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ABSTRACT

This document is a reprint of the report of the American Association of Junior Colleges 1970 International Assembly and a selection of articles that have appeared in the Junior College Journal since 1964. The purpose is to bring together a summary of recent discussions on the role of the junior college in the field of international education. With the dramatic growth of the junior college in recent years, there is a great desire to explore how the junior college idea can be adapted to the needs of other countries. The nations discussed in this book are: Japan, Canada, Taiwan, Jordan, Iran, Ceylon, Dominican Republic, India, South America, Britain, and Norway. The Shell Companies Foundation, Inc. assisted in the publishing of this book. [Because of marginal reproducibility of original, this document is not available in hard copy.] (Author/CA)

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IDEA

Articles reprinted from the *Junior College Journal*. Including a report on the 1970 AAJC International Assembly.

EDITED BY ROGER YARRINGTON

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CONTENTS

PREFACE

In 1970, its fiftieth anniversary year, the American Association of Junior Colleges sponsored the first international assembly of persons interested in education at the junior college level. We had several reasons for undertaking such a meeting. Most important, it seemed to be the next logical step in a series of events. A number of American educators familiar with junior college development had made various studies and contacts in other countries where there was interest in the two-year college idea. And a number of countries had demonstrated their interest by sending educators to the U.S. to study the development of junior college education. Many educators from the U.S. and from abroad seemed to feel that the need for middle manpower development in other countries could be assisted by broader understanding of the American community junior college idea and how it has developed. Also,

1970 was the year our convention was to be in Honolulu. The East-West Center at the University of Hawaii was willing to assist as host for a meeting of educators from the Pacific area. And several foundations and agencies of the U.S. government were interested in offering assistance. The meeting was a success in opening a new dialog. In this book are some of the articles from the *Junior College Journal* which served as forerunners of that dialog, as well as a report of the assembly itself. We sincerely hope the channels of communication that have been opened can be kept operative and that other channels can soon be created.

Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.
Executive Director
American Association of Junior Colleges

INTRODUCTION

The first issue of the *Junior College Journal,* published a little over forty years ago, carried an article titled "The Junior College in Greece."[1] Other early issues included articles on junior college developments in India, the Philippines, and other countries.[2] More recently the *Journal* has printed many articles on developments in other countries and on ideas in international education that would be of interest to junior college educators in the U.S.

This book reprints a selection of articles that have appeared since 1964. In addition there is reprinted here a report on the International Assembly sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges and held February 26-March 1 at the East-West Center in Honolulu.

The purpose of the book is to bring together into one source a summary of the discussion that has taken place in recent years on the role of the junior college in the field of international education. It is

hoped that the availability of such a resource book will help promote continued interest and activity in this field. We appreciate the assistance of the Shell Companies Foundation, Inc., in making it possible to publish this book.

It seems apparent that development of social and economic pressures in other countries are creating the kinds of educational needs to which the junior college has successfully responded in the United States. This thought has occurred to many persons in the U.S. and other countries. And, with the dramatic growth of the junior college in recent years—particularly in the United States, Japan, and Canada—there has developed an increased desire to explore the ways in which the two-year college idea can be adapted and applied to the needs of other countries. The following articles give an indication of the point at which the discussion stood, as reflected in the columns of the *Junior College Journal*, as the American Association of Junior Colleges observed its fiftieth anniversary year.

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The contributions of these authors as well as the editorial assistance of Tina Britz and Marcie Avram are gratefully acknowledged.

Roger Yarrington
Editor
Junior College Journal

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[1]Mills, Minnie B. "The Junior College in Greece." *Junior College Journal.* October 1930, pp. 17-19.

[2]For examples see the following *Journal* articles:

Buckish, Walter G. M. "Private Junior Colleges in the Philippines." March 1936, pp. 288-293.

Caliver, Ambrose. "Development of the Community College in the Virgin Islands." November 1951, pp. 144-149.

Eells, Walter Crosby. "Junior College Development in Japan." September 1951, pp. 3-11.

_____. "Junior College Education in Thailand." March 1952, pp. 380-381.

_____. "Junior Colleges in Japan." September 1957, pp. 33-34.

_____. "Junior Colleges in the Republic of the Philippines." December 1951, pp. 189-192.

Fields, Ralph R. "Community College Counterparts in Europe." October 1952, pp. 77-86.

Hyde, Eva Louise. "A Junior College in Brazil." March 1947, pp. 286-289.

Johnson, B. Lamar. "Is the Junior College Idea Useful for Other Countries?" September 1961, pp. 3-8.

Mitchener, R. D. "Junior Colleges in Canada." March 1960, pp. 400-412.

Nishioka, Norton O. "The Japanese Junior College." November 1955, pp. 149-158.

Odgers, George Allen. "A Junior College Movement in

India." October 1933, pp. 3-7.
Percival, W. P. "Canada Plans for Junior Colleges." January 1944, pp. 195-196.
Richardson, Otis Dunbar. "Crisis in the Norwegian Folk High Schools." December 1953, pp. 225-232.
Watanabe, Akira. "An Analytical Study of the Present Status of Junior Colleges in Japan." March 1960, pp. 390-395.
_____. "Reform Problems of Present Junior Colleges in Japan." October 1957, pp. 79-85.

By Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., and Leland L. Medsker

POTENTIAL IN JAPAN

Japanese junior colleges, like their American cousins, face some tremendous opportunities in the years immediately ahead.

Recent developments in social patterns, industrial growth, and educational aspirations have placed the junior colleges squarely before a door of opportunity that may or may not open, depending on several possibilities. Some of these possibilities can be realized by the Japanese junior colleges themselves. Others will depend on legislation and public attitudes.

These impressions were recorded in October, 1963, during a brief assignment in Japan. We do not pose as experts on Japanese higher education, but we do feel we can relay some ideas gained during our visit which will be interesting to *Journal* readers, particularly, perhaps, because some interesting parallels exist between the present situation in Japan and some parts of the United States.

A word about the assignment itself is perhaps first in order. For some years there had been informal discussion between officials in the Association of Private Junior Colleges in Japan and the American Association of Junior Colleges regarding the possibility of a team visiting Japan to assess the development of the junior college association. In late summer, 1963, a specific invitation was extended to AAJC and arrangements were made for us to spend approximately three weeks in the country during October. These arrangements were made possible through a grant from the Ford Foundation with the understanding that we would undertake to discuss the current and potential role of junior colleges with individuals representing a variety of Japanese agencies and assess this role within the context of higher education in that country.

Japanese higher education is built on top of a well-developed system of elementary and secondary education organized on a 6-3-3 basis similar to many systems in the United States. Education is compulsory and almost totally universal through the junior high school. At the upper secondary level it is far from universal but is becoming increasingly so. In 1960, only 60 per cent of lower secondary graduates entered upper secondary schools, whereas in 1961 the percentage was 66. In fact, this percentage has increased steadily since 1957 and naturally has implications for higher education. On the other hand, absolute numbers of students in the lower schools are decreasing due to a gradual decline in the nation's birth rate since World War II.

Demographic data. In April, 1962, there were 591 collegiate institutions in Japan of which 321 were classified as junior colleges and 270 as universities.[1]

A definite characteristic of Japanese higher education is the predominance of private institutions and of students enrolled in them. Of the 270 universities in existence in 1963, 164 or 60 per cent were privately controlled, and of the 321 junior colleges operating at that time, 252 or 78 per cent were private. Of the more than 600,000 students

enrolled in universities almost 394,000 or approximately 65 per cent were in private institutions. The prevalence of private education, incidentally, is also marked in the upper secondary schools. Of all students (some 2.65 million) enrolled in upper secondary schools in 1961, almost one third were in private institutions.

Cultural factors. The professional and business life of the nation is largely carried on by men. The role of women is still oriented primarily toward marriage and homemaking. Although women are often engaged in gainful employment before marriage, they tend to leave the labor market after they are married. The number of women seeking a university education is comparatively small. On the other hand, many young girls are likely to seek a two-year college education which gives them further background in general education and at the same time prepares them for home responsibilities which they tend to assume soon after graduation from junior college. Of all students enrolled in universities in 1961, only 14 per cent were women, whereas the reverse was true in junior colleges where about 68 per cent were women.

Another factor is the great influence which the prestige universities have upon the aspirations and apparent status of men. A young man's initial position in business or government, and indeed his later success and station in life, appear to depend primarily upon the rank of the university to which he is admitted. This situation results in a lack of interest on the part of men in any institution other than a university, and the greater the prestige of the university, the better. In any event, there appears to be little interest in junior colleges on the part of men.

Still another societal influence relates to what might be called an underdeveloped professional status which is reflected in the lack of specialization through graduate education. Of the total university enrollment in 1961 of well over 600,000 students, only some 17,000 were in graduate schools. Even in the older prestige universities which were visited—

and these are the institutions in which most of the graduate education is carried on—the proportion of graduate to undergraduate students was small.

Access to Higher Education

If only one phenomenon concerning Japanese higher education were to be singled out for discussion, it undoubtedly would relate to the matter of student access to higher education. The comparatively large number of colleges and universities, together with the fact that upper secondary education is not universal, might suggest that the young Japanese man or woman should find it relatively easy to enter college. Such is not the case, however, due in part to the fact that the demand for admission tends to concentrate on a few of the prestige universities, and on certain programs within them, but also to the fact that higher education in general is recognized increasingly as an important asset to the individual and to the nation in its ability to move forward politically and economically.

The admission requirement for higher institutions is graduation from upper secondary school or its equivalent. However, this is only the minimum requirement. Because there are more applicants than space, each university conducts independent entrance examinations, primarily of the achievement type. The Ministry of Education, through a University Entrance Examination Council, exercises some degree of control as to the nature and timing of these examinations. While data on the number of applicants for admission and their success are not always consistent, some idea of the problem may be gained from the fact that in 1961 there were more than 800,000 applicants to universities[2] of whom only some 168,000, or approximately 21 per cent, were successful.[3]

So desirous are many of the candidates to enter college that they repeat the examinations the next year, or in many instances, for several successive years. (Of all students admitted to college in 1960,

only two-thirds were graduated from the secondary school that year). During the intervening year(s) most of the individuals enroll in private preparatory schools, the number of which is increasing rapidly. A Japanese educator has said:

> *Japan formally has a 6-3-3-4 system of schools, like many of the school systems in America. But as several Japanese educationists have pointed out, the system is really a "6-3-3-X-4" system, where the "X" refers to a period when the senior high school graduate spends time on his own (ranging from a few months to several years) preparing for college entrance examinations.*[4]

In the same article the author forcefully describes Japan's "examination hell." The tragedy is that the situation is likely to worsen as the competition for college admission is intensified by growing economic prosperity. One hopeful sign on the horizon is that plans are now under way for one national unified examination which would replace the individual examinations of each university. This would enable students to prepare for one exam only (and would institute certain other controls) although it would not, of course, eliminate competition for scarce places in college.

The Junior College System

Of the 321 junior colleges in Japan in 1963, 252 were private, forty-one were prefectural, and twenty-eight were national. One hundred seventy-five were women's colleges.

This type of college was introduced, by name, into Japan in 1949 by the late Walter C. Eells. The original colleges and the ones established subsequently were given temporary legal status as junior colleges by the Diet—a status that still exists despite efforts to get the Diet to make them part of the permanent system of education. A majority of the private junior colleges are attached to a high school. A few institutions maintain junior colleges along with a four-year college, although when this is the case, both institutions are unitary in the sense that the

junior college is not the lower division of the four-year college.

For the most part, junior colleges in Japan may be characterized as terminal institutions. Only a limited number of their graduates transfer to four-year colleges. In fact, the incidence of transfer from one college to another—even among four-year colleges—is almost nil.

Since the majority of junior colleges are for women who plan to and usually do marry soon after junior college, it is not surprising that home economics should be an important part of the curriculum. It was a delight to visit innumerable classes in food preparation, nutrition, clothing, flower arrangement, and related work and to find classrooms full of lively, interested girls being taught well with the aid of seemingly good teachers and good equipment.

But while home economics forms the base of the terminal program, there are almost invariably a limited number of academic specialties in each college. Often, one of the specialties is in literature. Art is also popular. In private junior colleges for men, the base program likewise is some terminal curriculum such as agriculture, automotive mechanics, electronics, photography, or food processing.

New Technical Colleges

The majority of the junior colleges are boarding institutions and provide residence facilities for part of the student body. Since most of them are located in cities, however, many students live at home.

A new type of institution similar to a junior college has come into existence recently. It is known as a five-year technical college and is a combination of the three upper secondary years plus two additional years beyond. Authorized by the Diet in 1961 in recognition of the need for training technicians, these schools now number thirty-four and enroll more than 15,000 students. The curriculum is integrated in a way that combines general and technical education through the five years with greater

specialization in the last two years. So far, the fields of training are limited to mechanical, electrical, civil, chemical, and architectural phases of semiprofessional work. It was reported that the ministry moved to establish and encourage these technical colleges upon the insistence by industry that technicians were badly needed.

The junior colleges are greatly concerned about their temporary legal status and are exerting considerable pressure in the Diet to give them permanent status. An opinion was expressed to the visitors by government officials to the effect that permanent status would undoubtedly come eventually; that the importance of the junior colleges as terminal institutions, especially for women, is well recognized and hence that their recognized value to the nation would certainly never permit their removal from the educational scene. But junior college officials claim, and with considerable justification, that lack of permanent status is bad for prestige purposes and that this affects adversely the role these institutions can play. It is to be hoped that through the Ministry of Education, the government may assess the situation soon.

The future of Japan can be characterized by advancing technology, an increasing awareness of the social needs of its people, a continuing trend toward the adoption of western cultures, an increasing awareness of the value of education both to the individual and the nation, and an increasing interest on the part of secondary school graduates to continue their education. If any or all these characteristics obtain, it seems reasonable that they will result in several possible educational developments.

Possible Developments

In the first place, there will undoubtedly be a demand for easier access to higher education. It is questionable that with a growing recognition of the value of higher education the road blocks now placed in its way through the present examination

system will be tolerated indefinitely. At the very least there may well be a reform in the examination system. It may also be, however, that new types of mid-level institutions will be created which will admit students on a more open basis than do the universities and in so doing provide an opportunity for students to prove their ability to do post-secondary work. As a matter of fact, it would not seem farfetched if the preparatory schools, which today are little more than coaching schools for those who have failed examinations, would themselves become *bona fide* educational institutions providing opportunity for people to learn rather than merely to compete in examinations. Whatever the development, it would seem that the pressures for more education for more people would inevitably reach the point where access to higher education would be easier and governed by human values more than is the case today.

A second possible development, related to the first one, is that new types of higher institutions are likely to be created for special purposes. The recent development of the five-year technical colleges is a good example of how an institution was brought into being to meet a social need. It is possible that as new needs are identified, other institutions will be established. New needs may include semiprofessional training in business occupations as well as in such fields as medical and social services.

It would appear that while the practice of widespread transfer from junior colleges to universities may be some distance away, it could eventually become one means by which access to higher education could be expanded. This suggests that in time the present junior and technical colleges may become comprehensive in nature, providing outlets for both students who will wish to pursue a university degree and for those who are interested in only two years of college before marriage or employment.

In other words, it is entirely possible that eventually the role of the junior college in Japan will differ

considerably from the somewhat narrow objectives of the private junior colleges as they operate today or of the newly established technical colleges. Such a change is likely to be more in the nature of a gradual evolution than a drastic revamping of education which would give the junior college a sudden and spectacular focus.

As one views the higher education scene in Japan, certain questions and possible steps come to mind. In the first place, there is the question of whether the manpower needs of the nation have really been studied carefully or, at least, whether they have been assessed as far as their implications for higher education are concerned. It would seem, therefore, that an appraisal of available information of this kind should be made and, if need be, a study initiated to assess the need for college-trained personnel in the many segments of Japanese society.

A second possible step is that of a thorough appraisal of the college admissions program as it operates today. What are the real facts with respect to demand for and supply of collegiate opportunities? What are the students like who are denied admission each year? What eventually happens to them when they are not admitted? From the point of view of sheer economics, does the nation gain or lose by its present program?

Still a third step might well be that of some experimentation with the transfer of students from one type of higher institution to another. Some exploration could determine whether mid-level institutions could contribute to the flow of students from secondary schools to the university degree.

Since Japan and the United States have much in common, there is little doubt that each can learn from the other. This suggests finally that it might be exceedingly profitable if some cooperative relationships between Japanese and United States institutions of higher education, as well as between professional associations in the two countries, could be

developed. Perhaps this would be especially helpful in the case of junior colleges.

[1] Unpublished data from the Ministry of Education. See also *Education in 1961*, Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, Government of Japan, 1963.

[2] An applicant who applied to two universities was counted as two applicants, etc.

[3] Reports prepared by Daishiro Hidaka and others for the International Study of University Admissions, Frank Bowles, director, p. 18. See also *Education in 1961*, Japan, p. 98.

[4] Kobayashi, Victor N. "Japan's Examination Hell." *The Educational Forum* 28:20; November, 1963.

By Akira Watanabe

GENESIS OF THE JAPANESE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Junior colleges were started in Japan in April, 1950. They were unique institutions in our new democracy. And they revolutionized our entire system of traditional education.

Japanese junior colleges were put into a trying situation politically, socially, and educationally, in the very process of gaining their existence. Article 109 of the Current School Education Law made junior colleges temporary higher institutions. Nevertheless, they have made quite an impressive development leading to today's flowering prosperity.

Whenever we look at the developing Japanese junior colleges, we cannot help recollecting the late Dr. Walter C. Eells, former education officer on General MacArthur's staff in Tokyo after the war. He was indeed a leader. He gave birth to this unique institution of higher education in our land during a period of educational reform. Dr. Eells might be

called "the father of the Japanese junior colleges."

There is no doubt that he took his ideas from the junior colleges in the United States. His career as executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges testifies to this more eloquently than anything else. The writer himself was honored with the privilege of translating into Japanese, "Why Junior College Terminal Education?" which was quite helpful at the very outset of the Japanese junior college movement.

During these thirteen years our junior colleges have been playing an important role in the democratization of higher education, though being confronted with distressing needs such as revision of the School Education Law, betterment of employment conditions, and construction of a desirable terminal curriculum, to say nothing of larger college budgets. In addition to these difficulties, the very name of "tanki-daigaku," which literally means "short-term college," has tended to decrease the weight of junior colleges. This is the general feeling of the junior college people concerned. Thus, from time to time, academic-minded, high-brow persons criticize junior colleges as "half colleges," unworthy of being called "college," in the real sense of the word.

Corresponding to the strong demand from the impressively developing industrial world, the Ministry of Education tried to put the revision of the School Education Bill before the Diet for the third time in

*TABLE I**

Number of Junior Colleges Classified into Two Types of Men's and Women's According to Their Founders

Founded	Sum Total	National			Public			Private		
		Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1950	149	—	—	—	17	10	7	132	41	71
1951	180	4	4	—	24	14	8	152	68	84
1952	228	7	7	—	37	26	11	184	89	95
1953	233	12	12	—	37	25	12	184	89	95
1954	251	17	17	—	41	27	14	193	96	96
1955	265	19	19	—	42	29	13	204	98	106
1956	268	19	19	—	42	30	12	206	96	110
1957	269	19	19	—	39	27	12	211	96	114
1958	327	21	21	—	37	23	14	269	138	131
1959	272	24	24	—	38	24	14	210	91	119
1960	289	23	23	—	39	24	15	222	90	132
1961	290	23	23	—	39	24	15	223	91	132
1962	306	23	23	—	40	25	15	237	97	140
1963	321	23	23	—	41	25	14	252	96	157

*The above is according to the statistics report of Technical Education Section, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1963.

1959. The proposal was to establish junior colleges on a permanent basis. However, it also aimed at a completely new establishment of specialized vocational colleges, called "senkadaigaku," into which all existing junior colleges would have been required to move within five years, beginning in 1959. This experiment was opposed by all the staff of the Association of Private Junior Colleges in Japan which is supported by those highly interested in the democratization of higher education. Naturally this resulted in the failure of the Ministry of Education in gaining approval of the bill. It was the most trying time for the Japanese junior colleges during these thirteen years.

*TABLE II**

Fixed Number of Students to Be Admitted into Junior Colleges According to Their Founders

Year	Sum Total	National			Public			Private		
		Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1950	20,155	—	—	—	2,270	940 (240)	1,090	17,885	6,290 (4,920)	6,515 (160)
1951	24,415	300	(300)	—	3,270	1,500 (500)	1,190 (80)	20,845	6,455 (5,605)	8,025 (760)
1952	27,891	520	(520)	—	4,120	1,930 (880)	1,230 (80)	23,251	7,105 (6,540)	8,546 (1,060)
1953	31,111	920	(920)	—	4,650	1,990 (1,170)	1,410 (80)	25,541	7,535 (6,925)	9,561 (1,520)
1954	33,276	1,340	(1,340)	—	4,990	2,180 (1,170)	1,520 (120)	26,946	8,260 (6,925)	10,091 (1,670)
1955	34,666	1,600	(1,600)	—	5,020	2,400 (1,010)	1,490 (120)	28,046	8,290 (7,015)	10,771 (1,970)
1956	35,066	1,600	(1,600)	—	5,180	2,400 (1,130)	1,530 (120)	28,286	7,830 (7,005)	11,341 (2,110)
1957	33,361	1,670	(1,670)	—	4,485	2,135 (1,260)	970 (120)	27,206	7,060 (12,061)	6,145 (1,940)
1958	33,985	1,930	80 (1,850)	—	4,485	2,045 (1,390)	930 (120)	27,570	6,920 (12,815)	5,865 (1,970)
1959	33,340	2,260	80 (2,180)	—	4,855	2,235 (1,420)	1,080 (120)	26,225	6,160 (13,115)	5,030 (1,920)
1960	34,680	2,540	200 (2,340)	—	4,705	2,075 (1,480)	1,030 (120)	27,435	6,110 (14,225)	5,180 (1,920)
1961	36,385	2,940	600 (2,340)	—	4,975	2,275 (1,550)	1,030 (120)	28,470	6,400 (15,335)	5,125 (1,610)
1962	41,340	3,060	720 (2,340)	—	5,260	2,495 (1,030)	1,615 (120)	33,020	7,570 (5,505)	18,235 (1,710)
1963	45,735	3,100	760 (2,340)	—	5,380	2,495 (1,030)	1,735 (120)	37,255	8,160 (5,835)	21,600 (1,630)

*Data from statistics report of Technical Education Section, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1963.

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicates evening course students.

Paradoxically, it may be said that this adverse situation stimulated our junior colleges to their present prosperity. The development of junior colleges, unique in the history of democratic higher education, is to be valued highly. Throughout Japan these unique higher institutions have been increasing in number and, consequently, the number of students admitted annually has also increased. Tables I and II indicate the latest situation.

Our junior colleges are developing not only quantitatively but also qualitatively. Above all is the curricular improvement in terminal education. Challenging efforts and endeavors are required in the realization of this essential purpose.

Tokyo Metropolitan Association of Private Junior Colleges, under which seventy-two junior colleges are united, has begun an extensive program of research. Next year Tokyo Metropolitan Office will have a subsidy for the expense of staff research amounting to ¥3,000,000, approximately equivalent to $8,333. This timely offer has given impetus to research in education activities.

Our junior colleges have gained increasing popularity among high school graduates desirous of having a college education in their own community. By dint of this popularity, junior colleges have been developing in almost all the local districts on prefectual level. They are now gradually extending to comparatively smaller cities. In this trend, one might well call them "people's colleges." We can easily imagine how they are satisfying the earnest desires of the high school graduates, especially those of young women, providing them with a variety of courses useful for their future work as better housewives and mothers as well as office workers. At the present time, they have come to be a center of women's higher education in the local community. Meanwhile they are trying to be a cultural center, too, providing extension courses of community service programs.

Junior colleges in Japan, contrasted with those in the United States, are, to a great degree, terminal

institutions. This can be favorably interpreted as democratizing higher education in a local community. And in consequence, only a small percentage of transfer-minded students can avail themselves of these institutions as a stepping-stone to four-year colleges. At any rate, Japanese junior colleges are serving higher education through both functions—terminal and preparatory—just as they do in the United States.

According to their background, the colleges are usually classified into national, public, and private. Table III indicates this situation. The writer is of the opinion that Japanese junior colleges are growing rapidly as "sister colleges" of the American junior colleges.

Generally speaking, Japanese junior colleges offer few courses on a semiprofessional level. Bulletin analysis demonstrates this fact. Some provide day courses only and other evening courses only, while still others offer both courses. In connection with this situation, our junior colleges can be classified as shown in Table IV. The writer assumes all the junior colleges should provide both day and evening courses, if possible, for different kinds of students. It is quite clear that in this way they can contribute far more to both youth and adults.

The number of students to be admitted into various types of junior colleges annually is indicated in Table V. However, private junior colleges usually

*TABLE III**

Number of Junior Colleges Classified into Men's and Women's

Founder	Men	Women	Total
National	28	—	28
Public	25	16	41
Private	95	157	252
Sum Total	148	173	321

*Data drawn from the synopsis of junior colleges, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1963.

TABLE IV[*]

Founder	Day Course Only			Evening Course Only			Day & Evening Courses		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
National	5	—	5	23	—	23	—	—	—
Public	14	15	29	4	1	5	7	—	7
Private	43	141	184	18	—	18	34	16	50
Sum Total	62	156	218	45	1	46	41	16	57

[*]Data from the synopsis of junior colleges, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1963.

admit more than their fixed number of students so they can enlarge their budgets. Urgent demand by industry for skillful technicians on the semiprofessional level stimulated the Ministry of Education to give some financial aid for the management of private technical junior colleges, excepting agricultural ones. This is heartily welcomed by the junior college people in general.

Japanese junior colleges are still on a temporary basis, as far as the School Education Law is concerned, despite their impressive development during these thirteen years. All the junior college people concerned, particularly leaders of the Association of Private Junior Colleges in Japan, repeatedly emphasized the importance of establishing junior colleges on a permanent basis through revising the School Education Law with respect to article 109 which regulates junior colleges. This has not yet been solved due to rather complicated factors, which include the difference of opinion held by members of the Diet and Ministry of Education, and also the traditional concept of German-type academic colleges.

Continued efforts are expected to come to a fruitful result in the current session of the Diet. This expectation is supported by the increasing popularity of junior colleges throughout Japan.

There is also the problem of constructing a desirable two-year terminal curriculum. Terminal students compose a major part of the Japanese junior

TABLE V[*]

Fixed Number of Students to Be Admitted into Junior Colleges According to Types of Founders

Founder	Day (First Course)			Evening (Second Course)			Sum Total		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
National	760	—	760	2,340	—	2,340	3,100	—	3,100
Public	2,495	1,735	4,230	1,030	120	1,150	3,525	1,855	5,380
Private	8,150	21,600	29,750	5,525	1,630	7,455	13,675	23,230	37,205
Total	11,415	23,335	34,750	8,895	1,750	10,945	20,310	25,085	45,705

[*]Data from the synopsis of junior colleges, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1963.

colleges. This construction is a most important problem, directly influencing their learning on the semiprofessional level. Some educators emphasize the desirability of lengthening junior college courses so that high school students can be admitted from the eleventh grade. With the enthusiastic demand for technical skills, industrial arts, and commercial arts, caused by the rapid development of the world, general education, an essential factor in higher education, is being neglected. Extremists contend rather boldly, "We see no use for this sort of education." Under the circumstances, general education needs to be stressed all the more.

Without general education junior colleges cannot be a member of the higher education family. Needless to say, such junior colleges are not worthy of being called "college" in the real sense of the word.

Then, what are the successes of junior college in Japan? As can be seen already in the above discussion, they are contributing a great deal to the democratization of higher education, providing abundant opportunity for the high school graduates in the local community. Most of the Japanese junior colleges are private. The major part of them are for women. Why are they so successful? They are evidently identified with the particular social and educational situation into which young women are placed. As already referred to, democratic Japan demands higher education for women all the more as the years advance.

Junior colleges in Japan are pioneering in the diffusion of culture to many local communities all over Japan. They are contributing considerably to the development of manpower both in youth and adults. In this sense they might rightly be called an institute of manpower development in the local community. Communities are proud to have their colleges evaluated this way.

Future Prospects

With the increasing popularity of junior colleges among the people and the united, continued efforts

of the leadership people concerned, the problem of establishing junior colleges on a permanent basis through revision of the current School Education Law is going to be solved, presumably, in this Forty-Third Ordinary Session of the Diet. The solution of this problem is expected to have a most desirable influence on all the problems present and future. With junior colleges established on a permanent basis, the pride and the spirit of the junior college people will be strengthened to an outstanding degree.

According to Mr. M. Nakahara, general director of the Association of Private Junior Colleges in Japan, approximately twenty junior colleges will be established during 1964.

Prediction is hazardous work, yet taking all things into consideration, the future of the Japanese junior college can be foretold in all the continuing development of democratic higher institutions. The prospect of this unique institution is presumed to be brighter as years go on. All the junior college people here are looking forward to the promising future.

By Akira Watanabe

JUNIOR COLLEGES BLOSSOM IN JAPAN

June 17, 1964, will be kept in memory forever as one of the brightest and most delightful days in the history of the junior college movement in Japan. On this day the Revision Bill of the School Education Law was passed by the Forty-Sixth Session of the Japanese Diet. The law gave long-awaited recognition of junior colleges, started in 1950, as full-fledged higher institutions of learning.

Drastic educational reforms in post-war Japan, motivated by a desire for greater "democratization of people's education," resulted in a system in which the responsibility for higher education was given to the four-year college. Many Japanese colleges could not be easily reorganized into four-year institutions, however, and thus 149 of them were allowed to function as temporary two or three-year colleges. The late Walter C. Eells, former higher education officer on General Douglas MacArthur's staff in Tokyo, contributed greatly to the birth of this unique college. His vision, vigor, efforts, and endeavors toward the democratization of higher education for the new Japan, are qualities

greatly admired and appreciated by the Japanese people. His great contributions to our educational system, have earned him the respected name, "Father of Japanese Junior Colleges."

Developing Junior Colleges

Although in great distress at their outset, junior colleges have been making unparalleled strides in Japanese education. Presently there are 413 junior colleges in Japan, with an enrollment of 67,841. This is sixty-seven more colleges than there are four-year institutions although the four-year schools enroll about 799,700 more students. There are presently forty-six new junior colleges being considered for accreditation. It is expected that the total number of junior colleges will reach 450 with the coming year, a tripling in their number over their seventeen-year history. This has indeed been a speedy development and the speed speaks eloquently for their contribution toward the goal of more democratic higher education. Table I indicates the existing number of various types of junior colleges.

Junior colleges are developing throughout Japan, satisfying the urgent needs of those young people desirous of higher education for their future careers and for life. However, most junior colleges are located in city districts, especially such metropolitan areas as Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya.

Curriculum offerings at Japanese junior colleges are intended to meet the aims of Article 69 of the newly revised School Education Law which reads: "The aims of the junior colleges are to instruct and

TABLE I

NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES IN JAPAN

Founder	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
National	24	—	24
Public	26	13	39
Private	108	242	350
Total	158	255	413

From the *Synopsis of Junior Colleges*, Higher Education and Sciences Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1966.

encourage intensive study in the arts and sciences on the semiprofessional level, equipping graduates with the abilities necessary for the vocational and practical way of life."

In keeping with this law, the institutions, overwhelmingly geared to the terminal program, offer semiprofessional courses as well as other, often colorful, curriculums. Junior colleges in Japan can never be called "half-colleges" in view of their enriched curriculums.

Table II lists the numbers of junior colleges offering particular course subjects and Table III presents typical offerings of the Toyo Eiwa Jogakuin Junior College, a representative junior college in Japan.

Some junior colleges offer day courses only, others evening courses only, and some both. A breakdown is included in Table IV. It is the feeling of most educators that all the junior colleges should provide both day and evening courses so that they can contribute to the youth and adults in the community. Of course, those junior college graduates who fulfill the necessary requirements are permitted to transfer to four-year colleges.

Junior college enrollments have already been discussed briefly but reference to Table V will reveal more details. This table lists so-called "fixed enrollments"—or desirable enrollments. Like junior colleges in the United States, however, many are overenrolled and the overenrollment is not indicated. Actually overenrollment in Japanese junior colleges is an economic necessity, although an undesirable necessity. Eighty-five per cent of the junior colleges are private institutions, getting no public support, and they are faced with the need to enroll, and get tuition payments from, as many students as possible to provide needed capital to run the institutions.

The Problems Involved

Junior colleges in Japan are fresh, recent members of the higher education family and of course are confronted with challenging problems. Presently their future course of development is being deter-

mined and an evaluation is being made based on social, economic, cultural, and educational considerations. Such evaluation is designed to beneficially strengthen the junior college in budget, staff, facilities, and equipment. As in the United States, some junior colleges have strong ties to a parent four-year institution. Budget and enrollment are strengthened through this arrangement although there is a question as to their independence as junior colleges.

TABLE II

NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH ESTABLISHED COURSE SUBJECTS

	National			*Public*			*Private*			*Total*		
Subjects	*D.*	*E.*	*T.**	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*
Literature	1	6(6)**	7(6)	11	2	13	147(1)	20	167(1)	159(1)	28(6)	187(1)
Culture							13		13	13		13
Social work, social welfare				2	1	3	5		5	7	1	8
Religion							13(1)	3	16(1)	13(1)	3	16(1)
Education, nursing				8		8	103	9	112	111	9	120
Law, economy, commerce		11(1)	11(1)	7	7	14	36(2)	34	100(2)	43(2)	41(1)	84(3)
Industry	4(4)	42	46(4)	9	4	13	43(10)	21(2)	64(12)	56(14)	67(2)	123(16)
Agriculture				9		9	12(1)		12(1)	21(1)		21(1)
Home administration				24		24	229	15	244	253	15	268
Sick-nursing, welfare				2		2	4		4	6		6
Physicals				2		2	14		14	16		16
Music, fine arts				3		3	32(2)	4	36(2)	35(2)	4	39(2)
Etc.***			1	1		1	9(1)	6(1)	15(2)	9(1)	7(1)	16(2)

From the *Statistics Report of Junior Colleges*, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1966.

* D—Day Course; E—Evening Course; T—Total

** Numbers in parentheses indicate those junior colleges which no longer accept applicants and are to be abolished with the final graduation of students now there.

*** Etc. includes transportation, efficiency, public relations, sightseeing, psychological skill, broadcasting, hygiene techniques, environment hygiene, and social science.

TABLE III

COURSES AND THE CURRICULUMS OF TOYO EIWA JOGAKUIN JUNIOR COLLEGE *

I. Nursing course
   A. General education—humanities, social sciences, natural sciences
   B. Professional education—music, theory of music, physical education, introduction to social welfare, introduction to child study, hygiene and child physiology
   C. Teaching profession education—educational psychology, child psychology, history of education, methods, study of nursing content
   D. Foreign language education—English
   E. Physical education

II. English literature course
   A. General education—humanities, Japanese literature, social sciences, law, sociology
   B. Professional education—English literature, psychology, natural sciences, English language, English-American history, Japanese language expressions, foreign trade, typewriting, stenography
   C. Teaching profession education—educational psychology, principles of education, teaching practice
   D. Foreign language education—English, French

III. Intensive course (one year)
   A. Nursing course—lectures and seminars
   B. English course—lectures and seminars

* There are twenty-three full-time faculty members at this college and 360 students.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES CLASSIFIED INTO COURSES ACCORDING TO FOUNDERS

Founder	*Day course only*			*Evening course only*			*Day and evening course*		
	Men	*Women*	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
National	2	—	2	22	—	22	—	—	—
Public	14	15	29	4	1	5	5	—	5
Private	56	223	279	15	—	15	38	18	56
Total	72	238	310	41	1	42	43	18	61

From the *Synopsis of Junior Colleges*, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1966.

TABLE V

FIXED ENROLLMENTS OF JUNIOR COLLEGES ACCORDING TO ESTABLISHED COURSE SUBJECTS

Subjects	*National*			*Public*			*Private*			*Total*		
	D.	*E.*	*T.*	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*	*D.*	*E.*	*T.*
Literature	80		80	740	80	820	10,610	1,535	11,145	11,430	1,615	13,045
Culture							1,230		1,230	1,230		1,230
Social work welfare				140	40	180	210		210	350	40	390
Religion							365	110	475	365	110	475
Education nursing				465		465	5,590	440	6,030	6,055	440	6,495
Law, economy, commerce		1,080	1,080	660	720	1,380	3,200	2,970	6,170	3,860	4,770	8,630
Industry		1,730	1,730	360	180	540	2,950	1,830	4,180	3,410	3,140	6,550
Agriculture				350		350	670		670	1,020		1,020
Home administration				1,950		1,950	22,110	1,140	23,250	24,060	1,140	25,200
Sick nursing, welfare				70		70	150		150	220		220
Physicals				85		85	890		890	975		975
Music, fine arts					120	120	460	360	820	460	480	940
Total	80	2,810	2,890	5,030	1,140	6,170	50,806	7,957	58,763	55,916	11,925	67,841

From the *Statistics Report of Junior Colleges*, Higher Education and Science Bureau, Ministry of Education, 1966.

The Japanese educators in junior colleges are most concerned with strengthening their transfer programs and wish them to have the stature of the terminal programs. It is felt that continued education in the four-year institution is desirable for students' full self-realization but also for increasing the pool of educated manpower in the community. Now that Japanese junior colleges have been granted full recognition as institutions of higher learning they will concentrate even more on shaking the image of terminal institutions, exclusively.

It must be admitted, however, that most of the curriculum offerings in the Japanese junior colleges are directed at women students. Now that our industrial world is making such accelerated developments, stimulated by the increased power of modern science and technology, it is earnestly hoped that more men's industrial colleges will be established. Despite the increasing number of national technical colleges, there are a large number of high school graduates longing for technical college education in industrial Japan.

Future Prospect

Though not rosy, the future prospects for junior colleges in Japan can be foretold as brighter than ever when one looks at such favorable factors as full-fledged status for the junior colleges, and the fairly high level of employment. The continually increasing population desiring and requiring higher education will also contribute to the growth of the colleges, as will the higher living standard brought on by the developing industrialization and urbanization of this country. No hazards seem to loom in the future of junior colleges in Japan. All the junior college people here are looking forward to their promising future.

By Hiroshi Naito

ABOUT THE JAPANESE JUNIOR COLLEGES

EDITOR'S NOTE: The following is a presentation given by Hiroshi Naito, president of Tokyo Agricultural Junior College, at the AAJC Board of Directors' meeting in Honolulu in January. Dr. Naito was present to discuss planning for the international assembly, scheduled to be held immediately preceding the 1970 AAJC convention.

* * *

Until the close of World War II, the higher educational system of Japan was composed of high schools, colleges and universities, and the higher normal schools. Their purpose and character were determined by the "old-system" philosophy of education. After the war, the influence of democratic ideas resulted in a reformation of the educational structure.

Following the report of the United States Educational Commission to Japan, the Educational Reform Committee was established in the Japanese Cabinet. Through this committee developed the con-

cept of "new-system" education. In 1947, the educational basic law and school educational law were enacted, and compulsive education was extended to the lower secondary school. The new-system high schools became operational in 1948 and new-system universities in 1949. Thus, the new educational system of 6-3-3-4 was effected.

In the reformation of the educational system, however, one problem did emerge: How to deal with the old-system colleges which could not reach the level of new-system universities.

Before the war, higher educational institutions had been concentrated in the big cities; these were burned and, in some cases, completely destroyed during the hostilities. Great amounts of funds and resources were needed for restoration, but high inflation stiffened the financial condition of private schools. In addition, the economic and social state of Japan after the war demanded a special higher education institution which would shorten the period of university education and cultivate professional and practical laborers.

At this point, the junior college system in the U.S.A. seemed to offer a solution to the problem. Thus, the two- or three-year, temporary educational system was begun in Japan. The aim was to provide (1) more generalized higher education, (2) college education for practical and professional vocations, (3) adult education, and (4) connections with four-year colleges.

One hundred and forty-nine junior colleges (seventeen public and one hundred thirty-two private) were established in the first year. They developed successfully and became permanently incorporated into the educational system. By 1964, the total had reached 290—almost double the initial number. The most recent figures indicate the number of junior colleges in Japan to be 468 (23 national, 43 public, and 403 private).

More than half of the junior colleges in Japan are women's schools. One reason for this is that

when the colleges were established, most were elevated from old-system women's colleges. Another reason is that the concepts of coeducation and equality of educational opportunity for women were recognized. Before the war, boys and girls were separated in schools, except at the primary level, and universities were closed to women. Old-system colleges were the highest education institutions women could attend. As a result of the abolition of these restrictions and, more importantly, the establishment of junior colleges, the number of female applicants to higher education institutions has greatly increased. The percentage of female students in old-system colleges was 13 per cent; in 1967, the percentage of female students in four-year colleges was approximately 18 per cent, while in junior college the percentage was approximately 81 per cent.

The curriculum pursued most in women's junior colleges is home economics, followed by literature and child care. In men's junior colleges, the most popular curriculums are engineering technology, law, commerce, and economics.

Private junior colleges train most of the kindergarten teachers in the country. In 1967, there were about 10,000 kindergartens in Japan; every year this number increases by 500. Thus, the junior college is playing a most important role in the development of Japanese kindergarten education.

Junior colleges are small in enrollments compared to four-year colleges. In 1968, the average number of students in the four-year college was 3,145, while the average number in the junior college was 520. The number of students per teacher in the junior college is 17.5.

Generalized higher education today is supporting the developing Japanese economy. Main industries are concentrated in the big cities, as are the universities; consequently, the numbers of students at these universities become great. Before the war, there was no university which had more than 10,000 students. In 1967, there were four national uni-

versities and eighteen private universities which had more than 10,000 students in each; among these, four universities each had more than 30,000 students.

Contrary to the situation in the universities, junior colleges are located in small or middle-size cities throughout Japan and are on a smaller scale; therefore in a junior college, each student can get a more personal education while at the same time attaining an equal educational level as the university student.

There are very few radical students in the junior colleges who participate in Zengakuren (All Japanese Student Movement Association).

One-third of all junior colleges offer night courses; several offer courses combining day and night studies for the student whose work schedule requires an irregular school schedule. Both courses extend three years. The fact that junior colleges are scattered all over Japan and offer night courses illustrates the contribution of junior college education to the cultural elevation of the communities.

The majority of Japanese junior colleges are privately owned. In 1968, 402 out of 468 colleges were private schools; 90 per cent of all junior colleges attend private institutions. (The same tendency exists in four-year colleges; 70 per cent of all four-year college students attend private schools.) Private schools constitute a majority through their own efforts and not by governmental aid; however, private junior colleges gradually are beginning to face financial difficulties. Every year, consumer goods prices rise 6 per cent; this inflation affects the costs of maintaining college staffs, as well. College authorities cannot raise tuitions for fear of student rebellion. The junior college association in Japan is making the acquisition of governmental aid one of its most important tasks.

