, its constructive

[1] Shearman, Harold C. *Adult Education for Democracy.* London: Workers' Educational Association, 1944. Pp. 14–15.

influences enlisted, and its competent people encouraged to assume leadership.

One of the first concerns, therefore, for sound administrative practices in a community college is the community itself. A college may be instituted in a community by outside forces. It may not be created by the community, yet it will be of the community, even if it attempts to operate behind a stone wall. The community is the first public of great importance in the program of public relations. The needs, interests, and enlightened cooperation of this public must be discovered and enlisted as a basic drive in the work of the college. Much of the difficulty which schools face grows from the foul soil of neglected public opinion. This immediate community public will play an important role, whether the college be under public control or privately supported. Conversations and correspondence with a large number of men who are well-seasoned administrators emphasize this fact. Dr. Harlie L. Smith, president of William Woods College, Fulton, Missouri,[2] states the case for a privately controlled institution:

> If a young man should come to me asking for counsel on practical matters of administration, my first impulse would be to undertake to convince him that he would be much happier in teaching. However, realizing that that is a thing which a person can learn only through perceptual experience, I should then make certain suggestions to him.
>
> He should at the very outset be greatly concerned about his own public relations. If the college is worthy of community interest, it will have it and people are curious about what takes place. I have found it exceedingly helpful to spend a great deal of time downtown, apparently killing time with community leaders, but actually telling them very frankly about the problems of the college and the things that take place. I find, therefore, that they do not become greatly exercised about rumors for they have either already heard the correct information or know they will receive it in a short space of time.

The well-seasoned advice of Dr. Archie J. Cloud,[3] who retired from the presidency of the City College of San Francisco in 1949

[2] Smith, Harlie L., president, William Woods College. Fulton, Mo.: 1949. Statement from personal letter quoted by permission.

[3] Cloud, Archie J., retired president, City College of San Francisco. San Francisco, Calif.: Sept. 22, 1949. Statement from personal letter quoted by permission.

after fourteen years of experience in that position, should be heeded by all who wish to succeed in administration:

Keep the door of your office open; receive all callers courteously, whether of faculty, student body, or the general public; and, above all, at no matter what expenditure of your valuable time, listen to their representations fully and carefully. That caller usually has a problem that to him is significant and that he wishes to discuss with the administration. To the latter, that problem may seem trivial and inconsequential; nevertheless, it has much meaning to the person seeking the interview. Often the mere opportunity to present the matter to a friendly and listening ear will hasten the solution to the problem. Inject, if circumstances warrant, a little of the spice of humor into the situation, but, at any rate, always endeavor to send the caller away in a favorable attitude of mind.

President G. H. Vande Bogart[4] of Northern Montana College, Havre, a man with a long and successful experience, presents his views from the standpoint of a public institution, supported by direct appropriations from the state:

Every institution will inevitably have public relations, beneficial or otherwise. It need not be placed on a hilltop to be in the public eye. Its activities, services, and objectives are much more widely discussed than most of us realize. Sometimes a college is misunderstood by its clientele because it fails to make known its activities and objectives with such clarity that everyone sees the over-all picture. Educators are traditionally occupied with academic activities and fail to realize that every successful college must have its "show windows." The experienced administrator will see to it that there is an organized program of public relations through such channels as the press, radio, and publications directed toward many groups and individuals whose understanding, confidence, and support are highly important.

Such activities as athletic contests, dramatics, forensics, and music should be publicized to attract public attendance. People of the community should be brought to the campus whenever special programs or events make this possible. The successful program of public relations is continuous. Periodically, there are needs for financial support beyond the usual annual budget. Whether these may be campaigns

[4] Vande Bogart, G. H., president, Northern Montana College. Havre, Mont.: 1949. Statement quoted by permission.

for endowment, for new buildings, or for legislative appropriations, the institution that is already well understood, and its needs and services appreciated by the area that it serves, finds itself in a most advantageous position.

The phrases "ivory tower" and "town and gown" bear unfortunate testimony to the lack of mutual understanding that has existed in many college situations. The administrator is careful to maintain numerous public contacts in various ways that do not require review here. Faculty members who enjoy membership and varying degrees of leadership in local churches, clubs, service organizations, chambers of commerce, and other groups add definitely to the public understanding of the college they represent. At the same time they contribute to the value of the institution in the area that it serves. Programs, lectures, and professional services which certain departments are able to give may be time consuming, but they add immeasurably to the integration of college and community.

Similar views from other successful and experienced administrators could be given. The inevitable public relations of the college and the community demand that they work for mutual advantage. "He who would have a friend must be friendly" is a simple and equally effective rule for institutions as well as for persons. If there is sound judgment and truth in the experiences of such men as Smith at a privately controlled college, and Vande Bogart at a college sustained by state appropriations, how very much greater is the importance of good, continuous public relations in a college of, by, and for the community! That there are many and exceedingly difficult problems in local communities is perfectly obvious; their solution is often slow and laborious. They can, however, be solved by democratic processes. The community cannot be robbed of its influence and responsibility for education if we are to have a democratic society. Considered risks have to be taken because democracy itself is a risk, a daring adventure.

The Board of Control

The kind of people a college may have for its board of control, whether from the constituency of a private institution or from the

citizens for one that is essentially a community enterprise, is an important factor. An examination of standards and practices of accrediting associations shows relatively little concern for this matter. Yet the progress of the college depends in a large measure on the wisdom, character, judgment, and conduct of the board of control. Standards and practices of accrediting associations should be drastically revised upward to include definite provisions for the preparation, functions, and limitations of the supreme elected officers. Both state and professional criteria are usually applied with real force to the preparation and character of administrators and teachers. This is as it should be. Instead of waiting, however, until overt acts are committed and the damage has been done by unfit and unworthy boards of control, professional organizations should take preventive measures by way of proper standards. Qualifications for elective offices are not beyond the power of the people to fix or outside the interests of professional groups. They are applied to teachers. Why not to boards of control who may advance or retard a college just as effectively as may the administrator or classroom teachers? Until the passage of the Florida Minimum Foundation Laws of 1947, for example, a county superintendent of schools could qualify for election in about the same manner as a saloonkeeper could secure a license. The *people,* however, changed that! Professional and legal standards are required of doctors and dentists who treat human bodies; there should be standards for the officers who have so much to do with the treatment of children's minds—surely a function of equal importance. Whatever may be said, it is practically impossible to have efficient administration without a reasonably acceptable board of control,[5] hence the value of the subject in the interest of good education.

The functions and limitations of the board of control should be clearly defined. In the main, the functions should be confined to the following: (1) To determine *general policies* for the organization, administration, and operation of the college. (2) To act as court of final appeal in all matters which may properly be referred to it. (3) To approve the budget and authorize changes within the limits of the

[5] Bogue, Jesse P. "How to Organize and Operate a Junior College." Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1947.

budget within the span of the fiscal year. (4) To assume responsibility for securing funds for the proper operation of the college. This large responsibility should never be placed on the shoulders of the chief executive. He will play an important part, naturally, but his duties are too many and too great for him to assume this burden. (5) To employ the chief executive and delegate to him powers and responsibilities under a written contract. (6) To elect major staff members and teaching personnel on recommendation of the chief executive, unless otherwise specified. In this respect, the chief executive should have just as free hand as possible in the selection of his staff and teaching personnel. (7) To authorize and execute contracts for major capital improvements. (8) To authorize investment and provide protection for all funds given in trust to the college. (9) To authorize by formal vote the granting of degrees of graduation of candidates certified by the faculty, registrar, and chief executive.

While consideration might be given to the appropriate number of members of a board, the kind of persons, whether the number be large or small, is of paramount importance. They should be men and women who know how to delegate a large measure of authority; require the discharge of responsibility; and refrain from interference in all matters that have been delegated to the chief executive. For a private institution, there should be clearly defined plans for rotation of membership. There should be proper representation through free elections from the various elements of the supporting constituency. This would seem to be a matter of good public relations. Boards of control for public institutions are limited by law from engaging, either as boards or as individual members, in buying or selling or participating otherwise in any activity for profit or gain in the school unit they serve. Private colleges should make certain that their own bylaws and codes of ethical conduct are at least equal to those required by law in public institutions. Boards should be interested in the welfare of the school and totally disinterested in every other consideration about it.

The practice of loading boards of control in some private, nonprofit schools with staff officers or with their immediate relatives is open to serious question. Its effect is virtually to destroy confidence in the organization because it places the balance of power

in the hands of people who have personal financial interests at stake. A practice that is more questionable for a nonprofit institution is the voting of large salaries to staff members who also serve on the board of control. A considerable percentage of anticipated profits are allocated by way of these salaries. Whenever this is done, and it is not a universal practice, it essentially destroys any claims that the college is nonprofit. While there are some excellent institutions operated on a proprietary basis, that have taken risks, pioneered in new fields of education, and manage their funds with equity to the clientele, this form of educational practice is not in the most favorable public position today. There is an increasing feeling that education is a social activity in which the profit motive should be reduced to the minimum.

Somewhat related to the board of control is the community advisory committee, or committees. They do not operate in the field of administration, but their recommendations might, at times, have bearing on the enlargement of services. Essentially, their place is more closely related to the teaching functions of the college, to public relations, and to the discovery of new fields of service. They occupy an intermediate position between the college and industry, business, the professional services, and labor groups. Their primary business is to advise on programs of education and to assist in a practical and realistic approach in dealing with them. If a community advisory committee is an effective means for a single curriculum or a cluster of occupations, it might be wise, in some instances, for the board of control to consider the creation of a committee for purposes of community liaison on a broad basis.

The Chief Executive

The chief executive of the college must be directly responsible to the board of control. If he is the president of a private college, this line of responsibility is easily identified. If he is the president, dean, or director of a public college, there are times when some confusion arises as to just who is the chief executive. If the superintendent of schools is also the president of the col-

lege, then this fact should be clearly stated and understood. In some school systems, the president is responsible directly to the board of education; in others, he is responsible to the superintendent of schools; in this case, the superintendent is the chief executive officer and the dean occupies a secondary position. There are public-school systems in which the superintendent by choice assumes only nominal responsibility; he prefers to designate the head of the college as president rather than as dean and to provide for close relations between the president and the school board.

A chart of organization and administration should be made and widely published so that all persons connected with the college may understand lines of responsibility and specifications of duties. To whom am I directly responsible? What are my duties and opportunities? These two questions should be readily answered by all staff members, instructors, and employees. The administrative chart (Fig. 11) was drawn by the administrative committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges. It is offered as a suggestion only. It will have to be adapted to the size, resources, type, and functions of each college. Effective administration, however, requires the adoption of a workable system for each major aspect of the institution. The author is indebted to some outstanding junior-college administrators for valuable judgments that have grown out of their practical experiences. President John E. Gray [6] of Lamar College, Beaumont, Texas, states:

> The administrator should see to it that all members of the faculty and staff know exactly what their duties and responsibilities are. Often there is a vague understanding with the consequence that there is overlapping and duplication of effort. He should be sure that each member of the staff and faculty knows the person to whom he is responsible. This involves clear-cut understanding of the administrative lines of authority and responsibility.

President Vande Bogart [7] offers this wise counsel:

[6] Gray, John E., president, Lamar College. Beaumont, Tex.: 1949. Statement from personal letted quoted by permission.

[7] Vande Bogart, *op. cit.*

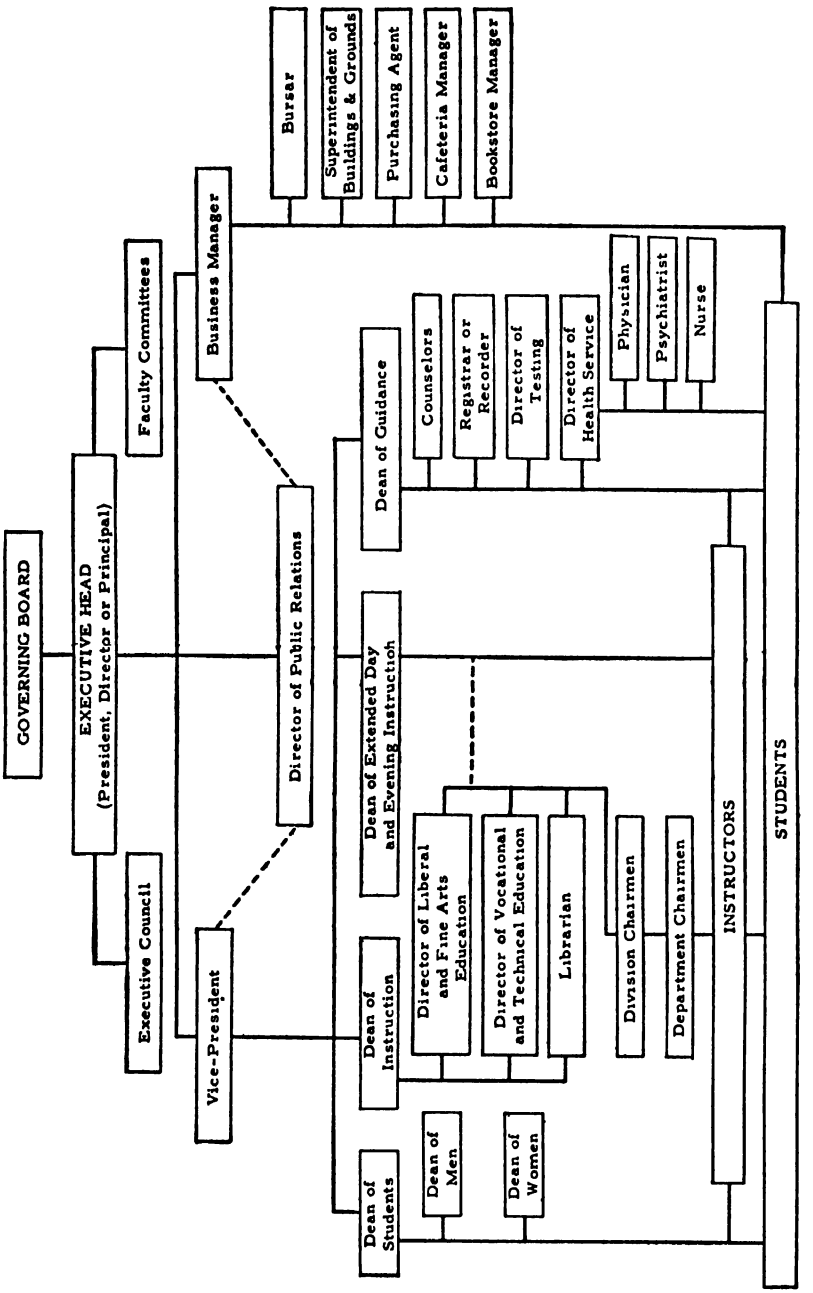


FIG. 11. Proposed organizational chart for a junior college.

Delegation of responsibilities to members of the administrative and instructional staff should be clearly defined and necessary authority granted commensurate with the responsibility. A clear understanding on the part of the faculty member concerning these matters will give him not only a certain degree of pride in the value of his services, but will enable him to make wise decisions. The administrator may in some cases find it necessary to adjust his thinking to methods that vary from his own, the final test being the ultimate result of those decisions. Complete frankness modified with tact and consideration will contribute to the loyalty and satisfactory functioning of staff members.

A world champion boxer was once asked what were the important abilities of a good fighter. He replied that there were two: to take punishment and to give it. In something of the same manner, an effective administrator must be able to delegate authority and to assume it. As to the former, President Harlie L. Smith [8] says: "The administrator who is reluctant to delegate authority and responsibility finds himself loaded with mediocre staff or other people who are unhappy and gets his own day so cluttered up with details of day-to-day operation that he does not have opportunity or time to plan for his institution."

For the second characteristic, President James C. Miller,[9] Christian College, Columbia, Missouri, says: "Be in command, if that is your assignment. Never be autocratic, but always in command. No one feels secure with an administrator who is vacillating and weak. Always be fair, but be positive and constructive in performing your administrative duties."

There are other highly important factors, however, for good administration. The position requires far more than ability to accept and grant authority with tact and consideration: to be fair and adaptable; to have patience and a sense of humor; to understand people and be able to get along with them. Especially for the community college, one needs an element of inspiration, the spirit of the pioneer and a sense of thrilling adventure. President Milton D. Proctor, Westbrook Junior College, Portland, Maine, states that he would suggest to an aspiring young administrator

[8] Smith, *op. cit.*

[9] Miller, James C., president, Christian College. Columbia, Mo.: 1949. Statement in personal letter quoted by permission.

to read again the predictions of the President's Commission on Higher Education that by 1960 there should be 2,500,000 young people in school in grades beyond the traditional twelfth; that large numbers of these will be in the middle level of education with intelligence, different from academic but not lower, in such fields as social, manual, and creative education and training.[10] "I would say to this young man that in my judgment the development of middle-level education presents one of the greatest educational challenges of all times, and that my regret is that I am not of his age so I could take a more active part in this thrilling adventure."

The quality referred to is sometimes called inspiring leadership ability. While it must have a foundation in character that creates confidence, sound judgment that enlists respect, intellectual honesty and scholarship that men trust, it nevertheless reaches beyond these characteristics. It is almost indefinable: one applauds the star when he appears on the stage; the colorful, gamy athlete when he runs onto the playing field; the rugged, courageous sea captain when he takes command of his ship. Just as one knows the difference between a day of sunshine and one of shadows so he knows the difference between a leader and a follower. Sometimes the difference may not be wide, but it is significant. It might be represented by the sharp line between the batter who "steps into it" when the ball comes over the plate and the other who hesitates. Timing, the faculty to see far ahead, to anticipate trends and probable events, and to lay plans in advance to cope with them successfully are characteristics of the good administrator.

An executive can be greatly helped by the wisdom of his staff and faculty. Even though he might reach the right decision without advice, greater confidence will be created in the administration and a sense of pride will result if it is sought. The suggested chart of administration includes the executive council. Some administrators prefer an advisory committee or cabinet. The author was favorably impressed with the administrative

[10] Proctor, Milton D., president, Westbrook Junior College. Portland, Me.: 1949. Personal letter quoted by permission.

practices of the Arlington State College at Arlington, Texas, and asked President E. H. Hereford [11] for a statement of general procedures. One feature is the use of the executive cabinet, although it would probably be classified as advisory in actual functioning. It works in the following manner:

Many years ago a group of faculty members were appointed to serve on a special committee to develop ways and means to bring faculty participation into the administration of the institution.

This committee studied the problem for several months during which time they reviewed practices in other institutions. The size of the faculty here constituted a group too large to handle administrative matters; therefore, some plan of electing representatives seemed necessary and desirable.

The committee submitted to the faculty the following plan, which was adopted, and which has been in use continuously since that date:

Provision is made for a faculty cabinet, composed of fifteen members, to meet at least twice each semester; nine of the members are to be elected by the faculty from the faculty list, and without nomination. The nine receiving the largest number of votes are to be elected. Four additional members are to be appointed by the head of the institution, and the two top ranking officials of the college are placed on the committee automatically.

Several days before the cabinet is to meet (and it meets at the call of the president), the president sends a call to all faculty members, stating that the cabinet will meet. Faculty members are asked to submit any problems which they would like to have considered by the cabinet. When these problems have been submitted, the president prepares an agenda and sends it to the cabinet members with a call for the meeting which must be at least three days after the call.

When the cabinet convenes, the president presides and only matters on the agenda can be discussed, unless the cabinet, by a unanimous vote, decides to take up additional matters.

The secretary to the president is the secretary of the cabinet. She takes notes of the meeting, and, subsequent to the meeting, prepares the minutes and distributes the same to all members of the faculty.

It should be noted that the actions of the cabinet are purely advisory to the president, but I know of no instance where the advice has not been followed.

[11] Hereford, E. H., president, Arlington State College. Arlington, Tex.: 1949. Statement quoted by permission.

The Budget and Finances

It is not too much to say that the budget is the lifeblood of the college. One of the epitaphs on the tombstones of dead colleges is this: "Died by pernicious anemia—the white corpuscles of deficit destroyed the red ones of assets." Any executive who ignores or underrates the value of hard economic facts is doomed to failure and, which is worse, he may carry his institution down with him. It has been done many times. The budget is the economic framework within which the activities of the college are carried out during the fiscal year. It should, therefore, be built with the greatest possible care. It is a sound rule to estimate expenditures liberally and income conservatively in building a budget. The chief executive should seek all possible assistance from his staff and faculty for carefully itemized statements of needs. If the total for needs exceed, as they usually will, the total anticipated income, then fair and proportional reductions must be made. The budget is the basic device by which the program of the college will be stymied or implemented. Its final preparation, therefore, for presentation to the board of control should be a major concern of the head of the college. It is time consuming and one of the best specific tests of an executive's ability to see into the future without the confusion of too much enthusiasm or the rosy colors of guesswork. A painstaking analysis of past economic performance based on a cost-accounting system is a scientific device that should be employed. After each and every item of income and expenditure has been estimated with the greatest care, it will be discovered, in a truly nonprofit institution, that very narrow margins of error will make the difference between a balance or a deficit. A nonprofit educational institution is one that operates without the expectation of having a surplus. All funds paid in by students are returned to them in services of full measure.