Future Plans

The junior college is making a major contribution to the generalization of higher education in Japan. The percentage of high school applicants for higher education is presently almost 20 per cent. Half of these applications are children of salaried-class families. In the near future, the percentage is expected to reach 40 per cent, the same percentage as in the U.S.A. Japanese junior colleges must make an effort to accept the increasing number of applicants.

Junior colleges have provided an extension of vocational fields for their graduates. During the first ten years of the junior college, graduates found it difficult to obtain employment; however, as the country's economy was restored to prosperity, there was a greater demand for intellectual workers. Junior colleges are providing these workers.

Female graduates are accepted equally as professionals. The activities of female graduates in Japanese industry are remarkable; thus, business education is attaining an important position in women's junior colleges.

Among the traditional junior colleges which offered general education, the availability of vocational education curriculums is increasing. Recently, programs in electrical engineering, medical technology, circumstance hygiene, and radiation have been established.

Japanese junior colleges are developing; Japanese society expects them to continue their development.

By Cheryl-Lynn Walker

JUNIOR COLLEGES— STRENGTHENING JAPAN'S ECONOMY

The four principle islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, and Hokkaido, and 3,000 smaller islands comprise the country of Japan. The total land mass of Japan is less extensive than California; however, Japan is six times as populated. Since Japan also has six times as many junior colleges as California, the ratio of the Japanese population to the number of its junior colleges is identical to that of California. This impressive feat was accomplished in only nineteen years.

Japan has a gross national product per capita income of $860 in contrast to $3,520 in the United States. Bear in mind that two-thirds of the world's nations still have a per capita income of less than $300.[1] According to the Japan Ministry of Education Whitepaper, 1965, the Japanese people sustain the belief that the future of their economy is dependent upon the amplification of industrializa-

tion coupled with the expansion of international trade—the import of raw materials and the export of finished goods.[2]

There are discrepancies between the type of educational product and the type needed for future economic growth. In order to meet manpower needs, the Japanese nation requires more people trained at the semiprofessional level in business, medical, and physical and social science areas. The nation has an abundance of graduates in the fields of literature, history, philosophy, fine arts, and homemaking. Inopportunely, more than half of the junior college students are enrolled in fields of oversupply.

Role of the Junior College

Educators in Japan perceive the role that the junior college could and is performing in making up the manpower deficit. Article 69 of the 1964 School Law reads:

> The aims of the junior colleges are to instruct and encourage intensive study in the arts and sciences on the semiprofessional level, equipping graduates with the abilities for the vocational and practical way of life.[3]

Why cannot nations direct young people more effectively into needed fields? In part, because control lies with the purse-string. Americans experience difficulty building up vocational programs in their junior colleges because the preponderance of parental support and resultant leverage (taxes) are for the transfer program. American students often reflect the belief that the transfer program leads to jobs of more social consequence than the terminal program.

Very few Japanese junior colleges receive public funds for capital or operating expenditures. The vast majority depend heavily upon tuition receipts and examination, library, and museum fees to finance their programs. Japan experiences somewhat the same sociological problem which America faces. Traditionally, the desire to study humanities reflected culture, but the new semiprofessional-techni-

cal fields—which have no tradition—lack social status in the eyes of many Japanese parents who are financing the education of their children.

Japanese junior colleges have the "horse in front of the cart" by establishing their terminal programs first. If the Japanese were to rush into the transfer programs before the terminal courses have acquired economic status, they might also inherit our "prestige transfer problem" and defeat some of the excellent vocational programs now in progress.

What are some of the vocational programs in progress and what types of curriculums do Japanese junior colleges offer? The Japan Overseas Advertiser reveals the following array of major fields:[4] agriculture; agronomy; aircraft engineering; American language; applied chemistry; architecture; automobile engineering; botanical agriculture; brewage; broadcasting; Buddhism; business administration; canning production; child education; child welfare; Chinese; Christianity; civil engineering; clothing; commerce; construction; dairy farming; dental hygienics; design arts; dyeing, spinning and weaving; economics; education; electricity; electro-communication; electronic engineering; English; French; general studies; German; home economics; hygienic engineering; industrial chemistry; industrial design; Japanese literature; law; living arts; living design; living science; metallurgy; music; nursery education; nutrition; photography; physical education; printing; psychology; psychological technology; Russian; sculpture; selling efficiency; shipbuilding; social welfare; sociology; theology; traffic administration; veterinary medicine; welding; wireless communications; wood industrial arts.

The Ministry of Education reports Japanese junior college certificate requirements to be four units of humanities, four units of natural science, four units of social science, two units of physical education, twenty-four units of professional education (choice of major as above), and twenty-four

elective units—sixty-two in total. Each college may require additional units.

It is not at all uncommon for the individual tanki daigaku (short-term college) to offer only one major, such as canning production or Buddhism. These two-year institutions for the most part are not comprehensive colleges offering the gamut from *A* to *Z* like some of their American counterparts; however, this should in no way detract from their status. The curriculums which are offered appear to be rigorous; for examples, consider the following.

Besides completing the foregoing requirements, first-year food technology students must practice one month in a commercial canning plant in the processing of agricultural products (no units), and second-year students practice one month in the processing of fish. Students pay the small sum of 8,100 yen ($22.60 at exchange rate of one yen = .002798 dollar) tuition per year. The food-processing companies in Japan need certificated students.

Students at Kiryu Junior College of Engineering pay 9,600 yen tuition per year and have the option of electing one of four possible majors: mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, industrial chemistry, and dyeing and textile engineering. Technicians are needed in the physical sciences, and graduates readily find semiprofessional positions upon completion of their certificates.

Sixty-one per cent of the Japanese nation is forest, 3.7 per cent pasture, 21.6 per cent urban and wasteland, and only 13.7 per cent cultivated land. Hiroshima Public Agricultural Junior College serves the Japanese nation by training students to obtain the greatest yield possible from the cultivated land. One-third of its graduates return to the farm, and the remaining portion become agricultural extension workers. The tuition is 15,000 yen per year.

Sangyo Nohritsu Tanki Daigaku is a privately managed three-year junior college. Its stated purpose is to perform teaching and research activities concerning theories and practical techniques of

CURRICULUM OF TOYO TANKI DAIGAKU—FOOD TECHNOLOGY

General education		*Professional education*	
Subject	*Units*	*Subject*	*Units*
Humanities (4)		Required:	
Philosophy	2	General canning technology	2
Ethics	2	Marine product processing	
Literature	2	Lecture	3
Natural science (4)		Lab	2
Mathematics	2	Fruit and vegetable processing	
Physics	2	Lecture	3
Chemistry	2	Lab	2
Biology	2	Meat processing	
Social science (4)		Lecture	1
Law	2	Lab	1
Economics	2	Food microbiology	
Statistics	2	Lecture	2
Other requirements		Lab	1
Physical education	2	Food chemistry	2
English	4	Food hygienics	2
		Dietetical chemistry	2
		Industrial chemistry	2
		Mechanics	2
		Drafting of machine	2
		Electives	
		Colloid chemistry	2
		Biological chemistry	2
		Quality control	1
		Sensory test	1
		Analytical chemistry	
		Lecture	2
		Lab	1
		Food refrigeration technology	2
		Designing of food plants	2
		Business administration	2
		Electronics	2
		Boiler engineering	
		Lecture	2
		Lab	1

CURRICULUM OF KIRYU TANKI DAIGAKU OF ENGINEERING

General education		*Professional education*
Subject	*Units*	*Subject*
Humanities (4)		Inorganic chemistry
Philosophy	2	Analytical chemistry
Literature	2	Physical chemistry
History	2	Chemical thermodynamics
Natural science (4)		Organic chemistry
Mathematics	2	Organic chemical lab
Physics	2	Dyeing chemistry
Chemistry	2	Dyeing chemical lab
Social science (4)		Inorganic industrial chemistry
Sociology	2	Organic industrial chemistry
Law	2	High polymer chemistry
Economics	2	Industrial high polymer chemistry
Other requirements		Materials of fiber
Physical education		Cellulose chemistry
English or German		Dyeing, finishing technique
		Weaving and spinning
		Applied surface chemistry
		Mechanical engineering
		Electrical engineering
		Chemical engineering
		Quality control
		Seminar
		Analytical chemical experiment
		Graduation project or experiment

CURRICULUM OF HIROSHIMA AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

General education		*Professional education*
Subject	*Units*	*Subject*
Humanities (4)		Farm management
Literature	2	Agricultural law
History	2	Agricultural civil engineering
Education	2	Agricultural pharmacology
Natural science (4)		Meteorology
Biology	2	Agricultural engineering
Mathematics	2	Forestry
Chemistry	2	Entomology
		Soil science
Social science (4)		Compost science
Sociology	2	Plant pathology
Economics	2	Animal husbandry
Statistics	2	Vegetable horticulture
		Fruit horticulture
Other requirements		Flower horticulture
Physical education		Genetics
		Agricultural product marketing
		Wood processing
		Feed science

business administration and industrial management. Forty per cent of the students are sent to the college by their employers. The tuition is from 50,000 to 200,000 yen per year depending on the course pursued. Possible majors are: production management, general management, and marketing management.

Students at Aichi Prefectural Tanki Daigaku study the above curriculum to prepare to be kindergarten teachers. Aichi also offers majors in Japanese literature, English literature, and child welfare. Annual tuition is 60,000 yen.

Despite sociological and economic hurdles, Japanese junior colleges are innovating outstanding programs to meet the country's manpower needs. By

CURRICULUM OF SANGYO NOHRITSU TANKI DAIGAKU*

Professional education common to all majors	*Professional education—production management*
Theories of efficiency	Introduction to production management
Scientific management	Production engineering
Modern economics	Plant management work-study
Business administration	Manufacturing process engineering
Business consulting (production)	Quality control
Business consulting (management and sales)	Production management lab
Management mathematics	Material handling and transportation engineering
Introduction to industrial management	Contract management
Business administration workshop	Materials management
Organization theories	Plant clerical work management
Taxation law	
Introduction to financial management	
Analysis of financial statements	
Cost management	
Cost accounting	
Budget control	
Financial analysis	
Funding management	
Bookkeeping	
Introduction to personnel management	
Industrial training	
Salary and wage administration	
Behavioral science	
Labor law	
Job analysis	
Operational supervision	
Personnel management workshops	

*General education meets state requirements.

CURRICULUM OF AICHI PREFECTURAL JUNIOR COLLEGE—CHILD PSYCHOLOGY

General education		*Professional education*
Subject	*Units*	*Subject*
Humanities (4)		Introduction to child welfare
Philosophy	2	Family sociology
Ethics	2	Child psychology
Psychology	2	Clinical psychology
Japanese or Oriental history	2	Mental testing
Western history	2	Mental hygiene
Aesthetics of history of art	2	Science of nursery
Literature		Science of home education
		Children's culture
		Musical theory
Natural sciences (4)		Vocal music
Physics	2	Instrumental music
Mathematics	2	Art
Chemistry	2	Drawing and handiwork
Biology	2	Theory of physical education
Physiology	2	Physiology
		Children's science
Social sciences (4)		Dietetics
Japanese constitution	2	Science of nursing
Jurisprudence	2	Seminar of psychology
Economics	2	Seminar of pedagogy
Sociology	2	Educational psychology
Descriptive geology	2	Study of nursery quality
Domestic science	2	Educational sociology
Statistics	2	History of education
		Method of education
Other requirements		Management of school
English, French, or German		Teaching practice
Physical education		Graduation thesis

providing needed human resources, junior colleges strengthen the Japanese economy.

[1] 1968-per capita income figures.

[2] Japan Ministry of Education, *Education in Japan: A Graphic Presentation, 1964*. Tokyo: Government Printing Bureau. p. 3.

[3] Japan Ministry of Education. *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[4] Japan Overseas Advertiser Co., Ltd. *Japanese Universities and Colleges*, Tokyo: Japan Overseas Advertiser Co., Ltd., 1966. pp. 243-258.

By Lou S. Grant

CANADA'S EVOLVING TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

The present plans for development of post-secondary education in two-year institutions in Canada immediately display the handicaps based in the constitution of the country. The first of these is the rigidity of provincial control of education and there are ten provinces in Canada. The second handicap follows from the first in the political and fiscal entanglements involved in attempting to pour federal funds into post-secondary education. Control of all education in each province by the provincial authority has, until recently, created difficulties in establishing uniformity of educational opportunity throughout the nation. Voluntary cooperation among various provincial education departments is helping to solve many of these problems.

Prior to World War I, the principle of federal assistance to vocational and technical education was established in Canada. This basic premise is never

challenged now, so large sums of federal aid have been available to the Canadian provinces for assistance in providing technical and vocational programs for secondary schools. This same source has supplied similar funds for post-secondary vocational and technological institutes and for technical programs in junior colleges. This limitation on assistance for technical education continues to operate to the disadvantage of multipurpose community, district, or regional colleges.

The second phase of federal aid to education has been developed into sizable grants in aid of education. In 1966, this grant was raised from $2 per capita to $5 based on the population of each province. One province, Quebec, has opted out of this plan, but is compensated by tax abatement by the federal government.

The 1965-66 average grant per student was $241. The 1966-67 average will be considerably higher. Negotiations are now being conducted to arrange a new system for the distribution of these funds.

For some years, this money has been made available to institutions of higher learning, in provinces other than Quebec, by a commission established by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada. The financial position of Canada's universities, even the provincially operated ones, follows the usual pattern of stress. Consequently, there is a need within the universities themselves for most of the federal funds available through per capita grants, and minimum amounts remain for the two-year post-secondary academic programs.

With these generalizations regarding federal financial aid for two-year colleges in Canada, the following summary indicates the present and prospective development in the nation, province by province.

District Colleges

British Columbia has become a leading province in developing comprehensive two-year colleges offering technical, academic, and general education pro-

grams. In 1958, legislation was passed permitting the establishment of "district colleges" by individual district school boards and "regional colleges" to be created by joint effort of several boards in one region. This legislation remained relatively ineffective until the publication of a report in 1962 by President J. B. MacDonald of the University of British Columbia stressed the need for expansion of facilities for higher education in the province. One of the main recommendations of the report was the early establishment of two-year colleges to relieve the enrollment pressures building up at the universities.

In 1962, the school board of the city of Vancouver established an adult education center in a building formerly operated as a high school. So successful was the program of continuing education in completion of high school requirements and the operation of a grade 13 program that, in 1963, a former elementary school building was added as an annex. In 1965, this adult education center became a unit of Vancouver City College along with two other units, Vancouver Vocational Institute and Vancouver School of Art.

As a college, the academic unit added courses acceptable as second-year university equivalents and also added several two-year technical programs. The latter include journalism, welfare-aide programs, library and museum-assistant programs, and several offerings in the business and commercial fields. The response to this new educational service facility has been most encouraging: September 1966 enrollment reached 3,300 students in day and evening classes. The present temporary accommodations have been taxed to capacity. Ground will be broken for a new 20-acre campus for this academic-technical division early in 1967. Enlargement of the downtown campus for expansion of the vocational and art school complex is also planned.

The second two-year college to be opened in British Columbia is Selkirk College at Castlegar, a re-

gional college which opened its doors in temporary quarters in September 1966 and has now moved into the first unit of its $3.5 million complex. At present, its offerings are mainly academic but some technical courses have been introduced and more are being planned. Several more regional colleges are well advanced in their planning in various parts of the province and will probably be in operation within three or four years. Two small private junior colleges are also in operation in British Columbia, both of which are church sponsored. The overall governing policies for the public colleges are determined by the government-appointed Academic Board of British Columbia. Near Vancouver, the Provincial Department of Education also operates an institute of technology which provides a two-year training program for technicians and semiprofessional groups.

University-Linked Colleges

Alberta has also passed legislation for the establishment of junior colleges, but they have strong bonds of affiliation with the provincial University of Alberta. This link extends to a virtual university control of curriculums, staffing, admissions, and examinations. Several such colleges have been established under the regulations by the school districts of Lethbridge, Red Deer, Medicine Hat, and Grande Prairie. Only the first of these offers a two-year program of transfer courses and technical programs. Up to this time, the others offered only one year of university equivalent work beyond the matriculation level. Alberta also has four private church-related junior colleges, one in Calgary, two in Edmonton, and one in Camrose. The Provincial Department of Education operates two technological institutes, one in Calgary and one in Edmonton, the capital city.

Saskatchewan has also retained university affiliation as a requirement for its junior colleges. In 1965, plans were completed for two church-related colleges, Campion and Lutheran in Regina, to be federated with the University of Saskatchewan, Regina campus. Two other church-sponsored insti-

tutions, St. Joseph's in Yorkton and Aldengate in Moose Jaw, are now offering first-year transfer courses as affiliates of the University of Saskatchewan. Technical and vocational education for post-secondary and other adult levels are provided in several provincially operated technical and vocational institutions.

Manitoba has established a pattern similar to that of Saskatchewan. One private college in Winnipeg is offering some first-year university courses in affiliation with the University of Manitoba. Brandon College in that city, also an affiliate of the university, plans to expand its two-year program into a four-year one with autonomous degree-granting privileges.

Post-secondary technical and vocational training is available in institutes operated by the province. To augment these, a new Institute of Applied Arts is presently under construction. In September 1966, the Winnipeg School Board inaugurated an adult education center which is, at present, primarily a facility for completion of secondary education.

A commission is now actively investigating the whole spectrum of post-secondary education within the province. No doubt, its report, when presented, will have far-reaching effects on future college plans in Manitoba.

The province of Ontario, with almost one-third of Canada's population and a major portion of the nation's industry, has felt a great need for expansion of its post-secondary educational facilities. The present overall program calls for the establishment of several new four-year universities, including Waterloo, Brock, Guelph, York, and Trent. Provision for nonuniversity post-secondary education is made in "Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology." In announcing the plan in the Ontario legislature, the minister of education stated one of the major responsibilities of these colleges would be "to meet the needs of graduates from any secondary school program, apart from those wishing to attend a university."

These colleges will not include a "transfer program" as such, but it is hoped that some of their graduates may be able to continue more advanced studies at a university. To facilitate this, some university faculty members may be assigned a course or two at an applied arts college. These colleges are to be "occupation-oriented" and are to meet the needs of the local community. They will replace and absorb all existing post-secondary provincially operated technical institutions.

Eighteen college areas are to be established throughout the province, each with its own board of governors. The first College of Applied Arts and Technology, Lambton, opened in September 1966 at Sarnia. Others are being opened in the near future at London and Windsor.

The provincial government has voted approximately $400 million for construction of new facilities for the colleges and universities during the next ten years. During this period, it is expected as many as twenty-six of the new colleges may be built at an average cost of $10 million. Of course, the college region or zone will assume its share of financial responsibility for both capital and operating costs. Overall authority for planning, establishing and coordinating the new colleges is vested in a provincially appointed council of regents.

Activities in Quebec

The province of Quebec is in the midst of a number of major educational changes at all levels, primary, secondary, and post-secondary. Drastic revisions of curriculums and organization are being introduced. Many of the former classical colleges will become two-year post-secondary institutions providing transfer programs in preparation for more advanced studies at the universities. Some will also offer a limited number of technical programs. Most of the technical studies will be available in technical institutes, some of which will be expansions of the existing technical schools, while others will be conversions from traditional institutions.

The pre-university colleges will be known as "classical educational institutions" while the technological colleges will be entitled, "specialized schools." Present plans call eventually for all university candidates to attend the two-year "classical institutions" before proceeding to a university.

The educational upgrading of Quebec has been inspired by the Parent Commission, named for its chairman, Monsignor Parent, vice-rector of Laval University. The depth and thoroughness of the commission's four-year study and the willingness of the provincial government to take the necessary action to implement the reforms are making Quebec an "educational showplace" in Canada. The realization of the inadequacy of technical training for Quebec's citizens to take a proper place in Canada's industrial life has stimulated great advances in this field in the province.

In the four Maritime provinces of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, the post-secondary educational institutions are all universities, technological institutes, or vocational schools. The only exceptions so far are a junior college branch of the University of New Brunswick established in St. John in 1964 and two church-supported colleges in Nova Scotia, Convent of the Sacred Heart in Halifax and Xavier College in Sydney established in 1951 by St. Francis Xavier University of Antigonish.

In December 1965, the Economic Council of Canada revealed that the lack of advanced education in both academic and technical fields is a growing handicap for industrial development in Canada. The report states:

> . . . the shortage of skilled and trained technical, professional, and managerial manpower is even more critical than the problem of enlarging the physical facilities for increasing output.

While admitting the urgency of upgrading much of the labor force with completion of secondary school standing, the report stressed that the highest

priority be given to "rapid and substantial expansion of post-secondary education."

With such a stimulus, the federal government has sought ways to encourage such expansion. Two schemes were originally involved, one provided matching grants with those of provincial governments, another provided a quota based on population from which the province could draw 75 per cent of the funds required for technical and vocational education. These plans are now being phased out and a new formula of assignment of federal taxes to the provinces is being evolved. This was announced at a federal-provincial conference in October 1966 at which Honorable Jean Marchand, federal minister of manpower and immigration, stated:

> Our post-secondary proposals are based on two principles. First, they should provide for escalation, because the needs are increasing so much. Our formula does that. Secondly, post-secondary technical education should provide a comprehensive formula within which each province can structure its own post-secondary education as it thinks best.

The junior college plans in Canada's ten provinces will continue to vary considerably and may not always be recognizable in the usual comprehensive tradition. No matter how they may be formed, however, it is now certain that they will be established to provide new forms of educational services and to augment the overtaxed facilities already in operation.

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[1] Ontario Department of Education. Toronto, Ontario: the Department, October 1965.

[2] Economic Council of Canada. Ottawa, Ontario: Queen's Printer, December 1965.

[3] Stewart, Andrew. Edmonton, Alberta: Department of Education, December 1965.

[4] Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada. Toronto, Ontaria: University of Toronto Press, 1965.

[5] MacDonald, J. B. Vancouver, B.C.: University of British Columbia, 1962.

[6] *Report of the Parent Commission.* Quebec, Quebec: Department of Education, 1964-66.

[7] Academic Board for Higher Education in British Columbia. Victoria, B.C.: Department of Education, January 1965.

[8] Academic Board for Higher Education in British Columbia. *College Standards*. Victoria, B.C.: Department of Education, November 1966.

By Gordon Campbell

THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IN CANADA

Canada is in the midst of a spectacular expansion in its post-high school institutions of higher education. This rapid evolution cannot fail to have a profound effect in the areas of personal fulfillment, cultural development, and economic growth. Whereas programs for the formal training of young adult citizens have long existed in other industrialized countries, Canadian needs are being met with new plans consistent with this country's historical background and sociological development. These plans are frequently executed with boldness and ingenuity; participation is found at all levels of government and in citizen organizations. The resultant cooperation provides both the flexibility and scope necessary to satisfy varying local requirements while holding promise for extensive coordination.

Perhaps the most significant concept to emerge is that of a comprehensive community college which offers technical and related forms of training, pro-

grams in continuing education for all ages of adult citizens, and courses equivalent to initial university education. The community college has its roots in many educational practices. It finds expression in varied forms throughout the provinces. Changes now underway or planned are among the most far-reaching developments within the total educational structure of Canada.

Evolving Identity

The term *community college* is used in the generic sense and is applied to a group of institutions across the country possessing certain features more or less in common. None of these institutions grant degrees; all are oriented toward community service. The nature of such service, of course, varies widely depending on the urban or rural location of the college, proximity to a university, degree of industrialization in the community, and so forth.

Colleges offer one, two, or three years of study beyond the high school. Admission qualifications characteristically include junior or senior matriculation, depending on the course and province. Special provision frequently is made for the more mature student, nineteen or older, who lacks certain admission requirements. Some colleges are comprehensive in the sense that they offer both university-parallel and occupational programs; others are restricted to programs in one category. Certain colleges, offering solely technical-training programs, are restricted further to courses in only one occupational category.

The functional emphasis of colleges is on teaching rather than on research. They may be public, stressing the "open-door policy" and financially supported largely by governments, or private, with more selective admission qualifications and supported by private means. In some provinces, private colleges enjoy government support.

Community colleges, as defined here, do not include seminaries or colleges whose paramount con-

cern is the theological preparation of ministers or priests, colleges run privately for profit, and certain types of vocational or nursing schools. The latter are omitted from consideration simply because they are so numerous and are rapidly being absorbed by colleges and universities.

There is little uniformity in the nomenclature of colleges across the country. In British Columbia, the categories of *district* and *regional* colleges are defined by law, but these categories are not reflected in the names of the colleges. Legislation in 1958 in Alberta required the expression *junior college* to be part of the name of every public college; legislation in 1969 removed the term *junior*. In Ontario, all institutions falling within the provisions of legislation in 1965 are called *colleges of applied arts and technology* (C.A.A.T.). In Quebec, colleges governed by legislation in 1967 are called *colleges d'enseignement general et professionnel* (C.E.G.E.P.)—colleges of general and vocational education. Agricultural and other specialized institutions are usually so designated. No institution includes *community* in its name; only a very few use the term *junior*. The chief executive officer of colleges in Alberta and Ontario is called *president;* in Quebec, *directeur general;* and in British Columbia, *principal.* In some provinces, the title *dean* is used occasionally.

Alternately, the definition of a community college may be found in relation to the educational function it performs. Canadian community colleges typically offer to persons beyond high school age some or all of the following:

1. Vocational and technical programs, either long- or short-term, in the trades, industrial, agricultural, and semiprofessional fields, preparing students for employment upon graduation and providing the employed with retraining opportunities
2. University-parallel courses in the liberal arts and sciences, usually providing first- or second-year credit toward a baccalaureate degree
3. Programs in continuing education available in the day or evening, designed to meet the recrea-

tional, avocational, or occupational concerns of adult part-time students of all ages

4. A counseling service to assist all students regardless of age in choosing careers, remedying deficiencies, and preparing themselves as useful citizens

5. Programs serving groups interested in civic, cultural, or recreational improvement of the community.

These aims of the community college appear in sharp contrast to those of the university of which the primary tasks are to: preserve knowledge, teach what is known, and search for new knowledge.

Within the context of the foregoing characteristics, 110 Canadian community colleges were operational in summer 1969. Of these, 96 in operation during 1968-69 had a total student population of 85,933 or 3.75 per cent of the eighteen to twenty-four-year-old population. Ninety-six of the 110 colleges enrolled a total of 25,772 women, or approximately 30 per cent of the total student enrollment. Ninety-nine of the 110 colleges employed a total of 8,097 staff (including senior administrative officials).

In Quebec, 4.8 per cent of the eighteen to twenty-four-year-old population of that province attended community colleges; 4.4 per cent in Alberta; 3.7 per cent in British Columbia; 3.4 per cent in Nova Scotia; 3.3 per cent in Ontario; 3.1 per cent in Manitoba; 2.1 per cent in Newfoundland; 2.0 per cent in Saskatchewan; 2.0 per cent in New Brunswick; and 0 per cent in Prince Edward Island.

Of the 106 colleges now in operation, 22 described themselves as *private colleges;* 47, including the C.A.A.T. colleges in Ontario, described themselves as technical institutes as contrasted to comprehensive colleges. A total of 38 colleges offered instruction prior to 1960; 59 offered instruction prior to 1965. Almost half of the 110 colleges came into being after 1964. Most of the colleges were responsible to a provincially appointed board of directors; approximately 30 per cent reported directly to a department of the provincial government.

British Columbia

Provincial legislation in British Columbia in 1958 permitted the formation of district colleges operated by one school board and regional colleges operated by a consortium of school boards under a governing council. The legislation, included in the Public Schools Act, required that a college could be established only after citizens in participating school districts had passed a plebiscite and a referendum (approval in principle) agreeing to support the college through local taxation. (The government recently increased its share to 60 per cent of the operating and capital costs, with 40 per cent to be raised locally. Fees are included in the local 40 per cent contribution.) In 1962, the *Macdonald Report on Higher Education in British Columbia and a Plan for the Future* recommended two-year colleges for specific communities throughout the province. Following this report, a number of attempts to establish colleges by plebiscite were undertaken, some of them successfully. A total of forty school districts out of almost ninety are involved in the operation of four colleges and in the formation of three others. Two of these are due to open in 1969 and one in 1970. At present, the province has one city college and six regional colleges in various stages of development. In addition, there are three denominational colleges and one institute of technology.

The Prairie Provinces

The Alberta Public Junior Colleges Act of 1958 provided for the establishment of junior colleges affiliated with a university and supported in part by local taxation. In 1969, the Colleges Act established a system of community colleges throughout the province. A central feature of the system is the Alberta Colleges Commission—a board consisting of nine members having wide regulatory powers in relation to financial and other affairs of public colleges. Local college boards, which previously had been associated with school boards, became inde-

pendent. Local boards of governors now consist of eight persons and include the college president, one faculty member, and one student member. The 1969 act removes support by local taxation and provides funds from the provincial government. The funds are distributed through the Alberta Colleges Commission.

The five public colleges in Alberta are designed to become comprehensive community institutions offering both occupational and university transfer programs. Provision has been made in the 1969 legislation to include at a subsequent date the province's two institutes of technology and three agricultural colleges. There are in addition three, private church-related colleges, one of which aims to become a French-language center of higher education in the West.

In Saskatchewan, a university-government committee has examined the development of higher education for that province. Recommendations have been made regarding the establishment of community colleges, and some action has resulted. Two institutes of technology and one church-governed college presently are operating.

While Manitoba has not yet adopted a college system, there has been continuing growth in both the size and inclusiveness of its technical institutes. The institutes are operated by the department of education in conjunction with a provincial advisory board of forty-two members and a host of subboards and course committees; thus, more than 200 citizens help relate the institutes to the community. The Manitoba Educational Research Council is presently conducting an extensive study about post-high school, nonuniversity education in that province.

Ontario

A system of colleges of applied arts and technology was established by provincial legislation in May 1965. It included the creation of a fifteen-member council of regents appointed by the minister of

education. The task of the council is to recommend appointments to the boards of governors of local colleges and to coordinate the colleges' development. In March 1966, the establishment of eighteen (now twenty) areas for the planning of colleges throughout the province was announced; the growth of colleges since and the enthusiasm with which they have been received has been extraordinary.

The board of governors of each college is comprised of twelve members chosen from the area served. This crown corporation, operating under the Corporation Act, is responsible for the development and operation of each college. It exercises all authority in this connection, excluding only those decisions made on behalf of the council of regents.

Each college consists of three divisions: technology, business, and applied arts. Admission to three-year programs requires a minimum Grade XII standing on completion of four years of the five-year secondary school program. Admission to other programs requires, normally, a Grade XII diploma on completion of the four-year program. As elsewhere in Canada, the colleges are developing extensive day and evening programs for the part-time student and the student requiring upgrading. It should be noted that the Ontario colleges are not comprehensive community colleges in that they are not designed to include university-parallel programs. Only a small fraction of college graduates enrolled in universities, and they do so on an individual basis.

There are at present twenty colleges of applied arts and technology in addition to Ryerson Polytechnical Institute, the Ontario College of Art, and a number of other public and private colleges.

In May 1969, the minister of education and the minister of university affairs announced the appointment of a special commission to study "all postsecondary educational institutions in the province and to outline patterns required . . . to meet the needs of the province over the next two decades."

Quebec

Sweeping changes in the structure of postsecondary education in Quebec have been accomplished with astonishing speed. In 1964, a department of education was established. Concurrent with the publication of the second volume of the *Parent Report* in 1965, preparations were made to create a number of *institutes,* later called C.E.G.E.P., in the General and Vocational College Act of 1967. By 1969, twenty-three, French-language colleges were in operation, and the first English-language C.E.G.E.P. will open this same year. As a rule, the C.E.G.E.P. were not created afresh but were built from existing institutions. More than half of the hundred or so classical colleges now have become a part of a new C.E.G.E.P., the remainder having withdrawn from the college level in order to function exclusively within the secondary system.

Quebec has gone beyond any other province by providing teaching training in its C.E.G.E.P. in addition to technical and preuniversity programs.

The college system provides a level between the secondary school system on the one hand and the university or employment on the other. Two-year programs leading to various university faculties are offered. Programs leading directly to employment are of two or three years length depending upon the vocation chosen. Quebec is the only province in which all students eventually must graduate from a college in order to enter a university. Initially, it was anticipated that 70 per cent of the students would elect to take occupational training, whereas in actual fact, 75 per cent followed the university preparation route.

The term *community college* as applied in this province truly expresses a lively sense of community involvement. Each college has a board of directors consisting of nineteen members: Four members are named by the faculty, two are named by the students, and four are drawn from among parents of students. In order to allow for maximum com-

munity participation, provision is made for the appointment of five other members who are named only after consultation with other community groups. The board itself may name two members in order to ensure a proper balance between community and college representation. The principal and academic dean are also members.

Colleges have established an organization apart from government called Federation des C.E.G.E.P., whose aim is to facilitate growth in areas outside direct governmental jurisdiction.

In Quebec, colleges are supported almost entirely from provincial funds. Only in this province are students within the college system not required to pay tuition fees.

The Atlantic Provinces

The Province of Prince Edward Island created Holland College in 1969. It recently appointed its first president and will begin operation in 1970.

In Newfoundland, the Royal Commission on Education and Youth recommended in 1967 the establishment of community colleges. There are at present two technical institutes.

Although no community college system presently exists in New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, these provinces have a long history of providing a great diversity of educational opportunities for high school graduates. In Nova Scotia alone there are eight community colleges ranging from a private junior college to a marine navigation school.

The promise of a community college is to provide further educational opportunities to thousands of students for whom the door to higher education of specialized training leading directly to a career would otherwise be closed. A splendid start has been made in Canada to fulfill this goal uniformly across the land. The number of colleges will sharply increase until a college exists within commuting distance of almost every Canadian citizen.

A second trend is the establishment of provincial systems of coordination and control wherein a num-

ber of newly created institutions or older institutions gathered together under one board become a part of a provincially organized network. Alberta affords the most recent example of a provincial system. At the national level, a commendable effort is being made in the interests of countrywide development by the Canadian Commission on Community Colleges, headquartered in Toronto, to explore the possibility of establishing a national agency in cooperation with community colleges.

A third trend is a movement toward comprehensive institutions with generalized curriculums and away from specialized colleges. Programs available to the part-time day or evening student seem bound to expand. (Unfortunately, the slowest to develop in terms of community inclusiveness is that of programs for persons beyond the conventional student age.) Future developments will also include emphasis on the transfer of students in occupational programs between colleges within a system.

A fourth trend is the increased effort to clarify the bases of articulation between community colleges, universities, and high schools. Much more information is needed than presently exists regarding the flow of students from secondary schools through colleges (and between colleges) and universities.

A fifth trend is the removal of colleges from the jurisdiction of school boards and direct government control. Increasingly, faculty are recruited from other secondary schools. Correlated with these developments is the growing involvement of faculty and students in policy-making.

Finally, the value of community colleges as centers where students can reconcile aspirations with realistic educational goals will become increasingly appreciated. With improved counseling services and greater community awareness of the special character of colleges, students will better be able to sort out the kind of training they want. Some who had elected to attend a university will change their minds; some will decide upon university training

sooner or later, a decision they might not have taken otherwise. As a result of this sorting-out process, dropouts will decline, industry will be more effectively served, and a more economical and efficient total educational system will emerge.

Benefits from these trends may not be realized, however, if some provinces continue to starve colleges for funds and interfere politically in their management; if college faculty attempt to ape outmoded forms of universities organization and procedures; if college administrators allow a jungle of regulations to grow up in areas that should remain flexible and free for experimentation; if education for students beyond the conventional age continues to receive low priority; if counseling remains haphazard and often irrelevant; if student and faculty participation in the government of the institution is ignored. In a word, more of the same is not good enough. It requires courage not to institutionalize what is already not working well.

It may be too early to perceive the outcome of the current vigorous and rapid evolution in post-high school institutions of higher learning in Canada, but the overall trend is clear. The educational needs of that large group of young adults requiring preparation for useful and rewarding places in society will be met. Probably this will be done most effectively and in most places by some form of community college. The result will be an achievement as momentous as the commitment of Canadians earlier this century to universal high school education.

By Robert M. Knoebel

COMMUNITY COLLEGES FOR TAIWAN: ARE THEY NEEDED?

There is always a very serious danger of being traditional and unrealistic when Americans endeavor to identify educational needs of friendly neighbors across the waters. Such reviews are frequently done in terms of education within our own nation and without a full understanding of the culture, and the social and economic conditions in the foreign land. To be objective, understanding, and unbiased is a most difficult task; however, a sincere effort will be made in this article to examine Taiwan—its history, geography, economy, culture, and education. Primary consideration will be given to the matter of whether there is an apparent void in their educational system which a community college-type program might fill—with appropriate adaptations.

Taiwan was conquered by the Dutch in 1624. It was regained by China in 1662. The West frequent-

ly calls the island *Formosa,* which means *beautiful* in Portuguese. The East usually refers to it as *Taiwan* meaning *terraced bay* in Chinese. The United Nations uses the phrase *The Republic of China,* and those on the island say *The Land of Free China.* Whatever wording may be used, it is truly a beautiful island—the Hawaii of the Far East.

Taiwan has a wide-range topograph: A portion of the island is mountainous—the highest elevation being approximately 13,000 feet; there are some heavy forest areas as well as sloping plains leading to the southern and western shorelines. The thirteen million people are rather closely packed at the rate of nearly 1,000 per square mile in a total area of less than 14,000 square miles—about one-third the size of Pennsylvania.

Taiwan is a showplace of China's illustrious past, her prosperous present, and her promising future.

Developing Economy

The island has changed from a predominantly rural, farm-related country to a highly industrialized nation. Rice, tropical fruits, peanuts, soy beans, and pork continue to be large export items, but with rapid activity, the economy is moving toward manufacturing. Extensive efforts have and are continuing to be directed toward the expansion of industry, particularly light manufacturing. The tourist trade, with its wide range of employment and capability of producing foreign exchange, is being promoted successfully.

One of the outstanding economic development programs is the Kaohsiung Export Zone at the southern part where different types of industry from other lands, including the U.S.A., are engaged in light manufacture using almost exclusively imported materials. The products are exported. The employes are from Taiwan. The major benefit to the island is the income provided to the employes, thus increasing the purchasing power for local products and improving the standard of living for the citizens. This type of activity creates a demand

for individuals with an education beyond the high school. The improved income of the populace has increased the demand for many services including postsecondary education.

Being under the influence of China and Japan for many years, Taiwan culture is old. Western influence has brought many changes in recent years. The investment of foreign capital, development of modern transportation, and provision of adequate communication have brought many Westerners and other foreigners to the shores of the island. Modern manufacture has caused changes in the family customs. Young people have gone to the cities for employment and for schooling. Even eating habits are being changed for economic reasons. Through a process of educating the public, wheat—which is less costly than rice—is imported and used as a basic food, thus releasing quantities of rice for export and resulting in increased foreign exchange. English is a required subject in the schools, resulting in further Westernization of the populace.

The Pattern of Education

The objectives established for the citizens of the Republic of China are significant and revealing. There are six major goals: (a) national characteristics, (b) democratic spirits, (c) traditional Chinese morality, (d) good physiques, (e) scientific knowledge, and (f) ability to work and contribute to the community. One of the most recent advances in their education program in a further effort to achieve the listed objectives was the provision for extending free, compulsory education through grades 7, 8, and 9. This program was inaugurated in fall 1968.

The present educational system is a 6-3-3-4 system—six years of elementary school, three years of junior high or middle school, three years of senior high, and four years of college work. Interspersed with this system are five-year junior colleges which recruit junior high school graduates. Furthermore, there are three-year junior engineering colleges

which aim at the training of so-called engineering aides or technicians. The latter institutions recruit high school graduates. In addition, there are a variety of adult education programs which do not fit into any particular pattern. Recent statistics reveal that approximately one out of every four persons in the Republic of China is in school. A further indication of the educational progress is the fact that 97.52 per cent of the children of school age were in school in 1967.

Elementary schooling is frequently preceded by nursery and kindergarten programs. In many instances, these pre-elementary schools are private and of high quality. The secondary schools include academic high schools, vocational schools, and normal schools. While the academic high school is the predominant one, the vocational school is not uncommon. Classified among the vocational schools are those specializing in agriculture, industry, commerce, marine, nursing, midwifery, and homemaking. The normal schools prepare teachers for nursery, kindergarten, and elementary schools. There are now six such schools on the island which enroll students in grades 10, 11, and 12—really a specialized high school program.

Higher education consists of national and provincial universities, independent colleges, and junior colleges. Out of every one hundred children of school age six to twelve, twenty will go to college. The college students' choices of fields of study (1967-68) revealed that nearly 40 per cent were enrolled in the social sciences, almost 20 per cent in engineering, 10 per cent in humanities, 9 per cent in medicine, and the remaining 21 per cent in education, fine arts, law, natural science, and agriculture. There are no institutions of a comprehensive nature comparable to the community colleges in the United States.

Public funds for education have been limited and continue to be so. The demand for quality education has been tremendous. The result has been the

creation of private schools at all levels. Private nurseries, kindergartens, elementary and high schools, and colleges are usually filled to capacity and constitute a good portion of the total educational program in Taiwan. Many of the institutions are of proprietary nature. In most instances, high standards are maintained. Industry is engaged in educational programs to provide a wide range of opportunities to prepare for employment in various occupations. It was recently estimated by the Council for Economic Development that more than 50,000 persons need to be educated each year to meet the demand for trained personnel in the various occupations. Approximately 20 per cent of that number would be educated in public schools. It was expected that the preparation of 80 per cent of the total manpower requirements would need to be done through private and industry-related schools.

It is true that a large percentage of the high school graduates—71 per cent in 1967—continue with higher education. On the surface, it may appear that there is little or no need for consideration of a community college-type program of education for Taiwan. However, as one reviews the types of higher education provided, it is evident that a real void exists in the education offered at the 13 to 14 grade level. There are few technical institutes. The ones in existence are largely private and geared primarily toward a limited range of occupations. Institutions of a comprehensive nature at the 13 to 14 grade level are few in number. With the growing technical aspects of agriculture, the rapidly expanding industrialization of the economy, and the growth of tourism, there are increasing demands for personnel of the technician type and level. Included in the need are auxiliary personnel in life sciences and social sciences as well as physical sciences, With the rapid expansion of industry and tourism, needs for qualified personnel will become increasingly acute in all occupations related to providing for thousands of visitors annually. Furthermore, as youth observes the opportunities for im-

proving their standards of living through education, they will seek remedial study and means whereby they can update and upgrade themselves.

There is within the youth of Taiwan a strong desire for collegiate education. They are degree conscious. At the same time, leaders of the nation have expressed a strong belief that education and economic development go hand in hand. With technology a major element of modern agriculture; of the many new industries such as Timex, Philco, and Omega; and of the restructure of previously established companies; the demand for employes with post-secondary education has increased and will continue to increase at a rapid pace.

Areas of Potential Cooperative Effort

It appears as though there are excellent opportunities for educational efforts between community college leaders in our nation and educators in Taiwan. While it is recognized that most Western educational programs cannot and should not be adapted in total by other nations, it may be extremely desirable for Taiwan educators and economy planners to examine the potential for community college-type education in their land. Ministry of Education, Provincial Department of Education, and Council of Economic Development officials could review the community college program in our country with the purpose of adapting those aspects which may be helpful to the Republic of China. Some of the areas suitable for study and investigation might include: purposes for community colleges; institutional organization patterns; people being served; use of advisory services; remedial and developmental programs; use of educational technology; facility arrangements; curriculum development—particularly career-type programs; evaluation and accreditation; placement and follow-up; financing; cooperative education; articulation guidance and counseling services; certificates and degrees.

It is evident that cooperative efforts between com-

munity college leaders of the United States and appropriate personnel from the Republic of China could result in the identification of assistance which might be made available to the Republic of China through various techniques, which might include exchange of administrators, faculty members, and students; international conferences; observation and study tours; consulting services; and exchange of materials.

If our friendly neighbor in the Far East desires to explore this area of education, it is most appropriate for the American Association of Junior Colleges to endeavor to assist in providing services as desired by the Taiwan government. Educators, sociologists, economists, legislators, and the public in general in the Republic of China agree that education does contribute greatly to economic development and the social welfare of their nation. They recognize the community college-type program as a form of education that has potential for their country. We as an association should consider what we can do to implement any services they may desire in an effort to provide more and improved education for the citizens of Taiwan. This undoubtedly will enable the Republic of China to build an even stronger and more prosperous country. Such action will tend to strengthen the ties between the people of the two nations.

Top-level personnel of the Ministry of Education, the Provincial Department of Education, and the Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development are fully aware of the significance of adequate education programs, particularly for technical and midmanagement-type occupations. It is evident they are highly desirous of adaption of the appropriate portions of community college education for the Republic of China. Taiwan is already a center for assistance to lands in Southeast Asia and in South Africa. They can increase their service to other lands by further development and strengthening of their educational program between

the high school and the senior institutions of higher education. It is apparent that appropriate community college-type programs can be very helpful to the Republic of China.

By John Gilliam

JUNIOR COLLEGES IN JORDAN

Perhaps more than any other nation in the world, the country of Jordan, in recent years, has experienced particularly difficult problems. While pursuing a course of economic development, complex political, social, and educational problems have been compounded by crisis after crisis arising out of the explosive Middle East situation. One institution that has contributed much to the nation's growth and stability during these trying times is the junior college.

Jordan's junior colleges have provided most of the teachers for the country's burgeoning school system and a large number of technically trained people for business, industry, and government. Although the junior college system has experienced rapid change in Jordan, a network of six junior colleges provides the foundation for the nation's higher education system. Four of the junior colleges are

teacher-training institutions, two for men and two for women. One junior college specializes in agriculture and one in business administration. All are government schools under the control of the Ministry of Education. They are primarily boarding institutions, free of charge, with students living in on-campus dormitories. Each school has an enrollment of about 200 students.

In addition to the junior college system, there is the University of Jordan which was established in 1964. The university has a considerable degree of autonomy and does not operate under authority of the Ministry of Education; thus, there is no formal association between Jordan's junior colleges and its university. As a new institution, the University of Jordan is still in the process of basic development, and its impact on the nation is just beginning to be felt; consequently, the junior colleges have carried the burden of higher education.

For developing countries, education is always a top-priority consideration; Jordan is no exception. As pointed out by Meier: "Investment in education is a prerequisite for economic development."* While this is a widely accepted view, the real problem is to determine the specific kinds of education that are most important at the various stages of development. Although the general nature of manpower requirements and supplies vary from country to country, one important fact stands out. In virtually every case, there is a critical shortage of qualified manpower at the technician level. Trained technical workers are absolutely basic as support personnel in economic development activities, whether these activities be in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, tourism, or any other area. In a very large measure, Jordan's rapid economic development is a reflection of the success of its junior college system and the ability of these schools to produce needed manpower for the economy.

* Meier, Richard L. *Developmental Planning*. London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965. p. 265.

The successful development of the junior college system in Jordan is a tribute to the educational leaders of that country. While the Jordanian Ministry of Education has been faced with an extraordinarily complex set of responsibilities and problems, the nation's total educational system has experienced rapid growth and development.

The continuing struggle between the Arab nations and Israel has placed an especially heavy burden on Jordan's educational system. Corresponding with the periodic outbreak of hostilities between these countries, Jordan has been inundated with Arab refugees from Israeli-occupied territories; on occasion, refugees have literally doubled school enrollments overnight. With a limited number of highly trained professional educators, educational administrators, and other educational resources, the severity of the problems facing the nation's educational system are self-evident.

As might be expected, the teacher-training junior colleges have been under particular stress, for it is the junior colleges that have been called upon to produce teachers for the enormous increases in school enrollments.

The development of higher education in Jordan has also been handicapped by the severely limited financial resources of the country and the amount of funds available for educational purposes. In the short run, there does not appear to be much hope for improvement in the situation since it is necessary for governmental officials to budget increasing amounts for military use. In addition, a large part of Jordan's most productive land area was occupied by Israel following the June war of 1967; this substantially reduced the nation's economic base.

Nevertheless, far-sighted and capable educational officials, with the aid of various international organizations, have worked hard to develop an educational system that effectively provides for the country's needs. The core of this system is the junior college network which has made remarkable progress.

In addition to the problems already described, Jordan's junior colleges are faced with certain basic educational problems. The most important of these include staffing, curriculum development, teaching methods, materials development, and equipment and facilities.

Staffing

Perhaps the most important ingredient in any educational organization is the quality of its professional staff. For the most part, professional staff members in Jordan's junior colleges are well-trained and capable professionals. To be able to teach in the nation's junior colleges, it is necessary to have a master's degree. Since it has not been possible to earn a master's degree in Jordan (the University of Jordan is currently developing a master's degree program), all professional staff and administrative people earn these degrees outside of the country. Certainly one of the major assets for the junior college system is the fact that professional staff members have been trained in colleges and universities all over the world. While many are trained in Middle Eastern institutions, large numbers are educated in the United States and in Europe.

In terms of staffing, the Jordanian Ministry of Education does have a very serious problem. This is the matter of turnover and retention of topnotch teachers and administrators. Salary is the fundamental issue. Beginning master's degree holders are paid approximately 40 Jordanian dinars a month (slightly over $100). The nation's restricted financial resources make advancement a slow and limited process. On the other hand, private businesses and certain governmental agencies provide capable educational people tempting offers which pay twice as much or more than the Ministry of Education can pay its junior college teachers and administrators; consequently, there is a relatively high turnover of personnel, especially the more capable people. As a result, it is often necessary for the Ministry of Edu-

cation to make rapid and frequent changes of assignments, particularly among the relatively small core of experienced personnel. This situation handicaps educational efficiency.

It is therefore necessary for the Ministry of Education to rely heavily upon short-term staff members. Commonly, these are students who have left Jordan using government assistance in the form of scholarships or other financial aid, and who, upon returning to their homeland, are obligated to serve their nation for twice the duration of their out-of-country educational stay. Once these returnees have completed their obligated service to the government, they are free to take other jobs. In this connection, it should be noted that Jordan is a heavy exporter of educational talent. Many Arab countries, including Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Algiers, and others, depend to a large extent upon Jordanians to staff their school systems. So it is not at all unusual for young teachers, upon completing their obligated government service in Jordan, to seek more lucrative employment in nearby countries.

In some respects, there are advantages for Jordan in the turnover of educational personnel. For one thing, there is a constant stream of new ideas flowing into the system. However, about the time that fledgling staff members begin to develop and become real assets to the educational system, they tend to move on to more attractive positions. This is a very real problem for the Ministry of Education and one about which educational officials in Jordan are extremely concerned. Ministry officials are now taking steps to develop a more equitable salary schedule.

Curriculum Development

One of the primary concerns for the Jordanian Ministry of Education is the development of relevant curriculums in its junior colleges. Historically, foreign influence has been quite evident in the curriculums of Jordanian schools at all levels. This situation is understandable for at least two reasons. One explanation is that most of the professional staff

people are educated in other countries. A second reason lies in the fact that, historically, certain other nations have played a very dominant role in Middle East affairs. For example, both the British and the French have played a vital part in the evolution of the Middle East nations; as might be expected, the influence of these two nations is easily recognized in Jordan's schools.

But as the country has developed and taken on its own distinct national character, there has been a need to modify school curriculums to meet the unique needs of that society; Ministry of Education officials have made positive efforts to develop relevant curriculums for the nation's schools.

With the large number of students graduating from Jordan's secondary schools and the limited junior college resources, admission to the country's junior colleges is quite selective. Admission requirements include: (a) general secondary school certificate; (b) health certificate; (c) age not exceeding twenty-three years; (d) good character; (e) selection by a committee based upon (1) student's grades on general secondary examination; (2) recommendations from the secondary school principal.

Depending upon the specific area of specialization, junior college students usually earn between seventy and ninety semester-hours of credit over a two-year period. All students, regardless of their area of specialization, are required to take the general education courses listed in Table I.

An analysis of these basic general requirements reveals some interesting features. For one thing, it is evident Jordanians feel the ability to read and speak English is very important for their junior college students; since much of the trade, commerce, and economic affairs of the Middle East is carried on through English communications, this seems to be a valid requirement.

General education requirements also reveal something of the cultural values of the Jordanians. It is apparent, for example, that art and Islamic culture are important to the people.

TABLE I
REQUIRED GENERAL EDUCATION COURSES

Course	*Semester-hours of credit*
General science	4
Mathematics	4
Arabic language and literature	6
English language	8
Art	4
Physical education	2
Islamic culture	3
Arab history	4
Total	35

The majority of junior college students prepare to become teachers, and it is necessary for these prospective teachers to complete a twenty-one semester-hour sequence in professional education in addition to these basic general education requirements. The courses required in this sequence are shown in Table II.

TABLE II
TEACHER-EDUCATION REQUIRED COURSES

Course	*Semester-hours of credit*
Introduction to education	3
Developmental and educational psychology	4
Curriculums and methods	5
Community development	5
Student teaching	4
Total	21

These professional education requirements are the type that might be expected in a teacher-education curriculum. It is important to note, however, that

the Jordanians attach a great deal of importance to developing in prospective teachers an awareness and appreciation for community needs. In Jordan, there are many small communities with great development need and potential, and government officials look to well-trained teachers to assist in the development of total community and social progress. Thus, a significant part of the professional education of prospective teachers is devoted to understanding community development.

All prospective teachers must complete an area of subject-matter specialization in addition to the required general and professional education courses. Areas of specialization are given in Table III.

TABLE III
AREAS OF SUBJECT-MATTER SPECIALIZATION

Subject-matter area	*Semester-hours of credit*
Arabic and Islamic religion	18
English language and literature	18
Social studies	18
Physical sciences (physics, ten; biology, eight; chemistry, eight; and mathematics, eight	34
Home economics	18
Physical and health education	18
Business administration	25
Agriculture (three-year course)	48

For nonteaching majors, primarily in business administration and agriculture, it is necessary to complete additional work in a subject-matter area in lieu of the professional education sequence required of teaching majors.

The Jordanian junior college curriculums have certain built-in handicaps. For one thing, they are very rigid—there is virtually no room for electives.

The curriculums are highly structured, and it is almost impossible to tailor instructional programs to the individual needs and interests of students. This situation comes about, in part, as a result of limited resources, but the major reason for rigid curriculums is simply tradition. The idea of elective courses has never been popularly accepted; however, current indications are that educational officials are beginning to favor a more flexible structure in Jordan's junior colleges.

The highly structured curriculums have another handicap. Students are required to enroll in an established sequence of courses during each school year. If a student fails one course, he is required to retake the entire sequence of courses for that year. This, of course, is a very inefficient use of educational resources and of student time.

It is not unusual for junior college students in Jordan to be in class twenty-four to thirty hours a week. By American standards, this seems to be an unusually large amount of time spent in class; to the casual observer, this situation is misleading. The reasons that students spend this amount of time in class center around teaching methods and the nature of available instructional materials.

Teaching Methods

Lecturing is the traditional method of teaching in Jordan's junior colleges and indeed, in many of the colleges and universities of the Middle East. Virtually all instruction takes this form, and the students generally play a passive role in the teaching process. Fundamentally, there are two explanations for this state of teaching methodology. One is that society traditionally expects teachers to be a fountain of knowledge capable of passing on to students all the desired knowledge and information; it is considered somewhat of a disgrace for a teacher not to be able to lecture knowledgeably and forcefully.

A second and more logical explanation is found in the nature of available teaching materials. Typically, textbooks and teaching materials are just not

available to individual students. In fact, the teacher is usually the only person to have one or more textbooks and/or other teaching materials. Under such circumstances, it is easy to understand why the lecture method is relied upon so heavily; there is simply little alternative. In the absence of textbooks and related instructional materials, students are in a position to do little else but listen when they come to class. On the other hand, students who have an access to a wide range of books and reference materials will come to class prepared and wanting to participate in a more active fashion as opposed to being a mere listener; thus, improvement in teaching methods is closely associated with the securing and development of textbooks and instructional materials.

On the assumption that methods of teaching other than lecturing are desirable (i.e., the problem or case approach and other techniques involving student participation), the Ministry of Education has encouraged efforts to develop appropriate textbooks and teaching materials. The ministry also has made substantial progress in the development of libraries to further support instructional effectiveness. Securing and developing books and library materials has been a difficult process as numerous problems are involved. Limited financial resources for materials development is one major problem. There is not enough money to undertake all the kinds of developmental activities that are desirable. The limited funds make it necessary to set priorities and spend money very carefully.

There are, however, modest sums of money available for the purchase and development of teaching materials. Even so, opportunities for the purchase of relevant materials are limited. This is especially true in regard to materials relating specifically to Jordan. Take the case of economics: Throughout the world, there are any number of textbooks and materials available for the teaching of economics, but beyond fundamental theory, there is virtually nothing relating specifically to the economy of Jordan. The same situation applies to many other

subject-matter areas as well, and this is a basic problem. Since there are no materials relevant to specific subjects, efforts are being directed toward developing appropriate materials. At best, this is a very slow and difficult task.

An encouraging factor is that the Jordanian Ministry of Education is vitally concerned with the overall range of teaching materials and techniques. As progress is made in expanding teaching materials available, teaching methods and instructional effectiveness are rapidly improving in Jordan's junior colleges.

Equipment and Facilities

Perhaps mention should be made of equipment and facilities. By modern standards, Jordan's junior colleges have not been well housed and equipped. But in this respect, too, the Ministry of Education has made tremendous strides; for the most part, the junior colleges are now housed in adequate facilities with modern laboratories and equipment.

While the overall state of physical facilities and equipment in junior colleges in Jordan is improving rapidly, these factors have been secondary considerations in the country's rapid educational progress. Given the finest equipment and facilities, educational accomplishments will not be great unless well-trained and capable people are present to operate programs. In this respect Jordan excells.

The nation is fortunate in having a nucleus of first-rate educators with the ability, ambition, and dedication to develop relevant and effective programs. Certainly among Arab nations in the Middle East, Jordan has one of the best, if not the best, educational programs.

This small country, beset with severe problems, is an educational lighthouse in one part of the world. It is in a period of growth and development—and political and economic turmoil. But dedicated educators in Jordan are continuing their efforts to improve the educational system, and the entire Middle East is better off because of these efforts.

By Karim Fatemi
and Franklin T. Borrough

HIGHER EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN IRAN

Iran need not nourish an illusion about the antiquity of its institutions of higher education. Long before Europe could boast of Salerno and Bologna in Italy, Montpellier and Paris in France, and Oxford in England, Iran possessed Jondi Shapur University located in the present province of Khuzistan.

During the time of the Sassanids (226 A.D. to 650 A.D.), this university was one of the largest and best equipped institutions of higher education in the world.[1] It was renowned for its work in medicine, pharmacy, and philosophy. Its faculty has a definite international flavor—including professors of Greek and Syriac as well as Persian origin.[2] Jondi Shapur was a university of which any nation would have been justifiably proud.

Jondi Shapur was spared destruction at the time of the Islamic invasion in the seventh century, but

within a few years it began to decline in importance. Many of the scholars who had engaged in significant research emigrated to other nations or to other parts of the Islamic world, and the quality of scientific work achieved at the university decreased. Eventually, Jondi Shapur ceased to function as a major center of learning, but its influence as an institution should not be underestimated. Perhaps its most significant contributions to the nascent Islamic culture were in the areas of science and philosophy. It served as one of the forces which activated and channeled the spirit of scientific inquiry so characteristic of early Islam.

Under Early Islam

Originally, Islam did not discourage scholarship and investigation; to the contrary, the early caliphs displayed an avid interest in learning. They surrounded themselves with scholars; they encouraged the study of philosophy and science. As a result of the encouragement given by the caliphs, early Islam witnessed a period of intense intellectual activity and scientific inquiry.

During this period of lively scholarship, a new type of institution characteristically Islamic in structure was developed. The institution was called in Arabic, *al-madrasah*. Nizam al-Mulk, the famous minister under the Seljuk Turks, established madrasahs of significance in Isfahan and Nishabur in the mid-eleventh century.[3]

Despite their excellence, madrasahs contained elements which contributed to the eventual stagnation of scholarship. The teaching methods allowed for little creativity. The professor spoke, a teaching assistant repeated the words, and the students copied the words verbatim. The teaching assistant often took great pains in helping the students correct their notes. After the notes had been corrected, the students proceeded to memorize them—a practice still followed all too often. Even many of the professors active in the schools were inclined to imitate and perpetuate rather than initiate. As a result of these

qualities inherent in the madrasah system of education, curiosity was dulled; the spirit of inquiry was dampened; tradition became increasingly important; intellectual vigor declined.

Following the Mongol invasion in the thirteenth century, Iran experienced a period of cultural decline; institutions of higher learning either ceased to exist or became empty shells. This period of cultural stagnation persisted for some two and a half centuries until Iran was reunified under the Safavid Kings in 1500 A.D. Even after reunification, however, progress in education was minimal.

Under the Safavid kings, religion was given full sway. Great efforts were made to spread a particular brand of Islam. These efforts influenced education in at least two ways:

1. Religious education was emphasized to the detriment of the sciences.
2. Free speculation and inquiry were discouraged.

The chief aim of education was to train religious leaders and jurists.[4] Tradition governed almost every aspect of scholarship, and intellectual activities were greatly limited in scope.

The Nineteenth Century

The Qajar Dynasty inherited a deplorable educational and intellectual situation. By the time they arrived on the scene in 1780 A.D., "all the vigor had gone out of educational values and processes. After centuries of cultural, social, political, and economic decline, education had come to be the monopoly of narrow-minded and parasitical clergy." [5] The condition of higher learning in Iran at the beginning of the nineteenth century certainly left a great deal to be desired.

Qajar rulers made few attempts to improve the intellectual climate of Iran; it seems that they were not particularly inclined toward scholarly pursuits. One of the few efforts they did make involved the establishment of Dar-ul-Fonun, a polytechnic college designed to provide training on the secondary level and the rudiments of a higher education.

The Dar-ul-Fonun was inaugurated in 1851. Its faculty consisted of seven Austrian professors and several European-trained assistants and interpreters; it catered to some 150 students, most of whom were members of the Iranian aristocracy. The fields of study offered included: infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineering, medicine and surgery, pharmacy, and mining.[6] The college was the first Western-type school founded by the Persian government, and its establishment represented a landmark in Iranian education.

During the second half of the nineteenth century, four additional colleges were established. Two of these were military in nature, while two were intended to supply ministries with qualified personnel.

The Early Twentieth Century

The first few years of the twentieth century witnessed only a slight increase in the number of institutions of higher education in Iran. Political instability and internal strife prevented officials from adequately attacking the problem of education and from taking positive steps toward solving the problem. Conditions militated against the establishment of schools on the tertiary level; a few schools, however, were founded—all of them located in Tehran.

By 1925, the list of institutions of higher education included: the school of music, the school of medicine, the school of law, the industrial or technical school, the school of dentistry, the school of agriculture, the school of commerce, the school of political science, the school of fine arts, and the military schools.

Early in the 1920's, Reza Shah the Great consolidated his power and seized the reins of government. Upon his ascension to the throne, he was faced with many problems—not the least of which was the need to develop a viable system of education from the primary school through the tertiary level. He set about building the structure of a modern educational system and thus provided the foundation for further developments in education.

Prior to his ascension to the throne, Reza Shah served as minister of war; during his term, he created a military academy. The academy was designed as a free institution with a course of study of two years' duration.

Not long after coming to power, Reza Shah transformed the Normal School at the secondary level, created in 1918, into an institution of higher education under the name of Teachers College. This three-year college consisted of a faculty of science and a faculty of letters, granting a license in one of five divisions: literature and philosophy; history and geography; mathematics; physics and chemistry; and biology.[7] Later, Teachers College was incorporated into the University of Tehran.

Reza Shah's greatest contribution to Iranian higher education undoubtedly was the establishment of the University of Tehran in 1934. At the outset, the university had five faculties: arts, science, medicine, law, and engineering; gradually, however, faculties were added and curriculums were broadened. Today, Tehran University is the only Iranian institution of higher education offering a full range of courses.[8] It is also the institution which boasts the greatest enrollment and enjoys the greatest amount of prestige. "Its predominance over the other universities is increased by the fact that most of the leading officials . . . are resident in Tehran and teach at the University of Tehran."[9]

Reza Shah was prevented from making further contributions to higher education due to unrest of international proportions. In 1941, Reza Shah abdicated in favor of his son—the present Shah—and Britain and the Soviet Union occupied Iran. It was not until the end of the occupation in 1946 that Iran again could turn its attention seriously to education.

Developments since the Mid-1940's

The major developments in Iranian higher education have taken place since the mid-1940's. Within that period, five provincial universities have been established, and a number of other institutions have

been founded. The growth in higher educational enrollments and facilities has been phenomenal.

The five provincial universities which have been set up are: Tabriz, Jondi Shapur, Mashad, Isfahan, and Pahlavi.[10] None of these institutions offers a full range of courses; none of them serves anything like the number of students enrolled in Tehran University.

The first privately financed university in Iran was founded in 1961. It was inaugurated the National University of Iran under a policy-making board of trustees. At the outset, the university consisted of three schools: architecture; banking, finance, and economics; and medicine. Faculties of dentistry and social science have subsequently been added; the program in economics has been expanded to the graduate level, offering a master of arts degree.

The Vocational Teacher Training College at Narmark, a suburb of Tehran, was established in 1962. It is the first and only degree-granting college for vocational-industrial education in Iran, training teachers for Iran's vocational high schools. The degree of bachelor of vocational education is awarded to those students who complete the four-year, tuition-free program.[11]

Arya Mehr Technical University was established some three years ago. Its aims are:

1. To prepare a selected group of Iranian students for careers in all branches of engineering and engineering management
2. To enable the students to use their professional talents and scientific knowledge in furthering Iran's program of modernization.

The university offers a four-year program of study and awards a license at the end of the four years. The university has already contributed significantly to Iran and its development; it promises to make even greater contributions in the future.

The institutions outlined above are only some of the colleges and universities that have been founded within the past twenty years. Other institutions,

both governmental and private, are now in operation and are serving an increasing number of college-age students. They are offering training in fields as diverse as engineering, literature, social work, secretarial science, home economics, and translation. At least three of the colleges offer programs similar to those offered by junior colleges. These three are the School of Social Work, Iran Girls' College, and Tehran Polytechnic.

The School of Social Work

The School of Social Work was created in the latter part of 1958. The three major purposes for its creation are:

1. To prepare students for practicing social work in Iran
2. To establish new, professional social work services and to strengthen existing social welfare aids and services
3. To broaden areas of knowledge related to social welfare.[12]

The course of study, as originally planned, was of two years' duration. Upon the completion of the program, the student was granted what might be termed the associate of arts degree. In the early 1960's, two more years were added to the course of study, making it a four-year program. Presently, all students are required to complete the two-year program before they are placed in one of the many agencies requesting social workers. Before the student can be admitted to the four-year program, he must prove himself to be a good practitioner of his art.

Iran Girls' College

Iran Girls' College was established in 1964 as the first Iranian institution of higher education catering exclusively to women and boasting of a program intended particularly for the training of women. The college was founded for the following purposes:

1. To afford a selected group of Iranian women the opportunity to prepare themselves for careers in

vocational and professional fields related to the disciplines of psychology, home economics, and secretarial science

2. To instill in Iranian women an appreciation of their capabilities, potentialities, and responsibilities, and to prepare them for their place in today's world

3. To arouse in the women an interest in using their capabilities and potentialities, particularly in the future development of Iranian society.[13]

The college offers a wide variety of programs and activities designed to serve the needs of many types of students. It affords training to both recent secondary school graduates and women already on the job. It gives a student the opportunity to pursue a two- or four-year course of study and grants the student either a two-year certificate or a license. The student interested in securing the certificate may enroll in one of three faculties: psychology, language, or home economics. The student who decides to work toward the license may choose a field of specialization such as: nutrition and dietetics, interior design and dressmaking, secretarial science, translation, accounting, or psychology.

Tehran Polytechnic

Tehran Polytechnic was founded during the 1960-61 academic year as a government technical institution. Its purpose is to aid in furthering the overall national program of technical education in Iran by training practical engineers for industry and government service. Candidates for admission must be graduates of secondary schools with a major in mathematics, or they must possess certificates from a secondary vocational-type school and have "suitable qualifications in science and mathematics." [14]

Study lasts four years and involves both theoretical and practical courses. The student is afforded the basic scientific background he needs during the first two years in a Department of General Studies, sometimes aclled the *junior college.* The third and fourth years of study include classes in engineering education and training in one of the institutes of

the school. Upon completion of study, the student receives a diploma in engineering technology.

While Iran Girls' College, The School of Social Work, and Tehran Polytechnic involve two-year programs of study, those programs do not serve the same purpose as that served by junior college programs in the United States. The two-year programs functioning in these institutions are generally viewed as the first step toward a license; seldom, if ever, are they considered as terminal or transfer programs. Because of the emphasis placed upon the four-year degree, an institution striving to serve the purpose of a junior college and to function in that capacity is either forced to extend its program to four years or be threatened with extinction. The School of Social Work is but one example.

Today, an increasing number of Persian students feel they can afford and have the right to pursue a four-year course of study; many of them make great sacrifices to do so. They feel they are being sold short when encouraged to lower their sights even slightly.

The insistence upon pursuing a four-year program and obtaining a license has roots deep in the Iranian culture. The positions usually sought after include the professions and the civil service—all of which require a relatively high level of education for maximum benefit and a decent rate of pay. Jobs on the technician level are frowned upon because they involve manual labor. Programs which are designed to train men for such jobs are shunned. For these reasons, the concept of the junior college as understood in the United States has not been able to take root in Iran. The concept will remain at this stage until attitudes have been changed—until the Iranian public has been awakened to the benefits and values of middle-level positions for both men and women.

Pertinent Educational Needs

The undue amount of prestige given to the license points out several educational needs in Iran. One is

the need to educate the public to the value which results from a middle-level position. A second need closely related to the first is for the extension of educational opportunity for those whose expectations are rising but whose pocketbooks do not permit them to embark upon an extended study program. Within this group lies the manpower potential needed for many of the middle-level programs involved in industrialization. A third need is for the development of a middle ground where late bloomers can be discovered and properly guided, and where students uncertain of which courses they want to follow can be given adequate information to permit them to make a wise decision. A fourth need is concerned with the in-service training of nonqualified personnel already on the job.

In the future as Iran progresses industrially, a fifth need will be the retraining of personnel whose jobs have become outmoded. As the literacy level rises, a sixth need may develop: providing further education for a greater number of adults.

These needs could probably best be met by an institution of the junior college type. Such an institution will have little possibility for success, however, until the public is convinced of its intrinsic worth and its importance to their personal advancement. Herein lie the possibilities for a fruitful exchange of intercultural ideas and an international dialog among educators. Such an exchange of ideas could prove beneficial to all participants; such a dialog could certainly aid Iran in reeducating its citizens for life in an industrializing and rapidly changing society.

Although the history of higher education in Iran extends over some eighteen-hundred years, the main thrust forward has occurred within the last twenty years. During that period, the framework of a modern system of higher education has been erected; the system now awaits the finishing touches.

The form the system will finally take cannot be predicted with any certainty. The only statement that can be made with some assurance is that the

system must be diversified if Iran is to realize its goals and possibilities.

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[1] Najabadi, Mahmud. "The University of Jondi Shapur." Mehr IV: 398; Sharivan 1345.

[2] Scholars of Greek origin had originally sought refuge in Persia from the persecution being meted out in the Graeco-Roman world.

[3] Dodge, Bayard. *Muslim Education in Medieval Times.* Washington, D.C.: The Middle East Institute, 1962.

[4] Borhanmanesh, Mohamad. *A Study of Iranian Students in Southern California.* Ann Arbor: Michigan University of Microfilms, Inc. pp. 28-29.

[5] Banani, Amin. *The Modernization of Iran, 1921-1941.* Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1961. p. 36.

[6] Borhanmanesh, p. 23.

[7] Sadiq, Issa Khan. *Modern Persia and Her Educational System.* Study Number 14. Studies of the International Institute of Teachers College, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. p. 72.

[8] Division of Economic Affairs, Plan Organization Education. *Third Plan Frame.* Tehran, Iran: The Division, August 1961. p. 74.

[9] *loc. cit.* The Division.

[10] Pahlavi University was established in 1949. Originally, it was known as Shiraz University. The name was changed to Pahlavi in 1962 when the university affiliated with the University of Pennsylvania.

[11] Agency for International Development. *Summary Highlights of A.I.D. Economic Assistance Activities in Iran.* Tehran, Iran: A.I.D. Mission to Iran, June 1966. p. 25.

[12] Division of Economic Affairs, p. 99.

[13] Iran Girls' College. *The College Catalogue, 1968-69.* Tehran, Iran: The College. p. 3.

[14] Tehran Polytechnic. *Mechanical Engineering and Production Engineering Institute Prospectus, 1965-66.* Tehran, Iran: The Polytechnic. p. 1.

By I.M.R.A. Iriyagolla

CEYLON BEGINS A JUNIOR COLLEGE SYSTEM

With the opening of six junior university colleges on January 30, 1969, Ceylon inaugurated a junior college system and thereby added a functionally purposeful segment to the structure of higher education in this country. This beginning also has meaning in a wider context. With the development of a junior college system, Ceylon joins the world community of junior colleges, characteristically significant in its rich heritage, in the phenomenal pace of its expansion, and in its variety of structure and form adapted to meet the specific requirements of each nation.

In late 1965, I saw junior colleges functioning in the United States and in Japan. I was impressed by what I saw and carry vivid recollections of the many services these colleges rendered to economic growth and social well-being. I became alive to the great potentialities such a system would have in the con-

text to Ceylon's educational growth and economic development; before long, a team of educators and administrators was set up to develop a junior college system in Ceylon.

Within three years a system was developed which took cognizance of the rich cultural heritage of the past, the manpower requirements of the rapidly growing economy, and the hopes and aspirations of the people. We watched the international community of junior colleges at work; we noted their strengths and weaknesses; and we charted a course to suit our means and ends.

New Institutions

Junior university colleges are new institutions designed to meet new needs, and as such, they are characterized by innovations. They have introduced many new features to the educational system in Ceylon.

One such feature is in the field of admissions. Gaining placement in institutions of higher learning in Ceylon is very competitive. Undergraduate student admissions to all universities in Ceylon are less than 2,000 each year, although nearly 40,000 take the General Certificate of Education Examination (advanced level) which serves as the entrance requirement for undergraduate admissions. Since each year's undergraduate admissions are dependent upon one particular year's results of the advanced level examination and competition for the few university places is so heavy, education tends to be for almost all university entrants an uninterrupted experience from grade one through university. Twelve years of study effort through elementary school and high school necessarily must be continued uninterrupted through university. This tends to put Ceylon students through a highly sheltered and structured environment during their teenage years. Immaturity and a feeling of dependence may very well result from such a situation.

One of the prime objectives of our junior college system is to meet the manpower requirements of

industry, commerce, agriculture, and service occupations. The world of work today, at midmanagement level, requires men with maturity, qualities of leadership, and team spirit. We like our students to spend a year or two "in the world" between high school and college, so that on their return to the classroom, they will then test formal concepts discussed in lectures against their own actual experience. To encourage this, an innovation has been introduced into the admissions procedure of the junior university colleges. Each year's admission is not tied down to the results of a particular year's advanced level examination. This policy is a departure from the established undergraduate entrance practices, and the deviation is bound to bring in a very salutary effect.

Admissions into the entire junior college system are centralized and vested in the National Council of Higher Education. This centralized procedure brings in many attendant advantages. Lack of information on the one hand and the prestige of some colleges on the other may lead to an inequitable distribution of student population. This can be adjusted expeditiously by the central authority. Every student declares his first and second preference of course and college, and is placed on the basis of availability of student places and courses of study. In addition, such a system is economical in operation.

In spite of a quarter century of free education and nearly a decade of state education in Ceylon, educational opportunity has not been equalized. Some schools have better facilities than others, and some districts have greater educational opportunity. In order to check this unfair advantage—even in some small measure—admissions to the junior university colleges have been made, to some extent, on a zonal basis. Selection to each college has been restricted to a particular geographical region, subject, of course, to accommodation and availability of particular courses. Besides counterbalancing the unfair advantages of incidental inequality in educa-

tional opportunity, this zonal requirement helps to develop the community college aspect in this new type of educational institution.

Features of the Junior College

Since there are only six such colleges in the whole country, it is not possible to bring in all the features of the community college system; however, as a first step in this direction, one-third of the places in each college are reserved for students living within a thirty-mile radius. As more and more colleges are established in various parts of the country, I expect it will be possible to increase this present one-third to one-whole and even considerably reduce the thirty-mile radius.

For the first time in Ceylon, community participation in curriculum design has been achieved in a wider and more organized form. Junior university college curriculums have been determined in consultation with the Manpower Division of the Ministry of National Planning, university professors, educators, and public and private sector personnel. Guidelines laid down by this Consultative Committee were elaborated into learning sequences, and these draft schemes of studies were referred to a wider circle of professional organizations, corporate bodies, and men of outstanding success and responsibility in each respective discipline. Finally, the instructional staff of the colleges sat again to reconsider the original drafts in the light of the comments received. This painstaking work resulted in the *Junior University Colleges Bulletin, 1969.*

Community participation is sought not only in curriculum design and in the development of the scheme of studies but also in teaching. In all major areas of study, sufficient instructional staff for the full teaching requirements was not recruited on a permanent basis. This situation necessitates engaging visiting lecturers and instructors for the balance of the teaching load—thereby drawing in a wealth of experience and knowledge available in the com-

munity and, consequently, enriching the instructional program.

Community participation in instruction does not end there. To conclude each unit of study—where such a unit lends itself to work experience—students are placed in actual work within the community and thus are given the necessary experience in real-life situations to meet the demands of each profession or occupation. In this activity, the supervision and guidance of the public and private sector employes is earnestly solicited. The guiding hand of the experienced is an effective tool of instruction.

Principles and Techniques

In Ceylon's junior university college system, strong emphasis is placed upon learning principles and techniques. Every unit of study has a stated cognitive objective and behavioral objective. Every lecturer discusses with his dean of instruction a few weeks in advance of each unit the behavioral changes, the attitudinal changes, and the skills he plans to bring about as a result of his teaching; more importantly, he examines what aids and techniques, what methods and procedures, he proposes to adopt to achieve these objectives. They also plan together the evaluation techniques to assess the attainment of these objectives.

These individual college efforts are supplemented by workshops in curriculum development, held three times a year at a central location. At these workshops, attended by the instructional staff of all the colleges, the lecturers review past work; compare study progress and methods; and exchange views on teaching aids, assignments, handouts, and texts. Finally, they plan the next term's work in detail. Curriculum development is conceived as an ongoing, continuous process—more so because of the changes in job requirements and the world of work, and the psychological and pedagogical changes that are taking place in the world at large.

Guidance and Counseling

Guidance and counseling is comparatively new in institutions of higher learning in Ceylon, and the appointment of full-time guidance counselors to the junior university colleges is a new feature in the educational setup. Education caters to the whole man, and psychological services for adjustment, integration, and social well-being are essential for the heterogeneous student population that is taken into each campus. A comprehensive student personnel service program has been drawn up, and its progress is being watched with interest.

At the end of the two-year course of study—in the case of those who offer terminal courses—securing a suitable job is the greatest concern of every graduating student. In a developing economy such as ours, where job situations are not plentiful, it requires a great deal of planning and preparation to place every graduating student in an appropriate job situation. The junior university college diploma has to earn recognition, and schemes of recruitment have to be amended to accommodate this new level of job preparation. The counseling center of each college offers a placement service as well, and since such placement services are a new feature in vocational education in Ceylon, they therefore are viewed with hopeful concern.

1969 is a landmark year in the history of education in Ceylon. In August we celebrated the centenary of the State Supervision of Education in Ceylon. The State Department of Education was begun in 1869, and in its career through one hundred years, education in Ceylon has undergone a phenomenal transformation.

Many were the systems that rose and fell in these long years—rose because of the necessity of the times and fell when they outlived their usefulness. It is hoped that the junior university college system—inaugurated in this centennial year—will have not only the vitality to withstand the vicissitudes of the times but also the variety to be of service to the youth of the nation.

By Charles B. Green
and Eduardo Cavallo R.

NEW JUNIOR COLLEGE IN SANTA DOMINGO

When a well-conceived idea is supported and implemented by an energetic and capable group of citizens, something important can happen. This is the story of the new junior college in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic. The idea was that the business and industrial community needed technically trained administrators, accountants, and executive secretaries; accordingly, there should be a college-level institution to provide this training. The group that recognized this need was the Accion Pro-Educacion y Cultura (Action Pro-Education and Culture, A.P.E.C.), made up of professionals and businessmen who are anxious to improve their community.

The need was first pointed to in a survey made in 1962 of the country's vocational education requirements. When A.P.E.C. decided to act, it sought a member of the 1962 survey team as an adviser—

Hamden Forkner, Professor Emeritus of Columbia University. He was a very suitable choice, for in addition to being a recognized authority in business education, he had been a leader in the junior college movement in California early in his career.

A.P.E.C. was able to interest both U.S.A.I.D. and the Ford Foundation in the project, but before there was much headway, the civil war of April-May 1965 caused the project to be indefinitely postponed. A.P.E.C., however, never dropped the idea. As political conditions became more stable, they became even more enthusiastic about opening the college as a symbol of the dawn of a new and better time.

Preparatory Program

The action group had been able to secure the estate of Trujillo's mother from the government—the large rambling house being suitable for temporary classrooms. Although the country was still suffering from the after-effects of the civil disturbances, A.P.E.C. resolved to go ahead with the college project as quickly as possible. Since the staff was not adequate for the regular business administration and business education classes that had been proposed and there were no technical assistants for the college, the sponsoring group decided to begin classes to ready the students for the regular programs as soon as these could be started. The preparatory program started September 27, 1965, with 110 students.

The Ford Foundation and U.S.A.I.D. made arrangements with Bryant College in Providence, Rhode Island, to send technical advisers to help the college organize its administration, accounting, and secretarial courses which were to start in February 1966. The idea was to begin small, establish a firm base, and build slowly; however, the college found that the number of applicants made it impossible to limit the program as originally planned. The executive secretary of A.P.E.C., Ignacio Guerra, commented that the problem of the college from the beginning was what he refers to as the *avalanche*.

The college was subjected to pressure because of the number of men and women who desired to enter. The day program opened in February with 141 students and because of demand, an evening program was begun in March with 65 additional students. At the end of the first semester, there were still so many applicants that a new group of students was enrolled despite the original plans to start operations on a yearly basis. In about a six-month period, the college had grown from a plan on paper to a student body of approximately 400 students. The Bryant College technicians found it necessary to teach classes in addition to their regular tasks of training the local staff.

Since the temporary classrooms were overcrowded, A.P.E.C., through its own funds and with contributions from the Organization of American States, began to construct a classroom building. This was carefully planned so that the original three-room unit could be enlarged as more funds became available. The first unit was completed by March 18, 1968, and the entire building with ten classrooms, offices, and restrooms was inaugurated in January 1969.

In addition to the special advisers from Bryant College, Dr. Forkner has continued to work with the junior college. The curriculum is designed to tailor the business education and business administration programs of United States junior colleges to meet the special conditions of the Dominican business community. The college strictly limited its program to the terminal business courses but has plans to add to these after it has developed sufficient institutional strength. As an example of a curriculum, the college offers the following courses for its business administration majors:

First semester: Spanish, English, mathematics, accounting, introduction to business

Second semester: Spanish, English, mathematics, accounting, business machines, business law

Third semester: Commercial Spanish, English, managerial accounting, salesmanship and public

relations, personnel administration, labor relations.

The college is now in its sixth semester and has graduated two classes with a total of 170 graduates: 13 accounting majors, 68 business administration majors, 27 Spanish executive secretaries, and 60 bilingual executive secretaries. Most of the graduates have found ready employment. Some have decided, however, to continue their studies, and the National University recognizes the courses of the junior college for those who wish to take advanced degrees.

New Statutes

In November 1968, A.P.E.C. decided that its fledgling organization had proved itself, and new statutes were implemented for the college so that it is a semi-autonomous organization with its own administration and board of directors. The Dominican government has granted the college full legal recognition with the right to grant two-year college degrees.

The students pay sixty pesos (pesos on a par with dollars) a month tuition which provides the majority of the operating costs of the college, but loan programs provide assistance to all needy students. In addition to the director and assistant director, the faculty consists of fifteen full-time and twelve part-time professors.

All appraisals of the junior college indicate that it is making a significant contribution to the Dominican Republic.

By Shri K. L. Joshi

JUNIOR COLLEGES PROPOSED IN INDIA

The scene of educational development in India, particulary since 1947—the year of independence—is both challenging and exciting for students of educational and economic growth. The latest comprehensive study is contained in the Government of India document *Report of the Education Commission—1964-66*[1], which describes itself as "a report on education and national development" envisaging development from 1961 to 1985.

Apart from the problems of increasing numbers in educational institutions, provision of facilities for teachers and equipment, and linking up of educational activities with the economic implications of national growth, the scene perhaps is characterized by pious resolutions and the inability of the government or private sector levels to cope with a situation of inadequate economic development. Consequently, much tension has been created for state govern-

ments as well as for the central government in the expansion or improvement of education as outlined in three, five-year plans—1951-1966. The results have been: inadequate financial provisions in the institutions established for the rising enrollments; unemployment of those highly educated through the universities, particularly in technology and science, resulting very often in a "brain drain" to foreign countries; and—the foremost problem—an inadequacy of detailed studies and practical solutions to the problems of insufficient finances and physical facilities—equipment, boarding houses or hostels for students, libraries and reading facilities, and some unqualified teachers.

The growth of enrollments can be seen in Table I, page 103, from the *Report of the Education Commission.*[2]

Compared to the growth of enrollments, the total educational expenditure in India, as a percentage of national income, has been rather discouraging. The resources of the nation necessarily have been directed toward building up the economic strongholds of well as irrigation, transport, communication, and other sectors of economic growth. Table II, page 104, gives an idea of total Indian educational expenditure.[3]

Under the constitution, education is a subject of the sixteen state governments with certain reservations regarding subjects to be handled by the central government. The role of the central government is that of coordination and advice with very little executive or administrative authority. This role, in itself, can be effective in relation to the leadership and, perhaps, political power which can be said to command the state governments. A coordinated policy of educational development may not be accepted easily by the state governments if the strength of political power at the center does not influence that in the states.