The practice of constructing buildings from accumulated surpluses is open to serious question. Capital outlay should be provided by special tax assessments or bond issues, or by special gifts for a privately controlled college. For this reason, sound

educational accounting does not depreciate buildings and set up sinking funds for replacement. Depreciation is allowable for equipment and facilities that must be paid for from current income. There are some administrators in nonprofit colleges who emphatically advise against the erection of new buildings, even when they are to be paid for by gifts, until sufficient amounts are added to endowments to maintain these buildings. Their contention is that maintenance of buildings should not be charged against student tuitions and fees; that these payments should be kept to a minimum and be used for essential education services; that scholarships should be granted *only* from independent funds derived from endowment income or gifts.

Staff and Faculty

There is almost universal agreement that the crucial test of an administrator's ability in education is revealed by the kind of personnel he selects for his staff and faculty. Regardless of how and to what extent he may delegate authority to select personnel, in the final analysis he will be held responsible by students, other members of the staff and faculty, and by the public at large.[12]

Give more attention to your personnel than to any other single administrative problem. An administrator is usually good or bad in the eyes of the community, depending on whether he has strong or weak personnel in his organization. Every weak person on your faculty or staff will bring problems to your office. These problems can multiply until they whip you. If you permit them to dominate your time to the extent that you do not have enough remaining hours to choose and direct the best possible people you can obtain, you can look for trouble. The most important over-all responsibility of the administrator is to help instructors to do effective teaching. Point up every phase of your administrative program with the ultimate objective of developing a better teaching situation between an individual instructor and an individual student.

The foregoing statement was quoted from a letter from President John E. Gray, with the additional suggestion that to worry and fret about minor problems when major ones should com-

[12] Gray, *op. cit.*

mand attention will place the administrator in the market for a reconditioned stomach.[13] "Relax," he says. "The poised, relaxed leader usually sets the tone for his entire faculty and staff. The tense, nervous, frustrated administrator not only develops combat fatigue himself but transmits it to most of the members of his faculty and staff." President Harlie L. Smith[14] points out that the faculty is one of the administrator's publics, suggests that his office door should be open and that close informal associations should be cultivated. "It is helpful and important to spend time 'just chewing the fat' about nothing in particular, but giving his staff and himself an opportunity to become acquainted on a free and easy basis. The feeling of confidence and good will makes a visit to the president's office no major venture!"

It is a poor policy to employ a good woodsman and provide him with dull tools. The better the woodsman, the more insistent he will be on having a sharp ax. The same general principle applies to efficient teachers and staff members. The conditions under which teachers work and the equipment by which much of their work must be done are matters for serious administrative consideration. Just as the administrator has a right and duty to secure personnel with the best possible preparation and natural teaching gifts, so the instructor and other workers have an equal right and duty to expect the administration to supply them with the best possible working materials and conditions. Moreover, there should be definite policies to encourage in every possible, positive way the professional growth of the staff and faculty. A laissez-faire policy in these matters is far from being adequate; there must be real leadership and funds to encourage instructors for further study, membership in and attendance at professional organizations and meetings, for professional books and magazines, preregistration and in-service conferences and study, and for sabbatical leave. If a college wishes staff and instructors to keep out of academic ruts, to keep their minds open and their enthusiasm high, definite and constructive policies must be adopted to accomplish these ends. The sharp ax will then be in the hands of the keen woodsman.

[13] *Ibid.*

[14] Smith, *op. cit.*

As a matter of administrative policy, established and well understood, there should be: (1) a regular scale of salaries with equal pay for equal work, provisions for increments, and the amount equal to the needs of well-educated people who will devote their lives to the profession of teaching; (2) a satisfactory retirement plan, group insurance, and sick leave; (3) there should be tenure of office established under protective conditions which should be specifically stated; (4) regulations regarding rights, freedoms, and privileges, if they are otherwise than those permitted to any good citizen, should be thoroughly understood and agreeable before contracts are signed. In these days of oaths and sometimes of general witch hunting, teachers have a right to know the settled policies of the college regarding freedom of thought and speech, both within and without the college. Once these policies are settled, the teacher has a right to administrative protection and loyalty. If the college wishes to attract and hold persons of high honor and ability who are wholeheartedly committed to the profession of teaching, it must create the environment in which such persons may devote themselves to their work and grow with each year of service.

In selecting major staff officers and department heads, the chief executive should exercise the greatest possible care. The efficient college is organized around fully competent persons. They assume responsibility for each major field of activity. These persons must not only have thorough professional training and experience in their several fields of work, but in addition, they must have a high degree of initiative and imagination. They must have a real flair for problem solving. They must possess a spirit of independence and self-reliance; the general framework of the college organization must be flexible enough to allow for the expression of this spirit. In short, major staff officers are technical experts. If they do not have the necessary materials, they will find out where they can be secured to the best advantage by means of careful research.

The administrative chart indicates what the major positions are in a fairly large institution with ample resources. As previously suggested, modifications will be necessary to make the form and extent of the organization conform to the needs and

resources of each college. There are some staff members, however, who are indispensable regardless of the size of the institution. They are (1) a registrar who will insist on the best practices for collecting, recording, and protecting in fireproof vaults the records of all students; (2) a director of student personnel who will keep himself informed concerning the most reliable tests and measurements, know how to administer and interpret them to the students and make data constantly available to the teachers, who will be a wise counselor, adept in recommending students for placement, alert in following up his students for their continuing advancement and for interpretation to the college for improvements in its program; (3) the librarian who will be professionally trained, know how to organize and administer the library efficiently, constantly check materials and services of the library with the teaching program, exercise imagination in devising methods to secure the greatest possible use of the library by students and faculty, and maintain professional contacts for new ideas and comparison of services with leading librarians. (4) In a small college, it may be possible to combine fiscal functions in the office of the treasurer who will also be the business manager. Exactness in accounts, vigorous collections, budgetary control, and monthly reports to the president are minimum essentials. The business management, in addition to usual procedures, should be alert in the purchase of supplies and equipment. (5) The number of deans will naturally vary with the size and functions of the college. In cases where there is no vice-president, the dean should be of sufficient caliber and personality to take over full responsibility in the absence of the president.

Some readers may wonder why so much emphasis has been placed on the necessity for outstanding staff and departmental personnel. It has been done for the reason that this provision is sometimes neglected. It may be by direct oversight, but more frequently it stems from a false sense of economy by the board of control. It may be claimed that the college is too small to provide the minimum personnel. The college often remains too small, however, because the chief executive is overburdened with details of internal administration. This results in lack of time and energy for the development of ideas, methods, and contacts

that should eventuate in the growth of the college. A basic decision must be made as to whether the college will operate on a centripetal or a centrifugal pattern.

The Students

A glance at the suggested administrative chart shows that while the governing board occupies the apex position, the students constitute the entire foundation, or base. Lines of administrative responsibility are drawn solidly from the apex to the foundation with proper recognition of intervening functionaries. It is of great importance that these lines shall represent administrative functions flowing in both directions—from the foundation to the apex as well as from the apex to the foundation.[15]

The participation of students in school government is not in itself a new thing, for it was known to be a reality in ancient Greece. As a part of the pattern extending democratic practices throughout secondary-school administration, however, student government is of recent development. Most of this development has taken place in the past twenty-five years. . . . Student government should go to the core of the real problems of pupil welfare and human relations with the college. . . . Through the enthusiastic, persistent, and competent endorsement of the college president and his staff student councils gain that prestige which they deserve to make them effective. The sponsor also has a responsibility to see that the students understand the college president's position on important moves that affect their community.

In order to be effective, a council must be given areas in which to act without being subject to the veto power of the president of the college. We must have the president's veto for any situation which may arise where the student legislation infringes on his authority. It is consistent that the development of cooperative relationships between council and president should establish some areas in which the council feels it can be in effect autonomous, in which its responsibility is ultimate until such time as results prove its inability

[15] Troutman, Robert Newton, dean of men and director of student activities, San Bernardino Valley College. Paper on "Fundamental Philosophy and Policies of Student Government." San Bernardino, Calif.: Annual Convention, American Association of Junior Colleges, 1949.

to discharge that responsibility satisfactorily. We must strive to stress the idea that the real power of the student council resides in the quality of its leadership.

It might be remarked, in addition to the foregoing, that student councils should clearly recognize the necessity for the power of the veto, just as the president should appreciate the wisdom of using it sparingly and with full understanding on the part of the council as to why it is employed. In respect to the quality of council leadership, it is a general principle that students may have all the freedom they can use with good judgment and consideration, and all the powers they can employ in the best interest of all who may be concerned. If this principle is well understood and accepted as a practical working agreement and leaders are selected who are committed to it, student government will be not only an essential force for good in the college but also, what is more, it will create an educative college community. "Individual needs are inseparable from the matrix of culture; and they are to be defined in a framework of social intelligence rather than in terms of individual caprice." Even in the field of instruction,[16] there must be "a continuing emphasis on teacher preparation and presentation together with our encouraging students to criticize, to suggest, and to aid constructively in planning for the several aspects of the college life. . . . The student must be permitted to talk back."

Student government is an integral part of the total administration of the college. It is a necessary aspect of a sound program of student personnel services. In both instances,[17] "the real test of the personnel services in any university or college is not whether they exist but whether they meet the needs of students in a way that makes for scholastic competence, for social development, and for individual well-being." It might be suggested that it is equally indispensable for students to learn early that "scho-

[16] McClintock, James A., director of personnel and professor of psychology, Brothers College, Madison, N.J. Paper on "Provisions for Individual Needs of Students." Asbury Park, N.J.: New Jersey Junior College Association, May, 1949.

[17] Brumbaugh, A. J., vice-president, American Council on Education. Statement quoted by McClintock, James A.

lastic competence, social development, and individual well-being" involve considerations of themselves, the administration, faculty, parents, the community, and constituency of the college. If government is to be achieved *with* group cooperation and not simply *for* any one group, the interrelatedness of the whole social network becomes a matter of mutual concern. Herein is a refreshing source of benefits that may flow to strengthen everyone. It is clearly recognized that an educational institution exists for students, but their corporate and "individual needs are inseparable from the matrix of culture." The matrix of the college is more than the student body, however important that body may be. Well-learned parliamentary practices, for instance, may be carried into the larger community, but their values can be equally demonstrated in the college community.

Self-esteem is a strong motive. Its recognition in students as well as in all other persons connected with the college will drive constructive currents of influence through the entire community. The author listened to members of a student council, elected by the students, explain to the entire college the general regulations and the methods of governmental procedure. No faculty members were on the platform. The author was impressed by the reasonableness of the regulations and methods for their enforcement; even more by the maturity of attitude of the council and the attention and respect of the students. Back of this meeting was a history of self-government which in ten years' time had never required a veto or a serious modification of the council's decisions. This is a record that even the United States government cannot equal! Speaking of human relations in education, the President's Commission on Higher Education [18] said: "We have worked wonders by the application of technology to the problems of our physical environment, but we have scarcely touched the fringes of its possibilities in the realm of human relations. In fact, we hardly recognize the existence of inventiveness in the social sphere." Self-government with "inventiveness in the social sphere" would doubtless make greater progress if students were given greater opportunities in all schools to assume responsibility

[18] The President's Commission on Higher Education. *Higher Education for American Democracy.* Vol. I, p. 20.

for their corporate needs and for a place in the councils of the entire college.

Speaking before the annual convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges in San Francisco, in 1949, President Harry K. Newburn [19] of the University of Oregon, said:

> It cannot be too heavily emphasized at this point that the difference between the well-disciplined individual and his fellows is found in the way he demonstrates the use of basic equipment in his daily behavior. It is not so much what a man knows that counts, but how he uses his knowledge; not how well he reads, but the kind of material he reads, and the way such experience affects his daily behavior; not how well he speaks, but what he says; not whether he can think, but rather what he does think and about matters which count; not what he holds to be the proper attitudes of mind, but that he shows the effect of such attitudes in his actions; not that he believes, but what he believes and whether he displays the courage of these convictions in his daily activities.

This list of mental and spiritual equipment with priority of emphasis on the more desirable qualities can be developed only as opportunities are provided for their expression. The fullest possible participation of students in self-government is one of the avenues for these expressions.

SUMMARY

Internal organization and administration are intimately associated, because good organization provides the channels through which effective administrative functions may flow. Community influences, for better or for worse, will be felt in the college. Therefore, these influences must be enlightened through programs of good public relations so that society itself will become constructively educative. The kind and caliber of persons on the board of control, their qualities of character and understanding of duties and limitations set the stage for the role of the college.

[19] Newburn, Harry K., president, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore. Paper on "Equipping Youth to Create New Frontiers." San Francisco, Calif.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1949.

The kingpin is the chief executive. His acumen in financial affairs, his ability to recognize and select the right kind of associates and delegate authority to them, his character, attitudes, and personality that create confidence in all the publics of the college naturally give him the leading role. If he plays his part well, he will have the wholehearted support of his entire cast and the applause of the audience. It is essential, therefore, to give full recognition and esteem to all staff members, the faculty, and the students, whereby each group may be motivated by the same incentives and objectives which the chief executive may have. Thus, the community college will become a college community, the "matrix of culture" in which the individual and corporate needs of the students may be fruitfully satisfied.

Chapter 12. CRITICAL PROBLEMS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Problems, like the poor, are always present, albeit both should be in smaller numbers. They exist in education at all levels; in all institutions of all kinds, large or small, rich or poor, public or private—if those levels of education and institutions are alive. Those without critical problems are dead. While optimistic views have been expressed in *The Community College,* enough problems have been identified that cry for solution to keep even the most optimistic humble. The rapidity of growth, predictions for future development, increasing favor of the movement in circles competent to judge of educational needs and values cannot blind the eyes of those who are interested in the future of the community college to many problems which demand research, experimentation, and the combined judgment and wisdom of educational leaders and citizens.

The past twenty years of history have confirmed the prediction of Dr. Walter Crosby Eells: [1] "The junior college is not a fad—it is a fixture." Today the predictive slogan of Eells has become, in the words of Dr. Dwayne Orton: [2] "not a fad—but a fundamental." There is no disposition, however, to predict that the movement will really continue to *move* unless those who believe in it are ready to work and fight for its place in American education. Regardless of the needs of the people, leaders must sense them, reveal them to the people, and, by patience, wisdom, and persistent effort, attempt to provide for their satisfaction. The course of education in America has been upstream, not down. It

[1] Eells, Walter Crosby. *The Junior College.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931. P. 800.

[2] Orton, Dwayne. "The Community College—Fad or Fundamental?" *School and Society,* Dec. 11, 1948, 68(1772):401–405.

is still upstream. Any tendency to drift, to leave well enough alone, to rest on laurels already won, or to pursue the course of least resistance regardless of the goals to be reached would be fatal. The community college, like domesticated plants and cereal grain, requires careful cultivation by man and the favor of atmosphere from the "powers that be." The former can be supplied by intelligence and hard work; the latter by the principle of justice.

The author will attempt in this final chapter to identify some of the most critical issues. Practically all of them have been under consideration at one time or another. Many problems will not be mentioned because to do so would require a great deal of repetition of material already presented. The author's observations and his personal judgments will be stated perhaps more definitely than in previous chapters, both as to the problems themselves and as to suggested solutions. It is with a sense of deep humility that this is being done, even though the opinions of others far more competent have been consulted. The future course of any human endeavor is fraught with uncertainties, probabilities, and often with mere possibilities. The thinking of any one person at best, while it may have matured under the considered judgments of others, with the assistance of extensive observations, and the results of practical experience, is nevertheless subject to the defects, faults, and the inevitable limitations of finite existence. For the interpretation of laws already enacted, of a Constitution of long standing, of precedents that have been established by the best legal minds in American jurisprudence, it is necessary to call upon nine of the most experienced, clearest thinking, and judicious authorities in the land—the Supreme Court of the United States. Yet with all these safeguards, opinions of the Court are frequently divided. It would be rash indeed for anyone to consider his opinions as valid for final predictions on the future of the community college. Rather, the statement of problems and suggested solutions are intended as points of departure for research, discussion, and experimentation.

The Critical Problems

The author examined statements of problems by eighteen authorities whose writings covered a span of twenty years. Issues considered by them as most critical were tabulated and the order of their frequency was reckoned. Naturally, greater attention was given to problems identified more recently, although some have persisted across the years. It is likely that these salient issues will indicate trends in thinking and some of the proposals as to how and by what means they may be met. When the new constitution for the American Association of Junior Colleges was adopted in 1946, it provided for several basic changes and an essentially new organization. Discussions about the constitution had been started as early as 1943 with the view of effecting changes that would function more directly toward the solution of certain problems. The Post-war Planning Committee, under the leadership of Dr. John Lounsbury, president, San Bernardino Valley College, California, had been working almost from the start of the Second World War on how best the junior colleges could meet critical situations that were foreseen at that time. As the various problems were identified, both for the immediate future and the years ahead, it appeared that they could be very well grouped under five main headings: administration, curriculum, student personnel, legislation, and teacher preparation. Previous to 1946 and since, this general division of issues for research and experimentation has worked well. In the main, therefore, the critical issues to be discussed in this chapter will fall within these categories.

Administrative Issues

It has already been pointed out that administration and organization are closely interrelated. A great deal of sincere, and often heated, discussion has taken place regarding the form of the community-college organization: Shall it be a two-year distinctive unit with its own campus and buildings or two years of

work organized in association with a local high school; shall it be a four-year unit embracing grades 11 through 14, or still may it be a three-year organization including grades 12 through 14? It seems to the author that questions of this kind can best be settled in relation to local situations. If the college is to be a community institution, community situations and conditions should provide the answer in conjunction with educational theories. Educational theory is fully appreciated, and organizations could be effected that would run counter to basic principles. However, it must be emphasized that one of the sources of strength in American democracy is in its vast variety of community life.

The author doubts seriously, and these doubts arise from extensive traveling throughout the United States, that any one particular pattern of organization could possibly be designed for all communities. This may be a hard condition for some who are convinced of the logic of their educational principles; these wide variations in communities do exist, however, regardless of the logic of theories. Communities have been seen that lend themselves by every token to the four-year unit of education. Greater experimentation is needed on a broader scale in this type of community college. Forty colleges, with a fourth of them in one state, are not a sufficient number to establish with finality the values and adaptability of the plan for the whole of the United States. In New England, for example, it is likely that many years will pass before any institution will be courageous enough to attempt the plan, albeit in the state of Maine one privately controlled school, located in an ideal section where junior-college work is needed, is inclined to think of the four-year unit of organization. Some four-year junior colleges have been observed which are that in name only for administrative convenience. The philosophy and experimentation for completely reorganized, integrated curricula are no more in evidence than can be observed in associated colleges or in those that operate on separate campuses. Cardinal Newman's saying that "things should be called by their right names" would apply to some of these colleges.

There are many communities in which the junior-college work is carried on effectively in the high-school plant, although there are many problems connected with this plan, especially if the

high school is a four-year unit. As a rule, attempts are made to segregate classes and administration as far as possible in the high-school building. Wherever this has been done, consensus of opinion seems to be that it is desirable. Sometimes the top floor of the plant is used for the junior college, as at Centerville, Iowa; at other times, a new wing has been constructed and reserved exclusively for the junior college, as at Sheldon, Iowa; there are still other places where complete intermingling of high-school and junior-college students has been observed with apparently no effort at segregation. The author has encountered educators who condemn any practices of association as "high-school contamination."

From a practical point of view, and with full appreciation for community conditions, it might be said that without the privilege of high-school association a large number of junior colleges would cease to exist altogether. Before any final judgment could be pronounced regarding this plan, it would be necessary to carry out further investigations with respect to the success of students who have attended junior colleges of various types. The convenience, and indeed the necessity, of the arrangement for association is fully recognized. For many communities, it is either that or nothing. However, far more evidence should be produced on what happens to the students themselves. Here is a field for a broad-scale investigation. Are there any serious handicaps placed on students? What conclusive evidence is there to prove that those who graduate from one type of institution do better in senior colleges or in employment than students from other types of institutions?

The predominant type of organization in privately controlled colleges is the two-year separate unit. Presently there are only 15 four-year junior colleges out of a total of 323 of the private institutions; only 23 of the public, although a considerable number are operated in association with high schools. The author favors the two-year plan wherever conditions are favorable for its establishment on a basis that will ensure the best possible services to the students. These conditions are favorable when the population, school enrollment, and wealth of the community warrant the organization of a separate unit for the junior college.

From a practical point of view, it may be repeated, the plan of organization will be determined largely by local community conditions. Writing in the *California Journal of Secondary Education,* Dr. Basil Peterson,[3] states:

> To reorganize the schools of California into 6-4-4 units would require a major operation, which will not be accomplished until a solution is found to the problems of redistricting that are now causing difficulty. In fact, it is doubtful whether the 6-4-4 plan will ever completely replace the well-established administrative organization that now exists in California. We must, therefore, face the task of providing satisfactory working relationships between the traditional four-year high school and the two-year junior college.

In the face of realities, not only in California but also in all sections of the country, the *critical issue* lies not so much in attempting to reorganize the structure of the educational system as it does in working out by understanding and cooperation a number of problems that should be solved under any system. Curriculum coordination and a continuous program of student personnel services should be effected regardless of the structure of the system. It may be argued that both of these needed objectives could be attained more effectively and with greater certainty by changing the system. Suppose the contention is fully granted; it does not change the facts and is not likely to do so for many years. This leaves the problem at the heart of the whole matter; the question relevant to the critical issue remains right where it was in the first place: How and by what means can functional integration, both vertical and lateral, be effected in all education? While the former objective of better organization may be desirable, the latter is entirely within the realm of possibility. The author is not rash enough to hazard a prediction on the ultimate organization of American education; he is realistic enough to believe that functions not inherently prohibited by a system are entirely possible by human understanding and cooperation.

"How, where, and under what specifications shall we build new

[3] Peterson, Basil H. "High-school and Junior-college Relationships." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* March, 1947, 22(3):150.

junior colleges to meet tomorrow's needs?" That is the way Dr. Rosco C. Ingalls, director, East Los Angeles Junior College, California, puts the question. The answer seems to be in the freedom and the will of citizens to create school districts large enough, if they are not already so, to provide funds for these institutions without excessive tax rates. This would seem to be a matter of common sense. It does not ignore the responsibility of the state for a workable system within the state, the need for state supervision, or for standards and a generous share of financial aid and cooperation.

In summary, it might be said that the needs are: (1) an honest state plan for the further education of all youth and adults in their home communities; (2) junior-college districts that are large enough to support the colleges with state aid; (3) enough students to warrant their establishment; and (4) the will of the people to have them. The particular *form* of the system within the community will depend largely on community conditions. Herein lies one of the valuable features of the community college—its flexibility, even in its organizational structure. Communities can, as they have in many instances, start with what they have and where they are, then grow and build gradually and practically into something that is progressively better.

The American people are faced with a fact and if anything at all can be learned from history, they will be faced with an even more critical fact in the future: the ever-increasing numbers of people who are demanding higher education. The question here is not *what* but *how* and by what means? Speaking before the national convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges at St. Louis in 1947, Dr. John Dale Russell [4] said:

> In a recent state survey we set a figure of 10,000 students for the maximum size to which the state university should be allowed to grow. We have no research to prove that this figure is the upper limit for efficient operation, but that there is some such limit I am certain. The development of an adequate system of junior colleges will be the best method of maintaining universities at a reasonable size. . . . My own personal opinion is that higher education is on the eve of an expan-

[4] Russell, John Dale. "Issues in Higher Education for 1947." *Junior College Journal*, May, 1947, 17(9):362 and 366.

sion that will parallel the increase which occurred in the secondary school during the first third of the present century. The junior college will be the type of institution which, in my judgment, will carry the greatest share of the burden of that expansion.

Closely connected with the problem of greatly expanding enrollments in higher education is the housing of students. Arrangements can be made for better utilization of academic buildings by extending the day, by scheduling classes for six days in the week, by operating on a twelve-months plan instead of nine or ten, and by more efficient planning for the use of classrooms at all times. The expansion of living quarters, however, is more difficult. Dr. Russell,[5] and many other educators, have made the sensible suggestion that "increased dependence can be placed on the kinds of institutions that do not require housing facilities for students; that is, a larger percentage of the total enrollment can be encouraged to attend institutions within commuting distance of their homes. The development of junior colleges will be of great service in solving this problem."

In America, as well as in all other democracies, somewhat of an even balance between private and public education, especially at the college level, is generally regarded as a source of strength. In this respect, the privately controlled colleges have a real responsibility to provide for community interests, unless they are willing to aid in the development of public institutions to serve the needs they are unable to meet. There is no more reason for a private junior college to object to the establishment of a public community college in the same community than there is for an academy to object to a free public high school. The interests of all youth must be provided for in one institution or another. Moreover, the increasing costs at privately controlled colleges create a situation of considerable concern. The solution seems to be in the enlargement of endowments for scholarships for those students who are unable to pay the increasing costs. Just as public community colleges require a broad district tax base and a sufficient population for ample enrollments, the private colleges need the support of a large and generous constituency as a base

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 361.

for financial and student-personnel support. If they are unable to effect these ends, the consequences are not difficult to foresee.

Issues Concerning the Curriculum

Almost without a single exception, the eighteen authorities whose opinions were consulted listed the curriculum as a real issue. It is significant that of the thirteen urgent needs of American education stated in the annual report of Dr. Willard E. Givens, secretary of the National Education Association, in 1946, nine relate to the problems of the curriculum: adult education, some fundamental skill for a vocation, health and physical education, good citizenship, understanding and appreciation of races and religions, worthy home membership, constructive use of leisure, spiritual and ethical values, expansion of school and college training for science and technical knowledge.[6] Under one category or several, such as general education, the further extension of adult programs, vocational and technical education integrated with broader areas of learning for home life, citizenship, and personal competency, and the complete reform of programs suitable to the needs of what is known as the middle 50 per cent of students were emphasized by all eighteen authorities. Speaking before the National Association of Secondary-school Principals, 1949, Dr. William R. Wood,[7] then director, Evanston Township Community College, Evanston, Illinois, stated that the middle 50 per cent constituted "the common denominator of society, and we have tended to ignore them."

Everywhere it becomes more apparent day by day that the stability of our nation and of the world state rests directly upon what we can do to develop within this middle group the greatest possible number of well-informed, highly productive, personally and socially adjusted citizens. The old ways of attempting to teach them will not do the

[6] *Our Children,* Annual Report of the Secretary. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1946. Condensation.

[7] Wood, William R. "What Are the Trends in Junior College Education?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals,* May, 1949, 33(163):110. (Dr. Wood is now Junior College Specialist, U.S. Office of Education.)

job. New methods, new techniques, new approaches, and new materials must be devised. By this time it has been well demonstrated that any watering down of old-line academic college courses is a waste of time, just as it has been shown repeatedly that it is completely ridiculous to think of training vast numbers of young people in some specific skilled trade or occupation.

Somehow in our thinking we have failed to recognize that the middle 50 per cent of high-school graduates, and probably a large share of the upper 25 per cent as well, are not in any sense potential professional timber. We have failed to comprehend likewise that they are not material for those occupations requiring a high degree of manipulatory skill or specialized talent. On the contrary, they are future recreational leaders, hotel and restaurant managers, life insurance salesmen, real-estate salesmen, photographers, aviators, department managers, buyers, owners of small businesses of every description, semitechnical and semiprofessional workers. They are also our future holders of public offices. Working out a satisfactory program of higher education for them is big business—the biggest in the land. Certainly it is that phase of American education that in the years immediately ahead should, and must, receive the greatest possible emphasis.

Dr. Ingalls [8] asks: "How can we provide more effective occupational training for competency in occupations of the semiprofessional type to match the effectiveness of our work in preprofessional areas?" In his presidential address at Kansas City, Missouri, February, 1948, Dr. Eugene Farley [9] said to the national convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges:

We can no longer neglect those thousands who have heretofore been denied opportunity for self-improvement because of the economic condition of their parents or the geographic location of their homes. . . . We cannot place our reliance in traditional patterns. They are too narrow in their viewpoint or too general in their objective. They create technicians with real skill but limited vision, or men of great vision but limited skill. To meet the challenge that confronts us, we must combine vision and skill so that men may translate their visions

[8] Ingalls, Rosco C. "The American Association of Junior Colleges." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* March, 1947, 22(3):173.

[9] Farley, Eugene S. "Junior Colleges and World Crisis." *Junior College Journal,* May, 1948, 18(9):487.

into great achievements. . . . In these critical times the junior colleges occupy a strategic position. No other institution can so readily expand its services to small cities or to scattered populations. No other institution is so little bound by tradition and so ready to adjust its program to new demands. These colleges will inevitably expand, but the effectiveness of their expansion depends on the ability of junior-college educators to extend the vision and to broaden the horizons of those who come to them seeking opportunity for development and service.

Speaking on essentially the same theme in 1949 at the national convention in San Francisco, Mr. Leland L. Medsker,[10] dean, Wright Junior College, Chicago, then president of the Association said:

If we are to assume that students will come to junior colleges in increasing numbers and that many of them will not transfer to higher institutions, we shall have to think seriously about meeting the needs of these students. This certainly is not a new philosophy or a new statement, but in terms of the trend toward democratizing education through grades 13 and 14, it must receive a new emphasis. This emphasis will involve not only occupational training but also general education, in both of which areas we have talked much but done relatively little. The fact of the matter is that our friends in four-year colleges and universities are, seemingly, making more rapid progress than we in the development of integrated core curriculums to meet the general-education needs of students. . . . Would it be embarrassing to ask this audience what we have done? Have we been so busy taking care of the veterans and adhering to the various preprofessional requirements of the students who said they were going on that we have made little progress in real curriculum planning?

In a pamphlet issued in May, 1949, for the newly established State University of New York,[11] there was this announcement:

The university is also at work on a master plan for the so-called community-college program for the entire state. The community colleges, to be financed partially by the state and partially by the local com-

[10] Medsker, Leland L. "Between Two Decades in the Association." *Junior College Journal*, May, 1949, 19(9):497–498.

[11] The State University of New York. "The State University of New York." Albany 1, N.Y.: State Education Building, 1949. Pamphlet, p. 4.

munity, are intended to provide two years of post-high-school education, either as a terminal course or leading to completion of the normal four-year college course. It is the aim of the university program to provide at least two years of college training within a reasonable distance from the home of most qualified high-school graduates of the state.

New York State has now the best chance to develop the right kind of services through these community colleges of any state in the nation. The state was given generous funds and outstanding personnel with which to make a scientific survey; it has the facts. The State University has a strong board of trustees with Dr. Oliver C. Carmichael as chairman, and the leadership of Dr. Alvin C. Eurich as president of the university. State educational leadership is an established practice. The state has money, and appropriations from this source are fully expected. In addition, agricultural and technical institutes, and institutes of applied arts and sciences, as well as the Fashion Institute of Technology, have been established at thirteen centers and one of them has been in existence since 1933. If those who are responsible for the development of curricula in the community colleges will build programs realistically in response to community and state needs, New York can set the pace for curriculum reform in community colleges. The answer to the critical issue of the curriculum will probably come from bold experimentations in states like New York, California, and Texas, endowed with finances and personnel who will take considered risks with these programs, train the right kind of staff and teaching personnel, and create teaching materials with which to do the job. It is foolish to discuss curriculum reform unless at the same time provisions are made to secure people who are wholeheartedly committed to it and who have the right kind of materials at hand to use effectively.

In 1942 the *Report on the Present Program of General Education in California Public Junior Colleges*[12] made some rather severe statements:

[12] Condensed by Grace V. Bird, in "General Education in Junior Colleges." *California Journal of Secondary Education,* March, 1947, 22(3):159.

There is no great understanding on the part of administrators of junior colleges as to what general education means.

There is no program of general education common to junior colleges except that which is required by the state board of education.

Some institutions stand out from the crowd because of their development of good programs of general education, but they are the exception rather than the rule.

Leadership is necessary to carry to maturity the program of developing a core curriculum in general education. It is hoped that the state department of education will furnish the leadership necessary to make general education a reality.

The state legislature of Texas in 1949 enacted that junior colleges should offer at least 40 per cent of their programs of study and training in so-called terminal fields before they could qualify for state aid. Either the community colleges themselves will set their houses in order with respect to curriculum reforms or it will be done for them by other agencies; enactments of other agencies, like the Texas legislature, are likely to have teeth in them. It is fairly clear what ought to be done; it can be done; there is widespread conviction that it must be done. Community colleges must strike out boldly, demonstrate that they are not bound by tradition or the desire to ape senior colleges for the sake of a totally false notion of academic respectability, and do the job.

If community colleges, however, are likely to absorb a large share of the greatly expanding enrollments, they must be able to carry out their university-parallel work and do it fully as well as or even better than it is now being done in senior institutions. The high quality of their work must not be bogged down. To educate the masses does not mean that they must be educated en masse. Students who must live at home for the first two years of their college education must not be sold short on the quality of their instruction. Closer and more continuous cooperation at this point will be required between community and senior colleges to relieve the former of attempts to fit lower division patterns into the various and sundry types of upper division requirements of the former. Narrow departmental dictation in senior institutions will kill the effectiveness of the community colleges. It will be

done more surely than senior colleges have, in former times, killed the effectiveness of high schools as community institutions.

Paul B. Diederich,[13] associate professor of English and examiner in the college of the University of Chicago, writes regarding the new entrance requirements:

> The only requirement for entrance to this college is that students be able to read, write, and think a good deal better than most students are now able to do. It feels justified in this requirement because, after testing everything imaginable over a period of fifteen years, it has discovered that simple tests of these three abilities have a higher correlation with marks in all courses than any other measure it has ever devised and that no amount of checking up on the fulfillment of the standard entrance requirements has anything like this correlation.

Referring to the Eight-year Study, especially the results as published in the fourth volume entitled *Did They Succeed in College?* [14] Dr. Diederich [15] makes this emphatic statement: "Our system of public secondary schools, therefore, is in the grip of a standard curriculum which is based on the fundamental premise that the pursuit of certain prescribed studies is essential to success in college. It has been proved, as completely as anything in life is ever proved, that this premise is false."

The Issue of the Right Kind of Teachers

The heading of this section emphasizes *the right kind* of teachers for community colleges. This is the critical issue. Frank B. Lindsay, assistant superintendent of public instruction and chief of the Division of Secondary Education in California, has been in a strategic position for seventeen years to observe the force of this issue. His matured judgment [16] should be worth serious consideration by community colleges:

[13] Diederich, Paul B. "The Abolition of Subject Requirements for Admission to College." *The School Review*, September, 1949, 57(7):364.

[14] Chamberlin, Dean, *et al. Did They Succeed in College? Adventure in American Education.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942. Vol. IV.

[15] Diederich, *op. cit.*, p. 369.

[16] Lindsay, Frank B. "California Junior Colleges: Past and Present." *California Journal of Secondary Education*, March, 1947, 22(3):140–141.

No amount of curriculum planning or abundance of instructional materials can compensate for teachers who are live human beings, aware of the habits and attitudes of older adolescents and younger adults, able to mobilize and focus the emotional and intellectual energies of students, well-experienced in their teaching fields and ever growing in knowledge and enthusiasm for the acquisition and utilization of more. A junior college that apes a university does the university no service. It is precisely because junior colleges can do for their students what no university can dream of attempting, except for a favored and selected few, that junior colleges justify their existence. The junior college has been invented to make it possible at reasonable costs to bring superior education, precedent to advanced specialization and adult living, within reach of the many who can profit largely therefrom. . . .

With the world sick unto death from lack of ideas in the social fields and urgently needing great scientists and mathematicians to bring the ravening forces of biology and physics under control for ends of human betterment, no school maintained at public expense dare relax its efforts to detect and unshackle any competent mind when that mind may within a decade save civilization. . . .

Every junior college must stand fast as a moral bulwark in its community. Its instructors are not dedicated to wrest new secrets of undiscovered truth. Their purpose in life must be to make clear the eternal principles of nature and of human nature to the young and old in their community who will listen. For this mission, they must search their hearts and minds to sift principles from prejudices and translate the shibboleths of learning into understandable and compelling conduct. That is why junior-college teachers must be, first of all, great men and women. Unless their personalities radiate enlightenment and their behavior point direction, how will a bewildered and frightened generation find sure ground upon which to stand or advance? . . . The supreme task of the junior colleges is to make knowledge come alive in the beliefs and behaviors of men and women. To assemble and to develop great teachers who can transmute ideal truth into convictions and conduct is the challenge to junior-college administrators.

It may be stimulating as well as enlightening to view the right kind of teachers from the standpoint of organized labor. Speaking at the convention of junior colleges in Kansas City, Missouri,

in 1948, Dr. Kermit Eby,[17] then director of the Department of Research and Education of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, now a member of the faculty of the University of Chicago, declared: "Labor wants what all men want: more of the opportunities to cultivate our better natures, to make manhood more noble, womanhood more beautiful, and childhood more happy and bright." To attain these objectives both in schools and in workers' education, he stated that the teacher

is all-important. No technique can take his place. Nor is there any substitute for the give-and-take of honest discussion. Today we need more and better teachers. Labor needs hundreds of teachers who can interpret the complexities of modern life to those they teach. The ability to teach, we are convinced, is as important as the knowledge of what is to be taught. It is common experience that many a technician is a poor teacher. . . . Teachers who do not live, who are not active citizens, can never really be great teachers. They only teach by rote, those who shun the life they try to interpret. Once when teaching government to fifty-seven teachers of civics from Chicago high schools, I learned that only nine knew the ward precinct in which they lived. Citizenship was an art they never practiced. . . . The great teacher lives his ideals more eloquently than mere words can ever express them.

Again, it may be well to look at this issue through the eyes of the Conference on the Preparation of Instructors for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes[18] which worked under the sponsorship of the American Council on Education. *Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges* is the arresting title under which the findings of the conference were published in 1949. The issue, however, is not mainly in the numbers but rather in the kind of instructors that are demanded:

The forthright title of this bulletin seeks to be initially selective concerning kinds as well as numbers. It is addressed to able men and women in and out of colleges who do not shy away from the language and ways of everyday business—who can find satisfaction in careers in

[17] Eby, Kermit. "General Education for Economic Well-being." *Junior College Journal*, May, 1948, 18(9):506, 510–511.

[18] *Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. 3 and 8.

which they will be expected to identify themselves actively with whole working communities, as well as qualify for membership in a professional community. For unquestionably the greatest demand and greatest opportunities will be in publicly controlled community junior colleges and technical institutes closely identified with whole working communities—"Community colleges . . . community-centered, community-serving," as the President's Commission conceives of them. A new kind of college career is in the making. . . .

In short, this is a job for forthright, stouthearted men and women, with certain traits—willing to step outside traditional academic circles in an important cause, not afraid of pioneer confusions and growing pains, or of temporary "junior" status, or of the direct speech of the factory, the farm, the store, the newspaper office, or the city hall.

The author may be pardoned for making a personal reference on this issue. During the summer of 1949, his son, who had just completed his junior year at the university, secured a rather menial job for the vacation period. After a few weeks, he wrote to his parents that he was thinking of quitting. His aim in life is to become a teacher of social science. This fact had some bearing on correspondence which followed, but not altogether so. The suggestions would, in all probability, have been given under other circumstances. The contents of the letter may set forth a conclusion regarding one of the solutions for training the right kind of teachers for community colleges:

Dear Son:

This letter is probably not worth three cents, but we are investing that much to send it to you. It offers a suggestion or two which may interest you but which you may not regard as of value. You are a man and have had the advantage of fifteen years of schooling, including three at the university. You will be able to pass judgment, therefore, on suggestions relative to their worth to you and your future work as a teacher of social science.

Your aversion to crude jokes is entirely understandable and appreciated. Your Mother's influence with respect to a clean mind has chastened your thoughts and speech from childhood. The use of the English language and attitudes of those with whom you are working are doubtless somewhat in contrast to what you have experienced in the academic circles of the university. There is no intention here of

criticizing your good taste for speech and manners. That is all to the good.

Perhaps, however, the experience of older persons who have been through the school of "hard knocks" to a limited extent may be worth considering. Your Mother and Father had the advantage of university education, but it came by effort and sometimes with a degree of personal sacrifice. You may recall that your Mother's Father died when she was a small child and later her Mother passed away and left her alone in the world. Probably, your Father never told you that he started to make his way in life at the age of thirteen by working on a farm at a wage of ten cents a day, plus board and room. Later, during university years, he worked among the lumberjacks of northern Wisconsin, the cowboys and coal miners of Wyoming, railroad workers of Denison, Texas, deep-sea fishermen off the coast of Maine, and as a house-to-house salesman of aluminum utensils. It's all beside the point to recount these interesting experiences except for one idea: These common folks, most of whom never expected to rise much above the level of daily hard work, taught him more about human nature, how to understand other people, many of his own shortcomings, and some of the hard but true principles of living, than he ever learned from books or in any classroom. These experiences gave him an appreciation of the problems of people who must always earn their living by the sweat of their faces. There are a lot of these people; they are important in our democratic society; you will have to understand and deal with them in your work. Any study of social science which does not bring you in close contact with people, about whom much of social science is supposedly written, will cheat you of a well-rounded education. May not your work-experience now be an interesting and challenging part of this education you are seeking?