Before independence—when enrollments in the educational institutions were much smaller and today's population figure of 500 million was not

visualized as a major demographical and economic problem—educational structure did not offer itself as an important problem. There were reasons to support this view. A high school examination at the end of the tenth or eleventh class resulted in a uniform academic standard in all states. The examination was known as "the matriculation examination" when conducted by the universities in the earlier decades of the nineteenth century and "the school leaving certificate examination" when conducted by a statutory board established by the state govern-

TABLE I
GROWTH OF ENROLLMENTS (IN THOUSANDS) 1950-65

Level	*1950-51*	*1955-56*	*1960-61*	*1965-66*	*Average annual rate of growth (percentage)*
Preprimary	5,177 (18.3%)	7,135 (21.3%)	8,612 (22.3%)	11,773 (26.7%)	5.6
Lower primary (I-IV)	13,651 (37.8%)	17,380 (42.6%)	24,996 (54.8%)	37,090 (69.2%)	6.9
Higher primary (V-VII)	3,228 (13.0%)	4,592 (16.5%)	7,463 (24.3%)	12,549 (35.6%)	9.5
Lower secondary (VIII-X):					
General	1,461	2,300	3,582	5,990	9.9
Vocational	46	70	100	137	7.5
Total	1,507 (6.5%)	2,370 (9.3%)	3,682 (13.1%)	6,127 (19.1%)	9.8
Higher secondary (XI-XII):					
General	157	288	491	834	11.8
Vocational	125	214	358	564	10.6
Total	282 (1.9%)	502 (3.1%)	849 (4.9%)	1,398 (7.0%)	11.3
Undergraduate:					
General	191	322	434	759	9.6
Professional	50	82	147	227	10.6
Total	241	404	581	986	9.8
Postgraduate:					
General and professional	(0.1%) 22	(0.2%) 35	64 (0.3%)	208 (0.4%)	11.2
Grand total	24,108	32,419	46,247	70,031	7.4

TABLE II
TOTAL INDIAN EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

Item of expenditure	*1950-51*	*1955-56*	*1960-61*	*1965-66 (estimated)*
Total educational expenditure from all sources (in millions)	1,444	1,897	3,444	6,000
Index of growth	100	166	301	524
Educational expenditure per capita	3.2	4.8	7.8	12.1
Index of growth	100	150	244	378
Total national income at current prices (in millions)	95,300	99,800	141,000	210,000
Index of growth	100	105	148	220
National income per capita at current prices	266.5	255.0	325.7	424.4
Index of growth	100	96	122	159
Total educational expenditure as percentage of national income	1.2	1.9	2.4	2.9
Index of growth	100	158	200	242
Average annual rate of growth of total educational expenditure (percentage)	Plan I 10.6	Plan II 12.7	Plan III 11.8	Plans I-III 11.7

ments qualifying a student for the universities, colleges, or employment. The average age for completion of the school course was sixteen plus. In addition, there was another examination known as "the intermediate examination," taken two years after matriculation, which established uniform state standards. In nearly all cases, this examination was conducted by the universities; in one, the United Provinces which has now become Uttar Pradesh, a statutory Board of Intermediate Examination, established by the state government, conducted the testing. But the standard of attainment was very much like that of the intermediate examination conducted by the universities.

Changes in Structure

After 1955, many changes took place in this structure which had at the apex of the educational structure a uniformity in the form of the matriculation examination at the high school stage and the intermediate examination for entry to engineering, medical, and other professional studies as well as to the courses in commerce, arts, and humanities of the university. There was always a drop of enrollment after the matriculation examination, for quite a large number of qualified students entered the different sectors of employment. Another drop occurred after the intermediate examination when strict standards resulted in a pass percentage hardly exceeding forty. Large numbers of students who qualified entered professional colleges as well as the colleges of arts, science, and commerce. Standards were uniform, and the enrollments were manageable in all the universities. But that was in 1947 when there were twenty universities as compared to seventy-odd in 1969. The number of pupils in the universities and their affiliated colleges during this period rose from 200,000 to 2,000,000.

The sudden change to a higher secondary pattern, beginning in 1955 in some of the states, resulted in a number of adjustments in educational structure. In states where a higher secondary pattern of edu-

cation was introduced, the former four-year course of undergraduate education of two years of intermediate education and two years of degree education was changed into a three-year degree course, the first year transferred to the higher secondary schools of eleven years, changed from ten years. However, the total duration in school and college remained fourteen years. In other states where the higher secondary education pattern was not practicable and a three-year degree course was introduced, the school system was retained to ten years or in some cases, eleven years (which was equivalent to ten years from the point of view of courses of studies) followed by a preuniversity course in the college of one year and a three-year degree course in arts, science, or commerce. Universities in the Uttar Pradesh State, however, retained their old pattern, and Bombay University also retained the old intermediate examination after two years of schooling, followed by a two-year degree course. Further adjustments were necessary—for example, introduction of a premedical examination for medical students and pre-engineering examination for engineering students. Admission to professional courses such as engineering had been after the higher secondary stage or preuniversity examination, and to medical courses, it had been the intermediate examination of the Uttar Pradesh board, the Bombay University, or a premedical examination equivalent to the first year of a three-year bachelor of science course in all other universities.

This created a great deal of confusion which was recognized by the Education Commission. The commission therefore suggested a new pattern of twelve years of schooling, followed by a three-year degree course: one to four or one to five as lower primary classes; five to eight or six to nine as upper primary classes; eight to ten or nine to ten as lower secondary classes; and eleven to twelve as higher secondary classes, followed by a three-year degree course.[4] It recommended a fifteen-year duration of school and first-degree education as contrasted with the sixteen

years in the United States and Japan. However, the proposed pattern coincided more or less with that in the United Kingdom although it did not coincide with the pattern in the U.S.S.R. or other continental countries.

The Education Commission had recommended the higher education stage of two years of general education or one to three years of vocational education after the tenth class of school education. But when it came to implementation of this recommendation, the state governments, with the implicit approval of the Central Ministry of Education, changed the pattern, feeling that the eleventh and twelfth levels should be either in the colleges or in the select secondary schools according to the situation. For instance, the White Paper on Education of Maharashtra State reads: "Higher secondary education will be provided as classes attached to colleges and also as top classes in secondary schools."

Further modification to the recommendation of the Education Commission is also seen in the *Report of the Committee of Members of Parliament on Education, 1967*[5] which said: "As a transitional measure the attachment of these classes (eleventh and twelfth) to colleges may be continued wherever necessary." However, the Ministry of Education later seems to have come to a final conclusion in what is known as the National Policy on Education (1968):[6]

> It will be advantageous to have broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country. The ultimate objective should be to adopt the 10+2+3 pattern, the higher secondary stage of two years being located in schools, colleges, or both according to local conditions.

The government of India appointed a Committee on Educational Integration[7] in 1961, and a report was issued in 1962. The committee had gone into the general and major policies of the confusing diversity of educational structures in India. It recommended that there be a ten-year high school stage, followed

by a two-year preuniversity stage, followed by a three-year degree course. The report stated:

> The two-year unit may be attached to high schools where it can be called the higher secondary classes or it may be attached to the degree college as pre-university classes. It can also be an independent unit and may be called *junior college*. Such *junior colleges* can be controlled and recognized by the State Education Department or university or both. Students who successfully complete the higher secondary, pre-university, and junior college courses may be awarded a diploma to qualify them for different avenues of employment available to them.

The report further stated:

> Junior colleges will be specially useful in areas where high schools do not have facilities for providing higher secondary classes. Pupils from the neighboring high schools who want a two-year preparation can join them and not have to go far away from their homes to join the pre-university class of a degree college. Junior colleges can also serve the local community by providing evening continuation courses of different types and duration for cultural enrichment and professional importance.

Junior College Concept

It is very interesting to note that the committee had visualized the concept of the junior college for India almost in the same way as the community college or junior college in the United States.

The committee reported that the junior colleges should provide:

1. The necessary preuniversity preparation for students proceeding to degree courses
2. All-around terminal education with a semivocational or semiprofessional education
3. Termination education for a vocation.

It further pointed out the variety of courses that could be introduced in the proposed junior colleges:

> Among the numerous multipurpose courses that can be provided in higher secondary classes and junior colleges are: teacher training for primary school teachers; certificate courses for physical education teachers, art teachers, craft teachers, automobile mechanics, horticulturists, electric technicians, junior accountants, laboratory tech-

nicians, building maintenance supervisors; courses for catering and dressmaking. The number and the types of courses may increase depending on needs. Students from higher secondary courses and junior colleges should be competent to enter many of the public services now open only to those with university degrees.

This valuable document of 1962 was not followed up closely, but it created a certain chain of thinking and series of discussions. However, the suggestions regarding the educational structure changes and junior colleges perhaps were not taken seriously either by the government or by the Education Commission of 1964-66 although the latter had made various recommendations about further education of a semiprofessional nature after the high school stage, based more or less on the British pattern of courses; the recommendations included about 208 courses. In addition, about 171 courses of a semiprofessional nature in agricultural polytechnics were suggested. All these can be easily accommodated in the type of junior colleges recommended by the Committee on Educational Integration of 1962. Further, the present central minister of education, V. K. R. V. Rao, in his publication *Education and Human Resources Development, 1966*[8] and also in his address to the state ministers of education on June 7, 1965, mentioned the *junior college* and indicated that the "two-years of intermediate arts or a junior college may cover the two years after the tenth class." His recommendation more or less tallies with the recommendation of the Committee on Educational Integration.

The author had covered some of these points in an article[9] he contributed to the *General Education Quarterly*, III: 1, October 1965, University of Bombay, on the "Need for Junior Colleges in India." The main argument advanced in this article was that while it was difficult to have restrictive admissions at the university or college level for social and political reasons, particularly in the first two years of the four-year course or the first year of the three-year degree course, and because there was a need

for voluntary selection of courses by students themselves, there should be something in the education system like the sixth form in the United Kingdom. Therefore, it was desirable to introduce the junior college in India within the educational pattern after the tenth class. It was argued that there were two advantages to such a system. In the first place, it particularly would be an answer to the problem of large numbers coming from rural areas. Secondly, the students would be mature enough to decide what additional transfer courses they would take after the junior college. Thus, there would not be the rush after the higher secondary school or high school to the universities and colleges as was occurring, without proper guidance. It was pointed out that under such a system the student is well prepared for further education or employment, and the numbers in the university courses are restricted naturally, without any social pressures or complaints. Further, it was pointed out that the increase in the present type of colleges was going on over the years at the rate of about 175 to 200 colleges a year for about 200,000 to 300,000 additional students each year. This is evident from the 1963-64 pattern shown in Table III.[10]

The article examined the pattern of training and education as well as employment of about 750,000 students who qualified in 1964-65 and pointed out that the situation resulting from the system of education would present difficult problems unless the intermediate level of education and training were to be emphasized. Table IV[11] brings out the pattern for the year 1964-65.

The development of expenditures on education during the fifteen years of the first three plans is interesting as shown in Table V, page 113.[12]

Position Today

In the present educational structure, there is a junior college after the tenth class in only one state —Kerala. The system of education there is 10+2+3.

TABLE III
COLLEGES 1963-64

Course of study	*University colleges*	*Affiliated colleges*	*Total 1962-63*	*Total 1963-64*	*Additional in 1963-64*
Arts, science, and commerce	68	1,350	1,283	1,418	135
Engineering technology and architecture	14	79	90	93	3
Medicine	5	79	74	84	10
Pharmacy	0	3	2	3	1
Ayurveda	0	9	8	9	1
Dental	0	8	7	8	1
Nursing	0	5	4	5	1
Law	11	50	54	61	7
Agriculture	8	40	47	48	1
Veterinary science	5	14	18	19	1
Oriental learning	3	160	168	163	−5
Physical education	0	5	5	5	0
Music and fine arts	5	33	32	38	6
Education	9	148	146	157	11
Total	128	1,983	1,938	2,111	173

TABLE IV
PATTERN OF TRAINING AND EDUCATION 1964-65

Field	*Number of students*	*Number of institutions*
Industrial trade institutions	40,000	318
Polytechnics	40,000	263
Private unrecognized institutions	20,000	—
Teachers' training schools	40,000	1,358
Private university colleges	250,000	1,000
First year of intermediate course:		
950 × 30 equals approximately	28,000	950
200 × 60 equals approximately	12,000	60
First year of three-year degree course:		
Arts, science, and commerce	50,000	—
First year five-year engineering courses	10,000	—
Employed	100,000	—
Unemployed or seeking jobs	160,000	—
Total	750,000	

TABLE V

DEVELOPMENTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, BY SECTOR, DURING THE FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PLAN PERIOD

Category	*First plan*	*Second plan*	*Third plan*	*First plan*	*Second plan*	*Third plan*
	1951-56	*1956-61*	*1961-66*	*Percentage of total*		
Schools and vocational education:						
Elementary education	850	870	2090	42.1	24.3	27.3
Secondary education	200	480	880	9.9	13.5	11.5
Other programs (including cultural)	140	280	390	7.0	7.9	5.1
Engineering and technology (school and diploma)	110	260	660	5.4	7.3	8.1
Agriculture and animal husbandry (certificate and diploma)	—	—	30	—	—	.4
Medical education (certificate)	50	80	140	2.5	2.2	1.8
Vocational training (DGE and T) (trades)	—	130	490	—	3.4	6.4
Total (school and vocational education)	1350	2100	4680	66.9	58.6	61 2
University education:						
Arts, science, and commerce education	140	450	820	7.0	12.6	10.7
Engineering and technology	90	220	760	4 4	6.2	10.0
Agriculture and veterinary science	50	110	170	2.5	3.0	2 2
Medical education	170*	280*	430	8.4	7 8	5.6
Total (university education)	450	1060	2180	22.3	29.6	28 5
Other ministries:						
(CD and C), rehabilitation, and home affairs	220	420	790	10.8	11.8	10.3
Grand total for education and training	2020	3580	7650	100.0	100.0	100.0

* *Estimated.*

The intermediate two years in the junior college does not provide for semiprofessional courses or terminal courses but rather serves as part of a five-year degree course of university education (2+3).

In addition, there are other sectors of institutional training and education where institutions controlled by the state governments or the boards of technical education of the states provide facilities for semiprofessional or professional training and education at the intermediate level. There are also many private or nongovernment institutions where facilities for commercial education, such as accounting, ste-

nography, commercial courses, etc., have been provided, as well as apprenticeship courses in private firms and engineering and industrial workshops. But the regular institutional training courses after the tenth class, or even one or two years before that, have been provided in the following institutions which are equivalent in many ways to the junior college:

1. Teacher-training institutions for primary school teachers
2. Polytechnics
3. Industrial trade schools
4. Agricultural schools and polytechnics.

Primary school teacher-training institutions: There are at present more than 1,400 institutions for training primary teachers with an annual admission capacity of more than 130,000. The course is generally for two years after the tenth class; in some states, it also is provided after the eighth class, but this is a passing phase. The entire program today could be brought under the junior college pattern. The training schools for primary teachers either are run by private institutions with their governing boards or by the state governments. They are not under the wing of the universities. There is a view that the teacher-training institutions for secondary teachers which award university degrees also could have a division for the training of primary teachers. All teacher-training programs thus would be brought under one canopy. While this experiment could be undertaken, it is desirable that school graduates who would like to take up the profession of primary school teaching—mostly popular among women—could benefit considerably if these programs were offered in junior colleges along with other transfer and terminal courses.

Polytechnics: There are today 284 polytechnics in India with an annual admission capacity of 48,600 although during the current year, this number has fallen to 31,000 owing to the discouraging prospects

of employment after taking the diploma. These are three-year institutions after matriculation (school graduation level). They deal in engineering subjects such as civil, mechanical, and electrical, and they serve the intermediate level of technicians for government works, industries, factories, and big state projects such as steel, fertilizers, electronics, irrigation, and power and communication. They serve some of the purposes of the junior colleges in America and also could be brought under the wing of the junior colleges in India. Like the teacher-training institutions, they are under the control of the state departments of technical education. It is possible to have an integrated organization of junior colleges with polytechnic wings, or the existing polytechnics could take up other courses of various duration in their vacant capacity resulting from the unpopularity of present courses and serve as junior colleges.

Industrial trade schools: The industrial trade schools are meant for training craftsmen, required in industry as well as agriculture. These schools have more or less developed during the last ten years, particularly under the Third Plan from 1961. They provide training both in engineering trades such as those of blacksmith, carpenter, draftsmen, fitter, turner, welder, overseers, etc., and also in non-engineering trades such as bleaching, dying, printing, weaving, manufacture of household goods, utensil cutting, tailoring embroidery, preservation of foods, stenography, etc. Until 1956, there were only fifty-nine institutions of this kind in India, with an admission capacity of about 10,000. By 1961, the number of the institutions rose to 163, with an admission capacity of about 40,000. By 1966, the admission capacity rose to 116,570. By 1968, the number of industrial trade institutions rose to 306, with an admission capacity of 147,000. Admission to most of these courses is after the tenth class. In some of the engineering trades, students are admitted after the age of fifteen or sixteen if they have

passed the eighth class of the school system. In addition, the training programs are supplemented by the apprenticeship training programs instituted about 1962. Under the Apprenticeship Act of 1961, 195 industries and 50 designated trades where apprenticeships have to be encouraged are specified; nearly 37,000 apprentices at present are undergoing training in about 3,000 establishments in both public and private sectors.

The entire industrial training program is under the central government's Ministry of Labor and Employment which is associated with the state governments' labor departments. Sixty per cent of the financial development grant is given by the central government, and 40 per cent is provided by the states. The central government also established a Central Institute for Research and Training in Employment Services in 1964 to conduct employment research and train employment officers, and the Indian Institute of Labour Studies to train industrial relations officers of the central and state governments. This function today is served to a large extent in the United States by junior colleges, and it could form a wing of the proposed junior colleges in India.

Agricultural schools and polytechnics: In some states, separate agricultural schools at the school level have been established. An experiment was performed by introducing agricultural courses in the multipurpose higher secondary schools under the Second Plan; however, the experiments have not proven successful. The agricultural polytechnics, as recommended by the Education Commission, are still at a conceptual stage. All such courses could be brought under the junior colleges.

Gradual Introduction

Thus, it can be seen that the concept of junior colleges is being introduced gradually in India although there is lack of coordination and proper stimulus and conviction. There are boards of technical education which manage the polytechnics at

the government level. There are boards for industrial training schools under the labor departments of state governments and the central Ministry of Labour and Employment which manage and finance industrial trade schools. The primary teacher-training schools are organized mostly by the state governments and directors of public instruction in the different states. A community institution serving the national goals required for economic development is in an embryonic stage and needs to be considered in light of the facts previously mentioned. If separate institutions offering training of one, two, or three years after the tenth class are established, they can control various sectors of terminal and transfer courses. The advantages for the community will be many, particularly if these institutions are distributed all over the country in rural areas and in small and larger towns and cities. Such institutions can offer short courses, forums, concerts, studies, basic college work, vocational and technical courses, continuing education or further education courses—all related to community needs. They could introduce a one-year certificate course or a two- or three-year diploma course in a variety of programs.

The question of organization and administration of such an institution is an important one. In India, most institutions were developed first by government and later multiplied in the private sector by enterprising individuals. Private institutions also have been established by government grants—often very inadequate.

There are three ways of dealing with the problem. All these institutions could be brought under the wing of the universities which number more than seventy, dispersed in the different parts of the country, awarding the intermediate level diploma or lower below the certificate of achievement. They also could be affiliated to self-governing boards established by the government in cooperation with the universities. Thirdly, they could be run by the government with the government machinery appropriate for the purpose.

I have preference for the first alternative, but the matter needs to be debated and the best practical course to be indicated to serve the purposes of the community.

Guiding Philosophy

The guiding philosophy behind educational planning in India is that development of education is a means of providing society with a means of development and at the same time, forming an inseparable instrument for the social welfare of the population. For this purpose, large resources are required; they must be an impressive share of national income in relation to the planned economies required for the development of the country. The educational system should be such as to allow any willing member to receive higher education if he or she has the ability and aptitude. No school course should be a blind alley for any student. A teacher of a primary school is forever a primary teacher today; he needs to be able to advance if he has the will and aptitude for furthering his academic background as well as professional training. Similarly in the present system, the technician can hardly become an engineer, and the craftsman can rarely become a technician. The whole system has to be flexible so as to allow the capable person to further his academic achievement as well as his professional skill. The training of scientists and high-level manpower is nearly as essential as the training of middle-level workers and the raising of the general cultural level of society. With the industrial and agricultural development of the country, new ideas of education and training in relation to the development of manpower requirements necessarily emerge, along with the institutional provision for such a purpose.

There is also another major problem in India—population growth. While various remedies such as family planning and other methods of population control are being introduced, one of the major solutions to the problem would be the proper training

and education at different levels and assurance of employment in the different sectors of the developing economy.

Establishing educational targets corresponding to the requirements of a developing nation is by no means an easy task. But it is necessary to calculate financial implications of enrollment of higher and secondary specialized level, i.e., in the universities and at the intermediate level of junior colleges, and face any dilemma of development created by lack of resources and the need for training of adequate manpower. The junior college or the community college—now tried so well in the United States and Japan—is an institutional device for such national development.

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[1] Government of India. *Report of the Education Commission 1964-66*. Official Report. New Delhi: Ministry of Education, 1966.

[2] *Ibid.* p. 589.

[3] *Ibid.* p. 564.

[4] *Ibid.* pp. 29, 30, 45.

[5] Government of India. *Report of the Committee of Members of Parliament on Education.* Official Report. New Delhi: Ministry of Education, 1967.

[6] Government of India. *National Policy on Education.* Official Report. New Delhi: Ministry of Education, 1968.

[7] Government of India. *Report of the Committee on Emotional Integration.* Official Report. New Delhi: Ministry of Education, 1962.

[8] Rao, V. I. R. V. *Education and Human Resource Development.* Bombay: Allied Publishers, 1966.

[9] Joshi, K. L. "The Need for Junior Colleges in India." *General Education Quarterly,* No. 1: 14-15; October 1965.

[10] *Ibid.* p. 9.

[11] *Ibid.* p. 10.

[12] Joshi, K. L. "Some Problems in Planning of University Education." *Journal of University Education* No. 1: 51-52; September 1962.

By Joseph M. Jacobsen

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IDEA IN SOUTH AMERICA

A great deal of effort on the part of farsighted South Americans has gone into attempts at utilizing varying degrees of the comprehensive junior college concept for South American countries, so far with few tangible results. An attempt has been made by Chile. Brazil and Peru are on the verge of intermediate technical training. But the "Great White Hope" for the comprehensive junior college is Colombia.

The problems are many. A strong commitment to European-type education for the elite, power struggles both in the political arena and the university structure, lack of funds and lack of foresight to make the investment necessary for uncertain returns, a tradition of white-collar jobs for the educated, lack of properly trained professors, a shortage of manpower studies, and possibly most of all, a desire to cling to the known and familiar educational

structure have taken their toll of the most sincere and enlightened attempts at adopting the ccncept of the comprehensive junior college in South America. The near future, however, should see more positive action.

Harbison and Myers, in their book *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth* (1964), classify seventy-five countries of the world into four major categories: "Underdeveloped," "Partially Developed," "Semiadvanced," and "Advanced." Since they feel that countries vary in their degree of development in relation to the degree to which their people are developed, they rank countries according to their human resource development—namely, education. Six South American countries fall into the "Partially Developed" category: Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Paraguay, Ecuador, and Peru. Venezuela, Chile, and Uruguay are classed as "Semiadvanced," and one, Argentina, is placed near the bottom of the "Advanced" countries. The ratings run from 0.3 for Niger to a high of 261.3 for the United States, which places in perspective South American countries, most of which fall in the twenties, with the top country, Argentina, having an index number of 82.

If we can give credence to Harbison and Myers' classification—and their work is well documented—the South American countries have a hard struggle facing them in developing their people educationally. It will be interesting to see whether those countries which are the first to initiate comprehensive junior colleges—with majors geared to manpower needs and with comparable attention to other levels of education—are the first to make the jump to a higher classification of development.

In his book, *The Challenge of Development in Latin America* (1965), Victor L. Urguidi, in discussing the implications of the need for economic development in Latin America, pointed out the place of education by stating: "Education and economic development must be dealt with jointly: otherwise, there is only a tenuous and indirect link between

the two." It was recognized that hand-in-hand with economic development went a need for professional and skilled workers and technicians. Education, then, would have to produce the personnel to fill those needs as they developed.

Those findings are almost identical with specific studies made in Chile, Peru, Brazil, and elsewhere. Each study found that there is a growing need for high-level technicians and that industry is using professionals to do the work of the nonexistent technicians.

Chile—Regional University Colleges

William J. Platt, in his paper on "Chile's Search for Educational-Economic Consistency" (1966), points to three means Chile was taking to attain a trained working force equal to the investment in industry: (1) an accelerated industrial skills training program, (2) the regional junior college system, and (3) a training program to provide manpower for more efficient agricultural production.

In Chile there exists a large number of high school graduates who do not have opportunities to acquire professional preparation while, at the same time, the economic and social development of Chile demands a great variety of professionals at many levels of specialization. The majority of high school graduates in the provinces must cease their studies in the twelfth year because of lack of room in the university. A solution often proposed is decentralization of educational facilities and programs.

Two professors at the University of Chile, Irma Salas and Egidio Orellano, made a study of this problem and published their findings in 1957. They recommended gradual changes to avoid resistance from the established university faculties and administration, with an ultimate goal of providing opportunities for higher education for the greatest number possible, and introducing new curriculums called for by the complexity of Chile's social, cultural, and economic life.

They recommended, for the initial step, the establishment of higher education centers closely related and coordinated with the university. These centers would result in decentralizing the university, thus providing opportunities for higher education to more students and at the same time providing a permanent university extension program in the provinces.

In 1959 the council of the University of Chile approved the creation of university colleges under the direction of a special department of the university. The university colleges would offer training for intermediate-level careers, general education, and academic studies which could be continued in the university professional schools. Counseling, tutoring, and a full-time teaching staff were integral parts of the plan. Five colleges were established in the period 1960 to 1965: Temuco, La Serena, Antofagasta, Talca, and Osorno Colleges, all in the provinces.

Specifically, as stated in Irma Salas' "Master Plan 1965-1970 for the University of Chile's University Colleges," the functions assigned to the five original colleges were the following:

1. "To provide opportunities for intermediate-level studies in accordance with national and regional needs
2. "To provide opportunities for transfer to professional university schools
3. "To give the students the basic training in the sciences for intermediate-level university courses
4. "To provide general education courses in order to promote the development of the student as a whole
5. "To provide guidance to the students in their educational and vocational pursuits in order to adapt them better to personal and to school situations and to promote their school achievement and future professional efficiency
6. "To provide opportunities of formal education for adults; and to carry out activities for the improvement of professionals; to promote and orga-

nize cultural activities to meet the interests and needs of the different groups of the community

7. "To collaborate with the respective agencies in the study and utilization of regional natural resources."

The entrance requirement of a *bachillerato* degree granted upon satisfactory passing of a test upon completion of secondary school gave way to the easier secondary school graduation certificate. This change, plus the location of the colleges in the provinces, resulted in the desired increase in the number of students admitted from the lower socio-economic groups.

In the plans for technical training, courses geared specifically to the training of intermediate-level professions were to take up 50 per cent of the student's time; preparation in the basic sciences, including those serving as the basis for the technical or professional studies, 25 per cent, and general courses, the other 25 per cent of a student's program.

However, these percentages have not been realized, partially, perhaps, because of indecision which existed as to what majors to offer. This is in spite of considerable effort and research into employment needs in the fishing, wood, mining, and building industries, and in transportation, agriculture, public administration, education, public utility services, manufacturing, business, and communication.

Although initially it was planned that credits in certain majors would be transferable to the university proper, this did not come about. Upon completion of the three-year curriculum in the university college, students could transfer to the university, but they could not receive any unit credit for their work in the college.

Financing of faculty preparation for the university colleges was provided by the Ford Foundation while the Inter-American Bank supplied loans for buildings and facilities. Leland L. Medsker of the University of California at Berkeley coordinated the

teacher training, which began in 1961. The last group of trainees is still in the United States.

In 1964 a total of 704 students—269 men and 435 women—were enrolled in Temuco Regional College; 329 students—133 men and 196 women—were enrolled in La Serena Regional College; and 168 students—86 men and 82 women—were attending Antofagasta Regional College. The total number of students enrolled in the three regional colleges existing at that time was 1,201, while the Chilean university had a total enrollment of 28,902.

In 1965 Rector Collegio Rojas changed the regional colleges to university centers, a change from three-year comprehensive community colleges to five-year academic branches of the university. Irma Salas, author and general director of the regional university colleges, resigned in 1966 because she saw no hope for the regional college. A total of ten university centers have been initiated since 1960.

An example of the majors offered by one of the colleges is the following list of the curriculums of the Central University of La Serena:

Professional university careers of intermediate level:

Agricultural technician
Home economist
Industrial food processing technician
Statistical administrative technician
Chemical laboratory technician
Technical draftsman
Social service assistant
Technical assistant

Transfer careers:

Nursing
Social welfare
State professor specializing in: English, French, biology, mathematics, and fine arts

The regional university colleges in Chile gained considerable attention. In 1962 the UNESCO Conference on Education and Economic and Social De-

velopment in Latin America, held in Santiago and attended by representatives of most Latin American countries, adopted the following document:

> That new higher education institutions be initiated, such as the regional university colleges, so as to extend the advantages of higher education in the provinces and to utilize more fully the ever growing human resources that graduate from the high schools, and to satisfy the need for intermediate-level technicians demanded by economic development, without increasing the number of universities.

At the time of this writing, July 1968, all is in a state of suspense. The University of Chile is closed down and all projects are halted, including the regional university centers. The president of the University of Chile in Santiago, upon which the university centers depend, has resigned along with a number of his deans in response to lack of backing from some deans of the university to giving students more of a voice in the administration of the university. It is to be seen what attitude the new president has toward the comprehensive junior colleges and what interest he has in returning the new institutions to their original status.

Colombia—Institutos Universitarios

Colombia is a good example of a country bent on improving the economy, interested in making the educational changes necessary to achieve that improvement, and willing to make the sacrifices and investment necessary to attain those educational changes.

A country of 18 million people, Colombia is the third most populous nation in South America, after Brazil and Argentina. Over half the population is a mixture of white and Indian blood. Population growth is rapid (about 3 per cent annually) and there is a pronounced movement to the urban areas. More than twenty cities have populations over 100,000.

Although Colombia is industrializing rapidly, it

still is predominantly agricultural, with coffee as its principal export. Because it has an unfavorable balance of trade, Colombia is making efforts to diversify production and stimulate foreign investment and industrialization. Although its gross national product is increasing at an average annual rate of 5 per cent, its population growth does much to offset this progress.

Colombia now is on the verge of introducing junior colleges to help provide the trained manpower required by a developing economy. The rapid progression of recent events and studies leading to the present situation is enlightening, and in many ways of storybook quality.

In 1965 Professor Gioranni Gozzer, head of the UNESCO mission to Colombia, in dealing with aspects and problems of industrial technical education in Colombia, found an 80 per cent shortage of technicians. Education officials of Colombia estimated that in twenty years the annual output of technicians would have to be increased sixfold, not counting replacement needs. In addition to the growing need for training of technicians, a news story in Bogota, in November 1966, stated that 8,000 qualified students would be without university places in 1967.

In 1967 Colombia, with the assistance of the World Bank and the Peace Corps, began a five-year program to establish nineteen comprehensive high schools in eighteen cities. These high schools will be coeducational, will have from 3,500 to 4,000 pupils each, and students with trade majors and professional majors will be educated together. This is a pronounced change from the small one-track high schools typical of South American countries.

In December 1964, B. Lamar Johnson and James F. King completed a brief but intensive study of higher education in Colombia in which they recommended a protracted study by the Asociacion Colomiana de Universidades and the related Fondo Universitario Nacional with the aid of the public and

private entities in Colombia, and with the guidance and assistance of the University of California.

In December 1966, Julio L. Bortolazzo, a member of the University of California Colombian Higher Education Mission, and his Colombian counterpart, Otto Perez, published their findings and recommendations concerning postsecondary intermediate education in Colombia. After documenting their stand, they came out unequivocably for two prototype comprehensive junior colleges, or *institutos universitarios*, to open in 1968.

Funds were secured and a study group formed, known as the University of California Colombian Higher Education Project, which was charged with assisting the Colombian Association of Universities in the preparation of a national plan for higher education in Colombia. Completed in 1967, their report included a proposal for expanding educational opportunity in Colombia through the establishment of *institutos universitarios* and laid down criteria and procedures for their establishment. The following quotation covering the function of the proposed *institutos universitarios* described under "structure and functions" in the report will sound familiar to junior college people.

> *Institutos universitarios* shall be established as dependencies of accredited universities, or in the absence of an accredited university within the same department, they shall be responsible to the Minister of Education. They shall offer general education and preprofessional education programs in the behavioral and social sciences, the natural sciences and mathematics, and the humanities and the arts. The *institutos universitarios* also shall offer vocational, adult, and remedial programs. Programs will range in duration from one week to two years. The general education and preprofessional studies shall constitute a two-year program, satisfactory completion of which may entitle the graduate to transfer with two full years of credit to a university. Graduates will receive diplomas or certificates testifying to the level of

training and education which has been completed. The functions of the *instituto universitario* shall be teaching and extension.

In 1967 Gerardo Eusse, director general of Instituto Colombiano de Especializacion Tecnica en el Exterior, commonly called ICETEX, began making tentative arrangements for a practical training program for professors for *institutos universitarios* to be conducted by the University of California at Berkeley and by a consortium of junior colleges in Northern California. Concurrently, ICETEX worked out plans for making the necessary changes to convert three Colombian educational institutions into comprehensive junior colleges.

The municipality of Bogota has decided to convert the former Universidad Distrital into a junior college and is taking all the necessary steps to carry out this idea. Secondly, the Instituto Politecnico de Colombia in Medellin has the full support of the Universidad de Antioquia, an official institution of the state government. This institute was created as a junior college and will continue as such. Thirdly, the state government of Santander del Sur has the Instituto Tecnologico de Santander, which will operate on the same basis as the Instituto Politecnico de Colombia; that is, in close cooperation with the local government. The junior college in Colombia enjoys the same kind of autonomy that the university does.

Sixty faculty members and five administrators, who will form cadres for the three colleges, are to be sent to the United States for training in the teaching and administration of technical majors. English instruction will be given to those requiring it. Seminars on junior college philosophy and methodology will be conducted by the University of California, Berkeley. The major part of the training program will consist of having the Colombian professors and administrators serve as interns with their California junior college counterparts for an academic year. Evaluation and coordination workshops will be conducted periodically, and a final seminar will be held for final evaluation and planning. The three pilot

institutos universitarios, which will be staffed with these trainees, then will serve as training centers for faculties for additional colleges as well as performing their function of training students in both technical and professional majors.

The research and planning which have gone into the Colombian program should result in a workable and possibly a model program for other countries to emulate.

Technical Schools: Peru and Brazil

Two of the leading countries in South America, Peru and Brazil, are on the verge of instituting technical schools for high-level technicians, which easily could be converted into comprehensive junior colleges. A team of educators from Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, worked several years with the Ministry of Education in Lima to develop plans for technical institutes in Peru. The completed plans call for offering technical majors but no transfer courses.

The problem that Brazil is attempting to solve by establishing technical schools is a specialized one—a shortage of engineering technicians. While Brazil's educational system fails to produce an adequate supply of technically trained personnel at all levels, there is no provision whatsoever for training the urgently needed high-level engineering technicians to support graduate engineers and scientists in industry. Such technician positions are being filled by graduate engineers or by technicians imported from abroad, two equally unsatisfactory and expensive alternatives. For example, a survey conducted in 1963-64 found 1,976 engineers and 3,168 "technicians" in 472 industries in Brazil. Approximately 40 per cent of these "technicians" had only a primary school education. The rest were graduates of the equivalent of high school-level technical schools or less.

In 1944-45 a commission of six professors from Brazil spent four months in the United States studying problems of engineering education and returned

to recommend training of high-level technicians in Brazil. Nothing happened until 1964 when, as a result of rapid industrialization in Brazil, the Ministry of Education established a Planning Commission on Engineering Education and then asked the Ford Foundation to provide a consultant to help design curriculums for high-level technical programs. Subsequently, the consultant, Professor Henry P. Adams of Oklahoma State University, presented curriculums for ten technologies to the commission.

The study, completed in 1965, calls for the establishment of ten technical institutes over a period of ten years so as to produce a minimum of 1,500 engineering technicians, or "operating engineers," per year. The institutes would offer three-year technical majors and the offerings would be almost entirely terminal in nature. In fact, provision is made that less than 5 per cent of all graduates should be expected to continue their education immediately after graduation.

Because experience in the United States shows that many technology programs offered on the same campus with graduate engineering have failed because the university gives more emphasis to the advanced programs, and because there would be danger of merely compressing traditional five-year curriculums into three years, specific provision was made that even though the technical institutes would have university ties, the staffs would be responsible only to the directors of the technical institutes.

Provision is made for developing teacher-training centers for this special program and for sending 106 Brazilians to a recognized technical institute in the United States for a year's training.

These projected programs for training of high-level technicians in Peru and Brazil apparently are still in the planning and money-raising stages. However, the careful planning in response to a growing and strongly felt need for subprofessional technicians makes them almost inevitable in the very near future. Government and foundations in the

United States and other friendly countries will be extremely short-sighted if they do not assist the four countries referred to above, and other countries of Latin America, in providing educational opportunities demanded by their advancing economies and social changes.

Dangers Learned

Dangers which these four countries and other countries have learned, and which any country would do well to avoid in instituting junior colleges include:

1. Maintaining too close ties with other institutions: Faculties and administrators of junior colleges or technical institutions can be overwhelmed by university academicians, religious, or other dedicated groups. The junior college and its objectives cannot live as a stepchild or an appendage.

2. Tendency to maintain one-track institutions: Using the same facilities for academic and technical majors makes it possible to use laboratories, shops, classrooms, and other facilities as well as faculty and administration for students with either academic or technical majors, thus making for greater efficiency and economy. It also provides opportunity for transferring students from academic to technical majors, or vice versa, as dictated by good counseling.

3. Inadequate training of faculty and administration: Foreign advisers or consultants alone, or professors trained abroad or at home in the traditional academic manner, or both, cannot develop the concept of a comprehensive institution. It is far better to train cadres of personnel as interns in successful comprehensive junior colleges so they can absorb the dynamics of this concept of education, and in large enough numbers so they can withstand the pressures of their associates at home. The individuals in the cadres can be used in turn as master teachers for interns in their own country. First the enzyme has to be implanted.

4. Lack of attention to local needs: Technical majors should reflect employment opportunities in the local community. Advisory committees made up of leaders in industry are desirable in each area of employment. These leaders can point out what must be covered in a curriculum; the educators can decide how to teach it.

5. The tendency to short-change public relations: The public cannot be taken for granted, particularly in regard to technical majors and transfer of credits to the state university. Any innovation and change of emphasis toward technical majors must be "sold" to the public and to officials in higher education.

6. Overlooking the need for a national plan for higher education: The junior college must be given its own niche in the overall scheme for higher education, and it must have its own source of funds.

By Louis Eisenhauer

COMMUNITY COLLEGES IN BRITAIN

There are no multipurpose community colleges in Britain strictly comparable to those in the United States. What Britain does provide for students who do not matriculate at a university or a teacher's college is an extraordinary variety of "colleges of further education" which both parallel and extend beyond the current range of American community junior colleges.

Conveniently called "technical colleges," though not without strong objections, these institutions may be either local, area, regional, or national; and, within these groupings, can be found colleges of art, agriculture, and commerce as well as colleges specifically geared to technical or craft programs. They offer full-time, part-time, and "sandwich"* education for persons over the legal school-leaving age (now fifteen), excluding, of course, students still in secondary schools. As Tyrell Burgess notes

ruefully in *A Guide to English Schools* (Penguin, 1964), "Any account of further and higher education in England and Wales (Scotland is a world largely to itself) . . . is like the vegetation of South America: it contains anything you can think of."

At the end of 1966 there were over 700 further education institutions in England and Wales with a total enrollment of more than 1.5 million. By 1969-70, according to the Labor Party's national plan, enrollment will top 2.1 million. Anthony Crosland, until 1967 secretary of state for education and science, has said that "further education is the fastest growing sector of the entire British educational system."

A summary of the historical background of these colleges is given in *Reports on Education* (no. 2, revised, April 1966) issued by the Department of Education and Science:

> The structure of technical education has been much developed and reorganized following the White Papers of 1956 and 1961. The first of these drew attention to the challenge to our technical education represented by that of other countries. A similar document appeared more than a century ago in 1853, and in 1857 the new Education Department was constituted to do something about it. . . . Much of the pioneering work was done by unofficial bodies such as the City and Guilds of London Institute. . . . In the last years of the century, polytechnics, technical institutions, and science schools were going up all over the place (mostly financed by "whisky money").
>
> In a Bill in 1918 there is reference to compulsory day continuation schools for fourteen—sixteen-year-olds in employment. More significant . . . was the 1921 scheme . . . for National Certificates. . . . The 1944 Education Act, after providing for primary and secondary education, went on to make it a duty of local education authorities to provide "full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age."

Perhaps the philosophy of the British technical colleges is best put in the same publication: "Entry is open to all, and students may advance as far as time, talent, and application can carry them."

Two significant differences between further education colleges in Britain and American community

junior colleges should be emphasized: *some* of the British colleges offer work leading to a university degree or its equivalent; and a large number and bewildering variety of diplomas and certificates are available to further education students.

Assuming they have the necessary entrance qualifications, similar to those expected by the universities, students at selected technical colleges may study for a B.A. or B.S. degree, and even continue to postgraduate work. The degrees are awarded by the Council for National Academic Awards (C.N.A.A.), established by royal charter in 1964 especially to bestow degrees and other academic distinctions to persons taking approved programs *outside* the universities. External degrees may also be earned from London University by further education students.

Students with academic credentials not quite so strong, or who are not interested in a normal degree, may study for the higher national diploma (H.N.D.), which is recognized by industry, government, and the professions as a substantial achievement. Other diplomas and certificates available (each with varying entrance requirements and curriculums) are the higher national certificate (H.N.C.), the ordinary national diploma (O.N.D.), and the ordinary national certificate (O.N.C.). Additionally, there are numerous specialized certificates granted by the city and guilds of London and certain grades and professions.

Subjects taken for these awards range from building and business studies through engineering (of all types) and printing to retailing and textiles; and the awards carry with them clearly understood economic and social benefits. To the American and, not infrequently, to the native Briton, this profusion of degrees and diplomas and certificates is confusing. But such a system has the advantage of spelling out precisely what the student has studied and how far he has ventured. Contrast this with the catch-all ambiguity of the A.A. or A.S. degrees usually granted by American community colleges.