Naturally we are delighted that you are taking advantage of some leisure time for reading. We agree with you that Douglas Freeman's *Life of Washington* is a definite work. Schlesinger's *Paths to the Present* which you have read, De Tocqueville's *Democracy in America,* and *The American Iliad* by Eisenschiml and Newman will be valuable. Your Mother mailed you a copy of A. N. Whitehead's *Aims of Education* which she bought at the Harvard Co-op. We are very proud of your interest in reading books that are worth while.

However, if we may return to the main point of this three-cent letter, it is possible for a person's mind to become like the Dead Sea if it merely takes in all the while and never has a sufficient outlet. Knowledge tends to become wisdom when it is distilled in our own

thinking and shared with others with whom we associate. Unobtrusively and in simple offhand manner and language, it might be the best of training to try to impart a little of your learning now and then to those who have been less fortunate. In just casual and natural contacts, it might be surprising to hear the straightforward way in which some of the less-educated people would give back their versions of misty academic thinking in the rain and hail of homespun language.

The young man stuck to his job. When he returned home at the end of the summer, he said: "They were perfectly wonderful people. Some of the best I ever met in my whole life!" Besides, he had some hard money in his pockets with which to pay a considerable part of his way through his senior year. Social science had come to life more than ever before in his experiences. Dr. Herrick T. Bawden,[19] State Teachers College, Frostburg, Maryland, states the matter in this manner:

Human behavior is not greatly changed by the intellectual toying with the verbal symbols of experience; but rather by dynamic adjustments to the tested realities of experience. Our education needs more to emphasize the vital adjustments of life than merely to isolate truth, look at it, remember it, and forget it. It is the essential significance, interpretation, and utilization of truth which must become the burden of our curriculum and our methods of teaching. It is the task of the school to utilize truth, to employ it as an agent of instruction rather than an end. Truth must be made to live.

Dr. Ordway Tead,[20] president, Board of Higher Education, New York City, writing in the *Harvard Educational Review*, March, 1944, on "The Junior College Contribution," states:

It is not that he (the junior-college teacher) loves his subject less but that he loves the effective imparting of it more, and included in this purpose is the sense a teacher obtains that the student is successfully interrelating his academic courses with his total outlook and interests, including the vocational.

The teacher's sense of the true character of the learning process will thus tend to be more realistic and vital than is, unfortunately, often

[19] Bawden, Herrick T. "Making Truth Live." *The Maryland Teacher*, September, 1949, 7(1):11.

[20] Tead, Ordway. "The Junior College Contribution." *Harvard Educational Review*, March, 1944, 14(2):124.

found true in a senior college. Less reliance on verbal glibness, a less narrowly intellectual emphasis, a deliberate effort to enrich the emotional life, a greater eagerness to extend the students' guided experience of learning beyond the classroom—these are among the touchstones of good junior-college teaching.

No amount of academic training alone will supply some of these qualities for teachers in community colleges. If the interests, needs, aspirations, problems, and purposes of the people are to be understood and education related vitally to them, teachers must have, in addition to all other qualities and experiences, close contact with the people of the community—all sorts and conditions of people. They cannot get this experience from books, no matter how vicarious it may be.

The Critical Issue of Student Personnel

When this book was being planned, it was strongly suggested that a chapter be devoted to student-personnel problems. The author felt, however, that the subject was so extensive and many of the techniques so specialized that it should be treated by those who are expert in this field of work. It is hoped that this omission may not leave the impression that student-personnel programs in community colleges are of less significance than some others that have been treated more extensively; quite the contrary. The fact that, for the most part, students are completing their formal education at the end of two years in community colleges demands not only a comprehensive program but its intensity and thoroughness must be increased because of the time element. Moreover, the various objectives of these colleges provide a rather wide field for exploration in academic and vocational aims. Some students come to junior colleges with no thought of continuing their education beyond two years, but who should by all the tokens of promise continue their studies. Others enroll with high aspirations of getting into big-name colleges or of going to professional schools. Sometimes they enter the community college under the false notion that it is a sort of backdoor to the senior college. It is true that considerable numbers of students

who have previously shown no great promise by academic achievement really come to life in the community college under the motivation that it is now or never—it's something of a last chance for them.

The critical problem, however, remains in counseling and guiding many of these young men and women into fields of learning and training suitable to their abilities. This is a difficult task, not merely to discover what the ability is, but to counsel these students that some alternative life objective is suitable and worthy, and to do so against years of their expectations and ambitious parents' wishing and urging. The problem of guidance, therefore, becomes one aimed at the integrity of the student's personality; the preservation of his sense of values; the maintenance of his self-respect and dignity—certainly the prevention of the disintegrating and destructive power of frustrations.

If the community college recognizes the fact of individual differences and attempts to do something about it, this recognition will demand an organized and well-financed program of personnel services. It is difficult to believe that any professional educator can fail to make this admission of fact; it is more difficult to understand why neglect should be allowed when the fact is admitted. The general principle that expert professional personnel is needed to carry out the program satisfactorily is relevant to the critical issue. The task is one that is time consuming, because proper counseling and guidance, like diagnostic practices by the medical physician, cannot be done en masse. It is an individualized, personalized undertaking. While specially prepared persons must direct the work of testing, guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up, the work must be understood by all instructors and other personnel whose sympathetic cooperation may be relied upon at all times. Ruth Strang, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, recently stated the case with respect to rural guidance. She said that there are nearly a half million more children in the rural areas of America than there are in the urban. "Teachers' attitudes and understanding of children and youth underlie all guidance services." Professor Strang quotes a significant statement from Daniel Prescott, di-

rector, Institute of Child Study, made in 1949 at the convention of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations: [21]

> Good guidance practices involve a genuine and deep psychological acceptance of each child—an unshakable belief that each child is valuable no matter what he looks like, no matter what his I.Q. is, and how he behaves; and, along with that, a recognition of the fact that the child's behavior is very largely caused by a series of forces operating upon him and within him which by their interaction make him do what he does.

The general principle of the teacher's understanding applies not alone to rural areas but wherever there are people to be understood and counseled—in community colleges of all types and kinds. The critical issues, therefore, cannot be sharply separated into watertight compartments. All are interrelated in the total life of the college. Much of what may be regarded as an issue with respect to personnel services has direct bearing on the kind of teachers community colleges need. Many a program of personnel services has broken down because the right kind of teachers were not secured or they were not informed of the program and their sympathetic cooperation enlisted. Preregistration conferences and in-service meetings should be valuable in helping to achieve desirable results.

The author recently discussed the matter of the personnel program with the director of one of America's leading universities. He was looking for another job. He stated that there was no plan to implement the services of his department throughout the work of the university. He felt that a large part of his efforts were dissipated from lack of coordinated planning—they simply went like the proverbial water into the sand. Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, approached the matter of its various services in 1948 by democratic self-analysis. Administration, faculty, and students—all shared in the evaluations. One of the findings was significant. While it was generally agreed that some things were being done well and some poorly in all areas, it was stated that there was need for the "accumulation of more ade-

[21] Strang, Ruth. "Some Current Developments in Rural Guidance." *NEA Journal*, September, 1949, 38(6):428.

quate pupil data in order to help pupils plan more wisely their program of studies." *High School Youth Look at Their Problems,* the recent report of a study by L. J. Elias, State College of Washington, with 5,500 high-school students in the state, 4,500 of whom were seniors, found that 40 per cent of the students felt that there was no one in their school who had the ability to help them in making a choice of a vocation.[22] Regardless of the principles and needs that may be clearly recognized, some plan for continuous, or even intermittent, evaluation would be helpful to all institutions.

When the college makes a self-portrait with respect to student-personnel services, there are a few questions among many that it should ask: (1) In addition to the student's high-school transcript, what do we know about him as an individual, his habits of study, his interests, abilities, motivations, associates, how he spends his leisure time, his extracurricular activities, family income, and family relationships; (2) do we have the accumulated data on test scores with the continuous estimates of his abilities and problems made by his teachers and others who have been responsible for his education; (3) does he have any emotionally blocking conflicts, in ethical standards or religious beliefs, in his social adjustments, in regard to his health, his vocational objectives; (4) does he have a reasonable sense of security, financially or otherwise; (5) what about the student's eyesight, his hearing, speech, or any other physical disabilities that need special attention; (6) does he know *how* to use the library, *how* to take notes effectively and organize them for future use, *how* to study in the various disciplines? These are only a few of the suggested questions that the college might ask.

There are other issues that should be raised: (1) Is our testing program effective and what are the correlations between scores made in these tests and the student's record of achievement; (2) do we have an orientation program that is practical and helpful, or does the student think of it as a waste of time; (3) do we offer additional tests to discover possible occupational abilities or to steer the student away from fields of work in which he would

[22] Elias, L. J. *High School Youth Look at Their Problems.* Pullman, Wash.: College Bookstore, State College of Washington, 1949.

have great difficulty; (4) how effective is our counseling program with respect to student confidence; (5) to what extent do we advise and cooperate in placing students for further education or for job entrance—not just any place but the right student in the right place; (6) do we have a continuous and effective follow-up program for all students—those who drop out of college, those who continue their education, those who go to work; (7) do we make comprehensive reports to the college on findings in follow-up studies regarding defects in offerings and methods?

The Student Personnel Committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges in cooperation with the director of research has, since 1946, made studies regarding the actual practices of junior colleges in student-personnel services. In 1947 a rather comprehensive schedule of inquiry was mailed to approximately 650 colleges. Following the tabulation of 320 replies, and their evaluations by the Personnel Committee, three articles (by Dr. J. Anthony Humphreys, Dr. William A. Black, and Mrs. Charlotte D. Meinecke) were published in the *Junior College Journal.* The observations of the Committee should be considered seriously by every community college. Dr. J. Anthony Humphreys's evaluations [23] are as follows:

1. The head or the assistant head of the junior college carries too much responsibility for detailed operation of the student-personnel services.

2. Student-personnel service is recognized by too few institutions as one of the major functions in the actual operation of the junior college.

3. Qualified personnel workers, employed on a full-time basis in that function alone, should be used to a much greater degree than they are at present. The importance of the function and the opportunities for service to students justify the expenditure of money. Too little consecutive attention is given to this work by specially trained personnel.

4. Many junior colleges might well arrange to assign to the registrar a larger measure of responsibility in the operation of the program of student-personnel service. Because of the wealth of records, actual

[23] Humphreys, J. Anthony. "Facts Concerning Student Personnel Programs." *Junior College Journal,* September, 1948, 19(1):13.

and potential, in the hands of the registrar, his department is strategically placed to carry on personnel work.

5. The separate type of junior college, private and public, is failing to use its personnel functionaries in the articulation of the high-school and the junior-college years. Even the associational type of institution is not adequately living up to its opportunities in this respect.

6. Too few junior colleges are offering programs of orientation of first-year students. In some which do report this activity, the program is inadequate in content and extent.

7. Public junior colleges are failing to use social activities as a device in the orientation of freshman students.

Dr. William A. Black [24] makes this observation:

Present-day philosophy of student-personnel services considers that functionaries should know, within reason, all that it is possible to know about students. If the necessary information is to be obtained, a much closer articulation between high schools and colleges in student-personnel services is a necessity. While in this study the reports of many of the colleges reflect weak programs, respondents indicate that they are taking the initiative for coordinating junior-college and high-school activities.

Mrs. Charlotte D. Meinecke [25] points out that,

If the recommendations of the President's Commission on Higher Education are eventually carried out and community junior colleges are established throughout the country, there will be still more thousands of young people for whose future the junior colleges will be largely responsible. Such a nationwide increase in community junior colleges will immediately bring added problems in vocational counseling and in placement. The interests and abilities of the majority of the students in these colleges will undoubtedly be nonacademic. Thus it will become vitally important for counselors and placement functionaries to obtain a comprehensive and up-to-date knowledge of conditions in all occupations. It will not be sufficient merely to help a student discover whether he is fitted by interest, ability, and personality for the occupation which he wishes to enter. It will be neces-

[24] Black, William A. "Student Personnel Relationships of High School and Junior College." *Junior College Journal*, November, 1948, 19(3):150.

[25] Meinecke, Charlotte Drummond. "Placement and Follow-up in Junior Colleges." *Junior College Journal*, October, 1948, 19(2):66–67.

sary to know whether there is room for him or need for him in that occupation. Many professions and occupations are already overcrowded and may well become dangerously so through the lack of intelligent counseling.

It may be seen, then, that student-personnel services in the community college constitute such an extensive and technical field, as was stated at the beginning of this section, that expert attention is required for adequate treatment. The issue is not alone one of efficiency; it is a moral issue that goes to the heart of the ethical practices in education from the time the student is first contacted until contacts are no longer possible. Clear recognition of the student as a *person,* the philosophy of individual differences, the claims of personalized education, and the responsibility of the college to advise, counsel, and guide students into fields of worthy service and fruitful living where talent, skills, and interest may be matched with opportunity must be made; otherwise, the college must assume the risk of society's harsh judgment that may approach a verdict of moral turpitude. This is a hard saying, but it is worthy of all acceptation. The author anticipates the retort—the lack of money and understanding of need on the part of those who control the college! This critical issue applies to public colleges, as Dr. Frank B. Lindsay indicates,[26] and it applies with equal force to all colleges:

> A critical issue in public education, especially at the junior-college level, is the maintenance of adequate administrative services to enable high-priced teachers to do a superb job of instruction. Too frequently, every effort is made to minimize administrative costs under the delusion that expenditures, other than those for instructional salaries and materials, represent a loss to the district. How little do they know of administration who conceive it to be the mere keeping of grade records and accounts. The most wasteful procedure that a district can follow is to employ a competent executive at a salary which he can command and then sentence him in the performance of routine and clerical tasks.

It is imperative that the critical issue of personnel services be met. They can only be performed adequately by professional

[26] Lindsay, *op. cit.*

persons whose interests are centered in the welfare of the student as a person from the time he is contacted and accepted as a member of the college community until the college can no longer be of service to him.

The Issue of Legislation

It is sometimes thought that the issue of legislation applies to publicly controlled community colleges only. This notion is entirely erroneous. All colleges operate, in one way or another, under legislative provisions of some kind at the local, state, or national levels, or all three—by charter, acts, appropriations, and by court decisions. Privately controlled institutions are not extralegal, even though they may receive no public funds or fall within the supervision of public educational officials to the extent of those supported by taxation. These statements are made because there are times when officials in privately controlled colleges assume that the functions of legislation are of little concern to them. All professional educators should be interested in sound legislation in behalf of civic welfare. The right kind of education in America should be a vital issue for all citizens; how much more for those whose lives have been committed to its leadership.

As an example of the real force of law in the affairs of an institution, a recent ruling of the supreme court of Pennsylvania, Eastern District, may be cited. The opinion of the court was filed March 21, 1949, re: appeal of the Township of Abington and the School District of Abington Township from the order of the Board for the Assessment and Revision of Taxes, exempting the Ogontz School from taxation. The opinion covers nearly seventeen closely typed pages. The decision could have far-reaching repercussions.

"For the Ogontz School to obtain the claimed exemption from taxation it must be affirmatively shown that it is 'an institution of purely public charity . . . founded, endowed, and maintained by public or private charity.'" The Ogontz School is organized as a nonprofit educational institution. It provides scholarships equal to about 10 per cent of the total fees paid by all the students. Many other schools do the same. The opinion of the

court,[27] however, with respect to this practice should be noted: "It is obvious that the scholarships are maintained out of the payments made by the vast majority of the students who pay the full fees charged them. Therefore, these paying students instead of being the beneficiaries of a public charity are really maintaining a private charity to the extent that their fees are used in part to pay for the free scholarships nominally 'given' by the school."

The court further states that, "A judicial desire to be liberal toward institutions which are doing praiseworthy public work has sometimes led the courts to invest the word 'charity,' as used in the above excerpt of the Constitution, with a meaning not warranted either lexicologically or by a consideration of the ideology of the constitutional provision invoked." The definition of "charity" is then given from the Webster's *New International Dictionary, Second Edition*, with this implication: [28] "Under this definition the characteristics of an organized charity are: First, whatever it does for others is done free of charge, or at least so nearly free of charge as to make the charges nominal or negligible; second, that those to whom it renders help or services are those who are unable to provide themselves with what the institution provides for them, that is, they are legitimate subjects of charity."

Perhaps the court's trend in thinking [29] may be gathered from the following statements:

Every wage earner and every property owner feels the burden of taxation growing constantly heavier. Millions of American income producers are now forced to pay each year in the form of direct and indirect taxes nearly half of their income for the support of national, state, and local governments. The heavier the burden of taxation becomes the more exigent is the demand for its equitable distribution. All those whose persons and property receive the protection of government should bear their just share of its cost unless the law specifically exempts them from doing so. To exempt an institution from paying for the protection it receives means that other property own-

[27] In the Sup. Ct. Pa. E. D. 14 and 15 (Jan., 1949). Appeal from order of the Ct. C. Pl. Montgomery Co. 18 (Feb., 1946). P. 4.

[28] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

[29] *Ibid.*, p. 17.

ers, already taxed for their own and their property's protection, must also pay for the protection given that exempted institution and its property.

Here is a critical legal issue. If the courts generally throughout the country sustain decisions to tax privately controlled organizations and institutions, except those that fall within the interpretation of "charity" of Webster's *New International Dictionary, Second Edition,* it is difficult to see how very many of them can escape. The implications of the decision of the supreme court of Pennsylvania should at least finally convince some educators in privately controlled nonprofit institutions that legislation and its interpretations by the courts are matters of very vital concern to them.

Albert G. Duke's [30] study at Syracuse University of legislation in the forty-eight states, as of June, 1947, found that "On the whole it appears that junior-college legislation tends, because of the complexity of regulations concerning establishment and inadequacy of financial support, to restrict rather than encourage the development of the junior-college movement."

Dr. Leonard V. Koos,[31] writing in *The School Review,* September, 1949, on "Essentials in State-wide Community-college Planning," states: "The unsolved problems at all school levels require policies of continuing research in state educational offices. However, *entrance of a state on what is for it a new educational venture like the community college calls for unusual investigative attention in the state supervisory office to numerous phases and issues in the whole wide post-high-school area.*" Dr. Koos then states [32] that there are at least six critical areas that should be under continuous inquiry:

(1) Intensive investigations of the need for, and promise of success of, community colleges in individual districts, investigations which would take into account the possibilities of community-college service

[30] Duke, Albert G. "Public Junior College Legislation in the Forty-eight States as of June 1947." Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University, Graduate School of Education. Master's thesis, June, 1948. P. 107.

[31] Koos, Leonard V. "Essentials in State-wide Community-college Planning." *The School Review,* September, 1949, 57(7):351.

[32] *Ibid.,* pp. 351–352.

by existing institutions; (2) investigation of the possibilities of consolidation of districts that will encourage community-college development in areas with districts now too small to warrant establishing such institutions; (3) inquiry into the extent of the need for subsistence allowances for prospective students with residences beyond commuting distance from community colleges and the amount of the allowance needed by individual students and in the state as a whole; (4) investigation of occupational opportunities at the post-high-school level but of less than professional grade, findings of which will aid in developing terminal vocational curricula; (5) investigations that will help community colleges in the development of suitable programs of general education; and (6) investigations relating to student-personnel programs and services that are indispensable to effective community-college programs.

A FINAL WORD

The community-college movement is merely at the threshold of its greatest possibilities. It is pioneering, experimenting, trying to find the right answers and directions. It is full of problems; only a few of the more critical ones have been listed in this book. The solution of these problems seems to be in the general direction the movement has been trying to travel in recent years. Continuing answers to each problem, however, can be found only through thorough research in every state and community, in further experimentation with the findings of research; above all else, in the open mind and the will to explore.

Appendix. THE INFLUENCE OF ALEXIS F. LANGE

One of the truly great educational philosophers whose teachings have influenced the growth and direction of the community-college movement was Alexis F. Lange. It has been considered wise to publish in this book a short biography of this educator whose ideas and ideals provided much of the fertile soil for the rapid expansion of junior-college education, especially in California. In addition, the author expresses his appreciation for the privilege of publishing five of Dr. Lange's papers on the junior college. These papers have been arranged in order of their chronological sequence.

The author has referred his students in junior-college education to the writings of Dr. Lange. Universal approval has been expressed by his students for these assignments. The papers of Dr. Lange on the junior college carry both historical value and philosophical wisdom. It is quite possible that the general principles they contain may not have universal approval. It is not with this thought in mind that they are being presented at this time. They are thought-provoking, however, and looking backward through the years, their prophetic insights into the nature of the future movement of the community college are highly refreshing.

It is with the thought that as supplementary reading they may prove valuable that they are published in this appendix. The author is deeply indebted to Dr. Herman Spindt, registrar, University of California at Berkeley, for valuable assistance in securing data on the life of Dr. Lange, and to Henry Joseph Aigner, a graduate student at the University of California, for assembling and presenting the data.

Alexis Frederick Lange (1862–1924)

By Henry Joseph Aigner

The early history of the junior-college movement can be understood adequately only if one knows something of the men—William Rainey Harper, David Starr Jordan, and Alexis Frederick Lange—who in their writing and educational activity did so much to initiate and support the movement.

The role that Presidents Harper and Jordan played in the growth of the junior college is familiar to all; the work of Alexis Lange in advancing the cause of the junior college, especially in California, is not so well known.

Scholar, teacher, administrator, and philosopher, a pillar of strength in the University of California English faculty from 1890 to 1906, and professor and dean of the School of Education from 1906 to 1924, Alexis Frederick Lange was one of the key men in the growth of the University of California. His thought and influence reached beyond the confines of the university and inspired school men in their attempts to improve and reorganize secondary education in California. In so far as California practice influenced national educational development, the thought of Alexis Lange had national importance.

The significance of Dr. Lange's work resulted largely from the fact that he was pioneering in a period in which the structure of public education was being called into question, and in which new concepts of the nature, scope, organization, and purposes of secondary education were being discussed and formed. By the clarity of his thought and by the logical and practical soundness of his suggestions, he offered guidance and direction to the men actively engaged in the tasks of reorganizing the structure of the California public-school system.

Born near Lexington, Missouri, on April 23, 1862, of German parents, Alexis Lange belonged to the early generation of scholars who turned to the study of education through the indirect path of academic scholarship. From his earliest years Alexis Lange showed an interest in learning. After finishing his elementary-school studies in Watertown, Wisconsin, where the family moved soon after his birth, Alexis went to high school in Detroit, Michigan, from 1878 to 1881.

The influence of his family, especially the example and inspiration of his father, a Lutheran medical missionary, profoundly shaped the intellectual development of Alexis F. Lange. It was from those sources that the young man gained a sincere respect for the dignity

and educational worth of manual labor, a deep patriotism, and the elements of a sound classical education. The later writings and the lifelong efforts of Alexis Lange to improve the art and the science of education reflect those characteristics.

In 1882 Alexis Lange enrolled in the Division of Literature, Science, and Arts of the University of Michigan. While at Michigan, Lange showed unusual ability in the study of philology, majoring in German language and literature. As minors he chose English and pedagogy. He studied pedagogy under Professor W. H. Payne, first professor of education at the University of Michigan. Under the "university system" which had been introduced at Michigan in 1883, he proceeded directly to the master of arts degree, which he received with honors in 1885. Following his graduation from the University of Michigan, Alexis Lange taught high-school English, Latin, and German at Racine, Wisconsin, from 1885 to 1887.

Lange's interest in philology led him to go to Germany in 1887 to pursue advanced linguistic studies at the Universities of Berlin and Marburg. Financial difficulties brought about his return to the United States in 1888 to accept President James B. Angell's offer of an instructorship in English at Michigan. He served on the faculty of the University of Michigan as an instructor in English and German from 1888 to 1890. At the same time he carried on graduate studies which culminated in a dissertation on the vowel signs and sounds in *Tottel's Miscellany* for which he received the doctorate in philosophy from the University of Michigan in 1892.

Lange's work at Michigan attracted the attention of Professor Charles Mills Gayley, who, when he was called to the chair of English at the University of California in 1889, invited his young assistant to join him on the California faculty. Alexis Lange accepted an appointment as assistant professor of English at the University of California in 1890. From that time until 1906 he remained on the English faculty serving with distinction as a teacher and as an administrator. He rose to associate professor in 1895 and to full professor in 1903. In 1906, when Professor Elmer E. Brown, who had been the first professor of education at the University of California, was called to Washington as the United States Commissioner of Education, President Benjamin Ide Wheeler asked Dr. Lange to take over the Department of Education. Professor Lange accepted and was appointed to the Chair of Education in 1906.

Although this move on the part of Dr. Lange surprised many of his academic colleagues, his change from English to Education was a

natural stage in his intellectual evolution. Many of the essays written during the years Lange was on the English faculty give clear indication of his growing interest in education as a theoretical and practical discipline. When Lange took over the direction of the Department of Education at the University of California, it was small, inadequately staffed and financed; when he died in 1924, the department had become a recognized professional school with an impressive record of leadership and service in the educational growth of California. Dr. Lange was tireless in his efforts to improve and to extend the work of the department at the university, especially in the training of teachers for the secondary schools. He insisted that sound and liberal scholarship in addition to adequate professional training was essential for the efficient high-school teacher. In large measure his efforts led to the foundation of the School of Education at the University of California in 1913. Lange served as director of the School until his appointment as dean of the School of Education in 1922.

Until the end of his life, Dean Lange worked actively for the advancement of public education in California. After his retirement from active direction of the School of Education in 1923, he continued his interest in the work at the university and in the progress of the public schools.

With the retirement of Dean Lange, the University of California School of Education passed into a new stage of its evolution. The years under Lange's directorship had been years of organization and growth, years which had witnessed, literally and figuratively, the building of a School of Education on the Berkeley campus.

Alexis Lange's death on August 28, 1924, brought to an end his tireless efforts to extend and to strengthen education, especially secondary education; but his death did not bring to an end the lasting influence of his thought and work on the men and women who came directly in contact with him as students, associates, and friends, or indirectly through reading his essays on education.

In a series of essays Dean Lange developed the concept of an integrated public educational system from the primary grades through the highest levels of university work. His principal contribution to the reorganization of secondary education was his development of the theory of the junior high school and of the junior college.

The elaboration of the basic theory of the terminal-vocational nature of the junior college and the inspiration of the men who were establishing junior colleges constituted Dean Lange's greatest contribution to the junior-college movement. In his speeches before meet-

ings of the California Teachers Association, in his classes, and in his papers, Alexis Lange sketched the blueprint and the philosophy that has guided the development of the junior college, not only in California, but in the nation, to its present position in the American educational system.

Junior College Department of Civic Education [1]

To a California school man who has seen a dozen junior colleges spring up within the last five years, it seems no longer utopian to think of, to plan, and to work for a time when each city and each county of the state will have at least one junior college; in other words, a full-grown high school. Such a consummation, however, depends largely, apart from ways and means, on how clearly the junior college becomes conscious of its mission, on how fully it finds itself and its place in a state school system in the making.

To the best of my knowledge and belief, this process implies the shaping influence of three principles of self-direction. First, the junior college must function as a middle vocational school, to meet needs, individual and social, that cannot be satisfied either by the professional departments of universities or by the lower vocational school based directly on the elementary grades. What the normal schools are doing for one calling, junior colleges must be expected to do for as many callings as training can, or should, be provided for, in the interest of the greatest efficiency of the greatest number. Secondly, the junior college must function as an organic part of a high school full-grown. As such it will vastly increase the number of those whose education for general social efficiency has been a culminal instead of a truncated one. As such it will supply what universities think they want, in the way of preparation for more preparation, only as far as the educational welfare of the minority calls for specialized procedure. Generally speaking, it is for the universities to adjust themselves to the junior colleges. Thirdly, the junior college, unhampered as yet by tradition, must heed the challenge "to do better things in better ways" and to institutionalize modern insights into the relation of the school to social progress and into the purposes and methods of instruction and training during the whole period of adolescence.

Now, this conception of the junior college, ministering to young men and women not far from the status of adult citizenship, almost

[1] Published in *School and Society* (Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1915, 2:442–448). Used by special permission of *School and Society*.

inevitably suggests a junior-college department of civic education. As a matter of fact, the organization of such a department has been urged since the first steps were taken in California to extend the four-year high school upward by two years. Hence the timeliness, I take it, of a tentative sketch of what a department of civic education might be and should do.

Its controlling purpose would be, of course, the practical one of training for the vocation of citizenship, citizenship being conceived of as an applied science. The training material would be selected and utilized as means for securing the same intelligence as to civic situations and problems, the same skill in dealing with them, the same devotion, the same pride and loyalty, that are required, *mutatis mutandis,* for the really successful practice of any vocation. Accordingly, junior-college students, on completing their course of training, should be expected to have made substantial progress in the following directions:

In the first place, they would be expected to have a better understanding of the group life of their respective social groups than mere membership and its accidental experiences can give. In other words, they would know, in an intelligent way, the social life they are in daily contact with. But as the community life of which they are a part cannot be adequately interpreted except in the light of social organization in general, they would be expected to have acquired the modern insight into the nature of society and into the intricate web of relationships that account for the family, the school, the church, the state, and the economic order, and that determine for the individual his place and opportunities in teamwork for the common good. Especially, of course, would they be expected to have a clear conception of human society organized for governmental purposes, of the foundation principles of our own democracy, and of governmental forms and procedures, local and national. Furthermore, they should have learned to view the present steadily as the outcome of the past and made the evolutional attitude of mind their own as a prerequisite to progressive action. They must have some realizing sense of the fact that democracy is neither a perfect gift of the fathers nor a present fact, but a goal more or less remote, an ideal to be realized.

In the second place, their studies and other activities must be expected to have greatly quickened their communal sympathies and deepened their sense of indissoluble oneness with their fellows. Their training will have been a failure unless the common good has become a "hot spot" of consciousness, unless they are possessed of the will to

participate vigorously, militantly, if need be, in advancing community welfare. Each junior-college graduate should carry with him not merely ideas of intelligent social and political behavior, but also the corresponding ideals, as mainsprings of action.

In the third place, junior-college graduates must be expected to have formed the habits that characterize good citizenship on a high level. This means that the civic sense, acquired unconsciously, as the mother tongue is acquired, through the associations of daily life, shall have been developed into a vivid civic consciousness and this into something like second nature through the right sort of school life and the special laboratory or practice opportunities devised by the department of civic education.

It is obvious that if these ends are to be realized the program of the department of civic education will have to provide a historical view of social institutions, instruction in the theoretical foundations for progressive citizenship, instruction in social and political forms and methods and in processes and problems of administration, and, all along the line, suitable opportunities for observation at first hand and for direct participation in the civic activities, of one sort or another, of the community maintaining the junior college. Of course it is not for me to indicate in detail the constituent elements of the courses of study and training here suggested, or their sequences and groupings. All this can be done satisfactorily only by those thoroughly versed in social and political science, face to face with the concrete situations in a particular environment. Moreover, if the ends to be achieved are kept steadily in mind as selective principles, as far as subject matter is concerned, and as directive factors in the use of the subject matter as means of civic education, experience will show before long what choices to make, what combinations and sequences to adopt, and what organization to give to the training in civic attitudes and habits. But if we now think for a moment of the place of civic courses in the junior-college curriculum and of the various needs and purposes of junior-college students, we get an additional general principle of organization, which, it seems to me, cannot wisely be neglected.

As has been implied in the foregoing remarks, freedom in the choice of studies cannot be allowed to mean freedom to avoid training for citizenship. The foundation courses must be prescribed, together with such habit-forming exercises as may be found practicable. This much is an essential in any junior college that stands for a high degree of general social efficiency. Beyond this the department of civic education can be made to render a unique and most necessary service

to junior-college communities, as well as to large numbers of young men and women, through the introduction of training opportunities for specific social efficiency. The complex activities of a municipality, for example, call insistently for trained public servants. Thus far very little, indeed, has been done in the United States to provide the specific training needed in the various departments of city management and municipal housekeeping. Perhaps at no point of our attempts at self-government is the need of creating a middle vocational school system more urgent. In connection with such vocational civic training courses, it would doubtless be found practicable to provide for part-time instruction and part-time apprenticeship in one or the other of the city departments. Surely what is being done successfully here and there in the way of cooperation between the school and industrial establishments must be possible in the case of a city's school department and its other departments. It seems almost superfluous to add that in no other way could the junior college demonstrate its usefulness to a community more convincingly than by furnishing experts in communal affairs.

Another type of course in civic education would form an integral part of such other vocational curricula as the junior college might offer. If, for instance, the junior college has a department of agriculture the object of which is to prepare directly for scientific farming and country life, the specific applications of the general principles and methods of an enlightened citizenship to the vocation of farming must not be left wholly to the chance that the students will make these applications themselves. They need to be made to realize how they may, and should, be progressive citizens as farmers. In vocational courses intended primarily for women ample consideration needs to be given to those aspects of citizenship that are of special concern to women, including the civic aspects of wifehood and motherhood. In addition, then, to the foundational and therefore prescribed courses, and in addition to vocational courses for those who look forward to public service as a calling, there would be special courses or part courses whose content and point of view are determined by the agricultural, industrial, commercial, and other vocations for which the junior college provides preparation.

A department thus organized as a training school in citizenship would in a number of ways occupy a central position in the junior college. Its existence implies recognition of the fact that whatever the individual's aptitudes and preferences as to a calling may be, he is first, last, and all the time a citizen. Citizenship is an inclusive voca-

tion, itself being an essential phase of the one master vocation for all of us, that of becoming, individually and in groups, progressively and dynamically human. The department of civic education is therefore not merely coordinate with other departments; it is cardinal. Through its courses students on the threshold of maturity would be assisted in setting their knowledge and experience in order, in learning to think straight about life as a whole, in developing themselves into unified, purposeful, self-directed personalities. What the old college courses in mental and moral philosophy were when at their best, this the courses in civic education should be made to become, without, however, the mazes of metaphysical speculation. It will be enough if the student learns to reason sanely about the facts and phenomena of all that is involved in citizenship and then realizes that he can nowhere escape from such metaphysical implications as God, free will, and immortality. Is it difficult to imagine how quickly and in how many directions the country would reach higher planes of the individual and the social life, if, let us say, each community had even one citizen with such a training?

More immediately obvious is the correlating function of a department of civic education with reference to the civic life of the junior college. A unique opportunity, and therefore a duty, presents itself here. All those interested in the success of the junior college are probably agreed that so-called student activities, *i.e.*, the curriculum in its wider social sense, must differ, because of the higher degree of maturity on the part of the students, from the school life that has preceded. But must we not all see also that the junior college should create something very much better than the traditional college life of the first two years in American colleges? To shape the new junior-college life aright would, it seems to me, be a special responsibility of the department of civic education. The suitable forms of student self-government, the relations of junior-college students to the preceding high-school classes, the relation of the student body to the outside community, the more or less temporary and voluntary associations within the whole group of students and teachers, the harmonizing of athletics and the play life generally with the standards of citizenship applicable to the stage of adolescence represented in the junior college, all this is a matter of vital concern to a department of civic education because its success or failure depends largely on the extent to which the junior college adequately embodies high standards of what might be called junior citizenship. This does not mean the evolution of any one standard form or forms. In fact, each school is likely to

be stronger if it develops traditions of its own. But it is for the department of civic education to influence their development and to keep them vitally related to and correlated with its own purposes and activities.

Another very important function of a department of civic education would be that of extending its influence downward, so to speak. Gratifying progress has been made of late years in providing civic training for the elementary and high-school grades, in discovering devices adapted to the boy and girl citizen, and in introducing civic observances of a civic ritual. But after all it still remains true that what is everybody's business is nobody's business. On the whole all other interests come first. Citizenship is not so much an ever-present motive as it is an appendix. Summarily speaking, neither teachers nor pupils have citizenship in the foreground of consciousness. Education and preparation for citizenship are, as far as general practice is concerned, separable things. One cause of this state of affairs, apart from tradition, lies doubtless in the difficulty of organizing such preparation. Very likely, up to the senior year of the high school, the study of social relationships and of the nature and functions of government had better be carried on as one aspect of every subject taught, particularly of literature and history. But another potent cause is that, while other subjects have their continuations and culminations in theory and practice, none have thus far been provided for civic education. Now, this want could be satisfied by a junior-college department of civic education. In cooperation with teachers, principals, and superintendents, this department might keep the attention of both the elementary and the high school. It would be in a position to heed requests to assist in the selection and organization of such separate instruction material as can be made educationally available. It could render a great service in stimulating elementary and high-school teachers to intelligent efforts in behalf of a school community life that shall be truly preparatory to adult community life. Perhaps the greatest service can be rendered by the department of civic education by assisting high-school teachers in working out those aspects of their respective subjects which bear on citizenship, both in its wider social and its narrower political sense. How many teachers of Latin, for example, realize what contributions to training for citizenship they might make in connection with the traditional four-year course in Latin? How many realize that they could do so by merely using aright the Latin literature of the course as educational means? The teacher who knows about pioneering days of the recent and of the remote past and has had his eyes opened to their significance in social evolution, will

find in Caesar many opportunities for enlarging the social horizon of his pupils. The teacher who is familiar with the more advanced stages of culture and has at his command the means for interpreting ancient social and political problems and their solutions, in the light of present-day conditions, can hardly fail to make Cicero illuminating and provocative of political thinking. The teacher who knows what standards of measurement to apply in estimating a country's greatness, who understands what national culture means in terms of intellectual advance, the creations of art, the principles of individual and social conduct, the number of noble lives, will be able to make the *Aeneid* a fine superstructure of unifying thought and potent suggestions. As a matter of fact, Latin teachers of this sort are exceedingly rare. As far as the other subjects are concerned, the situation is no better, with the possible exception of history. Until it is, the department of civic education would be called upon to enlist the cooperation of high-school teachers in working out in detail sequences of topics and suggestions contained in the various subjects of the curriculum. In this way the department of civic education would serve as a correlating center in a manner analogous to that of the department of English composition, which is expected to get all departments to cooperate in furthering mastery of the mother tongue.

Not the least of the functions to be exercised by a department of civic education would be that of making the junior college as widely and directly useful to the community as possible. And in exercising this function, it would furnish junior-college students with many opportunities for participation and practice. The school extension staff would consist partly of students. Much of the work that is now being done under the name "university extension" could be done and done better by the junior college under the auspices of the department of civic education. It would be instrumental in making surveys of various sorts within the limits of its environing territory with a view to finding out what needs exist and how they are to be met. It should be of assistance in developing social centers and in organizing all those activities that are implied in the expression "the wider uses of the school plant." Here and there settlement work would naturally come under its guidance. In cooperation with the university extension system, it would provide for special classes, lecture courses, and so on, to meet the real needs that it has discovered. In this way much of the aimlessness and futility of effort that are now inseparable from the management of university extension would be avoided. In most cities no more important service could be undertaken nor one more closely akin to the central purpose of the department of civic educa-

tion than that of preparing adult immigrants for the exercise of American citizenship. For this service especially the junior-college students should be enlisted, not with the idea, primarily, of doing good to the stranger within our gates, but with the idea, primarily, of preparing our native sons and daughters for intelligent self-direction as cooperative, public-spirited citizens.

One warning may not come amiss at the close of these remarks. Junior-college students are still junior citizens, although they enjoy the special advantage, from the point of view of training for citizenship, of being close to the border line that separates them from the status of adult citizen. Hence they are close to the issues between political parties, to various propagandas for conflicting causes, to the factional turmoil of local politics, etc. But—and here is the warning—they are not yet properly on the firing line and should be kept from the front. Their own battles will come soon enough. Their best policy is a policy of "watchful waiting," lest they fail to acquire the sympathetic understanding and the sanity of judgment they will sorely need later on. A similar caution must be observed by the teacher in a department of civic education. He may make or mar his whole enterprise according to his tact and wisdom in dealing with questions of the day, especially with local issues. His freedom of speech and action is therefore limited by expediency—but not only by this. He ceases to be a safe guide, philosopher, and friend if he allows himself to be drawn into the controversies of the moment. His business is with young men and women and not with the adult population. His task is performed when his students are ready to take the ephebic oath, which I, for one, should administer to every junior-college graduating class—"We will never disgrace this city and state. We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city and state, both alone and with many. We will transmit this city and state not only not less, but greater and better and more beautiful than they were transmitted to us."

The Junior College, with Special Reference to California [2]

In 1907 the California legislature passed an act enabling the high-school board of any high-school district to add two years to the traditional four-year high-school course. In 1910 the Fresno High School was so extended, the first one. By the end of 1914 there were ten

[2] Published in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 1916, 2:1–8. Also in *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (Washington, D.C.: 1915), pp. 119–124. Published with special permission of the National Education Association.

such extensions, commonly known as junior colleges, with an enrollment of about 800 students. Now there are twelve.