General (Liberal) Studies

Like American educators, the British are concerned with the risks and limitations of a narrow, vocational training for technicians and technologists (in Britain the latter are always degree-level) who will surely constitute the bulk of tomorrow's citizenry in both countries. Most of the award-granting groups, backed strongly by the Department of Education and Science, insist that a modicum of general liberal studies (typically literature, history, art, music, social studies) infuse the otherwise specialized curriculums. Oddly enough, little attention is given to assuring that a similar smattering of math and science is also integrated into those programs which do not as a matter of course feature them.

In actual practice the amount and makeup of required general studies varies markedly from one college to another since each responds to "local" industrial and professional pressures. The courses offered also vary, generally being adapted to the needs of a specific curriculum, e.g., an English course in a business studies program would stress business communications. The serious reservations about "multitrack" courses held by many faculty members in American community colleges would not be relevant in Britain, because the programs and awards are so clearly labeled and the vexing question of transferring credits to a senior institution does not arise.

Recent Developments

The growth and character of British technical colleges are being greatly influenced by two important developments: the passage by Parliament in 1964 of the Industrial Training Act, which requires industries, at their own expense, through representative boards, to insure that enough people are trained to meet the future needs of the industries; and the proposal in 1966 by Anthony Crosland, then secretary for education in the British Cabinet, that a number of major educational centers, "polytech-

nics," be established within the further education system to complement the universities and colleges of education.

An extended analysis of the Industrial Training Act would require a separate article; suffice it to say that for the technical colleges the impact of the act is to encourage hundreds of thousands of potential students to take time from work, with pay, and return for varying periods of time to the colleges. The facilities and faculties of the colleges will be taxed to cope not only with the numbers but the new and different programs they demand.

To understand the proposal for polytechnics it is necessary to know that higher education in England operates within what is called a "binary system." As Mr. Crosland put it in a controversial speech two years ago, "on the one hand we have . . . the autonomous sector, represented by the universities, in whose ranks . . . I now include the colleges of advanced technology. On the other hand we have the public sector, represented by the leading technical colleges and the colleges of education."

From the ranks of the technical colleges (the public sector) polytechnics would be developed as "comprehensive academic communities" for full-time, sandwich, and part-time students at all levels of higher education. "As mixed communities of full-time and part-time teachers and students they will . . . have closer and more direct links with industry, business, and the professions."

Mr. Crosland and his supporters see the polytechnics as institutions which will meet the increasing demand for higher education without setting up more universities. His critics see them as means to assert more direct social (that is, political) control over higher education.

One undesirable effect of the new proposal, pointed out by the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes, may be to drain scarce talent and resources from those colleges not selected as polytechnics and thus damage badly the whole further education system. Mr. Crosland and his successor

are likely to prevail. The experiment should be of interest to American community college leaders who may themselves one day have to decide whether they should extend their programs beyond the current associate degree level.

Although it does not affect directly the technical colleges, another recent development in British education of interest to American community colleges is the "sixth form college." Since advanced study for those who have passed their ordinary level examinations (roughly sixteen — eighteen-year-olds) requires a variety of specialized courses, many secondary schools do not have sufficient students to establish variable sixth forms. The Department of Education and Science has recommended to the local education authorities that sixth form colleges which would pool students from several secondary schools in an area may be a solution to this problem. To date few of these institutions exist. Interestingly, if a sixth form college were merged with a less than degree level technical college the result would certainly resemble an American community college.

In Sum

What does the further education system in Britain offer to American community colleges?

Three points come to mind: first, the extraordinary range of programs coupled with their appropriate awards; second, the legally supported liaison between British industry, business, government, and the professions and the technical colleges; and third, the range of the colleges, extending from secondary school "remedial" work to university degree level.

Above all, an examination of the colleges of further education in Britain emphasizes the singular contribution of such colleges to a modern society, and confirms one's belief in the functions and goals of American community junior colleges.

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* Sandwich courses consist of alternating periods of not less than nineteen weeks of full-time study (it may

be more) in a technical college and of supervised experience in industry, usually extending over a number of years. Students may also attend these colleges on "day-release" or "block-release" schedules, meaning they are encouraged by their employer to take off from their jobs (with pay) and attend classes for varying periods of time.

By Kathryn Parke

CENTENNIAL OF NORWAY'S PEOPLE'S COLLEGES

In November, 1864, Herman Anker and Olaus Arvesen opened the first *folkehögskole* in Norway, and named it Sagatun—home of Northern tradition.

This "folk high school" or "people's college" (the term is difficult to translate adequately) was not destined to survive. The house built with such high hopes in the small cathedral city of Hamar still stands as a private residence, but not as a school.

Nevertheless, this August, educators from all over Scandinavia, together with many Norwegians from all walks of life, celebrated the centennial of this event; for the seed of Sagatun proved more hardy than the parent plant.

The new school at Hamar was certainly a quixotic venture, aimed as it was at the needs of the farmer class and other "small folk," instead of catering to the wealthy and intellectual elite who had previously held a natural monopoly on education beyond the

common school. There were already several people's colleges in Denmark, based on the optimistic philosophy of a Danish churchman, N.F.S. Grundtvig—a philosophy considered to be dangerously free and probably heretical.

In principles and methods, these audacious little institutions contradicted many cherished educational assumptions, and often met with determined opposition from the more influential teachers and clergymen of the neighborhood.

The subjects taught were neither the classical languages of the time-honored Latin school, nor were they the vocationally-oriented studies which later won their separate place in European schools.

The chief aim of the "Grundtvigian" schools was to help young adults to know and respect themselves, and to understand and value their country, its language, history, literature, and traditions. For a crowning folly, in an age which still depended upon the schoolmaster's rod and spoke commonly of "student factories," the teaching in these folk high schools had nothing to do with coercion and rote learning, but was based on the romantic notion that study could and should be pleasant. There were no final examinations or threats of dismissal or failure, nor any degrees, credits, or grades.

Young people lived together with their teachers and studied an extremely flexible curriculum, largely determined by interest. In accordance with Grundtvig's principle of "the living word," lectures were expected to be so lively and absorbing that the young people would remember the essential part of them without taking notes.

The final secret of the folk high school, today as well as a hundred years ago, is teacher-strength, teacher-dedication, teacher-enthusiasm. These schools still operate almost entirely without the artificial coercion and stimulus of examination and grading, which other schools assume to be essential.

Many thought these ideas were preposterous. No

"realists" expected them to succeed. And, indeed, the trail of the developing folk high school is strewn with individual failures. But before they failed, they seeded themselves again. Sagatun failed, and Herman Anker became Hamar's postmaster. But the young men who had studied there went out to found other people's colleges under similarly desperate conditions.

Another school, Vonheim in Gudbrandsdal, failed and its director, Christopher Bruun, had to accept a routine church appointment. Yet a series of speeches he made in the mid-1870's set afire the enthusiasm of a number of members of the Oslo Student Association. A whole generation of gifted and inspired young teachers came to the folk high schools as a result. The lectures appeared as a book, *Folkelige Grundtanker (Foundations of Popular Culture)*, which not only became the "Bible" of the Norwegian folk high school movement (standing side by side with Grundtvig's writings) but also helped to liberalize the rigid public school system of the time.

The Norwegian people's college in its centennial year is stronger than it has ever been. It enjoys increasing support from the government; yet it has unabridged freedom of self-determination. It is not, and does not wish to be, an integrated part of the official school system; yet it has earned respect and even admiration from many elements of Norwegian society which were scornful until just lately.

A Significant Influence

Of some five hundred people's colleges in Scandinavia, eighty are in Norway. The 6,000 students they serve each year may seem small in number when compared with American junior colleges. But, in terms of influence upon national life, the significance of these schools is receiving growing recognition. Ten per cent of all Norwegian young people now experience at least one winter in these voluntary schools that offer neither degrees nor status. And these students thereafter provide more than their proportionate share of responsible, able leadership.

These are the young people who return home to take a sturdy part in the activities of the town board; the school board; the youth associations; the music, art, and sports organizations; and the societies for public welfare. Many assume much wider responsibilities. Stein Fossgard, the national supervisor of the folk high schools in Norway, pointed out in his welcoming address at the beginning of the Centennial Jubilee, that about half the members of the present Storting (national parliament) are former folk high school students.

Anyone who has celebrated a "decade-birthday" in Norway can testify that Norwegians enjoy ceremonious festivals. The national *Högskulelaerarlag* (People's College Teachers Association: chairman is Faste Forfang, rector of Ringsaker *folkehögskole*) began about two years ago to prepare for a suitable celebration this summer. The Jubilee Committee led by Kristian Bakke, rector of Fana *folkehögskole*, near Bergen) chose Elverum as the site. Counterpart associations in Denmark, Finland, and Sweden were invited to advance by one year the usual triennial Scandinavian folk high school conference, so that they might share in the celebration. Elverum, conveniently near the Swedish border, has both a folk high school and a teachers' college, and offers other advantages for a small assembly. But, the interest generated by the projected festivities made housing a problem. Total attendance had to be limited to three hundred.

Folk high school people often use the triennial meeting as an occasion for a traveling vacation. This pleasant habit was turned to good account by the programing of four pre-conference workshops in different parts of Norway. Ringebu *folkehögskole* in Gudbrandsdal was host for those who wanted to explore new ideas about the traditional arts and crafts studies of the folk high schools. Dormitory life as a vital teaching medium was discussed at Hallingdal *folkehögskule* in Gol. At Romerike *folkehögskule* in Jessheim, the subject was world

economy and world politics. Modern Scandinavian literature was surveyed at Vestoppland *folkehögskule*, Brandbu.

On the evening of August 12, all delegates converged on Elverum *folkehögskole*, where rector Sigmund Moren welcomed them. During the following three days, various speakers presented papers on inter-Scandinavian cooperation in the folk high schools; on opportunities and possible responsibilities toward new developing nations; on the problem of preserving valuable traditions and Scandinavian cultural identity in the face of "growing pressures from outside;" and on the life and thought of Christopher Bruun and other founders of the Norwegian folk high school movement.

Evening programs arranged by the host school and the Jubilee Committee presented several notable Norwegian musicians and poets, as well as some dramatic work by folk high school students. Most ambitious was Romerike *folkehögskule's* original musical and stage mounting of Björnstjerne Björnson's historic song-cycle, *Arnljot Gelline*. When this epic was written, nearly one hundred years ago, the author dedicated it "to the folk high schools of the North, with thanks and best wishes;"—thus it was a particularly appropriate presentation for this jubilee.

From Saturday noon through Sunday the 16th, the tone was entirely one of festivity. Buses carried everyone to nearby Hamar, where Helge Sivertsen, the Norwegian minister of education, was among those honoring the founders of Sagatun.

King Olav V attended the centennial worship service at the Elverum church Sunday, and was the chief guest at an invitational luncheon afterward. At the large public meeting in the Glomdal 'Museum's outdoor theater that afternoon, he made a brief address of congratulation and thanks. Other speakers at this meeting included Tarjei Vesaas, one of Norway's outstanding modern writers, and Sigmund Skard, who as professor of American civiliza-

tion at the University of Oslo is well-known to many American educators.

Members of the Norwegian *Högskulelaerarlag* remained for two more days, after the end of the Scandinavian conference, to hold their annual business meeting. Subjects that have concerned this group lately include teacher recruiting, student selection policies, the role of the folk high school in relation to the lengthening Norwegian basic school requirement, and the possible extension of government support to cover part of the cost of new buildings.

Broad, Democratic Education

Centennial observances will not end with the festivities at Elverum. Local schools are encouraged to plan their own celebrations, many of which will probably be held in November, the anniversary month. Some publications may be expected. Already available is a long-desired reissue of Christopher Bruun's venerated and much quoted classic, *Folkelige Grundtanker*.

The Scandinavian *folkehögskole* should be better known than it is among American educators and especially among junior college people. It serves young people of the same age-group and of similar academic attitudes and aspirations. Its purpose of broad, democratic, general education recalls the ideas promoted so ardently in early publications of the junior college movement.

Unfortunately, little seems to be available in English about these schools. Our linguistic provincialism often hampers us. We may long remain unaware of worthwhile educational ideas that appear in other languages than English, French, German, occasionally Spanish, and nowadays, Russian. Most of what we can read about the folk high schools is old, though the principles often remain valid and only details vary greatly. Recent articles are sometimes based on scanty information, and often seem to imply that the people's college is only a curiosity,

even a quaint anachronism, fast fading from the current scene.

Nothing could be farther from the truth!

Doubtless the folk high school will remain numerically small, representative of individual or experimental ideas, rather than of mainstream, standard, educational practices. The existence of the individual schools has always been precarious, too. Indeed, the present prosperous situation is viewed with a little alarm, by some experienced folk high school men. But despite smallness and fluctuating fortunes, the people's college continues to be vibrantly alive and strangely influential, at home and farther afield.

True, the school-form as an entity seems not to transplant easily. So far as I am aware, no people's college very like those now common in Scandinavia has long survived outside these countries. Perhaps its proponents have been too imitative in their attempts to create schools exactly like the admired model. Such efforts are likely to fail, since a *folk* college by definition should grow from the needs and conditions of the culture in which it exists. Each national form of the folk high school, therefore, is likely to exhibit great differences from others.

Yet individual institutions in Germany, France, the Netherlands, and rural United States, have built interesting experiments on some of the basic Grundtvigian ideas. Some of these schools have been transformed out of all recognition, or have failed. Others still function usefully. There is a cautious but growing opinion among folk high school men recently, to the effect that this kind of education may be just what the developing countries of Africa and Asia need, since it sends its awakened and enlivened students back to a richer life *in their home communities,* whereas more elite types of education tend to alienate them from home.

Quietly Triumphant Existence

Whether or not the folk high school ever gains a real foothold in other countries, it seems well-

launched on its second century in Norway and elsewhere in Scandinavia. Unlike most institutions, it seems not to stiffen with years, but continues to challenge complacency, question the assumptions of the "Establishment," and demonstrate by its quietly triumphant existence that freedom and study can exist together in an institution.

Americans have also subscribed to this educational philosophy. But are we in danger of denying it in practice? It seems that more and more of our ideal values give way to economic regimentation, to standardized tests and "the normal curve," to the concept that 30 per cent or greater student mortality is a sign of healthy academic standards, and to the tyranny of the Almighty Grade. Is it perhaps time for us to examine these folk high schools more seriously, not as an educational oddity, but as a form of education that can maintain warm humanity in a machine age?

We may have something important to learn.

By William G. Shannon

THE STORY IS BEGINNING TO UNFOLD

Recently after much study and legislative debate, five junior university colleges were opened in Ceylon "with the ruffle of 100 drums" and dedicatory speeches by high parliamentary officials. This impressive ceremony was the culmination of efforts by Ceylon's astute Minister of Education, the Honorable I. M. R. A. Iriyagolla, who was aided by several Fullbright scholars knowledgeable about junior college education.

The drive to open the Ceylon colleges followed the minister's visit to America to study education and was carried to completion after a vigorous political campaign to win support for this new form of college. These institutions will provide radically designed postsecondary curriculums with emphasis on occupational education. If this experiment succeeds, Ceylon may well become a model which other Asian nations can emulate.

In country after country, one hears the expression of concern over the inadequacies of the present university-degree emphasis and the severe limitations it places upon the development of able manpower.

Education is recognized as the key to building economic strength and increasing social mobility. The search for alternatives to the elitist university is a desperate one. While most countries could not have achieved their present degree of success and sophistication without benefit of university training for their leaders, there is a deep need now to establish other educational institutions which will better serve the requirements of the newer technologies and which will release the talents and energies of the entire populations for national welfare and vitality.

The junior college concept has attracted the attention of many foreign educators as a thoughtful approach to solving their educational problems. The American experience has inspired a number of nations to adapt the community college concept to their own situations. Japan has more than 300 two-year private colleges and about 50 government-operated technical institutes. Canada has close to 50 community colleges and is vigorously planning more. Both Japan and Canada have established nationwide organizations similar to the Association.

In South America, Chile and Colombia are already involved in the development of two-year colleges. Venezuela and Brazil are engaging in the same work, although with somewhat different inspirations.

In Iran and in India, the ministers of education have described their country's need for extending and changing the pattern of higher education as among their most critical. However, to be able to move mountains of tradition and inertia associated with a fixation on the university degree seems like an impossible dream; to suggest investing money in institutions other than the universities may be political suicide. The university-degree syndrome is so strong that the common man himself aspires

to hold a graduate degree even though it holds little promise for employment in a sophisticated position.

Manpower studies in many countries depict the existing shortage of technicians and skilled workers and an overabundance of graduate degree holders, many of them unemployed. Many are also unemployable because of the totally academic nature of their education, lacking in practical application or inspiration for direct engagement in on-the-line job activity. There is a story circulating in India that in one large city, more than 5,000 unemployed engineering graduates have bonded together in their own kind of union to petition the government more vigorously for jobs—as clerks.

There are stories, too, about the students who will settle for nothing less than a university degree. One account tells about the establishment of a two-year college for desperately needed technicians which successfully produced its first class, only to have them riot for two more years of college to help achieve social and academic respectability.

Parents support and encourage students in this approach—not unlike many in the United States. What one Kenya leader calls "academic disease" afflicts many nations.

The shame of it is that developing nations cannot afford to continue investing their limited national wealth in nonproductive, educational enterprises while neglecting the preparation of employable workers. It is obvious that economic development depends on trained workers, but it is also necessary to open up jobs for workers who are to be produced by the educational institutions. Some balance between supply of workers and demand for them has to be achieved. Better instruments for measuring job potentials have to be constructed just as more jobs need to be created through improving and strengthening business and industry. Sound economic planning requires direction for both human resource development and technological change.

The Community College Idea

The community college idea—with built-in flexibility and adaptability to job demand—holds special interest and promise. The element and capacity of purposely designing curricular programs to meet specific societal needs is most attractive to educators and government officials who recognize the demands of modern technology and business enterprise.

Yet obstacles to implementing changes or remodeling education are formidable. In their search for solutions to problems of educational improvement, educators in many countries are looking for guidance and assistance from their counterparts in other nations. Knowing full well that patterns of education are not necessarily transplantable intact, these individuals are seeking help in shaping new policies and programs. Many see tremendous promise in the community-oriented junior college concept and want to try it.

Illustrative of this frame of mind are some of the requests for assistance received by AAJC staff from educators around the world, either in conversations in their own offices abroad or in Washington during visits to this country. Here are only a few areas of interest mentioned recently:

Greece: Programs to train personnel for the tourist business so vital to the economy, health education

Iran: Engineering technology, women's education, teacher training, communications, public health

Tunisa: Teacher education, business-related curriculums

Ceylon: Teacher training, relationships between college and community, health education, business programs

India: Establishing demonstration colleges, health education, teacher training, counseling, cooperative education

Indonesia: Personnel for tourist industry, health education, mineral resource development, teacher education, agricultural production, food distribution

Thailand: Nurse education, dental technician

preparation, teacher training, agriculture, food distribution

Australia: Library-aide programs, general education, teacher and administrator preparation programs, adult education, community services.

Ideas and assistance can flow in all directions; each country can learn from the others. The United States can be both benefactor and recipient of assistance.

In several states of Australia, there is much interest in studying the relevance of the junior college for manpower training. However, the state of Victoria has decided to bypass the junior college idea in favor of strengthening four-year technological colleges. These institutions, now fourteen in number, are known as the Victoria Institute of Colleges. Their experiences can be helpful to American educators, particularly for their teacher-training potential. At present, only a few four-year technological colleges exist in the United States; if more were to be established, technology students in two-year colleges might be encouraged to continue their education, and more technicians might be rescued from some of the deadend jobs into which they are cornered. At the same time these institutions could serve as teacher-training centers for technician instructors who will be working in two-year colleges. The United States should study these four-year colleges carefully and begin an exchange of information with the Australians.

Other ways of cooperating and sharing can be opened; through sister-college arrangements, personnel exchanges, library and curriculum materials loan programs, and many other approaches, junior college educators—present and potential—can learn from one another.

International Education Involvement

While the story of junior college development abroad is just unfolding, so, too, is the colleges'

serious involvement in international education—only in its initial stage.

In the process of establishing international connections, the junior college can utilize its unexcelled potential for preparing new generations of sensitive and world-oriented citizens.

Junior colleges already have accumulated considerable experience in educating foreign students, in teaching languages, and in disseminating information about the community of nations; nevertheless, their real potential for international education remains virtually untapped.

The 1,000-plus two-year colleges in the United States can make a singular contribution to world understanding by strengthening their international education dimensions and by building this emphasis into their general education programs. As last resorts for formal education or as sources of continuing education for thousands of youths and adults, community colleges maintain a unique position to help Americans know more about their fellow earthlings and their own places in the sun.

Fortunately, there are educators and political leaders eager to listen to the community college story and ready to accept new ideas in their effort to build stronger educational institutions. They, perhaps even more than their American counterparts, know the problems involved in trying to effect changes in educational systems encrusted with inhibiting traditions, power struggles and fights for status, and frustrations growing out of past aborted efforts.

There is genuine interest in developing mutual education-aid agreements among various nations as well as working directly with the United States. There is interest in sharing experiences to help American institutions build up their international curriculums and activities. Above all, there is a new and insistent desire to help uplift whole peoples to educational levels heretofore deemed inaccessible or inappropriate.

Nations working in these directions or desirous of doing so seem to have reached a new level of interest in pooling experiences and ideas. The U.S.A.—particularly junior college administrators, faculty, and students—ought to be active participants in this cooperative adventure.

By Charles C. Collins

EXPORTING THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IDEA

Some of the very best U.S. exports do not add one dollar, even a devalued one, to the credit side of the balance of payments. When Leonard Bernstein lifts his baton to conduct in Moscow, or when an American doctor demonstrates a life-saving operation on the hospital ship S.S. Hope, or when a nameless Peace Corps volunteer teaches some Filipino illiterates how to read, a product of America is being exported which will bring the richest possible returns. Exporting does not have to operate on the principle: "Beggar thy neighbor." In the realms of art, science, ideas and knowledge, education exporting can operate on the principle: "He who helps his neighbor helps himself." It could be thus in exporting the junior college idea.

A whole course in human behavior could be developed with the text being the lyrics by Berthold

Brecht for *The Threepenny Opera.* One of the most profound truths is belted out in the jazzy refrain:

> Now those among you full of pious teaching
> Who teach us to renounce our major sins
> Should know before you do your heavy preaching
> Our middle's empty, there it all begins . . .
> For even honest folk will act like sinners
> Unless they've had their customary dinners.

The C.I.A., the F.B.I., the State Department, the Pentagon, even the White House would do well to listen to Brecht. There will be no occasion to counter the insurgencies, either at home or abroad, of the well-fed, the well-educated middle class. One of the most revolutionary doctrines ever preached has been that of a continuously elevated universal education. It is American in origin, catholic in its appeal, a defensive weapon of irresistible power, and an export against which no country will raise a tariff.

Many countries have, either independently or from American example, arrived at what James Russell Lowell described as the determinant of American destiny: "It was in making education not only common to all, but in some sense compulsory on all that the destiny of the free republic of America was practically settled." Even the poorest underdeveloped countries are trying to muster the resources for universal elementary education. More than a few of the developing countries have made stern sacrifices to allow them to raise the ante to universal secondary education. Some are now ready to move from a narrow, elitist university to a greatly broadened system of higher education. These are the countries to which some variation of the junior college concept can best be exported. However, there are certain minimum conditions that must prevail. It would not make sense to export television sets to countries without electricity nor would it make sense to export the junior college to countries without students prepared to enter them.

Some Required Preconditions

Typically, the developing countries in Asia, Africa, or South America have a national education system. There is a ministry of education headed by a politician, a cabinet member of the political party in power. The direction comes from above, and the traditional bureaucratic system discourages, if not disallows, any innovation being initiated from below. Certainly, a whole new level of education, such as the junior college stratum, could be added only if the minister of education gave it his wholehearted support.

It would be the minister who would have to induce his political colleagues to pass the organic legislation. This would not be easy, for with the chronically undernourished budget, it would probably be necessary to rob some other program to fund the new education project. A strong-willed, persuasive, professional educator with an intimate knowledge of ministry politics might be the idea man prodding the minister to action, provided the minister was convinced the innovation would enhance his personal and party's political future. Further, the minister is not likely to be pushed into action from grass roots support: most of the electorate will never have heard of a junior college and, unfortunately, if they have heard of it as a U.S. institution, some will automatically be against it, even suspecting it as a cover for C.I.A. infiltration. The point being made is simply this: one of the necessary preconditions for the creation of a junior college system is the full and unwavering commitment of the minister of education to this idea. Since basic development of the junior college is going to come from the top, the seeds of the idea must be planted and allowed to sprout in the mind of the minister or in the minds of his top echelon professional advisers.

A second condition necessary for the establishment of a mid-level stratum of higher education is to have a secondary school system turning out more graduates than the universities can absorb. It should

be self-apparent, though in Kenya it took a team of American experts to convince the government of this fact, that junior colleges cannot float between an elementary school system and a university fed by students from a few private lycees and tutories. The educational structure of a society must take the shape of a pyramid with each higher level resting firmly on a wider base.

In Ceylon, the developing country with which the author is most familiar, universal elementary education has been available since 1945 and has been made compulsory in recent years. By 1967, well over 400,000 students were enrolled in grades nine through twelve. The first two layers of the pyramid are quite solid but on top of this structure is peaked a very thin spire of higher education. Taken together, the universities, the technical colleges, the professional schools, and the institutes enroll fewer than 25,000 students. The third and top layer of the pyramid is only 6 per cent of the second layer and less than 1 per cent of the bottom layer. Last year, only 6,000 of the 50,000 applicants who passed the stiff entrance exam were admitted to the university. Elimination of all but 12 per cent of such highly endowed and well-prepared minds is a luxury which Ceylon cannot afford. The minister of education and cultural affairs of Ceylon is well aware of these facts and the conclusions to be drawn from them; hence, his initiation of and unstinting support to what in Ceylon are called the "junior university colleges." Other ministers of education in other countries can be expected to be just as discerning of the implication of such facts and will be just as eager to find ways of helping their people and their countries.

A third precondition for the junior college idea to flourish is an economy potentially, if not immediately, ready to employ the trained products of the junior college. An affluent society facing the unemployment problem of a cybernated economy of abundance must think of junior college education partly as preparation for leisure, as a means of add-

ing significance to the lives of its citizens. A poor country cannot have such lofty aims. For instance, Ceylon, already spending 20 per cent of its national budget on education, cannot add another rupee unless it is an investment to increase the gross national product and unless it will result in increased employment. It is true that education creates resources and that a society that invests heavily in education will eventually earn huge dividends. Even so, for a poor country, this advice is like telling a pauper that if he would only buy lots of I.B.M. stock his financial troubles would be over. Impoverished countries are usually politically unstable and their governments are quite wary about educating people for unemployment. Well-educated unemployed make much more effective revolutionaries than uneducated unemployed.

Unless there is a minister of education willing to make a political fight for creation of a junior college system; unless there are plenty of secondary school graduates prepared and eager to enter the junior colleges; unless there are mid-level jobs in the economy to be filled by junior college graduates—unless these three preconditions obtain, junior colleges will not and should not be established. These are hard rock problems that defy solution. There are some other tough but not insuperable problems that deserve consideration.

A strange problem, not likely to be anticipated by pragmatic Americans, develops from the anachronistic university system left as a legacy to ex-colonies by their former masters. The curricular possibilities are few. The lack of secondary level preparation and the high costs militate against strong and diverse science programs. Universities are considered above such mundane preparation as teacher training. There is a bias toward the more esoteric humanities. The professions are considered to be limited to medicine and law, with physical science now elbowing its way into respectability. The problem that this kind of university education creates for the junior college is that it produces

the competition of an overabundance of unemployed university graduates and an undersupply of top-level professionals whose work would create the technical and paraprofessional jobs to be filled by junior college graduates. In Ceylon, the condition described is close to a national joke; it is deplored by almost all but the professors with vested interests; and is bound to be overhauled in the near future.

A second problem is the lack of any manpower surveys upon which to base curricular planning. Hard facts on current employment are usually not available, and the more important predictions of the future employment picture show as a void in the crystal ball. In the face of this, natural conservatism prompts training for obsolescence in preference to chancing the unknown. The occupational curriculum to be offered in the first year of operation of the junior university colleges of Ceylon will have nothing more daring than bookkeeping or agriculture or banking practices. In their favor, however, the developing countries do not have the capitalistic bias against national planning. Ceylon, for example, recently created a Ministry of Planning complete with a Manpower Division whose members will serve on the curricular advisory committees of the junior university colleges.

A third problem in countries where "know-how" was the exclusive property of the colonial masters or the class in power, is the scarcity of highly trained specialists. They exist, even among the indigenous population, but they are in such demand that their services are hard to secure with the rather paltry teacher salaries. Foreign specialists would scoff at the prevailing salaries even if the governments of the poorer countries would be willing (which they are not) to encourage foreign nationals to come and take the top-level jobs. The solution to this problem probably lies in Mohammed going to the mountain: in sending partially trained and very apt young people to the technologically advanced countries for a year or so of intensive training. This practice already has governmental

sanction and the necessary financial support in the case of Ceylon. No doubt, other developing countries have already, or soon will, follow this direction.

Staffing Problems

A related problem is that of finding qualified staff officers to fill the posts of president, dean of instruction, dean of student personnel, counselors, and so on. In this regard, the starting point is zero, for few, if any, educational administrators in the developing countries have ever seen a junior college. Even if they have, their notion of its functions and operation would be unclear. This could be solved by educational stints abroad and/or by use of foreign consultants. Much more difficult to attack would be the bureaucratic system that rewards longevity by elevation to higher salaries. Every country has its administrative hacks. If the system automatically puts them in the saddle, the junior college concept is not going to ride off to new heights of glory.

A fourth problem experienced by most countries that were former colonies is understandable if looked at one way and absurd if viewed from a different angle. These countries have ancient languages that were the media of highly developed and venerable cultures. For recent centuries, however, the language of the educated class was that of the colonial master. With independence, there was a natural desire to throw out English or French or Portuguese along with the people who spoke it. At this point in history, the ruling generation speak and read the colonial language better than they do their indigenous language. The younger generation have begun to lose competency in the colonial language—only the middle and upper classes ever had it—at a much faster rate than the great books of the world can be translated into their native language. Such translation may be a losing proposition anyway, for converting works from one language to another is expensive, time consuming, and often inadequate. In Ceylon, such translation has to be

done for the minority Tamils as well as for the majority Sinhalese. Last year, the whole effort resulted in only 300-plus books being translated, and some of these would be trash in any language.

When the language media of a country is babel, library development gets bogged down in a quagmire. Import restrictions limit the number of books to be imported from the United States or United Kingdom or France, and there is the further question of how many students can profitably read from these expensive books. Books in the indigenous language are so few and so unrelated to the science and technology of the modern world that the instructors feel obliged to use the class hours in dictating information they have gleaned from the foreign books which they can, but their students cannot, read. Thus the language problem reduces teaching into dictation and thereby hinders learning through the ears just as it hinders learning through the eyes. In reading the international news, Americans probably think to themselves there must be more deserving issues for students to riot about than language. In India and in other multilingual areas of the world, language will be second only to starvation as the cause for riots which approach civil war proportions.

Still another problem for countries which inherited the European model of education is the incompatibility of the occupational package system with vocational and educational counseling, with general education, with exploration and other essential functions of the junior college. An example for clarification: Dehiwala Junior University College in Ceylon will offer not a whole catalog of courses but rather the occupational packages: personal management, librarianship, journalism, transport, and banking practices. Instructors will be hired on the basis of competence to teach one of these curriculums. They will hold forth to *their* students in *their* speciality for five hours each day. Students will apply for and be admitted to one of these package deals. Students will be certified by means of an

end-of-curriculum comprehensive examination, and their employment will depend on whether they passed or failed this crucial test.

Unless countries experimenting with the junior college concept are weaned away from this European tradition, then there really is no place for educational exploration, for vocational and educational counseling, for general education, for following special interest patterns, for evening courses for adults in the community—for many if not most of the functions which make the junior college a unique institution. The more sophisticated educators in Ceylon, and presumably in other developing countries, realize that the American system of building a pattern by unit blocks makes for greater flexibility, adaptability, and viability. However, secondary education below and university education above are not geared to mesh well with the junior college cog stamped: "Made in the U.S.A." These educators will need some strong arguments and some powerful allies to win in a battle to change the old colonial system.

The sixth and last problem to be discussed will not be considered a problem at all by those who would like to raise their personal prestige by making the junior college into a small replica of the university. When the facilities and staff for higher education are very limited, the idea of an open-door college is an inevitable casualty. As a case in point, the Ministry of Education of Ceylon, which in 1967 was obliged to turn away 44,000 of the 50,000 eligible applicants to the university system, could never sustain an open-door policy at the junior university colleges. The 1,000 students who will make up the pilot enrollment at the five campuses of Palaly, Kuliyapitiya, Kegalle, Galle and Dehiwala have academic achievement scores equal to those of the university students. This situation may or may not obtain in other developing countries; the logic of circumstances would argue the affirmative.

A Fantasied Trade Agreement

Imagine for a moment that a U.S. administration announced the radical policy that henceforth the United States would aid and abet the revolution of rising expectation that is aflame throughout the world. In this fantasy, the President renounces military repression as the means of safeguarding U.S. interests and signals the return to the historic U.S. aim of assuring democracy and prosperity at home by fostering democracy and prosperity abroad. The President reminds the people that education is the *sine qua non* of both democracy and prosperity, and calls for education to replace weapons as the major U.S. export. A series of trade agreements are worked out in which America provides various forms of educational expertise and even some facilities and equipment. In return, the recipient governments promise to educate their people to a level of prosperity that will give them a stake in the establishment and therefore a strong desire to keep stable the economy and the political structure which supports it. No demand is made for most favored nation treatment, since the U.S. is confident that prosperous nations will want to import American goods just as, for example, Canada and Japan do at present.

The junior college looms large in this trade agreement, for elementary and secondary education, though basic, are not sufficient to prepare workers for the technology of modern industry. Even the university system commands no more support than the junior college, for all realize that for each university technologist there must be five or more junior college-trained technicians. This same ratio of mid-level to top-level, of paraprofessional to professional, applies to almost every occupational category. The U.S. government and the interested supporting foundations turn, therefore, to the American Association of Junior Colleges for direction, for plans, for personnel, for administration of an ambitious pro-

gram of exporting the junior college to the developing countries of the world.

The Job in the U.S.

To put first things first, AAJC should establish within its structure an office of international education. This office should provide initiative, creative planning, liaison, coordination and overall direction and thrust to the exportation of the junior college idea. Actually, this office of international education should be responsible for the proper performance of each of the major tasks which will be briefly described.

Federal government or foundation subsidy should be secured to send copies of pertinent literature on the junior college to the ministries of education in all the developing countries. This will serve both to whet interest and to keep those countries with junior colleges abreast of trends and innovations.

Working through the U.S. State Department, small groups of ministers of education and their top-echelon advisers should be invited and given a red-carpet tour of representative U.S. junior colleges to be followed by several days of intensive seminars at AAJC. The effort should be all-out on this enterprise, for unless these men are made into zealots the junior college movement will never find a home in their countries.

A panel of experienced, prestigious, articulate, and diplomatic junior college specialists should be assembled and given brief training in consultantship. They should be able and willing to take leave from their jobs for short or longer-term assignments abroad as junior college consultants.

Universities that now operate the Kellogg program for training of junior college administrators should be asked to present short-term intensive programs to prepare foreign educators as administrators in junior college education. The training must be short term, for these will be men reaching the peak of their careers and neither they nor their

governments will want a long absence from their work.

Numerous and generous fellowships should be arranged for the proper training of foreign instructors and counselors in those schools of education that have teacher and counselor training programs at the junior college level. These should not be master's programs, but they should offer year-long training and demonstration in both academic substance and in operational technique.

It is important that a junior college theorist with legal talent be provided as a consultant to an interested ministry of education before the organic law creating the junior college system gets written. He should be enough of a junior college philosopher to out-think most contingencies involved in development of a workable master plan. He should also be enough of a parliamentary tactician at least not to get in the minister's way as he guides this legislation through from ministry draft to final law. If this job is bungled, all other efforts will be largely wasted in trying to undo the initial damage.

The next most important consultative job is for a generalist in junior college education who would provide in-service training to all staff members for several months before the junior colleges open their doors for business. Such a generalist might be a roving consultant working out of the AAJC office of international education who could within one year provide service to three or four countries.

It would be most desirable, though admittedly expensive, to provide short-term consultants in such specialties as testing and evaluation, counseling and guidance, admissions and records, library, adult education, community services, etc. These consultants might be sent out for a month or so during their summer vacations, which would be an excellent experience for them and would obviate any need to keep such consultants constantly on tap.

Foundation grants, or perhaps U.S. college to foreign college CARE packages, could be arranged to provide minimal equipment in crucial specialty

programs. Many of the poorer countries are so short on U.S. dollars that to import equipment and books would take special dispensations at the cabinet level. Used books and used equipment, given in the right spirit, would be received with thanks.

Far and away the most ambitious proposal, hence last to be presented, is that of establishing a paradigm or demonstration junior college at a national or regional level. What is envisioned is exporting the equivalent of an entire junior college staff who would set up and operate a U.S.-style community college for one year. Each staff member would have an indigenous shadow colleague who would take over the second year and who would, in turn, train a fellow national.

Such a system would parlay the training provided by the original U.S. staff along a geometric curve. The original impression would, of course, fade, but this is as it should be: each junior college in the United States has borrowed and copied from its predecessors yet has made its individual contribution and has gradually molded itself into a unique institution congruent to its time, place, and circumstances.

By Derek S. Singer

DEVELOPING COLLEGES FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

I am convinced that the time has now come for many American junior community colleges to make plans to increase their involvement in international programs, particularly in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. A greater commitment of time, energy, and resources would pay big dividends both for the less-developed nations with which they can work as well as for many colleges.

Before joining the Association one year ago, I lived and worked abroad for thirteen years, primarily in the less-developed countries. My assignments gave me the privilege of serving in posts as diverse as Bolivia, Colombia, and Costa Rica; in Formosa (Taiwan), Japan, and Indonesia; and in Tunisia and the Congo. In each case, I worked in jobs relating to economic, cultural, and social development, usually in programs designed to acceler-

ate the educational and manpower development processes of the "host country."

Positions which I held while assisting in the accomplishment of these goals included being a director of two CARE relief programs, a training officer for four Agency for International Development (AID) missions, and a Peace Corps director in three countries. In my judgment, all but one or two of the countries to which I was assigned needed and could support a modest national community junior college system to supplement their predominantly European-oriented, "white-collar" universities. In fact, at least two of them (Japan and Taiwan) already possess a national network of two-year, post-secondary schools. Many other "developing countries" have also expressed recent interest to the Association in exploring for themselves the great potential of America's two-year college experience and adapting its application to their own urgent, practical needs to provide trained manpower in development programs of national urgency.

Two such countries have already been mentioned. Some others which I know are seriously contemplating or actually experimenting with the flexible, pragmatic opportunities offered by community junior colleges include India, Ceylon, Chile, Brazil, and Kenya. Several European countries also have pilot two-year colleges, particularly in specialized fields. Examples include hotel management (Germany), fashion technology (France), and distributive education (England). Such schools have often been developed with the cooperation of U.S. "sister" institutions. In addition, there are actually American-style AAJC member colleges in Switzerland, the Canal Zone, and Puerto Rico. In all probability, more of these programs are underway or being planned in still other countries, with particular stress on the technical and vocational fields in which trained manpower is in most acute demand, to match the pace of accelerating national development programs.

Today, volunteer assistance groups such as the Peace Corps, Papal Volunteers, and the Friends Service Committee, all provide paraprofessional personnel overseas on an interim basis. Working abroad with manpower supply groups such as these has indicated very clearly to me that the kind of young workers which they send often hold jobs which require the same kind of training and skills as are generally acquired by the graduates of many U.S. two-year colleges.

My own list of the "two-year college skills" most needed, and in shortest supply in the developing world, include: automobile mechanics, diesel mechanics, farm machinery management, machinery and equipment maintenance and repair, secretarial and business, data processing, engineering technology, medical laboratory technology, physics and chemistry laboratory technicians, X-ray technology, fire science, recreation and physical education, elementary education, and community service.

Considering the relatively modest level of technology and industrialization in most of the developing countries, many of the most specialized programs at U.S. two-year colleges are not suitable for Asia, Africa, and Latin America. However, the situation is one which changes and rapidly evolves: New skills not required today may be urgently needed tomorrow. The establishment of a modest, flexible, but growth-oriented, comprehensive community junior college system in many of the newer countries overseas could well complement and facilitate the rapid modernization and growth which they so earnestly seek. Such a solid training infrastructure could prove invaluable to planners and programmers in many developing areas.

"Comprehensive" Aspect

Beyond skills alone, introducing the "comprehensive" aspect of America's public community colleges could lend still another important dimension to the foreign two-year college movement. En-

lightened leaders in many developing countries have come to realize that true "nation building" and country development programs must proceed hand-in-hand. The potential of community services, of adult education, and of the recreational, social, and developmental "outreach" programs of U.S. community colleges can provide a unique and positive extra to supplement the scholarly, research-oriented colleges and universities so typically found in many new nations. Even as they bravely strive to grow and progress on many fronts at once, most of these states must also fight the ignorance, indifference, and inertia of a large proportion of their national population. To combat poverty, disease, and hunger effectively, such countries are discovering that they must first overcome the dead hand of the past. They must rid themselves of many inherited influences from a colonial history which gave them some benefits but which most often discouraged initiative, cooperation, and our popular American spirit of working together as equals to tackle and solve common problems.

Although the community college approach could never solve all these problems, I believe that, wherever adopted, it could represent an important catalyst for civic pride and cooperation in many developing countries where such national "rallying points" are in particularly short supply. Last year, Daly C. LaVergne, director of AID's Office of International Training, put the matter this way at AAJC's national convention in Boston:

> The type of post-secondary educational institution most generally needed in the developing countries probably more nearly resembles the American junior and community college than the four-year college. In addition to the similarity of objectives (producing educated people who can immediately be absorbed by the critical skilled manpower needs of the wider community), the U.S. junior college and the developing country colleges face similar problems.

With all these advantages and benefits possible, why have there been so few opportunities for our

community junior colleges to foster the growth of counterpart colleges abroad? Why have so few AAJC members been called upon to perform overseas, in contrast to the hundreds of American four-year colleges and universities which have enjoyed governmental contracts and foundation support for many years with technical assistance projects abroad?

Answers to these questions are neither simple nor easy to come by. Some of the reasons are historical. In its present form, the comprehensive community junior college has simply not been around as long as many of the better-developed, many-sided university programs whose experience is now being tapped for the benefit of developing countries. Also, as mentioned earlier, an outdated, colonial-type attitude toward higher education has long been predominant in the majority of so-called new states. Thus, national educational goals and attitudes favorable toward such practices as open-door admissions, extensive and continuing student personnel services, and a commitment to community outreach programs in general have been the exception, not the rule. It is only in very recent years that such historical biases as these have begun to change. Finally, perhaps, the U.S. two-year college movement and important sections of the developing world are ready to meet together on equal terms.