Meanwhile, this so-called California idea has been institutionalized several times over elsewhere. How many junior colleges there will be five or ten years hence, in California and other states, will depend less, it seems, on good intentions than on economic ability to carry them out. At any rate, this automatic brake on the junior-college movement may be trusted to prevent violations of the speed limit.

Not Good if Detached

Now, the coupons on through railway tickets usually declare that they are "not good if detached." It is so with the evaluation of the upward extension of the high school. The rise and progress of the junior college needs to be looked upon as an integral part of a country-wide movement toward a more adequate state system of education; a twentieth century system, made in America; a system that shall function progressively so as to secure for the nation the greatest efficiency of the greatest number.

The evolution of the junior college is casually connected with the other constituent phases of the whole process of reorganization and adaptive changes. It is inseparable from three of these: (1) the adjustment of the university, in the Germanized sense, to secondary education; (2) the reorganization of secondary education, to make it more effective, for all alike, during the whole period of adolescence; (3) the movement to equalize educational opportunities by the creation of lower and middle systems of vocational training.

In the light of this situation the junior college appears neither as a unique Pacific Coast "sport" nor as somebody's mechanical device, which must be fitted, somehow, into an immutable inherited mechanism. The junior college is a normal development within a state school system in the making, and this, in turn, is itself being shaped largely by factors and forces that are national and even world-wide in scope. The relative novelty of this development finds its explanation in the fact that in more ways than one the multiform process of educational readjustment has progressed faster and farther in California than elsewhere and is thus presumably fully justified by the privileges and responsibilities of leadership.

University Aspects

To speak first of the university aspect of the junior-college movement, the University of California has been trying, since 1892, to re-

shape itself around two organizing ideas, two ideas "one and inseparable." One was, and is, that, for theoretical and practical considerations alike, the university proper should begin in the middle of the inherited four-year college scheme; the second was, and is, that the work of the first two years, as a matter of history and fact, is all of a piece with secondary education and should, therefore, be relegated as soon and as far as practicable to secondary schools. This trend of thought and preaching and practice resulted *gradatim* in the junior certificate, to make the distinction between university and secondary education, in the policy of placing all professional schools on a basis of not less than two years of nonprofessional college training, in making the studies of the last two years of the high school and the first two of the college largely interchangeable, and, last but not least, in publicly exhibiting the requirements for the junior certificate in terms of unified six-year curricula.

By 1908 the high-school teachers of the state had become generally aware of the fact that what was to be known soon as the junior-college idea had been essentially put into practice at Berkeley and several of them were trying to utilize locally the precept and example of the State University.

But this propaganda would probably not have gathered momentum very fast without President Jordan's dynamic articles and addresses urging the amputation of freshmen and sophomore classes to prevent university atrophy and urging the relegation of these classes to the high school. His advocacy of its upward extension made the public "sit up and take notice" and thought and prodded school men into taking the initiative.

What had been a Berkeley idea at the beginning had become a California idea, and the spectacle of Berkeley and Stanford climbing the Golden Stairs together, hand in hand, made its appeal with great persuasiveness. Moreover, while Berkeleyans had been in the habit of speaking of six-year high schools, Dr. Jordan gave general currency to the name junior college, and this proved much more potent in suggestible communities.

Two Other Factors

This twin-sister university movement, however—which, by the way, has become fairly national by this time—does not fully account for the junior college. Two other movements coalesced with it. One had its source in the now dominant conviction on the part of leaders in educational thought that for the great majority of boys and girls under-

going secondary-school training the American four-year high-school course begins too late and ends too early. The result is a truncated and ineffectual, a nonfunctioning education, for most high-school graduates.

A remedial readjustment, it has been seen for some time, must consist in the lengthening, for *all* concerned, of the course for adolescents. In states without complete state school systems, *i.e.*, without state universities, efforts to this end are still generally confined to the *re*-forming of the last two or three years of the elementary school. In California the upward extension of the high school was from the first urged along with the other, in the educational interest of the great mass of high-school graduates, who cannot, will not, should not become university students. Such extensions, it was argued, might and should make it possible for the small minority to enter a university, in the narrower sense, at the end of two years; but the controlling educational purpose should be to provide for a reasonably complete education, whether general or vocational.

The other movement had its source in the increasingly imperative need of vocational training, first of all for those whose education for general social efficiency is not prolonged beyond the elementary school, and secondly, for those whose general education ends with the four-year high-school period and who are not headed for one of the professions in the restricted sense.

With reference to this need, too, as far as the latter class is concerned, an additional two years came to appear desirable and necessary, for "finishing courses" in applied science of one sort or another, according to local means or demand. Mr. Olney, for example, in trying to persuade the school board and people of Fresno to sanction his junior-college plans, laid great stress on a department of agriculture, on a department of domestic art and science, and on a department of applied political science. Moreover, it seemed clear, from the university point of view, that such departments might render a great service to the universities and to thousands of young people, by diverting these from the university and thus preventing their becoming "misfits" for life.

To the best of my knowledge and belief, such was the genesis of junior colleges in California. As contributory factors should be mentioned the long distances from most points in California to the state university and Stanford, the absence of small colleges, which dot the landscape of other states, and the state requirement—unique thus far in this country—of a year of graduate study for high-school teachers.

Of course, the rapid multiplication of junior colleges, since the first one was established at Fresno, is partly owing to intercommunal bell-wether-and-sheep relations, combined with the spirit of emulation.

A Culminal Institution

It is of course an inevitable phase of development that as yet not one of the junior colleges, produced by the confluence of the three movements I have spoken of, has fully found itself. Growing pains cannot be escaped; self-direction is naturally not achieved at once. But even now the uncertainty that exists relates rather to matters of organization and method than to fundamental conception and aim. It is coming to be generally understood that the junior college cannot serve its complex purpose if it makes preparation for the university its primary object. For the great majority of junior-college students courses of instruction and training are to be of a piece with what has preceded; they are to be culminal rather than basal; they are not to result in a "deferred education."

The junior college will function adequately only if its first concern is with those who will go no farther, if it meets local needs efficiently, if it turns many away from the university into vocations for which training has not hitherto been afforded by our school system. Hence it will of necessity be as nearly autonomous as its place in the public-school system of the state permits; and its structure will normally exhibit two types of departments: (*a*) departments designed to promote general social efficiency, (*b*) departments designed to furnish complete training for specific—or vocational—efficiency.

It is not so certain, however, that this conception and aim will be steadfastly adhered to in practice. The term junior college implies a senior college, *i.e.*, preparation for the university; the line of least resistance is to duplicate uncritically freshman and sophomore courses; to think that the universities are doing high-school work is not nearly as satisfying as to think that the junior college is to do university work; the practical value of university approval is so great that there is great willingness on the part of junior-college teachers to perform the cling-ing-vine act.

Thus far, fortunately, the state university has not sought to bend the junior college to its uses. As far as it has acted at all it has acted chiefly as a guide, philosopher, and friend. As such it has been groping after a sympathetic understanding of the whole situation, has tried to assist junior colleges by emphasizing the need of vocational departments and by warning against sacrificing the educational interests of

the local majority, and has refrained, wisely, I think, from even pretending that it was in a position to issue a new set of commandments or a book of revelations. A university bulletin, now in preparation, will, I trust, embody and illustrate this attitude in a helpful way.

Relations to High Schools

One of the problems of organization is that of the relation of the junior college to the four-year high school. Three tendencies are noticeable. One is to separate the junior college as far as possible from the high school, to create a special faculty, to develop new forms of student activities and social life, to emphasize new points of view, and so on. Another is to differentiate as little as possible, that is, to treat the junior college strictly as the upper division of a six-year or even eight-year high school. According to a third view, the advantages of both types of organization can be secured and the disadvantages of each avoided by applying the principle of unity in variety. A special faculty, yes, but not one without a share in the work of the grades below the collegiate division; a unified program, yes, but also new attitudes and methods; a distinct college life, but not a separate one, nor a mere imitation of the large university college, Berkeley, for example.

The need of differences between the collegiate and the four-year part of a six-year high school is not created by any other institution. It exists because the students of the college division have normally passed the middle point of adolescence; it exists, further, not because some will go to a university afterward, but because most of the graduates will presumably not do so. As far as I can see, the actual situation is generally being faced in accordance with this third view, which, I need hardly say, seems to me to do justice to all of the factors entering into the problem.

Quality of Instruction

Another problem is, of course, that of the quality of the teaching staff. It is generally recognized that the work of junior-college grades is beyond the qualifications of the rank and file of high-school teachers. The junior-college teacher must not be inferior with respect to advanced scholarship to the university instructor. And there is a general disposition to act on this working principle. But, of course, such a standard cannot be insisted on at once and everywhere.

Meanwhile it seems certain that the universities may safely admit junior-college graduates to full junior standing without fear of a low-

ered standard. According to statistics recently gathered by Recorder Sutton, of the state university, the scholarship average of those coming from junior colleges is several fractions higher than the general university average. There are good reasons why this should be so. Hitherto junior-college classes have been small; they have been homogeneous and so have been able to start in on a higher level than is possible for the heterogeneous mass of university freshmen; they have been in charge not of the least experienced but of the most experienced teachers of their respective institutions; they have been less exposed to university side shows; they have come to their university life and work with great expectations, with freshness and enthusiasm. It seems significant in this connection that several good students who completed the first year's work at Berkeley are taking their second year at Los Angeles, on the avowed ground that they have better educational opportunities there.

As far, then, as universities are concerned, there need be no misgivings about standards of scholarship. There is every prospect that within a few years the nonprofessional work of the junior colleges will be in the hands of teachers who, in addition to matured experience in secondary education, have had from one to three years of graduate university study.

Problems of Affiliation

This brings us to the problems of affiliation. At Berkeley we retain the term accrediting for the relation between the four-year high school and the university but use the term affiliation to express not only our sense of the right of the junior colleges to their own life, liberty, and happiness but especially the fact that they are coordinate with our own lower division, which, of course, we cannot abolish and probably would not if we could, lest the standard of preparation for the university work be lowered. Our *modus operandi* has been and is to treat graduates of junior colleges as we treat students who have completed two years in other institutions of collegiate grade. Other things being equal, they are given full credit toward graduation. This act is regarded not as a department but as a general university function. Then the student makes his peace with the department, or departments, in which he desires to take major or university courses. Here no difficulty is experienced as long as the work done in a junior college appears acceptable as a fair equivalent as to quantity, quality, and purpose for department prerequisites.

But if a junior-college department has aimed primarily at general

social efficiency while the corresponding university department looks upon its prerequisites as specialized preparation for specific efficiency, more or less professional, then the question arises: What shall do the adjusting, the university or the junior-college department?

One thing is clear. No university department must be allowed to direct or prescribe for the corresponding junior-college department. My own strong conviction is that the junior college can, and should, be something better than a conglomerate of departments pursuing a hodgepodge of aims. To forestall such a development, the university will have to do more adjusting in its lower division than the junior college should be expected to do. I should add that this process is going on at Berkeley and that in most of our departments no revolutionary changes are involved.

Of course this does not apply to junior-college graduates from vocational departments. If these desire to enter the college of agriculture or the colleges of engineering they cannot expect to escape paying a price for having changed their minds. They must comply with the requirements of professional curricula. Preparation for a vocation is only to a limited extent preparation for more preparation. This view is now pretty well understood and accepted by junior-college principals. Indirectly it will doubtless tend to emphasize the scientific bases of vocational courses in junior colleges and to prevent their degenerating into mere drill and skill courses.

On the other hand, the junior colleges, as an integral part of an autonomous state high-school system, will doubtless become an increasingly potent factor in completing the adjustment of the university to the college by basing all professional departments on at least two years of nontechnical study and training.

In conclusion, there is nothing in the present situation to shake one's faith in the junior-college movement. 'Tis a long way to Tipperary, but when the junior colleges get there they will be found to promote efficiently the public welfare in a number of ways. They will enable the universities to concentrate their efforts more and more on university work proper. They will relieve the state university of a large part of university extension service. They will offer thousands of young people from sixteen to twenty years of age the advantage of being taught and trained in small groups, not far from home.

They will make it possible for thousands who are unable to attend a university or college to round out their general education. They will reduce very materially the cost of college and university education. They will provide "finishing" vocational courses in agriculture, in the

industries, in commerce, in applied civics, in domestic science, etc. They will constitute educational centers of a high order, whose influence for good will extend in many directions over large areas of the state.

The Junior College as an Integral Part of the Public-school System [3]

The junior-college idea is in no sense a Procrustes bed, and its advocates have nothing in common with that legendary highwayman of Attica; yet this bed suggests several very broad questions—questions inseparable from the junior-college movement as a whole. One is: Shall certain colleges have their heads cut off, and, if so, by whom? Another is: Shall the American university-college have its legs cut off, and, if so, where? The third is: Shall the American four-year high schools be stretched, and, if so, how?

Now, it seemed wisest for me to relegate the first two of these questions and all that goes with them to the margin of consciousness and to focus attention on the junior college as an affirmative answer to the third and hence as a new member of an evolving public—or, more precisely, state—school system. In doing so I shall acquire merit, I hope, by drawing largely on California for object-lesson material, letting you, if you will, look after the *mutatis mutandis* applications.

Basic Considerations

We are not likely, I take it, to see the junior college "steadily and see it whole," unless we avoid entangling alliances with notions and loyalties sprung from usage or with educational theory without a country, and choose, instead, as angle of vision, the common good of American democracy. From this point of view we cannot but be helpfully directed by the postulates and working principles implied.

We start, then, with the idea that the school system is an organ of the body politic, bone of its bone, flesh of its flesh, an organ devised for each and all, from generation to generation. Its structure must needs therefore be shaped so that, as time goes on, more and more adequate recognition may be given to the educational rights of both the minority and the majority of child-citizens—that, in other words, provision may be made, not only for length and continuity, but also for

[3] Delivered as an address at the University of Chicago Conference with Secondary Schools, April 10, 1917. Published in *The School Review* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1917, 25(7):465–479). Used by special permission.

breadth and completeness, of educational opportunities. Its supreme function accordingly becomes that of ensuring, with increasing certainty, the greatest preparedness of the greatest number, the concept preparedness including, in this connection, becoming, doing, being, singly and collectively, but excluding whatever would degrade a human being to a mere means or device and would prevent the making of a life worthy of freedom. But to have it function thus continuously presupposes capacity for further and continuous development, for peaceful adaptations to new occasions and the new duties they teach. Otherwise it soon begins to minister to the quick as if they were the dead, and itself becomes a case of *rigor mortis.*

To have it function thus continuously presupposes such correlation of parts as to reduce the danger of functional troubles to a minimum, provided this living unity in variety does not mean an enlightened despotism within or without, or lack of chances for a social group to make blunders, to get what it deserves, and so to learn to do better. Democracy's choice is like Lessing's choice of the search for truth rather than truth as a gift. The process of becoming efficient is to be preferred to efficiency for its own sake. It follows from all this that the school phases of social evolution can be adequately dealt with only by a state-schoolcraft that combines farsight and foresight with evolutional thought and practice.

Not wanted is the conservatism of Lot's wife, the original "stand-patter," nor the radicalism devoid of historic sense. What is wanted is, in a word, teleological opportunism, which has ample room for temperamental differences as to speed. The etymological meaning of the term pedagogue needs to be Americanized into that of leading citizen, with the connotation that such a one is aggressively alive to the inherent purpose of democracy: to form a more perfect union of educational effort; to establish justice as to educational opportunities; to ensure domestic tranquillity for the parts and the whole of the state's educational institutions; to provide for the common defense against all enemies of the child-citizen; to promote the general welfare, not by perverting young Americans into textbooks, papery inside and leathery outside, but by advancing them by means of school subjects and school life in preparedness as to personal freedom and loyal cooperative service.

Reshape the School System

When we fit the foregoing considerations into the general theory of education; when we thereupon examine those critics who think with

their heads and thus give out light as well as heat; when we then watch the many adaptive changes going on and try to interpret their trend and significance, the need of reshaping the inherited school system—if an accident of history deserves to be called a system—into an organ adequate to the functions demanded by the twentieth century becomes convincingly obvious. Nor is it difficult then to project through the fixed points of the past and present the main lines of reconstruction and to arrive thereby at a rational hypothesis for direction and action—a hypothesis, moreover, that does not involve laying violent hands on anything but a few custom-caked prepossessions.

Basing my best knowledge and belief largely on data derived from the situation I know best at first hand, I would read the shadows of coming events and sketch the completed readjustment and extension as follows:

1. The state university, embodying in a higher indissoluble union German and English university aims, rests on a foundation of fourteen grades of elementary and secondary education, its first two years corresponding to the last two of the four-year college. It retains the last two years of secondary education, but for a gradually diminishing number of students.

2. For city and country alike the elementary-school period ends with the sixth grade; not so, however, the period of compulsory school attendance.

3. For city and country alike the elementary grades are followed normally by three intermediate grades, designed for the years of early adolescence and adjusted to the educational needs of all pupils, be their school life long or short. For the country this presupposes the county as the unit of educational organization and administration.

4. For city and country alike provision has been made for education and training to the end of the secondary-school period, *i.e.*, to the end of the fourteenth grade. Here again the county unit is presupposed.

5. The lower vocational system, comprising a variety of arrangements for training, is articulated with the intermediate school; the middle vocational system with the high school. To the middle vocational system belong the normal schools and the various vocational departments of junior colleges.

6. As far as the institutional groupings of the secondary grades are concerned, the old rigidity has been superseded by flexibility. One city or county, for example, may follow a 6-3-3-2 plan; another may have the grouping 6-2-4-2; a third may have a 6-4-4 division. According to local conditions, one community may have only the intermediate

school, articulated, to be sure, with a high school elsewhere; another the intermediate and high-school grades, articulated, to be sure, with a junior college elsewhere; a third may provide for an eight-year secondary school in one place and under one management, and so on.

Substantial Agreement as to Goals

Being interested in reporting rather than arguing, I can do nothing at this point for the doubting Thomases or the Missourians. I can only affirm that in California, at any rate, the hypothesis or program thus crudely outlined accords essentially with professional public opinion. None other looks like something "just as good." If various committee reports and their acceptance by bodies of teachers may be trusted at all; if the attitude of the universities, particularly of their departments of education, is significant; if the policies of the state department mean anything for the future, substantial agreement exists as to the goal to be achieved. Whether it will be reached, and how soon, is, of course, a question concerning which one must heed Hosea Biglow's warning: "Don't prophesy onless ye know." At present the omens are auspicious. The following glimpses of the situation may serve to illustrate this fact and at the same time bring to our minds the chief conditioning factors in the development of junior colleges.

1. To begin with, the intermediate school is being institutionalized city by city at a reasonable rate of speed. It is sanctioned by law and approved by the state board, which has provided for an intermediate teachers' certificate. Only a few counties have as yet availed themselves of their constitutional privilege to adopt charters, but the tendency is in that direction. It seems likely, moreover, that the rural intermediate school can be had sooner through specific mandatory legislation, making the county the unit of educational administration. The bearing of such legislation on the solution of rural-life problems is too obvious to be seen only by school men.

2. The high schools of the state, now over 280 in number, have attained a stage of development that warrants an upward extension both in the larger cities and in the wealthier rural high-school districts. The state contributes fifteen dollars per pupil; each county sixty dollars more. Less than thirty high schools have only three teachers; the average is about twelve. For teachers of the traditional branches the standard of certification is one year of graduate university study, including professional training; for teachers of the newer special subjects, the equivalent of four years of preparation beyond the four-year high school. The state board has recently adopted a plan whereby

all high-school teachers come under state supervision during the first two years of service.

3. It is coming to be generally understood that the attempts to pour the new wine of vocational training into the old skins of organization and method are destined to be futile. With this goes the growing conviction that the training for specialized efficiency cannot wisely be substituted for the general education for which the intermediate-school and the high school must continue to stand. Foundation courses in both, yes; finishing courses, no; instead, vocational projections and continuations.

4. Since 1892 the state university has been gradually reshaping itself around two organizing ideas. One was and is that, for theoretical and practical considerations alike, the university proper should begin in the middle of the inherited four-year college scheme; the second was, and is, that the work of the first two years is as a matter of history and fact all of a piece with secondary education. This trend of thought and preaching and practice resulted *gradatim* in the junior certificate, to mark the distinction between university and secondary education; in the policy of placing all professional schools on a basis of not less than two years of nonprofessional training; in making the studies of the last two years of the high school and the first two of the college largely interchangeable; and last, but not least, in publicly exhibiting the requirements for the junior certificate in terms of unified secondary curricula covering grades 9 to 14, inclusive. In ways of her own, Leland Stanford Junior University, under the leadership first of Dr. Jordan and now of Dr. Wilbur, stands committed to virtually the same policy. Thus the precept and example of the two universities prepared the way for the collegiate extension of the public high school, and the junior colleges that have sprung into existence, or will do so, may rely on the continued support and cooperation of these two institutions.