Another, more serious, roadblock still remains. A number of AAJC member institutions have formally signified an interest and willingness to expand their world studies programs, to welcome foreign students on their campuses, and to work toward an overseas faculty exchange program. Some would also send modest-sized education advisory teams to the less-developed countries. A number of these junior and community colleges constitute the membership of the Association's Committee on International Education which currently represents eight member colleges (and others interested in overseas work). In addition to these schools, repre-

sentatives from at least a dozen other two-year colleges have also indicated to AAJC an abiding interest in seeking help and advice to develop some kind of program with an overseas counterpart school or college. And yet, with rare exceptions, the problem of "image" and "academic standing" has blocked most efforts to reach a "take-off" point with such programs. In government-sponsored projects particularly, invidious and unfavorable comparisons with the supposedly-superior faculty, campus resources, and reputations of the "4/U's"—the four-year colleges and universities—have effectively prevented serious consideration of the community or junior colleges for AID or other government-sponsored education projects in the developing world.

Some noticeable recent evidence of this negative attitude can be found in an extensive AID report entitled *University Resources for International Development*. This study was prepared in 1968 for the Agency for International Development by the prestigious Academy for Educational Development in New York and authored by Chester M. Alter, former chancellor of the University of Denver.

It should be noted first that Dr. Alter's purpose was to compare and evaluate for AID the overseas performance record or "score" of several major categories of institutions of American higher education in carrying out AID contract programs abroad. There were nine classifications discussed, all listed under the general rubric of "universities." Only six two-year colleges were selected for the survey sample, although three or four times that number were sampled in most of the other categories examined. Not one member of the academy's twenty-man study team, nor of its ten-man advisory committee, was drawn from a junior or community college. The great majority were presidents, deans, directors, and senior faculty members from four-year colleges and universities. A further analysis of the study group and its committee re-

veals that at least six members were either then or formerly employed by colleges and universities which currently or recently held AID-financed contracts abroad. Needless to say, the community junior colleges had no such connections on Dr. Alter's study group.

Turning to the study itself, its approach and methods seem quite straightforward. Basically, *University Resources for International Development* tries to analyze several "criteria for excellence," as described in another report prepared by John W. Gardner in 1964 entitled *AID and the Universities.* In this study, Mr. Gardner also used the word "universities" in the generic sense and listed eight separate areas in which he advised AID to establish and monitor high performance standards by its overseas contractors. These criteria included: institutional resources, caliber of faculty, interdisciplinary programs, research resources, administrative capability, overseas experience, quality of personnel, and institutional commitment.

Considering both the historical limitations on community junior college involvement overseas (above) and the backgrounds of most of the survey members responsible for the study, its conclusions should probably surprise only the naive or the incorrigibly optimistic.

By and large, the impression gained from Dr. Alter's conclusions neatly illustrate the old adage of damning with faint praise. Here and there his report to AID does say a few kind words about the contributions which two-year colleges might make to a few particular development projects abroad; however, typically, and almost inevitably, a big "but" accompanies nearly every such reference. Some modification, restriction, or proviso virtually emasculates whatever slight praise the author may give to the two-year college. To illustrate, a few quotations follow from *University Resources,* to-

gether with my brief commentary on each. Quotation 1:

> . . . a high degree of interdisciplinary sophistication probably would not be found in the typical junior college. Naturally, there are individual exceptions . . . (but) for the purpose of marshalling enough overall strength to warrant a total institutional contract, many junior colleges would be found lacking.

Comment: To view the bias in this section of the Alter Report ("Caliber of Faculty"), one only need take note of the large "strawman" which the authors jerry-rig here, only to topple over with the greatest of ease. Logically, neither AID nor the developing countries it serves should be interested in generalizations about the "typical" junior college nor whether "many" such colleges may or may not be lacking in overall institutional strength. While such generalizations are dubious and unsupported in themselves, there is something even more important. Assertions of this type are irrelevant and quite useless to foreign policy-makers who must carefully assess whether a specific community or junior college is both competent and willing to help AID implement significant portions of its educational assistance programs in some of the less-developed countries. Quotation 2:

> . . . the usual exceptions of the typical junior college would lead to the conclusion that this criterion (personnel quality) probably, or even usually, would not be met adequately.

Comment: In general, the comments made about the first example pertain. In addition, the superficial, unsupported generalizations of the report are particularly evident here. *Whose* "usual expectations of the typical junior college," one could ask Dr. Alter, and by *which* standards of "personnel quality" does the staff and faculty of the junior community college fail to measure up? Define your terms, professor! Quotation 3:

(In discussing foreign programs) A typical comment from junior college administrators is: "Yes, we are interested, . . . but frankly we are so new, are growing so fast, and we have so many things to do here that we just have not had time to develop overseas work." Such expressions are not at all exceptional and are without doubt logical and legitimate.

Comment: Once more, can words such as "typical" and "not exceptional" truthfully be applied, considering that the (supposed) attitudes of administrators at only six two-year colleges are cited? Even more dubious and suspect is the condescension implicit in the concluding comments in this, the report's final section, entitled "Institutional Commitment." One reads in the report, "As of the fall of 1966 there was only one junior college on AID's list of university contractors." Forty universities, colleges, and consortia were surveyed in the Alter report alone which held AID contracts at that time for training, research, or technical assistance abroad. It seems reasonable to conclude that such "institutional commitment" becomes much easier to discern when a school has already enjoyed the generous support of one or more government contracts!

Many more examples could be cited. All in all, I believe that the conclusions drawn and the inferences left by this AID report are frequently distorted, sometimes biased, and often consist of such unsupported allegations and meaningless generalizations as those that are quoted.

It is necessary to combat such distorted images of America's two-year colleges wherever they may be found. However, it is more important still to stress the positive, constructive potential of modern junior and community colleges for making creative and worthwhile contributions to the education and manpower development of the newer countries overseas. Everyone's time is wasted in contentious value judgments about which kind of institution has the "best" faculty, which has a greater institutional commitment, or which has a "superior administrative capability" to work effectively abroad.

An Analogy

In any case, the criteria devised by John Gardner for AID to measure the effectiveness of its overseas education contractors seem more applicable to help assess a different kind of performance. Quite possibly, a different kind of standard should be applied to the special contribution which the two-year colleges might make to foreign education assistance work. Writing in the *Junior College Journal* of May 1958, Mr. Gardner made clear his conviction that excellence indeed could mean one thing for one group of schools, quite another for a different one. He wrote:

> As things now stand the word excellence is all too often reserved for the dozen or so institutions which stand at the very zenith of our higher education in terms of faculty distinction, selectivity of students, and difficulty of curriculum. In these terms, it is simply impossible to speak of a junior college as excellent. Yet sensible men can easily conceive of excellence in a junior college. The traditionalists might say, "Of course! Let Princeton create a junior college and one would have an institution of unquestionable excellence!" That is correct, but it leads us down precisely the wrong path. If Princeton Junior College were excellent in the sense that Princeton University is excellent, it would not be excellent in the most important way that a junior college can and may be excellent. It would simply be a truncated version of Princeton. A comparably meaningless result might be achieved if General Motors tried to add to its line of low-priced cars by marketing the front end of a Cadillac!

Thinking back on my own years of service in the developing countries, I am certain that John Gardner's analogy was a perceptive one. Whether through government projects, by cooperation with foundation programs, alone or in consortia with universities, through exchanges with the small, but growing, group of "counterpart colleges" abroad, or in other ways, I am convinced that the particular excellence of our institutions can be focused with increasing effectiveness and growing results on programs of international studies, institutional service, and faculty enrichment. After all, the style,

the motivation, and the goals of "democracy's colleges"—a uniquely American contribution to the world's educational growth and progress—do seem to fit the needs and aspirations of so many of today's developing countries. For many such nations, the community junior college may truly be a good idea whose time has come. One "old hand" at working to introduce the movement to such countries is William R. Kunsela, president of the State University of New York Agricultural and Technical College at Delhi. A few months ago, in a report to the AAJC Committee on International Education, Dr. Kunsela put the matter this way:

> The fact that only a few of our institutions have had experience in developing countries should not be a deterrent, nor should it be interpreted as lacking interest. The community college will be given the opportunity to apply its expertise on the international scene only at such time as the developing nations are encouraged to become familiar with an experiment with the community college as a solution to middle-level manpower needs, and to this manner of expanding educational opportunity.

The Association intends to do its best to provide such encouragement, to awaken international interest in the two-year college, and to stimulate the kind of frank and informed questions and dialogue which can lay the groundwork for expanding the movement wherever and whenever representatives from the new countries are ready to "talk shop." Perhaps Uncle Sam may also want to take another look one day soon at the exciting resources which America's two-year colleges could contribute to America's assistance programs abroad.

By Harold Epstein

WHERE DO JUNIOR COLLEGES FIT IN?

American education, particularly higher education, has made a major commitment in recent years to international education. Through curriculum revision, exchange of faculty and students, and development of language and area study programs, institutions are seeking to end the parochialism which has too often characterized American education. At the same time, with the support of government agencies, such as AID, and foundations, such as Ford and Rockefeller, they are sharing their resources and experience with nations grappling with the problems of educational development. Supplementing this academic involvement, a host of private agencies, civic organizations, and corporations, too, now are involved in one way or another with programs in international education. As if to give formal expression to the national concern for international education, Congress recently passed the

International Education Act, designed to strengthen American higher education in this field.

Nominal Involvement

Where do the junior colleges fit into this picture? The answer is that they are not now playing a major role in one of the most important educational developments of our time. None of the significant studies and reports, issued in recent years dealing with the responsibilities of higher education in international education, even mentions the junior college. And, even more important, the junior colleges clearly have not demonstrated any great imagination or initiative in defining and implementing their role.

Perhaps the most dramatic and certainly the most visible evidence of the growth of international education is to be found in the statistics on educational exchange. Published annually by the Institute of International Education in its report, *Open Doors*, and based on yearly surveys of foreign students and scholars in the United States and American students and faculty abroad, these statistics reveal that the foreign student population has grown from 36,000 in 1955-56 to 93,000 in 1965-66, and has almost doubled in the last five years. Even more striking is the increase in the number of foreign scholars coming to the United States for teaching or research purposes. In the last five years, their number has risen from some 3,600 to more than 9,000.

The statistics on American faculty abroad are no less impressive. The 1,275 American faculty abroad a decade ago increased more than threefold by 1965-66 to almost 4,000. Data on American college students abroad, although less comprehensive because of the difficulty of securing information from foreign institutions, reveal, nevertheless, that the number of American students enrolled in foreign institutions has doubled in the last decade from some 9,000 to 18,000, and this does not include the estimated 10,000 students who, last year, participated in the growing number of undergraduate group programs abroad.

An analysis of the involvement of two-year institutions in this exchange of students and scholars makes plain how marginal is their present role. While the number of foreign students enrolled in junior colleges has risen from 2,250 in 1961-62 to 3,700 in 1965-66, proportionately an impressive increase, still two-year institutions enrolled only 4 per cent of the total foreign student population in the United States. Moreover, foreign students were to be found at only 305 two-year institutions, less than one-half of the total, whereas foreign students were reported at approximately 75 per cent of all four-year institutions last year.

In terms of faculty, the picture presented indicates nominal involvement. In 1961-62, only fourteen two-year institutions reported a total of sixteen foreign scholars on their staffs. In 1965-66, there were sixty-six foreign scholars at thirty-eight junior colleges. Compare this with the more than 9,000 foreign scholars at over 500 four-year institutions in 1965-66. In 1961-62, thirty-two two-year institutions reported forty-four members of their faculties abroad on teaching or research assignment, contrasted with the almost 4,000 American scholars abroad representing more than 600 four-year institutions. There are no specific data on the number of junior college students who go abroad for educational programs but that they represent, at best, a modest fraction of American students abroad can hardly be doubted.

What Is Needed

It is obviously misleading and, indeed, unfair to make a bald statistical comparison between the involvement of two-year and four-year institutions in student and faculty exchange. There are obvious reasons, most of them self-evident, to explain why junior colleges cannot be expected to match senior institutions in attracting foreign students. These include the absence of housing facilities at many two-year schools, the difficulty of providing scholar-

ships and other financial assistance which foreign students, in such great numbers, need, and the preference of foreign students (and scholars) for four-year colleges, based as much upon considerations of prestige, as on misunderstanding of the concept of the junior college. Still, with all allowances, it is clear that the full potential of the junior college to play a constructive role in student exchange in particular, and international education in general, is far from being realized.

What is required at the outset to remedy the situation is an effort to explain the unique function of the junior college to foreign governments, educators, business leaders, and, of course, to students. (A new brochure defining the junior college in the context of international education, jointly prepared by I.I.E. and AAJC, which will soon be available from I.I.E., will be a useful tool.) To the extent that the unique role of the junior college in providing terminal technical and semiprofessional training is understood, it may attract students, especially from developing countries, where the need for men and women with such training is far more urgent than the need for persons with advanced academic degrees.

It should be noted that many experts believe it preferable to send faculty abroad rather than to bring students to the United States for this purpose. But until there are sufficient institutions in the developing countries to meet their needs for trained middle-level manpower, there will be ample reason to utilize the facilities of American junior colleges. The Agency for International Development has already demonstrated interest in using junior colleges in its training programs for foreign nationals and has awarded a few contracts. It is obviously one of the agencies with which the junior colleges can establish a particularly useful partnership.

In offering terminal education to students from abroad, the two-year college should take pains to assure that the training it provides is pertinent to

the needs and opportunities for employment in the students' home countries. It is wasteful and worse to prepare a young man for a career which, in fact, he cannot follow when he returns home.

To the extent that the two-year college's role in serving as a bridge to the four-year institution is understood, it may attract students interested in taking an undergraduate degree in the United States. A caveat is in order here: the junior colleges must not become the dumping ground for foreign students whose lack of academic qualifications or promise have barred them from other institutions. Neither the junior college nor the student is well served unless there is a concern for quality.

A Major Commitment

An effective foreign student program requires a major commitment. It requires provision for information and counseling services abroad. It requires the development of special selection procedures including, ideally, the screening of applicants abroad. It requires a campus structure of orientation, remedial language training and counseling services. It may also require adaptation and innovation in curriculum and teaching methods. In brief, no institution should embark lightly on a major foreign student program.

It should not be overlooked that in serving foreign students, the two-year institution also is serving American students. The contribution the foreign students make to informing and stimulating their American fellow students is one of the most important rewards of foreign student exchange.

Needless to say, this same objective is further realized by the presence on campus of foreign faculty members. It may not be easy for two-year institutions to attract qualified faculty from abroad for temporary assignments, but they can do much more than they now are doing, especially by developing relations with sister institutions abroad which in-

volve exchange of faculty, and by sharing visiting foreign faculty among several institutions here.

To strengthen their own faculties' capacities and to add an international dimension to teaching, junior colleges should encourage staff to participate in Fulbright and other exchange programs, provide sabbaticals and other opportunities for foreign study and travel and, in making new appointments, recruit individuals with foreign experience. Former members of the Peace Corps and the foreign service, for example, offer a reservoir of talent and international experience from which the junior colleges can draw.

Overseas Study and Language Programs

Although the majority of two-year college students may not be candidates for an overseas study experience, some, particularly those intending to transfer to four-year institutions have the language and other qualifications which would make such an experience fruitful. These students should be encouraged to participate in bona fide programs. It would be a mistake, however, for junior colleges to join the rush to establish semester and academic year programs abroad, which are proliferating at a rate alarming to many. But they might well join in cooperative efforts to establish summer programs abroad. These could provide a rich experience for student participants and for faculty selected to teach in them.

Perhaps most important in implementing their concern for strengthening of international dimensions of their educational programs is the need for two-year institutions to strengthen language programs, develop area study programs, particularly on nonwestern areas, and infuse an international character wherever possible into curriculums. No student, and particularly the student engaged in a terminal program whose formal education is not likely to be resumed, should leave the junior college without some appreciation and understanding of the world of which we now are so interdependent a part.

Expanding the Junior College Idea

There are other avenues by which the junior colleges can increase their contribution to international education. The concept of the junior college is taking root in many countries. In Japan, 400 two-year institutions have already been established. Chile, Jordan, and the Philippines also are experimenting with this American educational invention and Ceylon, Kenya, Wales, and India have demonstrated interest in it.

By lending faculty and administrative staff to these new institutions abroad and by providing, through AAJC, consultative and advisory services, the junior college community has an opportunity to share its experience and expertise in the development of this new instrument for broadening educational opportunities. Similarly, AAJC—as the representative of the junior colleges—can play an influential role by inviting representatives of foreign junior colleges to special conferences on such topics as the development and philosophy of the American junior college and its implications for developing nations, by providing opportunities for foreign educators to participate in programs such as the Junior College Leadership Program, by inviting foreign educators into a wide range of AAJC projects such as those on teacher preparation and occupational education, and by making available in translation pertinent studies and reports.

Strengthening Relationships

To give focus to its concern and implement its responsibility for originating programs, developing guidelines, and carrying on its coordinating functions, AAJC should establish a committee on international education. It should also strengthen its relationships with other agencies working in the field, such as A.A.C.R.O.A., N.A.F.S.A and I.I.E. And, of course, AAJC, on behalf of its member institutions, should continue to present to Congress, government agencies, the academic and business world here and

abroad, the inherent capabilities of the junior college in the field of international education. It will, of course, be concerned with securing an appropriate share of whatever funds are made available under the International Education Act, for the purpose of strengthening the capacity of the junior college in the field of international education.

In his now famous Smithsonian address, heralding the International Education Act, President Johnson said, "We must move ahead on every front and every level of learning." That exhortation applies with particular force to the junior colleges for whom international education presents opportunities as yet largely unrealized.

By Jacob Canter

OUR COMMON CHALLENGE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

New initiatives in international education, looking to the future, and an anniversary of two decades of worldwide exchanges have focused increasing academic attention in recent months on our educational relations with other nations. They have amplified an already accelerating trend throughout our entire education community.

Following President Johnson's message to Congress in February 1966, in which he said that education "must be at the heart of our international relations," the Congress late last fall passed the International Education Act of 1966. This is an act which recognizes the need for Americans to know more about other countries and other peoples if we are to develop closer educational and other relationships with them. It is therefore pointed to help toward strengthening the American educational capacity for such relationships.

The year that has just closed also marked the twentieth anniversary of the international educational exchange program as a formal worldwide program of our government—the program conducted under the authority of the Fulbright-Hays Act of 1961. We observed this anniversary in some of the usual ways—in reviews of our past performance, in assessments of what we have accomplished. But as in the case of all significant anniversaries, we have also been presented with an opportunity to redefine our objectives—for us, in international exchange. This is a time to try to see what challenges in international exchange the next decade presents to all of us in all categories of American education—university professors, school teachers, graduate students, and many others—as compared to the challenges of the two decades that began with the Fulbright Act of 1946.

For we are now in a very different time from 1946, in the way that we must look upon educational exchange.

I should like, therefore, to recall for readers associated with our junior colleges the climate in which formal educational exchange was born in 1946, and some of the objectives we held as it took shape. World War II had just ended. Many of the nations of the world lay in ruins. Lines of communication between intellectuals and scholars had been severed and in many cases destroyed. The United States had emerged as a world power, a power of which very little was known, and even less was taught overseas. The chill wind of the cold war was already blowing, obscuring and hampering reasonable discourse and often the truth about ourselves and other nations. New nations were coming into being, or old ones coming into view, of which our own knowledge was abysmally small, and whose own needs for educational development were very great.

The educational exchange program initiated at that time was an effort to respond to some of these problems.

Accomplishments in Twenty Years

In these twenty years, we—and by "we" I mean the United States educational community *with* their government—have successfully *initiated* this joint effort.

Certainly we can say that we have helped reopen channels of communications between scholars, and introduced our colleagues overseas to the intellectual resources and community of this country, and to the American scene. While statistics alone give no precise measure, they are nevertheless impressive. We have exchanged nearly 83,000 academic grantees alone since 1949; if we add grantees under other than academic programs the figure is nearly 100,000. Over 10,000 of these have been professors, another 7,500 research scholars, and 48,000 of them have been students.

We have helped introduce abroad some critical and meaningful discussion about the United States and its character and motivation, through the support of American studies. In terms of chairs, courses, and seminars, the opportunities for such studies available at institutions in Europe have multiplied many times the small beginnings in the late 1940's. Elsewhere, particularly in the Near East and in Eastern Asia and the South Pacific, American studies have become common curriculum offerings.

We can fairly say that exchange has brought about a far larger degree of mutual understanding. The testimony to this effect is surprisingly strong, although admittedly exact measurement is impossible.

We can say that we have done a great deal through educational exchange, but more particularly through AID programs, to help develop and modernize the educational systems of new nations and to train their nationals.

We have set up, both in the United States and abroad, the mechanisms to facilitate exchanges. I speak here of the establishment of the binational commissions serving forty-eight countries overseas, of cultural affairs offices in embassy posts abroad;

of the vast network in the United States of selection committees, campus committees, faculty and foreign student advisors in which the educational community plays so great a part.

We can say too that we have successfully initiated the process of internationalization of education in this country. So in assessing some of the challenges of today and beyond, we do so on the basis of some very real achievements, some very substantial beginnings.

Changes Since 1946

We should look next, I think, at some of the fundamental changes in climate and the human condition that have taken place since 1946.

The greatest change—historically a most remarkable and significant change—is the fact that for the United States the world has become our neighborhood. However reluctantly, however imperfectly, a world community now exists, and the United States for the first time in its history has become a participating and committed part of this community. This is an irreversible and irrevocable development. We cannot conceivably now withdraw into isolation even if we would. The United States is *in* and *of* this world community to stay.

This change is profound, and is bound to have—already has had—enormous repercussions in all our social and intellectual institutions, and upon our attitudes toward other nations and peoples.

The second marked change from twenty years ago is the internationalization of scholarship itself. True scholarship has always been international, to a degree. Science, above all, has long known no boundaries. Now many more disciplines are becoming "internationalized" in the true world sense, not merely, as in the past, in relation to European countries alone. The study of economic growth in the emerging countries has become essential to the economist, and to the development of economic theory; the study of social change in Asia or Latin America has become a necessary focus for sociology

and the sociologist. The study of history, even the history of western civilization, can no longer confine itself to the western world.

A third very marked change over twenty years ago derives directly from the internationalization of scholarship. This is the internationalization of American education.

The beginnings of the internationalization of the American campus is an imposing fact of the U.S. academic scene today. I am tempted here to give a few statistics to indicate how this internationalization is developing:

1. Twenty-two universities have more than 100 foreign faculty or scholars on their campuses.
2. Forty-seven have 400 or more foreign students on campus.
3. Eighteen have forty or more of their own faculty abroad.
4. At least sixty universities have specialized area studies.
5. Twelve teach, as an everyday matter, as many as ten or more different modern foreign languages (U.C.L.A. teaches fifty languages, Indiana University thirty-three).
6. Seventy-two universities through A.I.D. alone participate in projects overseas or in state-side training programs related to overseas projects.
7. Some seventy-five universities have, with the support of the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, exchange relationships, modest though many of them are, with universities in other lands.

There are other marked changes which have taken place in the American scene in these past twenty years.

One is the arrival of the affluent society. The comparative wealth of a large proportion of Americans has brought an international dimension into everyday lives, a taste for travel and foreign climates, films, foods, music, apparel—even philosophies—that was once the almost exclusive privilege of the elite. Affluence has also brought with it a perceptible impulse to reach out, to discover, to grasp

other values which were developed and have long sustained the human spirit in other cultures less materially favored.

New Challenges Today

All these developments have meant that educational exchange as conceived in 1946 faces fundamentally new challenges today.

One important fact is that these developments have brought about an enormous international exchange of persons, of ideas, of cultures, of tastes, quite independently of any government program. Nonimmigrant visitors to the United States—people here for government and private business and as tourists, as well as for serious study—have more than doubled in the last ten years and now number 1.25 million a year. Government-sponsored programs account for only a small fraction of this movement.

Thus, clearly in contrast to twenty years ago, this situation poses a new challenge to educational exchange whether conducted by the government or private agencies: this is to bring the quality of our exchange efforts into closer correspondence with the quantity of exchanges now taking place. We will all need to think of expanding numbers, if for no other reason than because of the world's mounting populations, and because of the rise of new nations with which exchanges can be conducted. But clearly the time has now come to put a special focus on quality.

Focus on Quality

How would such an emphasis on quality affect the role of government and the educational community in educational exchange?

First, as a general rule, we believe that the government should play a role only, if at all, where it is necessary to supplement or direct the natural flow of educational and cultural exchange or to fulfill certain national needs.

One of these needs is to help develop still further and in greater depth, the quality of education at

home, especially education which can help illumine and improve our relationships with the rest of the world. The International Education Act, whose recent passage was perhaps the most fitting of all the anniversary observances of twenty years of educational exchange, will do a great deal to help colleges and universities to develop the international studies and research basic to any effort to prepare Americans for life in a larger world. This act, when it can be implemented with necessary funds, can reach broadly across the higher education community and, through it, to secondary levels as well. For institutions of higher education are authorized by the act to conduct institutes in international affairs for secondary school teachers.

The improved quality of education here at home obviously will have a direct bearing on raising the quality of educational exchange, whether that exchange is carried on through government or private programs.

Secondly, government has still, as it has had over these past decades, a responsibility to help contribute to educational development abroad, with the active cooperation of the United States educational community, and to improve the nature of that contribution.

Thirdly, the government has a broad responsibility to provide a meaningful context in which communication and exchange can take place. In other words, to broaden and deepen the context in which exchanges take place.

Finally, the government has a role to play in encouraging the growth of the life of the mind and sensibility. Improving the quality of the exchangees themselves and of the exchange experience is obviously a very important part of this process.

All of these things can be done effectively, of course, only with the closest cooperation of the educational community. In one sense, indeed, the challenge to the government is the challenge to the educational community—because it is on the intellectual and scholarly resources of the latter that the govern-

ment must depend for the successful execution of the exchange activities it conducts in the name of the American people.

Certainly the problem of quality is a challenge to the educational community irrespective of what the government is doing.

A Precious Instrument

Educational exchange conducted at a level of high quality has very real significance for us and our future world. We have an opportunity in educational exchange, to shape in some degree—let us hope a meaningful degree—the future of man on this planet —not just the future of Americans and not just the future of everybody else as non-Americans. This polarity of "we" and "they" is no longer adequate to a world of growing transnational interests. Educational exchange broadly conceived is one of the most hopeful instruments to make "we" and "they" become simply "we"—that is, the larger groups of mankind that increasingly come together and work together. Any such instrument is rare, and precious. The challenge to the educational community—no less than to your government—is to use it, and to use it effectively. And it is a challenge to the educational community in all its several parts—to the junior college sector you represent as to others.

As I see it, we can do so only if we approach the task with full engagement, with excitement, with imagination. The chance to help shape the future of man, to create a new environment for civilized discourse, can demand no less of all of us in the government and in the educational community.

By Daly C. Lavergne

A ROLE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Maybe there is some truth in the remark a recent critic made, namely, "Americans have always had a superstitious faith in the importance of education." Yet, as James Perkins, president of Cornell University, said at the October 1967 International Conference on World Crisis in Education, "In the long reach of history, society has turned to its educational systems and institutions and said, 'you hold the keys to a better life.' "

President Johnson in his address to the same conference stated his belief that education and economic and social development are inseparable when he said:

"Development means that men and women can put to use in their own societies, in their own lives, in their own time, what modern science and technology can provide to help them. But that requires education."

In stressing the relationship between education and economic and social development, I know I am

talking to believers. Yet if one goes back a few scant years—say to Pearl Harbor—education was accepted by the American people only in terms of its national development. The fact of American power in the military, economic, political, and technological sphere, the growth of nationalism creating many new countries, the passing of historic empires, the instability of the world order, and instantaneous communication have created, as far as I am concerned, a very important phenomenon—America's direct educational stake in economic and social development of the world.

This phenomenon did not develop overnight. The Fulbright Program, the Marshall Plan, and the Agency for International Development programs were major thrusts that not only moved public policy forward, but also moved the academic community into increasing worldwide intercultural commitments. Thus, today private, state, and federal commitments have moved not only the academic community into widespread confrontation with the domestic life of the United States but into a larger concern with the international community. That larger concern with the international community was officially recognized as a fundamental foreign policy concept by the President on September 2, 1966, when he said in his special message to Congress:

"Last year the Congress by its action declared the Nation's number one task is to improve the education and health of our people. Today I call upon Congress to add a world's dimension to this task."

As you know Congress as a result of this message passed the International Education Act of 1966. While it is true Congress has not yet financed that act to any extent, it ultimately will do so.

To do otherwise would undercut our reason for spending billions on education and training manpower in the U.S. It likewise would isolate our students from the chance to understand and interpret the massive fluid changes that are shaping for better or worse the world today.

Prepare the Students

As I understand it, in 1970, junior colleges will number about 1,200 and have an enrollment of 2.5 million students. Some will transfer to four-year colleges, but for most graduation will terminate their formal education. Your graduates will participate indirectly over the years in the making of foreign policy. By their votes, based on their knowledge or lack of knowledge and understanding of the international community and foreign affairs, your graduates' judgments at the polling places and in the mainstream of American life are a bloc not to be easily dismissed by those in the seats of government or those desiring to be. Thus, it seems to me that the greatest international education contribution junior colleges can make is to prepare their students for responsible American citizenship in the changing world.

By responsible American citizenship, I mean graduates who are not only fundamentally geared into our basic beliefs but who are adequately informed, interested, realistic, sensitive, and responsive to events and conditions outside of the United States as they relate to America's world interest and America's self-interest. To me this task is greater by far than securing contracts to help establish junior colleges in X or Y foreign land. I say this because no domestic or foreign policy, involving international commitments means anything, in the long run, unless American citizens understand and support it. As you and I know from our own experience, specialists and competent leaders in a democratic society do illuminate issues and formulate proposals. However, the ultimate decisions of the country are determined by the voters. Without their support no leader can exercise lasting influence over the country's domestic and foreign policy. President Johnson recognized this fact of domestic life when he said in his international education message to Congress in 1966, "The conduct of our foreign policy will advance no faster than the curriculum of our classrooms."

In essence what I am saying is that the junior college is in a position to make its greatest contribution to international education and understanding of world affairs right here in the United States.

Introduce International Concepts

This is not an exhortation for all and sundry junior colleges to attempt, in haste, to internationalize the curriculum of their classrooms. Consideration must be given to available resources and the heavy domestic tasks that your constituents place upon you. Neither am I suggesting that a junior college compete with the four-year college or the graduate school by establishing courses in foreign relations, area studies, or exotic languages. Instead, I suggest that, whenever feasible and practical within the broad range of programs offered, international concepts and problems be introduced.

In the offerings in the biological sciences, nursing and medical technology, for example, the world's population explosion and its international implications would seem to merit attention. The humanities and the social sciences are areas which you all know are natural areas for introducing the many and varied complexities of international living today. Likewise, with modern technology, especially in transportation and communications, making everybody next door neighbors, it would seem that courses in engineering technologies offer spacious educational opportunities. Many courses provide the opportunity to stress the domestic and international dimensions inherent in the gravest threat in today's living to law, order, and peace—the man with an empty stomach. Such a threat, with all its implications to the United States internally and to the world internationally, should be given as much attention in all classrooms as it is being given in all seats of government.

Yet, the infusion of foreign culture courses or world problem courses into the curriculum is well-meaning but does not really strike at the major issue. Educating a citizenry for living in our world today

means internationalizing American education in a meaningful way. It is hard to believe that courses on foreign cultures or discussions of world problems would excite the concern of many students whose visions do not extend beyond our shores and who too often are hardly sensitized to people living two blocks away. It is even harder to believe that a student from the ghetto or a student from Appalachia would care about the problems of India or the tribal struggle in Nigeria when in their narrow U.S. world they personally face day by day the same basic struggle for existence and education faced by millions of citizens of the world.

Thus, it would seem that the problem of developing a world view of internationalizing education would involve introducing into the curriculum our own great national human resource development problems. Preconditioning and sensitizing students to the culture of poverty a few miles away and relating that backyard immersion to the culture of poverty of the more disadvantaged nations of the world should help break down a national attitude that only geographically distant cultures have pockets of underdevelopment. Reasoning from the knowledge of our own subcultures as well as from our democratic development achievements should help students become less parochial and more inclined to a tolerant and less shadowy attitude to the problems facing other cultures. To the degree such an approach can permeate the curriculum, to that degree will the junior college fulfill its main international education role of educating a citizenry for living in an international world.

Faculty Needs Antennas of Empathy

But merely slanting the curriculum from American human resource development problems and their relationship to the cataclysmic human and economic development problems faced by less developed nations cannot in full measure achieve for a junior college a vital role in educating students for their ultimate international responsibility. To give heart-

ening reality to the curriculum a faculty is needed "with antennas of empathy illuminating the cultural similarities and difference of the world—valuing and sustaining both; and improving the human capacity for institution building and conflict resolution," as Stephen Bailey puts it in *The Modern University*.

With teachers in short supply and with your growth capacity not near an end, recruitment of such teachers will likely be a problem that could increasingly handicap you in achieving your goal as soon as desired. Teacher exchange and Fulbright scholars could assist. U.S. government agencies, especially those agencies whose basic interests lie in foreign affairs, should be considered as valuable recruitment sources for teachers and administrators. Some government officials with foreign service experience—hopefully synonymous with cultural empathy—retire early enough to consider starting a second career. Others, retiring with international education experience, may not want to undertake a second career but might be willing, especially if living near a junior college, to consider becoming an adjunct lecturer, teacher, or professor. Peace Corps personnel and teachers with experience in American schools abroad are other sources from which internationally oriented teachers and administrators could be selected. Finally, it would seem that it might also be profitable for your International Education Committee to consult with the Civil Service Commission, the Department of State, the Department of Defense, and the Peace Corps with a view of determining to what extent they could assist the Association in its international education program by supplying manpower support—visiting lecturers, guest speakers, or faculty members.

Foreign Students

In the above remarks it has been stated that a curriculum, geared to citizenry in our country as our country relates to the world, and taught by a reasonable number of internationally experienced faculty members is essential to the furtherance of

international education within junior colleges. There is, however, another element in the triangle with which the Association should be seriously concerned, namely foreign students. It would seem that within the student body there should be sufficient foreign students to give personal international dimension to the text and the teaching. Furthermore, both the foreign student and the American student have much to gain from a personal confrontation of cultures, ideas, and ideals. Continuous exposure one to the other results in an international education possibility more lasting than textbook knowledge.

The mere desire, however, to have a suitable foreign and American student mix in appropriate junior colleges will not bring foreign students to the doors of any campus. It, therefore, would seem that one of the tasks of your International Education Committee is to stimulate junior college placement interest in those who sponsor the coming of foreign students. Naturally, the U.S. government is one source, but it's a relatively minor sponsoring source. Organizations, such as the Institute of International Education, the African American Institute and the Middle East Foundation are sources familiar to all. Besides various religious groups, there is a key source often untouched that plays a large placement role. I refer, specifically, to the educational attaches at the various foreign embassies located in the United States. Most of these diplomatic people were educated within the European system and, as a result, strive to place their government-sponsored students—a goodly number—within the American traditional four-year college system. One might suggest that cultivation of them might not only generate students but serve as a means to create interest in the junior college concept within the country they represent.

In presenting the above thoughts the intention has not been to blueprint "internationalizing" for any junior college. The impetus for such must come from within the college itself working within its broader constituencies in the society. It may seem also that

in the previous remarks too much stress has been placed on education for U.S. citizenry. To quote the words of Secretary Gardner, such is the basic goal of the International Education Act:

"The International Education Act is not an overseas assistance program. Rather it seeks to strengthen and develop American educational institutions which must provide the resource base of talent and knowledge for our efforts abroad and for public enlightenment at home." (*Congressional Record*, October 13, 1966, p. 25496.) All this does not limit the junior colleges' international confrontation to the U.S. educational scene. It does circumscribe the approach to the role junior colleges can play in foreign lands. The usual way has been to ask American educational institutions to upgrade a previously established host national institution or establish a pilot project institution to meet a real felt need. Generally, these approaches have been financed under the foreign aid program. Usually this approach has made an educational contribution to the host country. The ultimate success will depend not on U.S. financing, however, but on the host countries' dedication to a given project and on the amount of internal resources a host country can commit. With the technical assistance funds for A.I.D. severely cut in the present year's appropriation it would seem that fiscal support for establishment of new projects will be rare. From most host countries' viewpoint, hunger and the demand for basic education for the masses will likely limit substantial support to new higher educational projects. All this suggests that the junior colleges for the present, at least, need to consider other methods which would assist host countries and would ultimately further the concept of the junior college.

One method for consideration is technical cooperation—defined as "communication of ideas, skills, a process of thinking or a mode of behavior." A technical cooperation premise could be stated this way: The type of postsecondary educational institution most generally needed in the developing coun-

tries probably more nearly resembles the American junior and community college than the four-year college. In addition to the similarity of objectives (producing educated people who can immediately be absorbed by the critical skilled manpower needs of the wider community) the U.S. junior college and the developing country colleges face similar problems. Both must gear their capabilities to produce people for whom subsequent occupational categories are not well defined. In other words, both must establish new identities for themselves to meet new challenges in the subprofessional fields.

If this general premise is accepted, it would seem there is a need to share the common experience of searching for this new identity. Because the United States is more secure in its knowledge of four-year schools and because these schools have been better able to provide overseas teams for technical assistance, the junior college concept has not received sufficient attention in developing countries. Perhaps the Association's goal should be, therefore, to devise some mechanism to allow sustained interaction, a working dialogue, between the U.S. junior college community and educators of the developing countries so that both groups could become more effective in meeting the needs of their respective societies.

Another approach to international education that the Association might consider taking is international collaboration among host national institutions or associations. This approach either would avoid a unilateral approach or could supplement that type of an approach. At this time, it might be more realistic to work closely with countries which, today, have not only a conceptual interest, but also an active interest in junior colleges rather than plough virgin fields. *Junior College Journal* relates that Japan and Canada are now developing within their educational systems institutions attempting to meet the same end goals as U.S. institutions. (See February 1967 *Journal*). One also notes from reading an article by Kenneth Holland in the fall issue of the *Exchange*, published by the U.S. Advisory Com-

mission on International Education and Cultural Affairs, that Chile, intrigued by a discussion of the California two-year college plan, has already established, with the assistance of Ford Foundation, three of a series of eight two-year colleges. Is it unreasonable to assume that a junior college international association created by those nations already committed to the concept could not create a world image that might entice interest and possible membership? Then once within the fold of an international association, mutual technical cooperation and professional collaboration should more normally result.

And for final consideration—the U.S. private sector's great leap into overseas markets whether by direct investment in plant or equipment or by acquisition of foreign companies. *Time* in a recent issue stresses that "in making the leap American companies have begun to reshape themselves into global organizations to which national boundaries and such narrow definitions as national or foreign mean little." Last year it is claimed that the total overseas ante of American companies was $64.8 billion—more than the gross national product of many a nation. In view of these facts, one wonders if the Association has given thought to the international educational possibility inherent in working with American firms, especially in developing countries, to help such firms train host nationals for middle-level or semiprofessional tasks. If a working relationship could be established with even a few U.S. companies in developing countries, the association would really be making a valuable contribution to international education as well as giving the host country an inside look at ways and means mid-level or semiprofessional manpower can be trained. Who then knows where the international education road might lead?

Summary

In presenting my thoughts today, I trust that I have not spoken too much as Sir Oracle might have.

I have tried to present several areas of consideration to which this Association might devote attention if it wished to further its role in international education; namely its role within this country; its role in technical cooperation and professional collaboration with other countries and other foreign professional organizations; and its possible manpower development role for American firms operating overseas. If AAJC decides to edge deeper and deeper in the field of international education, I trust the Association will define its aims specifically and take into serious consideration what Elizabeth Shiver of the American Council on Education has encapsulated so well:

"We are learning that the organic approach is essential, that the distribution of emphasis is essential, that organization of the university's resources is essential, and that policies to be developed must involve deeply and radically the faculty across the board; and that they must in turn be integrated with administrative decision making so that whatever we ultimately achieve carries the whole university forward in its academic program as well as in research, teaching, and public service."

By William L. Irvine

TAKING INVENTORY OF OUR RESOURCES IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

From 1964 to 1966 I served as the first regional education officer for Africa with the newly organized Office of Overseas Schools in the U.S. Department of State.

During four six-week tours of the African continent, I gained firsthand knowledge of the staggering needs of the newly independent African nations. The infinite challenges which confront each country call for some sort of professional advice and assistance from more advanced countries. Many American colleges and universities have contracted with the Agency for International Development to provide the services of qualified faculty and staff members to resolve problems and implement needed projects in Africa. Similar needs have been identified and fulfilled on other continents.

To recruit qualified specialists has been a continuing problem for our government, private con-

tractor, and foundations. It is currently estimated that there are some 80,000 faculty members who are employed in the more than 800 two-year colleges in this country. How many of these individuals are interested in international education? How many of this group are interested in overseas service? How many have had international experience or training to provide the needed services?

At least one small New England junior college has taken a moment to answer these questions for itself. One hundred-and-thirty-three-year-old Vermont College located in Montpelier, Vermont, queried its faculty and found that 42 per cent are interested in possible overseas assignments. This and other similar information useful in the implementation of the International Education Act has been ascertained by an inventory designed and distributed by the president.

The form, as noted below, seeks information in eight major categories: personal; prior overseas experience; future overseas assignments; foreign language competency; wife's availability and background; ages of children; health conditions; and other comments.

Some form of international education inventory should be attempted on every two-year college campus. Perhaps the American Association of Junior Colleges could record, compile, and coordinate such data for reference as needed by interested government or private agencies, other organizations, corporations, and foundations.

It is recognized that there are many other facets of international education, including student exchange programs and international education curriculums. Taking inventory seems to be a logical beginning step as junior college faculty and staff members decide the extent of their interests in international education and formulate plans to activate these interests.

In discussing this topic with representatives of the federal government, foundations, and private

interests, one soon discovers the information gained from such a survey is urgently needed before a serious discussion of available services and human resources can ensue.

The Vermont College inventory form was originally conceived by the author when he was a Cornell University faculty member. The questions were worded so answers could be recorded on data-processing cards.

Time is now on the side of our two-year junior colleges with the lack of funding for the International Education Act and the limited availability of government funds for such activities. There is time for personnel in two-year colleges to tool up for the day when the need and opportunity to support international education will become a reality.

Permission is hereby granted to duplicate any or all of the following inventory.

As present chairman of the A.A.J.C. Committee on International Education, this writer will welcome inquiry from readers. Address question to: Dr. William L. Irvine, president, Vermont College, Schulmaier Hall, Montpelier, Vermont 05602.

VERMONT COLLEGE
INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION INVENTORY

A. Personal:

1. Name ..... (Last) (First) (Middle)

2. Education:

School	Degree	Major field
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....

3. Present college or university affiliation:
.....

4. Indicate the content areas in which you feel you have special competence. Then go back and check the areas in which you have a research interest and finally check the areas in which you have a service interest.

Subject areas	Competence	Research interest	Service interest
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....

B. Prior overseas experience:

1. Indicate number of months spent in each area for the different circumstances.

Areas	Military	Educational	Personal travel and other
a. Central America	.....	.....	.....
b. South America	.....	.....	.....
c. North Africa	.....	.....	.....
d. West Africa	.....	.....	.....
e. East Africa	.....	.....	.....
f. South Asia	.....	.....	.....
g. Southeast Asia	.....	.....	.....
h. Sub-Sahara Africa	.....	.....	.....
i. Other (please specify)	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....

2. Military
   a. Length and branch of service .....
   b. Countries in which you served and length of service in each .....
   .....

3. Educational
   a. Fulbright:
      (1) Country or countries visited .....
      .....
      (2) Type of experiences .....
      .....
      (3) Length of grant .....
   b. I.C.A. or A.I.D. contract work:
      (1) Country or countries visited .....
      .....
      (2) Type of experience .....
      .....
      (3) Length and nature of experience .....
      .....
   c. Other overseas experience (describe briefly) .....
      .....
      .....

4. Personal travel

a. Country or countries visited:	b. Length of visits in months:
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....

C. Future overseas assignments:

1. Are you interested in overseas assignment work?
   ..... Yes
   ..... No (if not, skip section C and go to section D)

2. Indicate with a check the degree of interest you have in working in each of the following areas.

Area	No interest	Somewhat interested	Very much interested
a. Central America	.....	.....	.....
b. South America	.....	.....	.....
c. North Africa	.....	.....	.....
d. West Africa	.....	.....	.....
e. East Africa	.....	.....	.....
f. Southeast Asia	.....	.....	.....
g. South Asia	.....	.....	.....
h. Sub-Sahara Africa	.....	.....	.....
i. Other (please specify)	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....

3. What is the longest length of time you'd be willing to serve overseas?
   a. Less than one year .....
   b. One year .....
   c. Eighteen months .....
   d. Two years .....
      (1) Staggered .....
      (2) Consecutive .....

4. What month and year will you be eligible for your next sabbatic .....

5. What specific year or years would you be willing to serve .....

D. Foreign language competency:

1. Check the languages in which you have some degree of competency.
   a. French ..... b. Spanish ..... c. Other (please specify) .....

2. Foreign language training

a. In high school language	No. of yrs.	b. In college language	No. of yrs.
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....

3. Foreign language teaching experience

Language taught	No. of years	Grade level
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....

E. Describe briefly, if your wife is available and interested in overseas service, her educational training, major field of study, and foreign language competency.

F. Ages of children ....

G. Indicate any special health conditions, problems or diseases which would limit your participation to certain geographical areas, climates, or special types of services.

H. Other comments:

....

By W. Merle Hill

WE SHOULD DO MORE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Little attention has been given to the involvement of the American junior college in any effective international education program: foreign language teaching; native or near-native foreign language teachers employed; "civilization" courses offered; foreign study programs; teacher exchange programs; and student exchange programs.

The last two areas are of special interest to me and so, in order to gather information on these important programs, I devised a relatively simple questionnaire which was distributed to the presidents or chief administrators of all two-year colleges.

The following information was requested:

1. Was the college private or public?
2. What was the full-time enrollment in 1966-67?
3. What foreign languages were taught?
4. How many foreign-born or second-generation modern language teachers were employed?

5. Which "civilization" courses, other than the traditional "western civilization" courses, were offered?

6. Were foreign study tours a part of curricular or extracurricular offerings?

7. How many foreign students have been enrolled during the past five years, and which countries were represented?

8. How many foreign exchange teachers have been employed during the past five years?

9. Would the college employ a foreign teacher for a year on an exchange basis?

10. What salary arrangements could be made for a foreign teacher on an exchange?

11. With which organizations had the college been in contact with regard to international education programs?

Sources of information: Over 875 questionnaires were sent out, and nearly 70 per cent of the questionnaires were returned. There were 424 responses from public community colleges and 159 from private two-year colleges. In addition, thirty unanswered questionnaires were returned by former two-year institutions that had grown into four-year colleges, by newly formed colleges that will have no students until 1967, and by two-year branch campuses of four-year institutions that do not consider themselves junior colleges.

Full-time enrollment: The junior colleges represented in this study reported September 1966 full-time equivalent enrollments as follows:

Enrollment	*Number of colleges*
1- 500	211
501-1,000	151
1,001-2,000	106
2,001-3,000	43
3,000- and up	56
To open in the future	16

Foreign language courses taught: As might be expected, the leading languages in regard to the number of courses taught were Spanish, French, and German, with Russian a distant fourth.

Offerings in Spanish total 1,791 courses, ranging from Spanish I to Spanish XIV. The breakdown of Spanish courses offered is as follows:

Course title	*Number of colleges*
Spanish I	461
Spanish II	438
Spanish III	330
Spanish IV	262
Spanish V	103
Spanish VI	83
Spanish VII	36
Spanish VIII	24
Spanish IX	17
Spanish X	11
Spanish XI	7
Spanish XII	6
Spanish XIII	2
Spanish XIV	1

For the offerings in French, the results are as follows:

Course title	*Number of colleges*
French I	458
French II	427
French III	307
French IV	244
French V	98
French VI	73
French VII	33
French VIII	23
French IX	10
French X	7
French XI	4
French XII	3
French XIII	1

German, with 1,027 total courses offered, ranked third.

Course title	*Number of colleges*
German I	289
German II	263
German III	178
German IV	159
German V	59
German VI	45
German VII	13
German VIII	7
German IX	4

German X	3
German XI	2
German XII	2
German XIII	2
German XIV	1

A distant fourth was Russian, with a total of 227 courses offered as follows:

Course title	*Number of colleges*
Russian I	79
Russian II	62
Russian III	37
Russian IV	26
Russian V	8
Russian VI	7
Russian VII	2
Russian VIII	2
Russian IX	1
Russian X	1
Russian XI	1
Russian XII	1

Other total course offerings were the following: Latin, 153; Italian, 98; Greek, 86; Japanese, 30; Portuguese, 24; Chinese, 14; and Hebrew, 10.

Some "exotic languages" were also reported. One school teaches five courses in Arabic; another offers three courses in Ukrainian; one offers an introductory course in Norwegian; three offer a beginning course in Vietnamese; nine schools have a beginning course in Polish; one course in Swahili; one in Swedish; and one in Hindi were mentioned; and another school offers two courses in Finnish.

Schools offering languages: Of the 159 private junior colleges reporting on languages, only fourteen offer no language at all. Of the 418 public junior colleges reporting on languages, thirty-five offer no language courses. The highest number of languages offered at a private school was thirteen, and the highest number of different languages taught at a public junior college was twelve. The number of languages offered at the various institutions is as follows:

Number of different languages taught	*Public*	*Private*	*Total colleges*
0	35	14	49
1	59	25	84
2	116	52	168
3	124	51	175
4	52	8	60
5	19	6	25
7	2	0	2
8	1	0	1
12	1	0	1
13	0	1	1

Native-born or second-generation modern language teachers: As might be expected, the number of native-born or second-generation modern language teachers employed by junior colleges is relatively small. Spanish heads the list with 241 native-born or second-generation teachers. How many of this number were refugees from Cuba could not be determined. The number of native-born or second-generation modern language teachers employed at the junior colleges reporting was broken down into the following languages: Spanish, 241; French, 151; German, 143; Russian-Ukrainian, 38; Italian, 30; Chinese, 7; Japanese, 6; Polish, 5; Arabic, 1; Portuguese, 1; Greek, 1; Finnish, 1; Danish, 1.

Civilization courses other than Western Civilization: Although there has been an ever-increasing attempt on the part of four-year colleges to expand and extend their liberal arts offerings by offering more courses in "civilization" areas other than western civilization, the junior colleges surveyed still offer relatively few courses that concern themselves with civilizations other than western civilization. The subject-matter areas and the number of schools offering at least one such course are listed below:

Area	*Colleges offering at least one course*
Far East	69
South-Central America	58
North American	47
Near East	22
African	21
Russian	12
World	8

Foreign study tours: It is not surprising that the junior colleges do not have extensive offerings in the area of foreign study tours. Neither is it surprising that study tours to Europe and Mexico or South America are practically the only ones offered. European study tours are offered by sixty institutions, thirty-four for credit and twenty-six for no credit. Tours to Mexico or South America are offered by twenty-two institutions, nine for credit, and thirteen for no credit. Study tours to the Middle or Far East are offered by three institutions, two for credit, and one for no credit. The only other study tour reported is a no-credit tour to Scandinavia by one institution.

Foreign students enrolled in junior colleges, 1962-67: In his article in the February 1967 *Junior College Journal* entitled "Where Do Junior Colleges Fit In?" Harold Epstein indicates that the foreign student participation in the United States has grown from 36,000 in 1955-56 to 93,000 in 1965-66 and "has almost doubled in the last five years." Unfortunately, he goes on to say, "two-year institutions enrolled only 4 per cent of the total foreign student population in the United States" in 1965-66. Of even greater significance for junior colleges is the fact that only 305 two-year institutions hosted a foreign student in that year. The schools included in this study reported over 22,000 foreign students enrolled between the years 1962 and 1967. The countries represented and the numbers were:

Country	*Foreign students enrolled 1962-67*
Iran	2,118
Canada	1,384
Japan	834
Greece	602
Mexico	567
China	517
Cuba	474
Colombia	413
Thailand	373
India	352

Many other countries were represented during this period, but the largest numbers of students came from the ten countries indicated above. The majority of the Canadian students and Mexican students were enrolled in those states near the borders of their respective countries; and the students from Cuba were to be found, for the most part, in junior colleges in Florida. One midwestern school made no distinction between an out-of-state student and a foreign student.

Number of exchange teachers, 1962-67: It appears that relatively few junior colleges have been able to make use of foreign exchange teachers. Although Epstein reports sixty-six foreign scholars at thirty-eight junior colleges in 1965-66, the results of this study are not as good. In the period between 1962-67 only fifty-four foreign exchange teachers were reported, and eleven of these were in English-speaking countries. The countries represented and the number of exchange teachers teaching at the reporting American junior colleges between the years 1962-67 are as follows:

Country	*Number of teachers*
Argentina	3
Australia	2
Austria	2
Brazil	1
Chile	1
England	9
France	7
Germany	7
Holland	2
India	4
Ireland	1
Japan	2
Lebanon	2
Mexico	1
Norway	1
Pakistan	1
Philippines	3
Spain	1
Switzerland	1
Turkey	1
Uruguay	2

When asked whether they would employ a foreign teacher on an exchange basis, 343 institutions reported that they would; but there were 150 institutions who reported that they would not employ a foreign exchange teacher. No reasons for this apparent lack of interest were given.

In regard to funds, eighty-six institutions reported they could pay a full salary for a foreign exchange teacher, and ninety-four indicated that they could supplement any funds received by the foreign exchange teacher from the Fulbright-Hays program. Only fifty-four institutions indicated that the Fulbright-Hays program would have to pay all of the salary for an exchange teacher. Twelve institutions stated that they could provide some transportation for an exchange teacher, and eighty-three said they could provide or arrange for housing.

As for the American teaching abroad, 205 schools indicated that the Fulbright-Hays program would have to bear the entire cost, while only eighty-seven indicated that they could supplement the American teacher's Fulbright-Hays stipend. In addition, twenty-two institutions indicated the possibility of providing some transportation funds for the American teacher.

Organizations contacted: Although the colleges returning the questionnaire reported contact with thirty different organizations regarding international programs for the exchange of teachers and students, three organizations received the bulk of the inquiries. The results are the following:

Organization	*Number of colleges making inquiry*
National Association of Foreign Student Affairs	51
U.S. Office of Education	49
Institute of International Education	41

From the results of this survey, one could perhaps conclude that the American junior college is not doing much in the area of international education or international understanding. The survey

points out the following: the problem areas of the world are, for the most part, being neglected in regard to languages and area studies; relatively few foreign exchange teachers have taught at American junior colleges in the past five years; and fully 30 per cent of the schools that replied indicated that they would not employ a foreign teacher on an exchange basis.

Junior Colleges in Other Countries

Probably the greatest impact of the American junior college in international education has been that of being a pattern for an alternative for the established system of education in Japan. On June 17, 1964, the 46th Session of the Imperial Diet passed the Revision Bill of the School Education Law. This law gave accreditation to the many junior colleges that had been started as early as 1950. It was Walter C. Eells, former higher education officer on General MacArthur's staff, who contributed to this unique venture in Japanese education. Eells earned the name of "Father of Japanese junior colleges," and the 413 accredited Japanese junior colleges currently enroll 70,000 students who owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Eells.

Some so-called underdeveloped countries in the East and in other areas as well are experimenting with this singular American contribution to higher education. Chile, Jordan, and the Philippines are currently experimenting; and Ceylon, Kenya, and Wales, among others, have demonstrated an interest in it.

Most countries in the world have adopted their educational systems either from the English, German, or French systems of education. Since these systems were basically systems for education of the elite, relatively few non-European countries have a well-educated or well-trained blue-collar class. The educational emphasis in the underdeveloped countries should be, say many experts, on the technological skills so utterly lacking there today; and it is the burgeoning, comprehensive, technologically

oriented American junior college that could be a tremendous boon to education and to society in these countries. Qualified foreign exchange doctoral candidates should continue their studies at American universities, but there are thousands of other young people who need and can benefit from the instruction offered in the occupational and technical programs in our junior colleges.

The following recommendations grow from the apparent lack of involvement of American junior colleges in the areas of international education and understanding. A concerted effort by the individual junior colleges, by the American Association of Junior Colleges, and by the U.S. Office of Education will be necessary to improve American junior college offerings in the areas of international education and understanding.

1. Change the emphasis at the junior college level in foreign language learning to those languages that are becoming increasingly important in today's complex and polycultured world: Russian, Chinese, Portuguese, Hindi, Swahili, and Arabic.

2. Under Title VI, set up area and language centers for junior college personnel to encourage concentrated study of the areas of immediate and future concern to the welfare of the United States and of the world: Asia, Africa, and South America.

3. Bring hundreds more foreign exchange students from South America, Asia, and Africa to learn semiprofessional and technological skills at American junior colleges.

4. Send many more American junior college teachers abroad and bring foreign teachers to our community colleges. Whenever possible, encourage direct teacher exchanges (names of qualified foreign teachers can be obtained from the Office of Education) and direct student exchanges.

5. Utilize the know-how of American junior college leaders to set up experimental junior colleges in foreign countries. Forget, for the time being, the tremendous injections of aid to the traditional for-

eign university systems and utilize these funds to train in experimental junior colleges semiprofessional groups in whose hands the futures of their countries will lie.

6. Have an official from the Office of Education act as liaison in the areas of international education and understanding with the AAJC Committee on International Education.

At the February 1966 AAJC meeting on international education in the junior college, a question posed by Walter Garcia, then president of Modesto Junior College and now president of Rio Hondo Junior College in California, was answered in the negative. The question was: "Is the junior college movement, at this eleventh hour, in a posture that will permit it to participate fully in this new thrust?" It is now eighteen months past that eleven o'clock hour, and the posture is not yet much improved. It is imperative for all concerned with international affairs to seek to improve our posture, and it is incumbent upon the Office of Education and the American Association of Junior Colleges to see to it that junior colleges do their part by playing the role for which they are so uniquely qualified.

By Donald E. Deyo

EDUCATORS FROM ABROAD: WELCOME!

Assume a foreign educator wished to visit this country to learn about the community junior college.

How should he proceed?

What ought he to see?

With whom should he talk?

First he should be briefed on the purpose of higher education in the United States and the role of the junior college as part of higher education.

Significant, too, would be the American concept of the role of education. We believe it to be inherent in a democracy that its effectiveness, indeed its survival, depends upon an educated citizenry and that every citizen, therefore, has the right of access to education which will permit him to fulfill his potential and his interests. Higher education is the capstone of this opportunity.

Among all the characteristics of higher education, two should be mentioned specifically: diversity and

quality. Our system is diverse, representing many kinds, types, levels, and systems of control. Our colleges and universities are large and small, public and private, general and specialized. Each has its place and purpose in the total fabric of higher education. Each category respects the other for its contribution to the total of educational services. And each institution strives to maintain the highest standards of quality in order to justify the confidence of the people and of other sectors of higher education.

Community College Concepts

One of these categories is the junior college. It is a unique kind of higher education, not in its individual characteristics, but in the totality of these characteristics. It "democratizes" higher education in that it brings a large variety of educational services close to the people in their own communities and at very low cost. Ordinarily it represents two years of post-secondary education although there may be individual curriculums less or more than this length. It is predominantly a public institution although there are many fine private ones. Every generalization about the community junior college has its exceptions and this fact alone makes it difficult to understand.

Typically, as the descriptive name implies, the community junior college is intended to serve the higher educational needs of its community or region and to be responsive to changes in those needs. Its purpose is to serve the needs of the youth and adults of the community on the one hand, and the needs of business, industry, and government on the other. To do this it maintains an open door admissions policy, but the "openness" of the door may range from a statutory requirement to admit all who are high school graduates or are over age eighteen to admitting only those who are "qualified," however that may be defined.

Such a generous admissions policy results in the college serving a broad segment of the total population as measured by talent, capacity, interests, apti-

tudes, and needs, and carries with it two unavoidable implications. The first of these is that the college must have a strong program of student personnel services to assist the student to a realistic self-appraisal and choice of educational objective. The second is that the college must have a broad program to serve the diverse needs of its clientele. This means that almost by definition the community junior college is a comprehensive, multipurpose institution.

A Multipurpose Institution

What are these multipurposes? Authorities now generally limit them to five: occupational education, college (or university) transfer education, general education, guidance and counseling, and community services.

The first of these purposes, broadly defined, is intended to provide two years of post-secondary education leading directly, without additional formal education, to full-time employment. The local college's program of offerings will be designed primarily, but not exclusively, to meet the needs of business, industry, and government in the college service area. Transfer curriculums, as the name implies, are the first two years of typical four-year baccalaureate curriculums and are designed for students who intend to transfer to senior institutions to complete bachelor's degrees.

The general education function of the community junior college is really a three-phase concept: all or most of the courses in transfer curriculums are general education; there are terminal two-year general education curriculums for those students who wish additional education beyond the high school but who do not have an occupational objective; and each occupational curriculum contains a significant amount of instruction aimed at enhancing the social, economic, civic, and personal-living competencies of those enrolled in these curriculums. This latter is a point of particular significance in community college philosophy and one which frequently distinguishes the community junior college from the technical in-

stitute, business schools, and other specialized post-secondary institutions.

The importance of the guidance and counseling function has already been alluded to. If the community junior college is to be a comprehensive, multipurpose institution with an unrestrictive admissions policy, it simply cannot fulfill its responsibilities without strong student personnel services to help the individual members of its diverse student population in charting their educational and occupational goals.

Community services is a broad function of the community junior college. Generally it refers to adult and continuing education, but many other social, cultural, and economic services come within the purview of this function. As a community-oriented institution, the college will be alert to community needs and respond to them within the limits of its resources.

Itinerary and Time

An educator from abroad visiting American community junior colleges should keep these functions in mind, looking sharply to see how each college incorporates each function into its total program. He will note that the programs of no two colleges will be exactly alike. Programs will differ from college to college, based on the different needs and resources of the communities and on the interpretation of these into educational programs by the colleges' boards of control, administration, and faculties.

Also, he will note that the concept of the community junior college will differ by states and by regions. For this reason his itinerary must be nationwide and it should be planned to include at least New York, Florida, and California as representative samples of regional differences. If time permits it would be well to add Illinois, Michigan, and Texas.

On the subject of time, it should be pointed out that our visitor cannot hope to get even a cursory overview of community junior colleges on a nationwide basis in less than two weeks; a month or two would be much better.

Much can be learned from looking and seeing. More can be learned from talking. In every college our visitor should talk with the president and other administrators and, whenever possible, he should chat with representative members of the faculty. From these he will obtain individual concepts of the place and responsibilities of the local college. He should plan when in the vicinity of state capitols to visit with state directors of community junior colleges. He should plan to interview professors of community junior college education in some of our universities. Finally and specifically he should schedule a stop in Washington, D.C., to talk with staff members of the American Association of Junior Colleges, the professional organization which speaks for community junior colleges in this country.

Places to Go, Things to See

An itinerary might be organized around a limited number of metropolitan centers such as New York City, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Miami, Cleveland, St. Louis, Detroit, Chicago, and Seattle. Each has or is near to examples of large urban community junior colleges. Transportation between cities is easy and the cities can be used as bases from which to schedule visits to suburban colleges, private colleges, and institutions in rural or smaller urban settings. Also there is convenient access to state directors and university professors concerned with junior college education.

Since virtually every community junior college will offer liberal arts and some preprofessional curriculums as its college parallel or transfer program, these can be observed in any colleges selected. It is suggested therefore, that in making up a list of institutions to be visited emphasis be given to those which concentrate on and have earned reputations for comprehensive offerings—that is, strong occupational education curriculums as well as transfer curriculums. Among the colleges with good occupational programs there will be wide divergence of kinds, levels, and objectives and care should be exer-

cised to schedule a representative variety of institutions. One thing to look for would be those colleges which have "co-operative" or work-study programs.

Naturally, the visitor from abroad will be curious about all aspects of colleges on his itinerary. But it might be well to single out some items of particular importance. First of these would be classroom teaching. Who are the faculty? What are their backgrounds? What are their teaching objectives? How do they teach—what methods, techniques and instructional devices do they use? How, and to what extent, are they incorporating the college's library resources and modern classroom equipment into their teaching?

Another item to be observed is the organization of administration and supervision. Why is the college organized and administered as it is? Does the organization seem to aid or hinder the achievement of the college's objectives? What is the college doing in institutional research? What does it know about itself as an institution and about its clientele?

An extremely important aspect of the college's total program is its student personnel services. Is it a collection of services or an integrated program? In addition to guidance and counseling, are such services as admissions, student health and welfare, student activities, and placement included? What seem to be the relationships between student personnel services and the academic and administrative sides of the college?

What is the nature of the curriculum? What fields are offered? Are these compatible with the needs of the students and the community, with the size, resources and objectives of the college? How is curriculum developed and who does it; is the faculty involved?

Each Visit a Special Case

Finally, there is the matter of physical plant. Good education can and does go on in less than ideal physical surroundings; also excellence of physical plant does not necessarily imply excellence of the

instructional program. But certainly there is a relationship between them. The physical plant is part of the institution's interpretation of its mission. To simplify the matter perhaps the list of things to look for could be reduced to three items: the nature of the classrooms, libraries, and shops and laboratories. Why are they constructed as they are? Do they provide the space and equipment to help toward the fulfillment of the curriculums and college objectives?

These suggestions obviously should not be applied uniformly for every visit by an educator from another country. Each will have a different frame of reference according to educational customs and organization in his own country. Each will come with a different background of understanding of the American community junior colleges, and each will have different objectives for his visit. Perhaps, and hopefully, some of these ideas will be useful.

By John J. Connolly

INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The history of the foreign student movement in the United States is long, confused, and indelibly marked by poor educational philosophy and planning.

The current trend, and numbers, of foreign (or as they are now properly called "international" students) began with the Good Neighbor Policy in the late 1930's and early 1940's. During this period the federal government encouraged Latin-American students to come to this country to study. Then, when World War II raged and many European universities were closed as a result, the influx of European students began. Little thought was given to the type of education best suited to the needs of the student and his country by either government. Miraculously, though, many students and the program itself prospered.

Ease of travel, liberal grants and scholarships, and the broad range of technical skills attainable

have led a multitude of European, Asian, and Latin American students to that great utopia of education—the United States. In fact, the enrollment of international students in this country increased by 300 per cent between 1930 and 1953, while during the same period American enrollment increased 100 per cent![1] These figures are, of course, relative. Actually international students constitute only a small percentage of student enrollment; but the trend is clear—the opportunity is available and is being utilized.

But opportunity for what? The outcome of a student's educational sojourn must be measured in light of the objectives or goals of his visit. However, these are not easily qualified. The student may have set certain goals—which will vary from student to student—but the school, his home country, and the United States government may have formulated different, and conflicting, goals.

Our government, for example, is understandably interested in developing an appreciation of the United States in all who study here; and in having the students carry this appreciation back to the people of their own country.

The student's home country, by comparison, is interested in his learning skills beneficial to the welfare of his nation—and returning with them.

The college may hope to broaden the outlook of its students, gain prestige, or aid the federal government.

To many of the American public the goal may be universal understanding and the achieving of peace; and yet to others, it might be total assimilation.

For the student the goals may range from travel, curiosity, and adventure; to the opportunity to learn new skills, or possibly to marry an American. To others it may simply be lack of opportunity in their own country.

In any case, no matter how sincere and intelligent the student; and no matter how prepared he and the college may be, the problems encountered are myriad. Adjustment to a new culture, and often

an unmastered language is difficult; housing may be a problem, as may conflicting social mores. The feeling of alienation, the lack of social contact, and the prevalent conflict between reality and expectations is many times of traumatic proportions. Often the result is complete disillusionment with the United States, the school, and oneself.[2] The student may return to his country with ambivalent or even hostile feelings about his visit. Or, perhaps even more disconcerting, he may return "Americanized," unable or unwilling to adjust to his old environment.

Consider a New Vehicle

This bleak picture, although many times not accurate, is nonetheless a common enough occurrence to consider the addition of a new vehicle to those presently bearing the burden for the education of international students. This vehicle, seldom utilized and yet ingeniously suited to the task, is the junior college. While having all of the advantages of a four-year institution for the international student, it lacks many of the disadvantages.

For example, the problem of Americanization faced by many students is greatly decreased merely because of the time factor: four or five years having a greater assimilative effect than two. The length of the visit is also a prominant factor in the student's attitude toward the United States when he returns home. The following chart [3] illustrates that the favorableness of attitude toward the United States of a student visiting for a two-year period is almost equal to that of a student who remains for four years; it is definitely superior to any period exceeding the four-year limit—which many international students must exceed to attain the bachelor's degree.

Length of Stay Months	*High Favorableness Per Cent*
0 - 9	62
10 - 19	45
20 - 29	54
30 - 39	53
40 - 49	57
50 and over	47

In the *Changing Image of America* George C. Coelho [4] formulates an interesting guideline for study abroad: "If you live in a country three months, you love it; if you live in it for a year you hate it; if you live in it two years, you are used to it."

An Appropriate Kind of Education

Another problem directly associated with the type of education most international students are obtaining in this country is the utilization of this education to its maximum potential. Most foreign countries suffer no real dearth of scholars, but of technicians. And yet few of the foreign students returning from the United States possess technical skills of any type, except possibly the professional skills in science and medicine. In fact, fewer than 10 per cent will ever work full time in the field in which they were trained. It would therefore seem to be a natural conclusion to offer these students the level of training and variety of skills which would enable them not only to contribute functionally to their society, but which would also avoid the frustrations created by placing a trained person in a position which denies him the opportunity to develop his skills.

The many technical programs offered in junior colleges are ideally suited to this purpose. The broad range of curriculums offered are, for the most part, designed to produce the middle management and technically trained personnel of which many underdeveloped countries are in desperate need.

Another offering of the two-year college, which may or may not be found in a larger four-year institution is the close association with students, faculty, and community which inescapably evolves as the result of a small, contiguous population. Franklin D. Scott,[5] in his experience with Swedish students, has found that the more closely a student has lived with Americans the more pleasant his trip is in retrospect. Dormitory facilities are not found in most two-year schools; therefore, the possibility of an "international house" comprised entirely of foreign students, and greatly limiting their interaction with Ameri-

cans is removed. The most prevalent type of housing available to students in community and junior colleges is the rooming house, or residence with an American family. To most college students the dormitory is the preferable alternative. However, to the international student, who may have different housing needs, and who may have different goals associated with housing (including familiarity with the people who inhabit the country in which he is spending a portion of his life) the last choice may be the most attractive.

Another aspect of the international student is the value which he possesses for both the school and the community. One objective for international education attributed to four-year institutions is its broadening effect on the student body of the institution. I would suggest that this broadening effect, if pertinent to a large institution with a diversified student body, would be more important to an educational unit with a student population which is smaller, less diversified, and often lacking contact with other cultures. Many of our junior colleges may draw from a certain "parish," but parochialism is a state of mind we should actively combat.

In extending our educational system to the international student we should consider the following basic objectives:

1. To offer him an education suitable to the opportunities available in his home country
2. To be certain that the opportunity exists to know Americans on more than a casual basis
3. To allow adequate time for completion of his educational goals
4. Not to attempt proselytization, either purposely or by retaining him for an extended period of time.

The role played thus far by the two-year institution in the exchange of international students has been a minor one. Part of the responsibility belongs to history, as we are a relatively new educational force; and part belongs to us, for not offering our-

selves to this area of education. By involving ourselves with the agencies concerned, and directing ourselves to this task, we may soon add another to the growing list of educational services offered by our institutions.

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[1] Dubois, Cora. *Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States.* Washington: The American Council on Education, 1956.

[2] Morris, Richard T. *The Two Way Mirror.* Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1960.

[3] Unseem, John and Unseem, Ruth Hall. *The Western Educated Man in India: A Study of His Social Roles and Influence.* New York: The Dryden Press, 1955.

[4] Coelho, George C. *Changing Image of America.* Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958.

[5] Scott, Franklin D. *American Experience of Swedish Students.* Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press.

By F. George Elliott

THE DILEMMA OF FOREIGN STUDENT ADMISSIONS

Among institutions of American higher education, the public junior colleges have reported a particularly sharp increase in foreign student enrollments over the last decade. Although junior college statistics are incomplete, available data indicate that increases in two-year institutions have more than kept pace with four-year college and university increases. In California, for example, the junior college system has accounted for approximately 15 per cent of the exchange population in the state over the past three years.

A number of factors have contributed to the increasing enrollment of foreign students at the junior college level: (a) The junior college may offer specialized training in a two-year program which is more suited to the particular needs of the foreign student. (b) The foreign student may not be eligible immediately for admission to a four-year

institution. (c) Exchange students may be attracted sometimes by the lower fees in the two-year colleges or in some cases, by the tuition-free policy of the colleges. (d) Some visiting students may choose the junior college on the basis of geographic location, either because the college is located in one of the large metropolitan centers or because he has friends or relatives in the area. (e) The less stringent admission requirements of some junior colleges may be more appealing to certain foreign students.

It even has been suggested that junior colleges may be especially appealing to some foreign students whose American study is largely intended as a means of circumventing immigration quotas. Student visas are obtained with relative ease, and this provides the opportunity to establish permanent residence through other means.

A number of foundations and professional groups have recognized the need to assist the community colleges in establishing effective foreign student programs. Among the more active organizations are the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, the College Entrance Examination Board, and the Institute of International Education. Within a wide range of activities, these groups have been instrumental in organizing regional conferences and workshops focusing on the foreign student in the community college. The growing foreign student population in California junior colleges has also produced an important advisory body at the state level—the Committee on International Education of the California Junior College Association. In addition to sponsoring local conferences and compiling and distributing resource materials, the committee spearheaded a recent study of foreign student programs in California public junior colleges.[1] The recommendations of the study, concerning the role of the junior college and the effective discharge of this role in respect to handling foreign students, have been endorsed by the Committee on International Education.

The Study

The in-depth study of seven California junior colleges included an examination of admission policies and practices of the cooperating institutions. The selection of applicants is one of the most difficult aspects of administering a visa program at the junior college level. Processing foreign student applications, accompanied by credentials from the many different educational systems of the world, places a heavy strain on the admissions staff of most two-year colleges. It is a highly skilled area of evaluation and one in which most junior colleges have had only limited experience. The participating colleges, no doubt, reflect to a considerable extent the problems faced by junior colleges throughout the nation in establishing guidelines.

Central to the problem is the development of general criteria for admitting foreign students. Established guidelines generally reflect, in part at least, the philosophy of the individual institution in supporting a foreign student program and the resources the college is able to marshal in order to provide the special services required in an effective program. If an institution views foreign exchange as falling within the widely accepted functions of the two-year college, the administration may accept a broader cross-section of the less able foreign student applicants.[2] On the other hand, if the acceptance of foreign students is held to be outside the regular functions of the junior college, an institution may wish to impose highly selective policies of admission and limit enrollment of visa students to those with a high verbal and academic ability.

General requirements for admission: General requirements for admission varied somewhat in the seven junior colleges studied. The three most selective institutions required a candidate to have completed academic work equivalent to graduation from an accredited high school and an achievement record which places the individual in the upper one-third of his class. Three other colleges accepted students

with the equivalence of high school graduation but made no reference to class standing. A single junior college admitted foreign students under the regular college admission requirements, in which case applicants may be high school graduates or adults eighteen years of age or over. General requirements for admission, to a large extent, reflected how an institution viewed the functions of the two-year college and the philosophy of the individual institution in supporting a foreign student program.

Transfers from other American colleges: The study showed that the junior colleges either refused to consider applicants wishing to transfer from other American colleges or by conditions of admission, made it almost impossible to gain entrance. While recognizing the need to control the admission of transfers, the present policies often worked to the disadvantage of the colleges. Among transfer students, there are obviously those who have proven themselves on the American college scene and for this reason, are desirable candidates. The admission of transfer students may also assist the administrators of the program in maintaining an acceptable national balance in the campus foreign student population. *It is therefore recommended that junior colleges now denying admission to transfer applicants accept candidates in this category but control the numbers admitted by quota or a combination of quota and academic requirements.*

Foreign student quotas: Five of the seven colleges in the study had established a maximum percentage enrollment on foreign student admissions. Within this group, four institutions set the enrollment figure at 2 per cent of the full-time enrollment; the fifth college stipulated 3 per cent but preferred to maintain an enrollment closer to the 2 per cent level. Since none of the schools with quotas had reached the proposed maximums, the quota system does not appear to have worked to the disadvantage of the exchange student.

Establishing national balances within college for-

eign student populations, however, has posed a problem in three of the junior colleges. These institutions were found to be exercising arbitrary quotas on the admission of certain nationalities; a fourth school had such a protective regulation but had not found it necessary to make use of it. It was generally agreed by program directors in the surveyed colleges that a foreign exchange program should not serve primarily the educational needs of one or two national groups to the exclusion of others. Whereas the principle of maintaining a wide national representation among the foreign population is defensible, some of the methods employed by the junior colleges in the study to achieve this balance were not. *The recommendation of the study is that unless additional funding for foreign exchange programs is forthcoming from the state or federal governments, junior colleges might well limit foreign student enrollments to a maximum of 2 per cent of full-time enrollment. Furthermore, colleges faced with the problem of achieving national balances in the program should resort to establishing a maximum percentage quota not to be exceeded by any one nationality.*

Student visa versus visitor visa: Five colleges in the study legislated against admitting students who have entered the United States on visitor visas. Widespread acceptance of foreign students from among the foreign nationals already in the United States on visitor visas could encourage prospective students to come to the United States before gaining entrance to a college. Those candidates who fail to gain entrance to a college and are forced to return home disappointed are not likely to enhance the image of the United States abroad. *Therefore, it is recommended that all junior colleges adopt the policy of denying admission to foreign applicants holding visitor visas and admit only those applicants who enter the United States under the prescribed sections of the Immigration and Nationality Act for the purpose of pursuing a course of study.*

Advanced standing admissions: Admissions officers interviewed generally favored the exclusion of foreign student applicants with advanced or graduate standing from a foreign college or university. A good case, however, can be made for the admission of a visa student wishing to upgrade his academic standing, fulfill specific senior college requirements, or improve his English usage. Such an opportunity is widely recognized as one of the functions of the junior college. *It is recommended that junior colleges admit a visa student with advanced standing from a foreign university, provided the student can satisfy the admissions office that his educational goal in the United States is enhanced by further preparation at the junior college level.*

Establishing financial responsibility: Methods of establishing financial support reflected varying degrees of responsibility on the part of the college administrations. Four of the colleges required only the completion of the declaration on the Certificate of Eligibility issued by the admissions offices. Two schools additionally demanded a statement of support by the American sponsor of the visa student. One institution insisted on further evidence and required all foreign students to file with the admissions office a statement of financial responsibility certified by a bank or financial agency. In general, institutions which viewed the establishment of financial support as the prime responsibility of the Department of Immigration tended to be more liberal in their requirements. According to the Immigration and Naturalization Service, applicants must satisfy the American Consul that the necessary funds are available. At the port of entry, the responsibility for the student's financial independence shifts to the immigration authorities. Since the school has no direct responsibility in the matter from this point, *it is recommended that junior colleges simplify admission procedures by limiting proof of financial responsibility to the declaration by the student on the Certificate of Eligibility.*

Health certification: Six of the seven junior colleges surveyed insisted on a health certificate as part of the general admission requirements of visa students. Three of the schools referred the applicants to the district health office at the time of enrollment for verification of the overseas examination. Although health certification, like financial responsibility, remains the basic concern of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, the college follow-up examination works no hardship on the exchange student. More important is the matter of health and accident insurance. Only two of the schools in the study required entering foreign students to subscribe to such insurance. Medical costs in the United States are such that an illness or accident might well deplete an exchange student's finances to the point that to continue his study in the United States might be impossible. *It is therefore recommended that colleges require foreign students to obtain health and accident insurance and that it be a condition of continuing enrollment.*

Transcripts and testing: The evaluation of foreign student transcripts was found to be limited largely to establishing whether the candidates meet the minimal requirements for admission. For the most part, evaluations were handled at the local campus level, with only an occasional use of outside agencies. All the schools reported using, on occasion, the services of the large universities, but this was more often for an evaluation of credits for advanced standing than for admission purposes.

Two junior colleges were making use of overseas agencies for preliminary evaluations. The junior college with the largest foreign student population was found to be moving toward the use of aptitude tests in the selection of applicants and placing less emphasis on transcripts of past achievement.

With the exception of the one junior college, preadmission testing of foreign students was limited to an English language-proficiency examination. A single college also required, when possible, the Col-

lege Entrance Examination Board aptitude test. Institutional practices in establishing language competency of applicants varied widely. Four schools relied upon the subjective evaluations and tests administered by the American Consulates; two colleges specified the use of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (T.O.E.F.L.) in countries where it was available; and one school required a satisfactory score on the Michigan Language Test. There are obvious advantages to requiring a particular test of all applicants. The growing number of overseas test centers now make it possible to require any one of several good language tests. *It is the recommendation of the study that all junior colleges adopt a specific diagnostic language test and that college admissions officers give serious consideration to the selection of the T.O.E.F.L. test.*

Wide Variance of Standards

The study revealed rather wide variance of standards in the admission of foreign students in the seven junior colleges. The larger institutions were making serious efforts to develop more realistic and equitable standards of admission; however, there has been no organized effort by the junior colleges to establish common admission policies or to exchange admission information with other schools in the area, nor have the administrative officers interviewed expressed serious interest in cooperation of this nature. Intercollegiate cooperation has been limited to informal discussions of foreign student problems at occasional professional conferences.

The junior college is likely to play an increasingly important role in foreign exchange programs of American higher education. The multipurpose function of the two-year college should serve the needs of the foreign student studying in the United States much as it has provided for increasing numbers of American students over the past decade. The challenge remains to identify and direct those foreign

students who have a need for the specialized training and services offered by the two-year institutions.

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[1] Elliott, F. George. "Foreign Student Programs in Selected Public California Junior Colleges" (unpublished doctoral dissertation). Los Angeles: University of California, 1967.

[2] See purposes of the public junior college in *The Public Junior College, Fifty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956. p. 69.

By Clive L. Grafton

FOREIGN STUDENT PATTERNS IN AMERICAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The scope of United States community college involvement in international education has been largely unknown—a circumstance that exists in an age of expanding two-year college enrollment, increasing numbers of campuses, and an ever enlarging role for this unique type of institution. A much needed look at the American community college and its foreign student patterns has been made possible through a survey released through the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs. The survey questionnaire was distributed in 1967 by Douglas E. Matthewson, Jr. (Miami-Dade Junior College, Florida), at that time chairman of NAFSA's Junior College Committee.

Eight Patterns

Nearly 70 per cent of the nation's community colleges, both public and private, responded to all

or parts of the questionnaire. Emerging from the study were eight distinct patterns for foreign student enrollment, programs, and practices.

1. *Community colleges enroll few foreign students:* American community colleges enrolled 4.2 per cent of the little more than 100,000 foreign students enrolled in higher education in the United States. With only the undergraduate population, however, the two-year college doubles its percentage of international enrollment.

2. *Three states lead the way:* More than half (53.8 per cent) of the reported enrollment of foreign students in American junior colleges was found to be in three states: California, Michigan, and Illinois. This nearly parallels the pattern of foreign student enrollment in senior colleges and universities.

3. *Foreign students are full-time and transfer:* Foreign students enrolled in community colleges were in transfer programs in eight out of ten instances. Nine out of every ten foreign students were attending classes full time.

4. *Few colleges have special procedures for foreign students:* By and large, procedures of admission, orientation, and advisement were designated the same for foreign students as for regularly enrolled students. Major problem areas were expressed over financial status and English proficiency. Practices vary widely among the nation's two-year institutions in working with these areas.

5. *Most foreign students pay tuition:* Public or private status of the particular two-year campus did not seem to affect the fact that 94.1 per cent of the reporting institutions charge some form of tuition to foreign students. Financial aid to foreign students was indicated in a third of the institutions; this was evaluated as minimal assistance and mostly in the form of loans.

6. *Few campuses have quota systems:* Few community colleges indicated that there were established quota systems governing admission of foreign students. The pattern of geographical origin of

foreign students in two-year institutions correlates closely with the undergraduate foreign student census in all institutions of higher learning. Campuses without foreign students currently enrolled indicated that they generally would not accept more than a total of fifty, however.

7. *Few special English programs exist for foreign students:* Only a handful of American community colleges offer special English classes for foreign students. There was, however, a formal effort reported by most institutions to bring foreign students into some type of regular contact with other members of the student body and community.

8. *Community colleges like foreign students:* Nearly all the community colleges reporting foreign student enrollment indicated that the experience is gratifying for both the campus and the visitor. In spite of this feeling, only a handful of two-year colleges planned to alter current practices—and even fewer considered expanding foreign student enrollment. Support for foreign students on campuses was centered primarily with the administration, faculty, and students. The least approving and encouraging were state authorities. Campuses reported that "cultural exchange" and "broadening student thinking" were the primary advantages of having foreign students in attendance.

Generalizations

Some generalizations can be drawn from the study. It appears that community college foreign student enrollments and practices are based, primarily, on what the senior institutions are doing. Foreign students tend to be drawn to junior colleges near senior colleges and universities to which they intend to transfer. Hence, there is a clustering effect in certain key states where the senior institutions have heavy foreign student enrollments. To accommodate increased admissions of foreign students, community colleges will have to expand existing practices in financial assistance, language training,

and advisement. Since the foreign student is essentially transfer oriented, the recruitment of students for other goals of community college training would constitute a major shift in emphasis from current trends.