5. The first junior colleges were established under the Law of 1907, which gave high-school districts permission to introduce postgraduate courses. A year ago the State Council of Education adopted the following recommendations: (1) that the legislature explicitly recognize the junior college as an integral part of the secondary-school system; (2) that the legislature permit the establishment of a junior college only where the assessed valuation of taxable property is such as will support adequately, first of all, the elementary, the intermediate, and the traditional high-school grades, and, secondly, a two-year junior college—in other words, that the law safeguard the equitable distribution

of money for educational purposes and prevent the multiplication of well-meant but doomed attempts at junior colleges; (3) that the legislature authorize counties to establish junior colleges, either as additions to existing county or district high schools or as separate institutions.

Legislation

Bills embodying these recommendations have been drafted by the commissioner of secondary schools, and there is every reason to believe that they will be enacted into law at the present session of the legislature. If so, several overambitious communities will have to be content with a policy of watchful waiting, but there will remain, as nearly as I can determine, about fifteen junior colleges that meet the legal requirements for their life, liberty, and happiness.

Three Streams of Effort

When we review the ground traversed thus far, the rise and progress of the junior college appears as an integral phase of a country-wide movement toward a more adequate state system of education. In California, as elsewhere, the junior college is casually connected with the other constituent phases of the whole process of reorganization.

In California, as elsewhere, its evolution is determined by the convergence and coalescence of three currents of educational endeavor. The first is directed toward an intelligent adjustment of the university, in the Continental European sense, to the traditional American college. This process, it may be taken for granted, will result in the general absorption by the university of the last two years of the inherited four-year college. And this necessarily implies the practical recognition of the first two years as the continuation and culmination of secondary education.

The second is directed toward making the high school function more effectively, for all alike, during the whole period of adolescence. Now the high school begins too late and ends too early. The result is a truncated and nonfunctioning education for most high-school graduates.

The third is directed toward increasing the efficiency or preparedness of the nation through the creation of lower and middle systems of vocational training. For reasons too obvious to rehearse, the school must furnish such training, first, for those whose education for general social efficiency is not prolonged beyond the first eight or nine grades; secondly, for those whose general education ends with the eleventh

or twelfth grade and who are not headed for one of the professions, in the restricted sense.

A New Program

It is, of course, an inevitable phase of growth that as yet not one of the junior colleges I know about has fully found itself. Growing pains cannot be escaped. Even a butterfly has to spend its infancy and youth as a caterpillar. But even now the uncertainties that exist relate rather to ways and means than to fundamental conception and aim. The coming of the junior college means that the high school is taking possession of its own, the university-college continuing—presumably for many years to come—to give two years of secondary education also. Accordingly, the junior college, in order to promote the general welfare, which is the sole reason for its existence, cannot make preparation for the university its excuse for being. Its courses of instruction and training are to be culminal rather than basal.

The real differences between the collegiate and the four-year part of a full-grown high school are not due to any other institution. They exist because the students of the college division have normally passed the middle point of adolescence; they exist, further, not because some will attend a university, but because the majority will presumably not do so. They are precisely analogous to those which give a special character to the intermediate school. And so the junior college will function adequately only if its first concern is with those who will go no farther, if it meets local needs efficiently, if it enables thousands and tens of thousands to round out their general education, if it turns an increasing number into vocations for which training has not hitherto been afforded by our school system. Hence it will of necessity be as nearly autonomous as its place in the public-school system of the state permits; hence, too, its structure will normally have to exhibit a bifurcation into vocational and cultural departments, both organically united with what precedes.

Vocational Departments

When I am asked about junior-college vocational departments, my advice, for good or ill, is: Develop two in each junior college—one for homemaking and women's occupations other than teaching; the other for civic efficiency, especially for the careers, even now in the making, within the broad fields of city, county, and state administration. Beyond this develop vocational departments designed to meet more localized needs. A rural junior college would naturally, therefore, make provision for training in practical scientific farming. In industrial cen-

ters the emphasis would fall on technological branches. Commercial centers would organize a junior-college preparation for business. In every case opportunities would exist for combining school with calling.

No national preparedness program, I venture to assert, can be satisfactory that does not purpose to fill the gap between the training of the artisan and the university expert and that does not propose to fill this gap for as many as possible by as wide a distribution of opportunities as possible. A special reason why the professional departments of universities should further this consummation lies in the strong probability that these departments would then be relieved of thousands whose attendance is owing not so much to mistaken ambition as to the absence of other means of vocational training. A very similar benefit would, of course, accrue to the normal schools.

Thus far only one of the California junior colleges—the Polytechnic Junior College of Los Angeles—has developed well-organized vocational finishing courses—for rather obvious reasons, such as the absence of blazed trails, as far as organization is concerned, the comparatively large outlay of money required, the predominantly academic interests of the high-school teachers and principals initiating the local propaganda for a junior college, the comparative ease with which the suggestion can be made to work in communities that the university is coming to their town, etc.

In some instances the argument that the junior college would keep much money at home and would, for individuals, cut college expenses nearly in two has proved more efficacious than any other. In short, while efforts are now being made in several places to organize vocational courses, the junior colleges continue to offer to a greatly varying extent only the lower division studies of a college of liberal arts. As soon, however, as the legislation referred to above is secured—within the next few weeks—making the junior college the capstone of secondary education and assuring to it seventy-five dollars per student from county and state, projects for vocational training are bound to loom larger than they have done hitherto. Nor is it unlikely that sooner or later the state will adopt the recommendation of the State Council of Education to the effect that the state high-school tax be increased for the specific purpose of furthering the development of vocational departments in junior colleges.

Avoid Too Much Uniformity

As long as an organic correlation of part and part can be brought about and maintained, latitude in the grouping or segregation of secondary grades is of far greater value than uniformity. Local condi-

tions, for example, may well make it necessary, if not wholly desirable, to establish a junior college by itself. Here and there it may be found most practicable to assign the tenth as well as the ninth grade to the intermediate school and then to make the eleventh and twelfth grades constituent parts of the junior college. Plans of this sort are actually under serious consideration in Los Angeles and Sacramento. The typical junior college, however, will doubtless continue to consist of a two-year addition to an existing high school—an addition more or less intimately united with it as to aims, organization and administration, teaching staff, and school community life.

At present three tendencies are noticeable with reference to this problem of correlation. One is to separate the junior college as far as possible from the high school, to create as fast as possible a special faculty, to develop exclusive forms of student activities, to emphasize the methods in vogue in universities, and so on. Another is to differentiate as little as possible—that is, to treat the junior college merely as a high school lengthened by two years. According to a third view the advantages of both types of organization can be secured and the disadvantages of each largely avoided by applying the principle of unity in variety. A special faculty, yes, but not one without a share in the work of the grades below the collegiate division; one principal, yes, but also a junior-college dean; unity and continuity of program, yes, but also the attitudes and methods suitable for young manhood and womanhood; a distinct college life, yes, but not an isolated, separate one, least of all the pinchback imitation of the large university-college. The San Diego Junior College may serve as a good illustration. It is this inclusive third view, it seems to me, that does justice to all of the factors involved and that should, therefore, serve as a guide in working out the many new and perplexing problems of instruction, of administration, and of student life.

Extramural Services

It is too early as yet to dwell at length on the relation of the junior college to its environing community and on the extramural services it will render as a center of educative influences. But there can be little doubt as to its wider mission, particularly in a state where the landscape is not dotted with small private colleges. There is the call to initiative and cooperation within its circle of intermediate and high schools.

There is the need of furthering clearer community thought and the advance toward the highlands of civic life. There is the challenge to

assist in making university extension really worth while by making it largely supplementary to junior-college extension, and so forth. The old functions of the college of fifty years ago, discharged in modern ways; the new functions called for by modern insights and needs added—such may well be the substance of things not seen but hoped for.

Teaching Staff

In view of the mission of the junior college to do new and better things in new and better ways, the selection of the teaching staff becomes a matter of supreme importance. Archaic, secondhand teachers will not do. One requirement to be insisted on is a degree of mature and modern scholarship not lower than that found in junior colleges directly connected with universities. If such scholarship is at the same time more human and less neoscholastic, all the better. Roughly measured, this requirement will be found to call for not less than two years of graduate university preparation. Of course an equivalent in terms of mastery without such university aid should always be more than acceptable. Degrees do not matter; the essential thing is to be sure-footed in the ways of the scholar.

Another *sine qua non* is an ample measure of the liberal culture that embodies the spirit of service, informed by broad scholarship and inclusive appreciations. A mere specialist may do no great harm in a university; in a junior college with its man-centered aims his ways would lead to destruction. Normally a Ph.D. applying for a junior-college position should be asked to present a certificate of rebirth. A third is, of course, teaching power of a high order, demonstrated, not only in the course of professional training, but also in the secondary grades below those of the junior college. Whatever universities may continue to do, practice-teaching on junior-college students is out of the question. Such power includes, not only ability to teach young men and women by an adequate use of instruction material, but also directive insight into the principles of secondary education and into the place and functions of the junior college as a part of the state school system. Of course no such standard can be applied at once.

The present situation is analogous to the beginnings of university work in colleges, which at first had to rely largely on existing faculties. Here and there junior-college courses are attempted by instructors whose specialty lies elsewhere. Here and there, too, a department head insists on doing what one of his assistants could do better. But the tendency, I am glad to report, is strongly toward the higher quali-

fications outlined, so that meanwhile the universities need not fear a lowered standard.

At the University of California the scholarship average of those coming from junior colleges is found to be several fractions higher than the general university average—a fact not wholly accounted for, to be sure, by the scholarly fitness of junior-college teachers. The junior-college year is longer by at least a month. Hitherto classes have been small. They have been homogeneous and so have been able to start in on a higher level than is possible for the heterogeneous mass of university-college freshmen. They have been in charge, not of the least, but of the most experienced teachers of their respective institutions. They have been less exposed to university "side shows." They have come to their university life and work with great expectations, with freshness and enthusiasm.

Nor should we overlook the general tonic effect of the junior-college idea upon high-school men and women. There is inspiration in the thought that the professional elevator need not stop running at the twelfth-grade floor. To this stimulus the state university, a year ago, added another, on the recommendation of the School of Education. It established a higher professional degree, the high-school certificate, obtained at the end of one year of graduate study, being regarded as the equivalent of a first or lower professional degree.

The following conditions must be met: (1) four years or more of successful teaching experience; (2) a total of two years of residence graduate work distributed so that one-third goes to the department of education, another to some other university department, the remaining third of the work being subject only to the general proviso that all of the courses needed for the degree must be advanced; (3) an acceptable professional thesis dealing from the educational point of view with some problem of consequence.

The response has been most gratifying despite the fact that the label, tentatively chosen, namely, Graduate in Education, has nothing of the iridescence of the Ph.D. Indeed, the hope is fully justified that before long junior-college faculties will be increasingly recruited from those who have reached this new milestone, or the spot marked by it. Unless some unforeseen upheaval prevents, the state board of education is likely to prescribe a junior-college certificate, with requirements similar to those I have been discussing.

Relations to the University

Now, finally, what of the relation of the public junior college to the state university-college? Obviously the latter may make it or mar it,

for until the state shall create a directive educational organ the state university will not only continue to be guide, philosopher, and friend in all educational matters, but will also continue to have a large measure of extralegal power. Such a position constitutes a public trust, to which the university must be said to be faithless if it does not make its fostering care and leadership all-inclusive; worse still, of course, if it subserves its supposedly special interests at the expense of the public welfare as a whole. And so, when the junior colleges come seeking the aid and institutional recognition indispensable to their rise and progress, it would be as immoral as it would be easy for a state university to bend them to its uses.

But, even if the state university should readily consent to these self-evident truths, are they in a condition fit for mutually beneficent relations of affiliation? Is it not very naïve to assume that the organization and management of the college part of these institutions are controlled by college consciousness? Seen from the viewpoint of an educational institution, the lower half of what was once the college appears often to be neither educational nor institutional. We behold a conglomerate of departments pursuing a hodgepodge of aims. In one department the student still happens to be regarded as an end; in many more he is a means; in a third the ruling passion is the protection of department industry. A large proportion of the instructors are novices, trained solely, not for secondary or college work, but for highly specialized research; many, too, are forever debarred from gaining professional insights by the great university superstition that to know is to be prepared to teach.

Add to this the general underlying assumption that all freshman and sophomore studies are preparatory, not in the sense in which three good meals today are preparatory to three meals tomorrow, but in a technical, professional sense, and one can hardly shake off the fear that the junior colleges, instead of saving and perpetuating college aims and ideals, will succumb to universitizing influences and introduce prelegal, premedical, preengineering, pre-Ph.D. courses, all of them naturally dominated by the universities, while pro-student courses will be rare—too rare to do much for the vocation of becoming human.

The University's Need

There is thus precious little that would justify university pharisaism and a great deal to call for the attitude of the publican. At this point we may well say, *Hic opus, hic labor est.* Fortunately the universities, if they are to thrive as universities, need the junior colleges just as much as the junior colleges need articulation with universities. For

this reason alone, if there were no others, I am optimistic enough to believe that, while the junior colleges will be influenced for the good of all concerned in the direction of adequate standards of scholarship, the universities, influenced in turn by the junior colleges, will recognize in the work of the freshman and sophomore years the continuation and culmination of secondary education and will reshape themselves accordingly.

One desideratum of such re-forming would be, of course, the appointment of professionally trained college professors to replace the inexperienced instructor, who now has neither a living wage nor the work he wants to do and is prepared for. At the University of California an interchange of instructors between junior colleges and the university has been sanctioned already, and I do not believe I am overtaxing my imagination when I think of the possibility of calling distinguished junior-college teachers to college chairs at Berkeley; and of course not only for services to freshmen and sophomores. At any rate, if what I called a while ago the higher union of German and English university aims—an American union, for short—is ever to be brought about for the senior college or, if you prefer, the first two years of a university, graduate schools of the German type must cease to be the only source of teacher supply.

Nonstate Universities and Colleges

If we turn now for a last moment from the state-supported and state-controlled school agencies to those serving the same ultimate ends of progressive national preparedness without the advantages and disadvantages of such support and control, we find, I think, instead of divergence of interests with respect to junior colleges, only the same good reasons for promoting them and for making the changes necessary for educationally organic articulation. He who runs may read the significance of the fact that the State University of California and the University of Chicago have been on the road, side by side, to the same goal these many years, and that they have been joined in word and deed by another pair of the same sort, Leland Stanford Junior University and the State University of Missouri.

We find, furthermore, that the nonstate university-colleges can move faster, if they will, than state institutions. Stanford, for example, has put a limit on the size of its freshman and sophomore classes and may of course, if it chooses, do away with them entirely. As for the first-class colleges—long may they live, and God bless them—their noble ideals of the higher education alone should guarantee their allegiance

to the junior-college idea. How little they have to fear is well illustrated by Pomona College, which, although situated where junior colleges are at present overabundant, has had to do as Stanford has done in the matter of numbers. This fact tends to show, incidentally, how very subordinate the casual connection is between the presence or absence of established higher institutions of learning and the demand for public junior colleges.

The same college illustrates also how the older aims and methods of a more or less static culture may be transformed into the aims and methods of a modern dynamic education and how in consequence the differences between the last two college years and the first two university years tend to become differences of emphasis merely, while the line represented by the bachelor's degree tends to become imaginary for those going on to universities for professional training whether of the research or of the applied-science type.

And so I, for one, cannot but hold to the faith that the junior college will be accepted by the nation and will be wholesomely developed as an integral part both of the system of public education and of the larger house with many mansions, American education, to the building of which must be devoted many gifts but one spirit.

The Junior College—What Manner of Child Shall This Be?[4]

When the dwellers of the hill country of Judea first heard about the infant son of Zacharias and Elizabeth and what happened before his birth and soon after in the temple they marveled, saying: What manner of child shall this be? In doing so some doubtless merely wondered; some questioned rather than exclaimed; still others, looking about them and ahead, thinkingly, longingly, trustfully, had in mind the special destiny a child so obviously sent of God would fulfill among his people in the years to come.

The advent of the junior college was neither heralded nor attended by portents. But those with eyes to see and ears to hear received it gladly when it came; received it with faith in its future. In California, particularly, the "child grew and waxed strong in spirit," like John. Here, within seven years, this sturdy youngster has now reached the border line of adolescence. The dwellers in California too, may well,

[4] Delivered as an address before the California Teachers Association, Southern Section, Junior College Division, Annual Meeting, Los Angeles, December 20, 1917. Published in *School and Society* (1918, 7(165):211–218). Used by special permission of *School and Society*, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

therefore, wonder or question or prophesy, each according to his wit and wisdom.

To us sponsors and intimate friends of the junior college, the saying: what manner of child shall this be, implies a duty-call. It is a challenge to seek and find the best educational and vocational guidance, in order that the junior college may pass unharmed through the vicissitudes of adolescence, may acquire a life-career motive thought out and potent and rooted in the public welfare, and shape itself thereby, and may learn, without costly blundering, how best to fulfill its mission among and together with its fellow agencies for making American democracy increasingly safe and sound and sanely self-directive.

Its Essential Constitution

In view of such ends we need to be clear, first of all, as to the essential constitution of the junior college. The name discloses nothing beyond the fact that it is largely a bit of scholastic camouflage. Smith Senior and Smith Junior probably exhibits traits of kinship, but should we try to infer the nature and prospects of the younger or the present occupation of the elder Smith from the family name? Such procedure, though common enough in mythology and in reaching conclusions concerning the junior college would put the childish guess in place of the basic data needed for the guidance and self-guidance of Smith Junior, data revealed only by his individuality and actual status.

Named or nameless then, the junior college is by descent and nature a secondary school. Its legal existence, as far as California is concerned, was ushered in by the Law of 1907 as an extension of the high school. Subsequent legislation has made it an integral part of the public-school system and thereby has fixed its status as an institution devoted to secondary education. In accord with this, it is identical with the high school as to sources of revenue, organization, administration, and the methods of teacher preparation and licensing. Nor is the present position of the junior college a vagary or an anomaly. A comparative glance at European school systems, for example, suffices to show that it corresponds to the upper reaches of such secondary schools as the gymnasium or the *lycée*.

Historically, we need only to remind ourselves of the fact that while the American college at its best approached the English university type in purpose and function, this resemblance never extended downward to the two years to which the junior college has fallen heir. It is this fact, among others, that inspires the heartfelt wish on the part of American universities to be relieved of these two years of essen-

tially secondary schooling. That the junior-college grades do not belong with what follows is further attested by the transformation the upper half of the traditional college has undergone during the last twenty-five years, most obviously in state institutions.

A senior college no longer exists except in name and outward form. The new spirit that inhabits and controls the old body is that of the university "made in Germany." The older aims of liberalized personality and leading citizenship have been replaced by the purpose of research and professional training. While the university professor is not expressly forbidden to educate young men and women, if he knows how, his first and last duty is toward his subject. The university student may still travel paths along which he may learn to "see life steadily and see it whole" and to add to his stature as a human being, but the official trails are those of the university specialist who may, or may not, be human in more than one spot.

Now, it is not necessary to explain here how the annexation of one-half of the American college by the university has come about nor to prophesy as to the terms of a permanent peace between conqueror and conquered; however strongly one may be moved to predict that the typical American university of the future will not be, as now, an overdone imitation in an American setting but an unhyphenated American creation, embodying in a new unity of purposes and practices the best the nation has inherited and borrowed and originated. Whatever the causes at work or their final effects, the American university-in-the-making has absorbed the upper college provinces and is not at all likely to relinquish them. Smith Senior's business has changed hands permanently.

A New Order Exists

The implications of this change are too evident to be missed, especially if we include in our field of vision the coming of the intermediate or junior high school. This and the high school and the junior college occupy the domain of secondary education. Their interrelations may well receive various forms of adjustment and their articulations with the elementary school and with the university will doubtless need time for adequate development, but even now a new order exists, that is, a secondary-school system ministering over a rapidly extending area to the whole of adolescence. And so the junior college must never be thought of in terms of the old obsolescent order. In the new its place is at the top. It is the culmination and fulfillment

of the educational design incorporated in the intermediate and the high school.

Such fundamental traits and such ties of blood relationship, *de facto* and *de jure*, leave little doubt as to the educational needs the junior college must be expected to meet, little doubt, therefore, as to its mission in an evolving democracy. Has it appeared among us merely to lighten the burden of universities in order that these may become more efficient in their own proper sphere? Or must we add the economic relief it affords to prospective university students? Or is the list of things to do complete if it also keeps such students at home for two years more of safekeeping and guidance? The answer is that the services indicated are incidental, are by-products, and that in the interest of the public welfare the junior college must needs do something far more vitally significant than to improve the care and culture of the privileged few and to ameliorate the sad lot of universities.

Organic Unities

The junior college, to begin with, would not be true to its own self if it did not cultivate the consciousness of organic oneness with high and intermediate school and did not in consequence play the leading role in securing unity for the eight grades concerned, despite "fifty-seven varieties" of local adaptations, each more or less necessary or desirable. Energetic promotion, in city and country, of the twin causes, the junior college and the intermediate school, is of course presupposed.

When every normal pupil shall be able to find in the seventh grade the nurture suited to his years and thenceforth shall have at least the chance to grow in the same way, year by year, through middle and late adolescence, then the now universal criticism of the high school, that it begins too late and ends too early, will be an anachronism. Then the concept preparatory school will have its fangs extracted. Then it will be possible to bring studies to fruition. Then, even if the student has gone through the program on the à la carte plan, the junior college will doubtless enable him to correlate and generalize and motivate and so convert an example in fractions after all into an aimful, dynamic personality.

As intimated, the call to realize a progressively efficient secondary-school system means also one that is accessible to a steadily increasing number. If the traditional high school offers only a truncated education even to those whose formal schooling will continue, what of the majority, whose school days end with high-school education? Is

it not certain that in thousands of cases there is no continuation and completion simply because opportunities are out of reach?

I have in mind at the moment primarily those who would go on with a liberal-arts course if they could. To bring the junior college within reach for such alone would be no mean contribution to national preparedness and progress, which depend fully as much on man-centered education, high in degree and widespread, as on work-centered training. It has always required faith, the substance of things hoped for but not seen, to regard the high school as the people's college. With the inclusion of the junior college the name stands for a fact.

The junior college has come to fulfill the high school in every part of the state for all qualified students. And such a consummation will mean special as well as regular students. It will mean extension classes. It will imply such a union of community experience and college activities that there will be life without and within, a more abundant life, on a higher plane. It will imply cooperation with the university but not preparation for it, in the sense only too familiar to us, still accustomed as we are to the vassalage of high schools.

Vocational Training

Probably the greatest and certainly the most original contribution to be made by the junior college is the creation of means of training for the vocations occupying the middle ground between those of the artisan type and the professions. Until recently our public-school system has offered opportunities for a complete education only to university and normal-school students. Now courses of "finishing" vocational training are in process of development, the intermediate school functioning as a go-between.

The prospect is that before long intelligently organized and administered continuation and trade-school arrangements will exist that will assist the great mass of those with an elementary education in becoming efficient workers, as much for the sake of a better human and civic life as for a better living. But how about occupations that require a higher foundation of general education, that presuppose greater maturity for grasp and mastery, that represent the positions of commissioned officers in the national peace army? Only one whose educational thought is without a country can deny the need of a middle vocational system. Is the high school meeting it? No. Can it do so? Only in a poor makeshift manner. The junior college can, and the law of service is: he who *can* must ***do.***

From it should come the scientific farmer, who knows that farming is an applied science, a business, a mode of life, and above all, a matter of cooperative citizenship. From it should come the trained city employee, familiar with municipal problems and competent to "do his bit" under civil service rules and their spirit. From it should come not only highly skilled mechanics but also those who, besides being that, understand the economic and human aspects of the industries and have the qualifications for a captaincy but not for the ruthlessness of the autocracy of capital. With corresponding ends in view, the junior college needs to train those choosing to go into commerce.

Our national unpreparedness for peace could hardly be better illustrated than by the fact that our commercial centers still cling to the method of trial and error and seem to be satisfied, as far as our schools are concerned, with training leading to minor clerkships. Our children, thoughtful men and women agreed, should not be brought up wholly as if they were orphans in charge of maiden aunts. But is not one cause of this situation that the girl high-school graduate finds no vocational trail blazed for her except that which leads into teaching? Here, once more, the junior college must accept the challenge to do better things in better ways, to extend, for example, the routes suggested by the household art and science of the high school to their vocational termini. Of course the young woman would not be shut out from any of the other vocational departments except by her aptitudes and preferences.

Individuality

It is an essential part of the junior-college idea that each junior college have its own individuality, in accordance with its environment. Thoughtless duplicating should be out of the question. Hence the nature and scope of vocational departments must be determined primarily by the communities served most directly. However else we limit our selection, no courses are justified, save in connection with home interests, that would compel the junior-college graduate to fare into a far land for the work he has been trained to do.

In cities with several high schools it will doubtless be rational to connect a junior-college department of commerce with a high school so located as to make cooperation easy with business concerns, a department for the vocations that have been developed out of home activities in connection with the high school best equipped already, etc., provided the danger can be guarded against of isolated, exclusive, and hence suicidal specialization.

I am more than skeptical about the educational success of any junior college with only nonvocational departments. At the very least it should have what for want of a better term I have called a department of civic education, while only partly vocational in the specialized sense, would undertake the training of young men and women for efficient municipal service in the various city departments. It would, of course, not be too remote from the centers of city administration, in order that whole-time students may have a chance to observe and practice and city employees may have within reach opportunities for improvement in the service.

Continuity and Completeness

The foregoing conclusions as to the mission of the junior college seem inevitable if we really believe in a safe and progressive democracy and hence in our duty to realize its foundation principle: continuity of educational opportunity; completeness of such opportunity. The old order must pass because it has not achieved and cannot achieve either continuity or completeness. Now, while the junior college, like any adolescent, is trying to find itself and its best work in a new order, it will probably need to be protected against some of its friends, notably the university.

The same process that has brought about the substitution of the university for the senior college has also made away pretty successfully with the college idea in the work of the two years preceding. "Peaceful penetration" from above has resulted in a protectorate. Men trained solely for the exercise of university functions cannot be expected to regard the work of the first half of their institution as anything but introductory. To them the junior college is not the dome of the secondary-school edifice but merely a university entrance hall or vestibule.

Moreover, since educational thinking is usually the last thing a university faculty thinks of—that has been true since the Middle Ages—the naïve assumption obtains and controls that "all's right with the world," as far as the existing conception of freshman and sophomore education is concerned, and, further, that technical preparation for university specialties is just what the junior college at home—and therefore elsewhere—is for. Under these circumstances it is easy to foresee what is bound to happen if the junior college not connected with a university listens to the siren voices issuing therefrom.

Not only will there be preengineering, prelegal, premedical, preanything-you-please courses, each directed by a university department,

but there are not likely to be any pro-student courses. Worse still, the junior college, being directed by the university, will do unto the intermediate and high school as it is being done by. Shall the new secondary-school system, too, like the old, answer to Plato's definition of a slave, one whose conduct is shaped by another?

Here is one alternative. The other is for the junior college to cooperate with the university in the selection of foundation courses for this, that, and the other profession, and then to conduct them strictly without reference to possible professional superstructures. The aim must lie within the junior college. The suicidal idea of a deferred education must remain excluded from the nonvocational as well as from the vocational departments. As to the nonvocational type of courses the true test is whether they are adapted to students who do not look forward to basing a profession on them.

How the junior college will overcome all such temptations to lose its life, liberty, and happiness, who can tell? To be on the safe side, I, for one, am absolutely committed to the sound principle underlying European practice. The state must fix the terms of admission to the university. Then the missionary-cannibal situation cannot arise, and the institutions sure to profit most are the universities.

Municipal Universities

This sketch of guiding principles and policies must include at least a few observations on the "municipal university" movement, which, like the junior-college movement, is fast assuming national proportions. The term "university" is, of course, used loosely and conventionally in this connection like the term "colonel," in the presence of Kentucky gentlemen. Commissioner Claxton predicts that twenty-five years hence every city of 200,000 inhabitants will have its own educational institutions of higher learning and training.

In California this forecast bids fair to come true much sooner and that, too, without restrictions as to population or location, provided colleges or so-called universities dedicated to the four-year fetish be left out of calculation. In other words, the two movements coincide with respect to most cities.

Two convictions may be offered here with some confidence. One is that when the reorganized secondary-school system shall be in fair working order, junior-college students and faculties will be far in advance of what is attainable now. Its mate, the other conviction, is that by that time Elisha, the junior college, will wear Elijah's mantle, that of the college of old, about as effectively as was ever done by

the old gentleman himself, while Elisha's own modern khaki and corduroy will stand for everything else that is needful, unless it be considered needful to have a university set down at every doorstep.

The large city, however, will certainly need more than the junior college can give. But will its problem be solved by a municipal college of the venerable four-year tradition, the last half becoming willy-nilly the first half of a university? The logic of the situation points to a whole bona fide municipal university resting on the junior college. Hence the propagandists for one are by the same confession of faith propagandists for the other. The same is true, to be sure, if you substitute the word "state" for "municipal." Only, state universities are not likely to happen along whenever and wherever a city grows large and larger, and if it did and still remained a state university it would be unable to render the services a large city should command. Some equitable subsidy, on the part of the state, is another matter. But all this, in Kipling's phrase, is "another story."

What manner of child shall this be? Not all of us will be able to second my counsels in behalf of the junior college. But all of us, knowing that we school men and school women are largely responsible for the making or marring of the junior college, all of us can be, and are, united in the purpose to secure from it and through it the largest and greatest possible contribution to the common good.

The Junior College [5]

I don't propose to trace here and now the junior-college movement from its local beginnings to its present nationwide scope. Despite the high cost of living, I assume, hopefully, that professional interest has induced, or is going to induce, every high-school principal to invest twenty cents in United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 35, 1919, which contains a sufficiently accurate historical and descriptive account of the junior college. Nor do I intend to argue once more in detail, on grounds of social need and democratic educational theory, for a secondary-school system that shall embrace eight school years instead of four, the last two constituting, if you please, the junior-college division. When one has for many years gone to and fro upon the earth, like Satan, in the cause of the junior-college idea, one hesi-

[5] Delivered as an address before the California State High School Principals' Convention, Asilomar, March 31, 1920. Published in *Sierra Educational News* (San Francisco, 1920, 16:483–486). Used by special permission *Sierra Educational News.*

tates, even if there were time, to restep into footprints already made and left behind in the sands of time.

Taking numerous things for granted, then, I shall proceed to bring before you certain more or less related matters bearing on the further evolution of the junior college, particularly in California. In doing so I stand on the bedrock conviction that the fate of the junior college lies in the hands of high-school men and women. They will make it; they may break it. You high-school principals especially, as leaders in secondary education, may will it to be quick or dead, according to the visions of your opportunities and mission.

Meaning of the Term

Now, the first remarks I wish to make concerning the meaning of the term junior college. Perhaps I think it necessary to make these only because, owing to an accident of personal history, my days are lived in a social environment in which many hot winds of doctrine are blowing whence they list upon this new educational phenomenon; a phenomenon very disturbing to minds unaccustomed to educational thinking. I shall be happy therefore if in your midst my remarks turn out to be superfluous.

The windiest of these doctrines is that the junior college means half a college and therefore half a university and therefore a university preparatory school with preengineering, prelegal, premedical, pre-every-other-profession courses but no pro-student courses. It follows that since by special act of Providence the *ne plus ultra* of perfection has been attained in our state university-colleges as to student life and educational methods and results, the standards of measurement for junior colleges are not far to seek.

The obvious thing to do is to copy. It follows further that since junior colleges might become a menace to tradition and thrust greatness upon the university by reducing its bigness, they must be established and managed as branches of the university. The high school, alas, has won a certain measure of self-determination, but lest the old order be totally wrecked the junior college must be put under a government of the university, by the university, for the university.

Now, the forward-looking student of secondary education, I take it, cannot but refuse to accept all gems of such prehistoric workmanship. And the more truly loyal he is to the state and its university the less does he want this twentieth-century institution-in-the-making to resemble a resurrected octopus hunting for prey, with a new set of tentacles. He hopes, of course, that junior colleges will tend to prevent annual

cloudbursts of freshmen and sophomores from drowning the university proper. He knows about the economic relief junior colleges will afford to prospective university students. He is far from denying that many extra-young high-school graduates had better be kept near home for two years more of safekeeping and guidance. But he does not concede for a moment that such truly worth-while services are anything but by-products nor that junior colleges exist for the care and culture of the privileged few and for the amelioration of the sad lot of universities with swamped secondary-school basements.

The Fulfillment of the High School

What is the pivot of his thought and the "hot spot of his consciousness" is the fact that the junior college is the fulfillment of the high school. Even without claiming the power of "second sight" he can easily see what a secondary-school system culminating in the junior college would do for California, for the best possible educational preparedness of the greatest number, for democratic continuity and completeness of educational opportunities. He feels confident that with the junior high school in running order at one end and the junior college at the other, upper end, the cause for the criticism that for most American adolescents secondary education begins too late and ends too early and nowhere will have been removed.

He feels certain also that without the junior college the secondary school can never wholly escape from degenerating into a preparatory institution or high-school teachers from slaving as tenants for absentee landlords. Furthermore, can he fail to appreciate the widening horizons, the new sense of growth, the new incentives to professional effort and growth that are bound to come to high-school men and women in consequence? Will they not, for example, be impelled to heed the *vox populi* declaring that there is always room at the top when they know that the elevator, if they so determine, will carry them upward beyond the twelfth-grade floor year, even unto and into a university position, when the university shall have learned to respect and honor the fine art of teaching.

The sum and substance of these considerations is that if the junior college means a part of an obsolescent order, that if it implies a senior college, from which, by the way, the university cuckoo has ousted the original bird, the junior-college movement is either not worth accelerating or else to be feared by those serving the cause of secondary education.

The Two and the Ninety-eight

On the other hand, if the junior college is a secondary school *de facto* and *de jure,* if it is the capstone or crown of the secondary-school edifice, if it is the culmination and fulfillment of the educational design of which the junior high school and the senior high school are constituent parts, then no high-school man or woman, intelligently and sincerely desirous of making democracy safe for the world by making education safe for American youth, can afford to be a "slacker" in pushing, heading, directing the junior-college part of educational reconstruction.

In seeing the nature and place of the junior college in this light we are not pushing the 2 per cent or so of our youth headed toward a university off the plane of vision. Their rights to an abundance of educational life, liberty, and happiness remain sacred, though not exclusive. But in the focus of our attention, we cheerfully admit, are not the few but the many, whose right to the means of making a life and of making a living are equally sacred. Concerning the many thousands, however, whom a junior college within reach would assist further in preparing for the master career, that of becoming nobly human, all over and through and through, I will say here merely in passing, "lest we forget," that the safety, worth, and progress of our democracy depends fully as much on man- and citizen-centered education, high in degree and widespread, as an economic, work-centered so-called vocational training. But it is this that calls for special emphasis now in planning for the future of the junior college.

It is coming to be a notorious fact that those who seek, or should seek, vocations occupying the middle ground between those of the artisan type and the professions are as yet nowhere and nohow aimfully provided for in our scheme of public schooling. National efficiency requires with increasing urgency training facilities for occupations that must be based on higher foundations of general education than the elementary school can erect, that presuppose greater maturity for grasp and mastery than boys and girls of junior and senior high-school age have reached, that represent the positions to be filled by commissioned officers in the national army of peace.

Only one whose educational thinking is without a country ignores the need of a middle vocational system. Does the traditional four-year high school meet this need? Obviously not. Will continuation and trade-school arrangements do so? Only in a poor makeshift fashion. The junior college can, and the law of service is: he who can must do. From the junior college should come the farmer prepared for

farming as an applied science, as a business, as a mode of life and, above all, as a matter of cooperative citizenship. From it should come the trained city employee, familiar with municipal housekeeping and competent to "do his bit" as a loyal servant of the public. From it should issue not only highly skilled mechanics but also those who besides being that, appreciate the economic, civic, and generally human aspects of the industrial organs of a democracy.

With corresponding ends in view, the junior college needs to train those choosing to go into commerce. Our national unpreparedness for peace could hardly be better illustrated than by the fact that our commercial centers still cling to the crude and wasteful method of trial and error and seem to be satisfied, as far as our schools are concerned, with training leading to minor clerkships. Of course it is an essential element in the junior-college idea that each junior college be adequately adjusted to its environment and dominant local needs. Sheeplike following of the junior-college bellwethers should be out of the question.

But I cannot refrain from stating that I am more than skeptical about the educational success of any junior college with only nonvocational departments. At the very least, it seems to me, each should provide facilities for advanced training for homemaking and vocations radiating from the home and, secondly, a department of civic education for the common vocation of efficient citizenship, for the Americanization of the native, if you will, for the careers even now in the making, within the broad fields of city, county, and state administration.

El Camino Real

Such glimpses of the goal to be reached, no one can prophesy when, inevitably raise the question of how to get there. Who will construct El Camino Real? Partial and most encouraging answers exist now. For California we may say, Lo! The junior college is here and has come to stay! But this very fact challenges every high-school teacher and principal to assist in surveying the landscape for the best practicable junior-college state highway, or in tunneling through heads created by tradition in the image of the reinforced concrete, or at least in inspecting and "bossing" the job as it goes on. And for something like such cooperative endeavor we need to select, together, the most suitable spot for orientation and erect thereon legible and adequate road signs. May I not, as President Wilson would say, speak of one or two such spots and recommend them for consideration?

1. The approach to the realization of the junior-college idea cannot safely be made from the side of the present university and normal-school situations. It is the high school that for forward-looking men and women must be the starting point, and therewith the existing statutory provisions as to the organization, administration, and means of support of secondary schools, including the junior college. What changes to make in the state institutions wholly, such is a matter of necessary but quite incidental and supplementary planning and legislation.

2. The only fundamental justification for the junior college being in a democracy, in the sense of greater continuity and increased completeness of educational opportunities for more young people and hence for a better California, the question is never how few junior colleges can the state get along with, but always how many can be produced that will live, grow, and flourish? Ideally, of course, they should not be farther apart than twice the distance an auto-bus can travel before and after school without exceeding the speed limit. This statement will be subject to modifications when students and teachers will flock to school and fly from it through the air. Meanwhile, however, we may well insist, and earnestly so, that junior-college districts be kept small in area, provided the quantity and quality of junior-college service can be maintained on a level above reproach, and provided further that such service is not maintained at the expense of other educational interests.

County Unit Organization

By way of a footnote I will add that in my judgment only the county unit type of school organization will furnish an adequate basis for the formation of junior-college districts. But this is only an additional reason why the high-school people of every high-school district, singly and in groups, should make energetic local attacks upon this problem and make them without delay. If studies and proposals for every county were available now, what a lamp unto its feet the legislative committee would have in seeking a way to progressive legislation, in keeping with the foregoing specifications.

3. While the minimum size of a junior-college district will have to depend largely on the necessary minimum amount of assessed valuation, it is fully as important to make sure that the public junior college be supported financially as the public high school is supported, *i.e.*, by counties, districts, and the state at large. In other words, the scheme of maintenance must be developed out of present practice.

This working principle, and, as far as present knowledge goes, the fact that, when an existing high-school establishment is utilized, the per capita cost of junior-college education amounts to about $175 for the school year, suggest legislation providing: first, that each county contribute $120 annually—instead of $60 as now—for each student attending a public junior college within county lines; secondly, that the state contribute $60 annually—instead of $15 as now—for each student attending a public junior-college district, within state lines; thirdly, that each junior-college district, however formed under the law, contribute as much more as the voters thereof choose to aid; fourthly, that each junior-college district may make a contract with another junior-college district on the basis of not less than $120 annually for each student.

4. The formation of public junior-college districts must be subject to the approval of the state board of education, and in case state-wide provision for junior colleges cannot be made mandatory at once, the state board should be authorized by law to permit existing high-school districts to maintain such junior-college departments, vocational and nonvocational, as can be adequately supported.

5. Legal sanction is needed for a joint secondary-school and state university committee, with the commissioner of secondary schools as chairman. Undoubtedly the university has the constitutional right to fix the terms of admission and affiliation. But, apart from the fact that constitutions are not immutable, this right is counterbalanced by the inherent right of the secondary school to protect its own life in the interest of the general public welfare. And so the situation is not unlike that of the Shylock versus Antonio case after Portia had rendered her decision. Hence neither the party of the first part nor the party of the second part can prudently resort to violence, especially not since the interests of both are at bottom one. Accordingly, the functions of such a committee would not be to prescribe or dictate, but to secure mutual understanding, mutual satisfaction, and continuous cooperation in the cause of a common educational stewardship for the greater glory of California.

None of my remarks on the junior college, I hope, have been out of harmony with this last thought, which should always be first. Let us counsel together and then act together to the best of our knowledge and belief!

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