By William Leader

F.I.T. SERVING THE WORLD COMMUNITY

The Fashion Institute of Technology (F.I.T.) is perhaps unique among community colleges of the nation in that the community which it serves is an industry rather than a geographical area. Though F.I.T. is organized as a public two-year college under the program of the State University of New York and receives sponsorship from the City of New York, its service to the soft goods industry has no boundaries. In the twenty-five years of its existence, the college has welcomed students from throughout the U.S. and from all parts of the world.

At present, the F.I.T. student body of approximately 2,000 full-time, day-school students, includes 3 to 4 per cent from countries outside of the U.S. These students come from Brazil, Canada, Finland, Germany, Greece, Holland, Hong Kong, India, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Jamaica (W.I.), Japan, Panama, Philippines, South Africa, Syria, Turkey, Venezuela,

and West Pakistan. They follow one of the college's programs, majoring in fashion design, management engineering, textile administration and sales, interior design, fashion illustration, textile design, photography, display, or fashion buying and merchandising.

Many of the students come with previous college work; several have earned degrees from four-year colleges and universities. Their purpose in attending F.I.T. is to receive the highly specialized type of program offered at the college in order to find placement opportunities in the fashion industries. These students generally will have completed their liberal arts courses before entering F.I.T.; by then completing a specially selected series of technical courses, they may fulfill the requirements for the associate degree in one year. A large number of the foreign students fall into this category of "one-year students."

The education of foreign students is only one aspect of F.I.T.'s role in the international community. In addition, the school supports involvement by members of the social science faculty in dialogs sponsored by the State University of New York Program of International Studies and World Affairs; offerings of courses such as Introduction to World Affairs and The Far East in the Modern World; sponsorship of a college "Cosmopolitan Club" where foreign students serve as hosts to students from other countries and cultures; and other such activities.

F.I.T. also has been involved directly with official government agencies and business concerns throughout the world—unusual for a community college. In the following paragraphs, some of the specifics of this involvement will be enumerated.

During the summer of 1959, F.I.T. was invited to participate in the American Industries Fashion Presentation in Moscow. Several F.I.T. students and faculty spent the summer in this Russian city where each day they presented a showing of typical American fashions. A similar program was under-

taken at the International Clothing Exhibition in Moscow during the summer of 1967. In conjunction with the 1967 show, similar presentations were made in Warsaw and in Prague. Both programs offered an excellent opportunity for F.I.T. students to receive firsthand experiences in the Communist world and for American fashion to be brought to the people of the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, and Poland.

F.I.T. currently has undertaken a program in conjunction with the College of Distributive Trades in London, England. A group of F.I.T. students will be enrolled in the London college during the fall semester 1969 for a semester abroad. They will be registered for a full-time academic program of one-semester credit and carry courses in fashion merchandising studies, communications and human relations, and/or administration and/or supervisory skills, market research, and advertising design or copywriting. The college plans to continue this program each semester and work toward an exchange where students and perhaps faculty from both colleges will spend a semester on each others campus. Alfred V. Sloan of the F.I.T. business division is serving as coordinator of this program.

In a much more direct fashion, F.I.T. faculty have participated in the development of educational programs, served as consultants to industrial development projects, and provided extensive technical advice to various countries throughout the world.

Requests for Technical Assistance

Projects conducted in Mexico in 1961 and 1962, and visits from various Latin-American representatives to the institute have resulted in numerous requests for technical assistance from these countries. These requests specified that assistance was needed in the textile, apparel, and merchandising fields, and particularly with regard to education for these fields. Urgency was indicated; thus, under the sponsorship of the Agency for International Development (A.I.D.), a team of experts from the F.I.T. faculty

was sent to Central and South America. Its role was to investigate the status of the textile and apparel industry and to suggest ways and means of accelerating the education of personnel needed for an industry vital to economic welfare. A report of findings was submitted to the agencies concerned, and subsequent implementation of the team's proposals has taken place. The visiting team included Nathan Axelrod, business division; Ulderico Sacco, industrial management department; William Bell, coordinator of research; and Sidney Bernstein, an officer of the Educational Foundation for the Fashion Industries.

Mexico: In 1963, A.I.D. sponsored a United States Textile-Apparel Commission to Mexico. The purpose of this commission was to visit and study the textile and garment industries of Mexico and to offer suggestions for improving the production and distribution of such products in that country. Lawrence L. Bethel, then president of F.I.T., served as chairman of the commission. Arthur Price of the F.I.T. textile science department served as a technical consultant, along with several experts from the soft goods industry. The commission met with many men active in business and finance and officials of the Mexican government. They visited mills, factories, retail stores, and markets. The commission's report contains a general observation which may be applicable not only to Mexico but throughout the world. This statement is generally true in all of F.I.T.'s ventures abroad and probably could serve as preface to the role of any group of American experts in foreign lands. The statement reads:

> The scientific principles of production management are assumed to have unusual validity and should, therefore, be applicable everywhere. Yet only within limits can we attempt to transplant United States business practices and expect them to thrive as well in a very different soil and climate. Mexican business customs are an expression of the Mexican spirit. We are aware, therefore, that proposals made by foreign observers may have to be adapted to local needs rather than adopted in their entirety. Similar cultural limitations apply to us, we

realize. As observers we have been conditioned by our own way of doing things. But we are able to offer suggestions only as we can see and understand the Mexican problem. We can only attempt to bridge differences in cultures by a sensible sympathy and leave it to our Mexican friends to use our suggestions as they can.

In the summer of 1961, Dr. Bethel and Prof. Sacco visited Mexico City in order to make a study of the apparel industry and the educational programs designed for the development of personnel. In addition, they conducted a short course in educational administration and in manufacturing methods.

The following summer, three F.I.T. faculty—Prof. Sacco, Sidney Buchman of the industrial management department, and Ernestine Kopp of the apparel design department—spent three weeks in the presentation of courses, funded by A.I.D., in apparel design, cutting room practices, and sewing machine-operation training. These courses were given to teachers who in turn would be responsible for the education of apparel personnel. This project was followed in 1963 with a seven-week program in which a variety of other apparel techniques were presented. Staff was expanded to include several additional areas. As a result of these experiences, the faculty of the Escuela de Corte Y Confeccion, La Corregidora De Queretaro, extensively revamped their curricular offerings, developed a variety of educational materials, and created texts from the notes which they had taken as students of F.I.T. faculty. As the industry became aware of the new programs offered by the Escuela, they began to send their employes to the school, sought out the school's graduates, and invited the faculty of the Escuela to their plants in order to conduct training programs.

In 1967, the director of the Escuela requested that several new courses be offered by F.I.T. faculty. This was completely funded by the Mexican group.

During the summer of 1968, Eve Hartel, F.I.T. assistant professor of fashion art and design, and Lillian D'Angelo, a member of the apparel design

department at F.I.T., taught a four-week session in Monterrey, Mexico. They were engaged under the joint auspices of the National Chamber of Commerce of Monterrey and the clothing industry to instruct a specially screened group of established courturiers and dressmaking teachers in a concentrated course in apparel design. The presentation of this course was motivated by a desire of the aforementioned groups to establish Monterrey as the "fashion capitol of Mexico." Their long-term objectives included the desire to raise the economy by developing a fashion market for Mexicans as well as tourists through area resources. The course was concerned with the development of techniques for making quick fashion sketches, and the understanding of the forces which motivate fashion changes and of the basic processes involved in the development and eventual creation of a designed garment. Courses were handled in part through Mexican interpreters, although the F.I.T. instructors had some facility with Spanish.

Bernard Zamkoff, an F.I.T. teacher of apparel design, was asked by a leading clothing manufacturer of Guatemala to spend several weeks with his key employes in order to instruct them in current methods of patternmaking. Mr. Zamkoff went to Guatemala and served in this capacity over a period of four weeks during the summer of 1968. The manufacturing concern reported that a considerable improvement in their operations resulted from Mr. Zamkoff's association.

Industrial Training and Development

The Orient: Through F.I.T.'s years as an educational institution, students in fairly large numbers have come to the college from Japan, Taiwan, Thailand, Korea, Hong Kong, India, and Australia.

For the most part, these students have completed the full two-year course of study and then returned to their home countries to apply their education to the fashion industries. Former students frequently write to the college and tell of the positions of

leadership which they have secured in their own countries. Each year, F.I.T. conducts seminars for students and educators from the Orient who are concerned with the fashion industries.

In the summer of 1965, Shirley Goodman, executive vice-president of F.I.T., traveled throughout Japan where she made an extensive study of their fashion industry. Many of the visits which she made resulted in the establishment of further contacts between the institute and manufacturers, as well as educational institutions in the Orient. Recently, we had an extensive visit by the president and dean of the Bunka School of Fashion in Tokyo. This school includes some 10,000 students in Tokyo, as well as off-campus programs throughout Japan. Our visitors expressed great appreciation for the opportunity they had to make this comprehensive study of F.I.T. and assured us that many of the principles which were observed at the college would be incorporated into the program of the Bunka School. In July of 1969, the author visited the Tokyo school to conduct a study comparable to that of our Tokyo colleagues. A member of the F.I.T. faculty, Masaaki Kawashima, was on the Bunka School faculty for the summer.

Europe and Puerto Rico: During the past dozen years, Paul Berger of the industrial management department at F.I.T. has been involved in a variety of college-related projects throughout Europe and the Middle East. In these capacities and through his contacts with industry, he has been quite successful in the recruitment of students from Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Israel. In 1959, Prof. Berger was invited by the American-Scandinavian Foundation to make a survey of Denmark's educational system in order to evaluate industrial training and technical skill development in knitting, carpet manufacture, and men's shirt-manufacturing plants. Our most recent information is that Prof. Berger's study and subsequent recommendations have borne fruit in the development of an extensive educational program and an accom-

panying building plant to satisfy the technical education needs of Scandinavian youth.

Prof. Berger also was instrumental in the development of a specialized management-engineering program for Puerto Rican management trainees who were heading toward professional-level positions in the Puerto Rican apparel industry. Through the several years of this program's operation, more than 100 F.I.T. graduates of this program have been placed and are now working as managers, technicians, and supervisors in various apparel plants in Puerto Rico. Today there exists a special branch of the F.I.T. Alumni Association on the island.

Several additional F.I.T. faculty have served as senior faculty for a series of workshops conducted in Puerto Rico designed for the Puerto Rican soft goods industry.

On various trips abroad, members of the F.I.T. faculty have been specifically assigned to make studies of various components of the apparel industry and to make recommendations on educational and industrial programs which would benefit the country concerned, as well as F.I.T. and the apparel industry in America. Miss Goodman has done extensive research utilizing the resources of the Chambre Syndicale of France; the leading French couturier houses (Ricci, Givenchy, Dior, Cardin, Balmain); and a variety of educational institutions and manufacturing houses throughout France, Italy, Great Britain, and Scandinavia in order to ascertain the educational needs of these countries as these needs relate to the fashion industry, as well as to ascertain which needs would improve our own instructional programs. Various "exchange" programs are now in the planning stage or are already an actuality (e.g., F.I.T.'s program with the College of Distributive Trades) as the result of this research.

A Three-Fold Objective

Israel: Dr. Bethel and Miss Goodman were asked by official Israel bodies to visit that country in order

to ascertain the educational needs of the Israel apparel industry. This was done in 1962 and 1963; as the result of these visits, a more formal relationship was established between agencies in Israel and F.I.T. In 1965, Prof. Berger was appointed as director of the F.I.T. Israel Project. Over a period of two years, Prof. Berger (accompanied by his wife Irene, also an F.I.T. professor) worked in Israel in conjunction with various agencies, accomplishing a threefold objective: (1) establishment of an educational institute in Israel working under the aegis of the Ministry of Productivity; (2) conducting management seminars sponsored by the Techniconestension Division in Tel Aviv; (3) setting up pilot plants in order to demonstrate systems of mass production and quality control.

Additional projects initiated as the result of Prof. Berger's association were in relation to the production-planning of army uniforms, the planning of a textile engineering curriculum at Beersheba University, and various other programs designed to make the Israel apparel industry more productive, decrease production costs, and develop educational programs which would provide continuing sources of professional personnel for this industry.

In 1968 and again in the spring of 1969, Jeannette Jarnow, chairman of the fashion buying and merchandising department of F.I.T., was sent at the request of the Israel Ministry of Commerce and Industry as a marketing and merchandising expert to offer her recommendations to Israel for the improvement of marketing procedures and the education of marketing personnel.

In 1968, Prof. Jarnow surveyed all segments of Israel's fashion industry (20 per cent of their economy)—from textile producers to retailers—in order to determine their general needs, priorities, facilities, and educational programs. Prof. Jarnow researched and evaluated existing educational programs in Israel which were serving their fashion industry. She worked with representatives of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Minis-

try of Labor. As a result of her study, a plan was submitted by her to the aforementioned ministries for a comprehensive and coordinated, college-level educational program in fashion design and marketing technology to be developed in short- and long-term steps and stages according to priority needs, budgetary considerations, and the availability of faculty and facilities.

In March of 1969, Prof. Jarnow was invited to return to Israel to serve as a member of their International Fashion Committee. She has been appointed as a standing member of this committee which acts in an advisory capacity to the Israel Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

The aforementioned programs represent some of F.I.T.'s experiences in the international community. Through these endeavors, the college believes that it has made major contributions to the developing economies and living standards of the countries concerned and has brought to itself an international reputation for excellence.

By Margaret A. Kurtz

COLBY'S EAST AFRICA PROJECT

Last summer, Colby Junior College, in cooperation with Crossroads Africa, Inc., sent a team to East Africa for two months to investigate the secretarial situation, looking toward the possibility of upgrading secretarial training for Africans.

The two-member team devoted six weeks of its time to the investigation in Nairobi, Kenya, and two weeks exploring the situation in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

The project plan was carried out by a Colby graduate and an instructor from the Secretarial Science Department.

Survey of Colleges

The team visited secretarial training schools and personnel managers in industry and government in Nairobi. A list of basic questions was compiled in order to discover specific information relative to standards of training, attitude of students, and dif-

ficulties encountered by instructors, employers, and students.

Seven secretarial colleges were visited—five operated by Europeans, one by the government, and one by an Asian. Kianda College (European) and the Kenya Government Secretarial College are the only residential secretarial schools in the city. The majority of students at Queensway Secretarial College (European) and Kianda College are sponsored; that is, an industry pays tuition, board, and room, and allots spending money to each sponsored student. The student in turn is bonded, or expected to work for the sponsoring firm, for two years upon completion of her training. The Government Secretarial College trains students exclusively for work in the government and bonds them for three years. Although the remaining schools take a limited number of sponsored students, college principals found students lacking in incentive to learn in comparison to those paying for their own training.

Entrance requirements range from a Cambridge Certificate (equivalent to a U.S. high school diploma) to the K.P.E. Certificate (similar to completion of the eighth grade in the U.S.).

The length of the courses offered in each of the seven institutions varies. One sponsor has just requested that its trainees spend eighteen months in school. Most principals encourage students to remain for twelve months to complete the course. However, financial difficulty often makes this impossible. The majority of the schools allow students to enroll at the beginning of any month and remain for as long a time as they can afford, which is usually two to four months. For the most part, the secretarial colleges are trying to teach in a few months or up to one year what it takes us one to two years to accomplish on the postsecondary level.

There are approximately 790 students enrolled in the seven colleges visited, ranging from 165 students in one school down to twenty-four in another. Approximately 200 of the students are African; the majority are Asian, and the minority, European.

Since most of the institutions are operated by British-trained teachers, Pitman shorthand and typing materials are generally used. Books seemed to be lacking in the majority of them. Instructors said that they duplicated material from their own texts as students could not afford the books. Other courses reported as taught are office or secretarial practice and English. Few textbooks are used for the latter two courses. There was little evidence that much time was spent on either. One instructor told me that students begrudged the time that could not be spent on raising their speeds in shorthand and typing, since speeds in the skills largely determine the salary received. Most of our two-year secretarial programs include two years of English and one full year of secretarial or office practice.

All school principals were unanimous in the statement that the greatest difficulty in teaching Africans is their lack of background in English; however, they appeared to concur with the wishes of the students by not teaching it to any degree.

With the exception of the Government Secretarial College, there are no African commercial teachers in the schools visited. Principals said that they would be willing to hire a competent African if one became available.

The schools were well equipped with modern typewriters—Remington, Olympia, Olivetti, Imperial, and Facit. Some IBM's were used in industry but none in the schools. A limited amount of other office equipment was reported—tapes, spirit duplicators, mimeographs, and machine dictating equipment, but little of it was visible.

Standards for skills are similar to those in the U.S.—for a personal secretary, 100-120 words per minute in shorthand and 50-60 in typing; for a stenographer, 100 in shorthand and 40 in typing; for a copy typist, 80 in shorthand and 30-40 in typing.

School principals said they would welcome assistance in the teaching of typing and office practice

(telephoning, receptionist duties, filing, letter writing, etc.).

Survey of Industry

Fourteen personnel managers in industries were visited and twelve were contacted by telephone. These included such companies as Barclay's Bank, Caltex Oil (Kenya), British American Tobacco Company, East African Common Services, Esso Standard Kenya, and Kenya Shell Limited. There are fifty-five American companies in Kenya and several were contacted for our survey. Many of the American companies maintain an office with one representative and do not need a large staff.

In the twenty-six firms, there are approximately seventy-five personal secretaries employed; thirty-two are African. Of the 358 stenographers employed, 281 are African; and of the 195 copy typists, 147 are African.

For the most part, the requirements for personal secretaries in industry are similar to ours—office experience, shorthand speed of 100-120, and typing speed of 50-60 words per minute.

Standards for stenographers ranged from 80-100 words per minute for shorthand and 40-50 for typing. Copy typists are expected to have a minimum shorthand speed of 80 and to type at 30-40 words per minute.

When asked what difficulties are encountered with African secretaries, the personnel managers were unanimous in two: lack of background in English and lack of experience. The first difficulty causes problems in spelling and transcription.

Two other problems are the rapid turnover of secretaries and the necessity for granting maternity leave. After marriage, African women continue to work while raising a family. It is necessary for them to take a three-month maternity leave each time they have a child. Since Africans tend to have large families, this can be a financial problem to firms as well as a disruptive one to the office routine.

Other complaints about African secretaries are

their lack of interpersonal relationships—they have difficulty handling routine problems, employees in the office, as well as dealing with their employers. In addition, they don't make decisions easily, such as which job should be done first, etc. Other difficulties mentioned by personnel managers included: lack of initiative, loyalty to the company, personal responsibility, ability to keep confidences, and ability to follow through on a job.

Minor complaints made by personnel managers included: poor grooming, difficulty in distinguishing between British and American accents, insufficient training in skills and office procedures, interference of personal problems such as using the telephone for personal calls, and money problems due to inability to budget personal income.

When personnel managers were asked whether the companies would be willing to release an African employee for a half day or a whole day for two months and continue her salary while she attends an improvement course, all expressed an interest. The majority prefer to release an employee for a *full* day.

Survey of Government

In order to let the Kenya and U.S. governments know what we were doing and to ask for suggestions on how it should be accomplished, Kenya government officials and personnel in U.S. government positions were interviewed. The Kenya government agreed with the need for such a course for employees in private organizations. The government officials supported the proposed project as did the U.S. government officials.

Recommendations

A similar procedure was used in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The difficulties with African office employees reported did not differ greatly from those reported in Nairobi. Again, they appeared to be lacking background in English and training in secretarial procedures.

As a result of the investigation made in Nairobi and Dar es Salaam, Colby Junior College, in collaboration with Crossroads Africa, is now planning an improvement course for African office employees which will hopefully be held for two months during the summer of 1968 in Nairobi. Such a course would combine additional work on improvement in skills with emphasis on spelling, punctuation, and English mechanics. Training would also include: handling telephone calls, receptionist duties, filing, composing routine letters, office machines, human relations in business, and grooming.

This project will give Colby an opportunity to send four secretarial graduates to assist an instructor with the teaching of the course.

Longer range plans under consideration include the setting up of programs to be held simultaneously in other cities in East Africa, training African secretaries at Colby and other American colleges teaching secretarial work, and the establishment in Africa of a two-year junior college similar to Colby.

By W. Merle Hill

WHAT ONE SMALL COLLEGE CAN DO

In less than one year, the American Association of Junior Colleges, at its annual meeting in Hawaii, will be focusing attention on international education at the junior college level. Certainly, it is appropriate that our fiftieth state—a true racial melting pot—be the host for such a significant theme as international education. The growth of the new junior colleges symbolizes new educational aspirations for the multiracial students in Hawaii; international education can provide new aspiration for thousands of young people in the new and emerging nations of the world.

In the February 1967 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* various international educational thrusts were described. Most of the emphasis on international education, however, has been aimed at assisting developing and some already-developed countries to initiate community college programs.

But this emphasis has little effect on the young people attending a community or junior college in Vermont, Kansas, Texas, or Oregon. Likewise, adding a course or two on Asian or African history does little for the junior college student interested in becoming acquainted with foreign students and getting to know them well. Personal acquaintance with a foreign national and the opportunity for intimate dialogue is of much greater import for an American student than courses concerning foreign countries or the AAJC involvement with the educational systems in other countries.

In an effort to involve students in a truly international program at the personal level, Christian College in Columbia, Missouri, decided to offer a program of foreign student scholarships for the 1968-69 academic year. Since transportation and educational expenses for the foreign student are almost prohibitive, we decided to offer tuition and room scholarships worth $2,325. The only fee to be charged to the foreign students was $375 for their board bills.

Although a number of our staff members had contacts abroad, the decision was made to work through an already functioning agency in an attempt to publicize the foreign student scholarships and to attract quality applicants. The Experiment in International Living in Putney, Vermont, was kind enough to accept the challenge of recruiting qualified foreign applicants. It was indeed a challenge because we did not communicate our wishes to the Experiment office until June 15, and we wanted the students on campus by August 28 for an orientation program. Since time was extremely short, we decided at the outset to accept any student referred to us by the Experiment in International Living. The Experiment referrals are all cleared in their home countries, and many have had American "Experimenters" live in their homes abroad. We knew in advance, therefore, that the referrals from

Putney would be well-qualified and highly motivated students.

Although the Experiment officials had already made all of their own assignments for 1968-69, they went to work immediately, contacted their offices abroad, and within two weeks started sending the names of applicants to Christian College. Thanks to the Experiment's outstanding work, we had received and accepted applications from twelve students in nine countries by August 20, 1968. We also offered similar resident scholarships to a student from Thailand who had been a day student at Christian College the previous semester and to a student from Germany referred to us by a friend. In addition, a day student scholarship was offered to a young woman from Iran whose husband was enrolled at the University of Missouri. In all, there were two students from Chile, three from Sweden, and one each from Argentina, Norway, Denmark, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Thailand, Japan, and Iran.

Due to lack of airline space and late notification of the awarded scholarships, five of the young women were not able to arrive on August 28. However, all fifteen very excited students were here by September 1 and participated in the regular student orientation. The fastest traveler was from Japan. She learned that she had been awarded the scholarship on August 25 and arrived in Columbia, Missouri, on August 28!

To give maximum exposure to the foreign students, they were assigned to all residence halls. Thus, every native student had the opportunity to meet and know several visitors from abroad. The youngest foreign student was not quite seventeen, and the oldest was nineteen. Five of the young women had had some university experience at home, and the remainder were from the twelfth or thirteenth grades in their secondary schools.

The language barrier was more psychological for the foreign students than it was real. In a very

short time they became accustomed to the peculiarities of regional American speech patterns, although the Southern "drawl" of students from Arkansas and Texas caused some concern. Like all second-language students, they thought native American speech was extremely rapid, especially in classes where they were exposed to considerable lecturing.

All fifteen students were enrolled in English composition, but the similarity of courses stopped there as their individuality, interests, and career goals led them to choose courses as varied as art and zoology, secretarial training and chemistry. By the end of the first semester, five of the students from abroad were on the dean's list with a "B" or better average, and the composite grade point average for all fifteen students was 2.63 on a 4.0 scale.

Significant Dimension

We believe that these young women have added a significant dimension to our educational program—a dimension far greater than would be possible by offering courses in European, Asian, or South American studies. International education cannot be easily emphasized in chemistry, mathematics, secretarial training, or American history, but the international understanding of American students may be significantly enhanced by having them live, study, and attend classes with foreign students.

Most private junior colleges have empty beds in their residence halls and can easily afford to provide the same kind of scholarship assistance being provided at Christian College. Most community-junior colleges could find homes for their foreign guests and, in doing so, would be providing for true international education both on and off campus. Providing scholarships for literally hundreds of foreign students will do more for international understanding than any other aspect of college programs.

By Roger Yarrington

REPORT OF THE 1970 AAJC INTERNATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Forty-five participants from eighteen countries met February 26 through March 5 in Honolulu for the first International Assembly on Manpower Development sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges.

The first four days were spent in discussions at the East-West Center on the University of Hawaii campus. Beginning March 2, the Assembly joined the fiftieth anniversary convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges at the Hawaiian Village Hotel. Several Assembly sessions were held during the convention, some involving participation by convention delegates.

Program schedules were flexible. The initial presentations were carefully planned, but later sessions were left unstructured so that developments in the early discussions could be followed up as needed.

All of the discussions were characterized by high

interest and participation. The talk heard in the sessions was the talk of knowledgeable educators who understood one another and who found they had a good many things in common. The questions asked, the problems raised, were familiar and tough.

Middle-level manpower development was identified as a challenge in each country, no matter to what level its technology had developed. And throughout the discussions there was stressed a concern that the education of persons for careers in modern technology not overlook the humanistic learning that should accompany the learning of specific job skills. This philosophical approach to education was accompanied by hard practical concerns such as methods of forecasting manpower needs, ways of financing and governing the development of new educational institutions, and where good teachers can be found for comprehensive colleges.

The educators who participated in these sessions came from Australia, Canada, Ceylon, Republic of China, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Korea, Lebanon, Pakistan, Philippines,, Samoa, Singapore, Thailand, U.S.A., and Vietnam. There were also some thirty official observers, including members of the AAJC Committee on International Education.

Need for Communication

At the end of their discussions the participants unanimously adopted two resolutions summing up a persistent theme in the Assembly: the need for continued international communication. The resolutions were developed by a committee with membership representing each national delegation and chaired by Won Sul Lee of Korea.

One resolution expressed appreciation to the Association and the other organizations which helped support the Assembly and stated:

A measure of the success of the Assembly is the desire expressed by all the participants for some form of con-

tinuing collaboration between the participants from the participating countries and the AAJC to facilitate exchange of information on matters related to the community/junior college concept and education for manpower development.

The other resolution also spoke of the need of continuing the lines of communication established by the Assembly and urged that AAJC establish an office:

1. To develop correspondence between and among participants of this International Assembly and additional persons and agencies in other countries interested in this exchange of information and as it becomes desirable, to invite additional participants from some of the countries attending the Assembly and other countries
2. To circulate to participants and others papers of interest concerning junior colleges and other educational matters
3. To encourage various approaches to strengthening communications including visits to the interested countries, exchanges of curricular development materials, the facilitation of joint planning of regional or international projects, and the convening of future International Assemblies, which may assist in the furtherance of the objectives of this Assembly.

All Pioneers

Everett M. Woodman, serving as president of the Association, opened the Assembly by stating: "We are all pioneering . . . we are all trying something new." Dr. Woodman added that "like all pioneers, we cannot see the end of our journey. But we know there is only one direction we can go, and our paths are together."

A welcome also was given by Minoru Shinoda, acting chancellor of the East-West Center, and by Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., executive director of the Association. Dr. Gleazer said the Assembly was "the consummation of a dream." Never before had there been an opportunity for an international discussion about junior colleges. He described briefly American community junior colleges and said that his travels abroad indicated there were several problems shared by two-year colleges in the U.S. and

institutions offering similar educational programs in other countries: lack of prestige for vocational-technical programs, how to finance the institutions, and where to get qualified faculty members with an interest in such institutions.

Small group seminars with opportunity for open discussion followed four additional presentations briefly setting forth facets of the U.S. community junior college.

Donald A. Eldridge, president of Bennett College and chairman of the AAJC Committee on International Education, described the role of the private junior college in America, and noted that many of them emphasize international studies and would have a genuine interest in the advice of Assembly participants on how such programs could be strengthened.

The relation of junior colleges to other institutions of higher education and the two-year college's transfer function were discussed by Leland L. Medsker, director of the Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California at Berkeley. He stated that social pressures in the U.S. urged the creation of more junior colleges, and this fact was changing the mix on university campuses where there are more graduate and upper-division students and fewer lower-division students. Transfer of junior college students to universities is generally based on the students' records in junior college, not high school, he said. The record of such students in universities is usually very good. One of the continuing problems in this area, he added, is the danger that the transfer function will overshadow other programs in the junior college.

Norman C. Harris, professor of technical education at the University of Michigan, explained technical, occupational, and preprofessional education in junior colleges. He said the demand for middle manpower—semiprofessional, technical, and highly skilled workers—was increasing. Both cognitive and manipulative skills are needed for such jobs. He out-

lined three levels of rigor in occupational programs: *associate degree* (semiprofessional), two full years or more, not open door; *certificate level* (highly skilled), two years or shorter, more manipulative skills with less general education, tend to be open door; and *developmental* (remedial) for students not prepared for college-level work, basic communication and math skills, and short-term job training offered, the student may move to other programs if successful. In addition, junior colleges offer preprofessional (transfer) programs which parallel the first two years of university work. He said the value of such comprehensive offerings in one institution depends greatly on good counseling and guidance services which are an essential part of the community junior college idea.

College services to the community were described by Bill J. Priest, chancellor of Dallas County Junior College District in Texas. He said the services offered by good two-year colleges to their communities were diverse because of the many different communities and needs. And he pointed out that this diversity would be even greater in the various communities of the world. The clientele for community services is huge, he said. All persons in the community are possible recipients of the college's services.

Understanding the Philosophy

The small group seminars pursued the topics discussed above and quickly revealed the participants had an understanding of the philosophy of the comprehensive community college.* They wanted specific information on how such institutions were made to work. Always there were comparisons made as participants shared how particular problems were handled in their countries. It was understood that while the American junior college might provide

*Reporters for these and other concurrent sessions were Walter Garcia, William Irvine, Joseph Jacobsen, Seldon Menefee, Raymond Schultz, and Pamela Holland.

some ideas for manpower development in other countries, ideas could also be found in the educational systems of each of the countries represented at the Assembly.

For example, in the seminar that followed Professor Harris' discussion on technical education, there was a question on the use of advisory committees made up of community representatives. A general discussion of the use of advisory committees in various places such as Hong Kong and Canada followed. The same kind of discussion developed around questions regarding the level of pay for teachers in technical subjects as compared to teachers in traditional academic subjects and as compared to persons in industry, the use of part-time instructors, in-service improvement programs for faculty, and possibilities for improving the status of occupational education programs.

The question of follow-up on the discussions in the Assembly arose early in the seminar on the role of the private junior college when a participant from the Philippines asked how such future communication would be handled. He proposed consideration be given to an international organization to serve as a clearinghouse.

Some Common Themes

Some themes ran through several of the seminars. The problem of financing higher education was one of them. Several of the representatives from developing countries, particularly Korea, sought suggestions on how countries faced with difficulties in supporting existing institutions could finance new kinds of institutions. The organization and governance of higher education was also discussed in several of the small group sessions. For example, the seminar following Edmund Gleazer's presentation became involved in a lengthy discussion of the relation of political decisions to educational policy, particularly in countries where educational governance is highly centralized. The seminar following

the presentation on community services also became involved in a discussion of relationships between government and education, particularly in the determination of national manpower needs and educational priorities. Junior college relationships with universities and the attitudes of university faculty created a similar discussion in the seminar following Leland Medsker's talk. Problems of transfer were described by various countries. A participant from Thailand noted that even transfer between four-year colleges was difficult in his country. And a participant from Japan, where there are 475 junior colleges and where the junior college has existed for twenty years, stated the transfer problem still exists, particularly in regard to the top universities where there are only a small number of spaces and strict entrance requirements.

A response and reaction to the discussions of the first day was presented by Arthur Goodfriend, author, educator, and former foreign service officer. He was particularly impressed with the concern that had been expressed for humanistic input in technical education programs and the achievement of status for occupational education. He said there may be hope for some progress in the latter area through the current trend of many youth wishing to return to a more simple—a more primitive—life style. There may be a new willingness to work with one's hands, accompanied by less interest in money and more concern for satisfaction in living, he said. Conventional education patterns will become obsolete, he added, unless they can satisfy both manpower needs and man's needs for his own self-fulfillment. Mr. Goodfriend praised the attempt of the Assembly, in the spirit of the International Education Year, to see over each nation's own culture and to look at the international aspects of manpower development. He used a series of African sayings to offer some cautions as well as encouragement:

"An orange tree does not produce a lime." The junior college is an American fruit. What is grown in each country must be indigenous.

"A snake does not measure its shadow against the rainbow." Developing nations must measure their efforts in manpower development against their own traditions.

"Be sure you have a lizard in the pot before you invite your mother-in-law to eat lizard." Do not hold out expectations that cannot be fulfilled.

"An elephant does not grow in a day." It will take awhile for some of the developments discussed to come to pass in some of the countries represented.

"Two deer walk together in order to blow the dust from each others eyes." May the participants in the Assembly continue to blow some misconceptions from each other's eyes.

Papers and Summaries

Papers prepared before the Assembly by each national group and summary remarks presented during the second day of the Assembly reemphasized the concern of each nation for efficient educational development. Ambassador Horace H. Smith, overseas program coordinator, Bennett College, New York, and Assembly coordinator, presided. The participant speaking for India suggested that education must be considered a national investment and that it is indispensible. A nation, particularly a developing country, he said, should not feel it has overinvested even if there is temporary unemployment. And there was a reemphasis of the need for general education in all technical programs. "Be human before being a professional man," was a saying reported by a participant from Japan. The same idea was supported by a participant from Ceylon who pointed out that education in his country was aimed not only in providing skills but also changes in attitudes—changes in the person. Problems in the mechanics of transfer and of status in relationship to other institutions were again underlined by participants from Iran and Australia. Countries with junior colleges in operation, such as Canada, Japan, and India, described how their systems work.

New problems were raised such as a question

from a participant from Thailand: "How do you encourage persons in the community to support the community college? Everyone wants education for their children, but not everyone is willing to support education financially. How do you get the cooperation of the people in the community?" And a participant from Korea made the observation that the various Asian delegations had many problems in common and raised again the question: How can these common interests continue to be shared?

Government and Education

A second set of concurrent seminars made it possible for participants to discuss in small groups privately supported education, publicly supported education, and governmental functions. The latter group, made up of representatives from governments, was chaired by Preston Valien, deputy associate commissioner for higher education, U.S. Office of Education, substituting for U.S. Commissioner of Education James E. Allen, Jr., who was unable to attend. He explained the U.S. pattern which does not involve a national system of higher education but rather federal involvement on a program funding basis. Discussion in the seminar indicated most national governments are involved in some way in providing coordination, setting of priorities, some technical assistance, and even the establishment of standards, although patterns vary. India and Australia reported systems similar to the U.S., while the participant from Ceylon described a highly centralized system, including a national system of junior college development. It seemed to be generally agreed that national governments tend to become more involved in education, and consequently, more in control, because there tend to be more funds available at the national level.

Rhea M. Eckel, president of Cazenovia College, New York, presided at the seminar on private institutions which discussed several questions, including one raised by a participant from Indonesia on the advisability of trying to change existing educa-

tional institutions to meet new needs as opposed to starting new institutions. In the same vein a participant from Thailand asked about the need for institutions with a single specialty as opposed to or supplemented by comprehensive colleges.

Problems shared in the seminar for public institutions, chaired by Charles E. Chapman, president of Cuyahoga Community College, Ohio, included those of Vietnam where there may be overspecialization. Each agency of the government there has its own training institutions. And a participant from Pakistan stated 90 per cent of the students in his country pursue liberal arts majors, which is unrealistic in the light of manpower needs. However, comprehensive high schools are being established and offer additional opportunities in vocational areas.

At a luncheon meeting several participants in the Assembly were asked to describe in some detail the developments in their countries. Jacques Fournier, project administrator, Canadian Commission for the Community College, Toronto, outlined the study currently underway in his country which may lead to the establishment of an association of junior colleges there, similar perhaps to the associations that exist in the U.S. and Japan. The commission is conducting its exploration of the need for such an association under a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

The participant speaking for the Korean group said there were twenty junior colleges in that country, all privately supported, as well as twenty-three junior technical colleges which combine the upper secondary years and lower-division college years. In Ceylon, according to its participant's report, comprehensive junior colleges are being developed by looking for occupational areas not already covered by other training programs and grouping these together in new institutions being established by that government.

In India, two states have junior colleges. Several hundred have been established, mostly to relieve

pressures on the universities. Consequently, most have adopted the curriculums of the liberal arts colleges. The main problems are staffing, financing, and lack of community interest in the curriculums. The junior college idea is well known in India, the speaker stated. There is much interest in the U.S. model, but there is also a realization that the situation is different in India, and the model must be adapted to the needs of each state in that country. The participant reporting for Iran stated the junior college idea has taken hold there, too, but not because of a demand from students or the universities but rather through a developmental plan in response to recognized manpower needs.

What Is a Community?

Another open-ended discussion at the close of the second afternoon provided opportunity for additional comments and questions. The participant from Samoa acknowledged that there are no junior colleges in her country, but she raised a question on how states decide whether to charge tuition fees in their junior college systems. That began a debate among American representatives on the advisability of fees. One side argued for free access as a service to the entire community, while the other held for small fees to reduce the number of persons who register but do not appear for classes. The delegate from Singapore described the bond system in use there where students using the bond must be admitted but repayment cannot be enforced.

A participant from Korea raised the provocative question of what constitutes the community in the term "community college"? He pointed out that in the U.S.A. it tends to mean geographic or economic areas, but in Asian countries kinship relationships are often more important.

One effect of the discussions was revealed by a participant from South Vietnam who reminded those present that at the beginning of the Assembly he had stated that there were no junior colleges in his country but after listening to the discussions, he

realized there were institutions performing many of the functions attributed to junior colleges. However, he said, the need existed for programs that utilized more of the ideas expressed in the Assembly.

Specific Step Suggested

William G. Shannon, associate executive director of AAJC, spoke at the Assembly banquet and summed up the discussions to that point by stating that the questions raised had revolved around how education should be organized, which programs a technological society should establish to take care of future manpower needs, and how limited resources can be used to the best advantage. There was, he said, an acceptance of the idea of democratizing higher education and accepting the accompanying responsibility for providing meaningful education for all. He felt there was interest in looking at the alternative ways of opening the doors of education. And he sensed a willingness to keep the best of the past but also to turn down new paths if necessary.

In an effort to provide a specific suggestion for the future, Dr. Shannon proposed international experimentation in the health-related occupational education fields. There are needs for trained manpower in such fields as nursing, dental technicians, medical technicians, X-ray technicians in most countries, he said. Perhaps a beginning step in sharing methods of manpower development would be to focus on this field and begin sharing information, ideas, and materials across national boundaries. Regional demonstration centers could be set up with possible help from other agencies such as the World Health Organization. He suggested that such an idea could also be used in fields such as the travel-hospitality industry and agriculture.

This suggestion was seconded the following day by Robert Kinsinger of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation when several observers were invited to share their reactions to the discussions. And Ted D. Morse, AID representative in Indonesia, suggested a fur-

ther refinement might be a focus on population control problems. He said countries in Asia realized the need of middle-level manpower; the failure of five-year plans in a number of countries was due to the lack of technical training at that level.

A participant from Iran suggested the spirit of the Assembly should be infused into the curriculum of the junior college itself. International education should become one of the basic parts of all junior college education, he said.

Continuation of the Assembly dialog became a dominant theme in the discussion as the meeting drew to a close. C. Earle Hoshall, deputy assistant director of higher education, AID, Vietnam, suggested that a similar meeting be held next year in Asia. Delegates from Vietnam, Australia, Lebanon, Thailand, and Korea urged various ways of facilitating a continuing exchange of information. A participant from Korea, Dr. Lee, proposed a committee be appointed to present specific suggestions during a session that would meet the last day of the AAJC convention. He was appointed chairman and his committee, made up of one person from each of the national delegations, developed the resolutions referred to at the beginning of this article.

AAJC Convention Sessions

Additional sessions of the Assembly were held during the AAJC convention which followed. During the first of these, sponsored by the Association's Committee on International Education, several ideas were proposed for broadening international education curriculums in junior colleges. A delegate from the Philippines suggested the need for revision of textbooks to incorporate information on other countries wherever the opportunity exists, such as in sociology and economics texts. He also suggested the translation of more national documents for study by junior college students.

Joseph M. Jacobsen of the AAJC International Education Committee and foreign student adviser at City College of San Francisco, suggested better use

of students from abroad to bring the international dimension into the junior college classroom. His college sponsors an International Day and helps foreign students appear on programs at feeder high schools. He suggested U.S. Information Agency posts would welcome catalogs from American junior colleges. And he reported that his college belongs to a consortium in the Bay Area which works with the Institute on International Education to bring students from abroad for technical education programs only. Also, he said, foreign students can be utilized as resource persons for information on junior colleges after they return home.

Other suggestions included strengthening foreign language instruction and exchanges of faculty. A participant from Australia suggested community colleges look for funds for such exchanges within their own communities and conduct the programs on a continuing institution-to-institution basis.

A luncheon meeting for Assembly delegates during the convention week was addressed by John M. Allison, former ambassador to several Asian countries, who said he expects a newer, lower posture by the U.S. government in Asia in the months ahead. There will probably be a renewal of emphasis on the influence of private agencies working in Asia and less on the government, he said. Education is one such private agency, Ambassador Allison added, and this new climate will present an opportunity for the interest in junior college education evidenced at the Assembly to be a force in bringing people together.

"International Prospects for Junior College Education" was the title of a forum on the convention program which involved Assembly participants as well as other persons attending the annual meeting of the Association. The discussion centered on methods of exchanging information, primarily through exchanges of correspondence and persons. The limitations of correspondence were recognized, but several participants expressed interest in correspondence between students, faculty, and administrators,

as well as officials in government agencies. There were general requests for materials on junior colleges. Descriptive materials, particularly on curriculums and organizational structures, were requested. It was generally agreed that the *Junior College Journal* should have a larger international circulation. But most important, according to a number of participants, is the opportunity for personal contacts, primarily through exchanges of educators. Participants from Ceylon spoke of the help they have received in recent years from several junior college experts from the U.S. who assisted in the establishment of a junior college system in that country. Others spoke of the need for educators in their countries to have the opportunity to see and teach in junior colleges where they exist in other countries.

Informality and Flexibility

The final session involving Assembly participants was the meeting at which the two resolutions referred to above were presented and adopted. Various participants took the opportunity to express appreciation for the Assembly, particularly for its informality and flexibility.

William Shannon, speaking for the Association, assured participants that communication would continue and that efforts would be made to follow through with the recommendations made.

Participants to the Assembly had the opportunity during the week to visit with more than 2,700 persons registered for the AAJC convention and to attend the convention sessions. There were also tours of community colleges in the Honolulu Area.

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