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ABSTRACT

Current issues in vocational education are explored in 12 articles written by present and former graduate students at University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA). The titles of the articles are: 2001: A Vocational Education Odyssey; What Is This RAVE in Vocational Education?; Opportunity, Achievement, and Black Americans: A Challenge for Vocational Leadership; Industry's Role in the Preparation of the Workforce; Proprietary Schools: Future Partner in Vocational Education?; Older Adults: The Needs of a New Minority; Shaping the Future of Vocational Education Programs with Formative Evaluation; Conflict in California Education: Causal Factors and a Proposal to Reduce Its Intensity; The Workplace As a Vocational Education Classroom: A Changing Relationship; Vocational Education and Foreign Language; Articulation: A Compelling Lifeline for the Future of Vocational Education; and Our Changing Image. Notes on the contributors are included at the end. (LMS)

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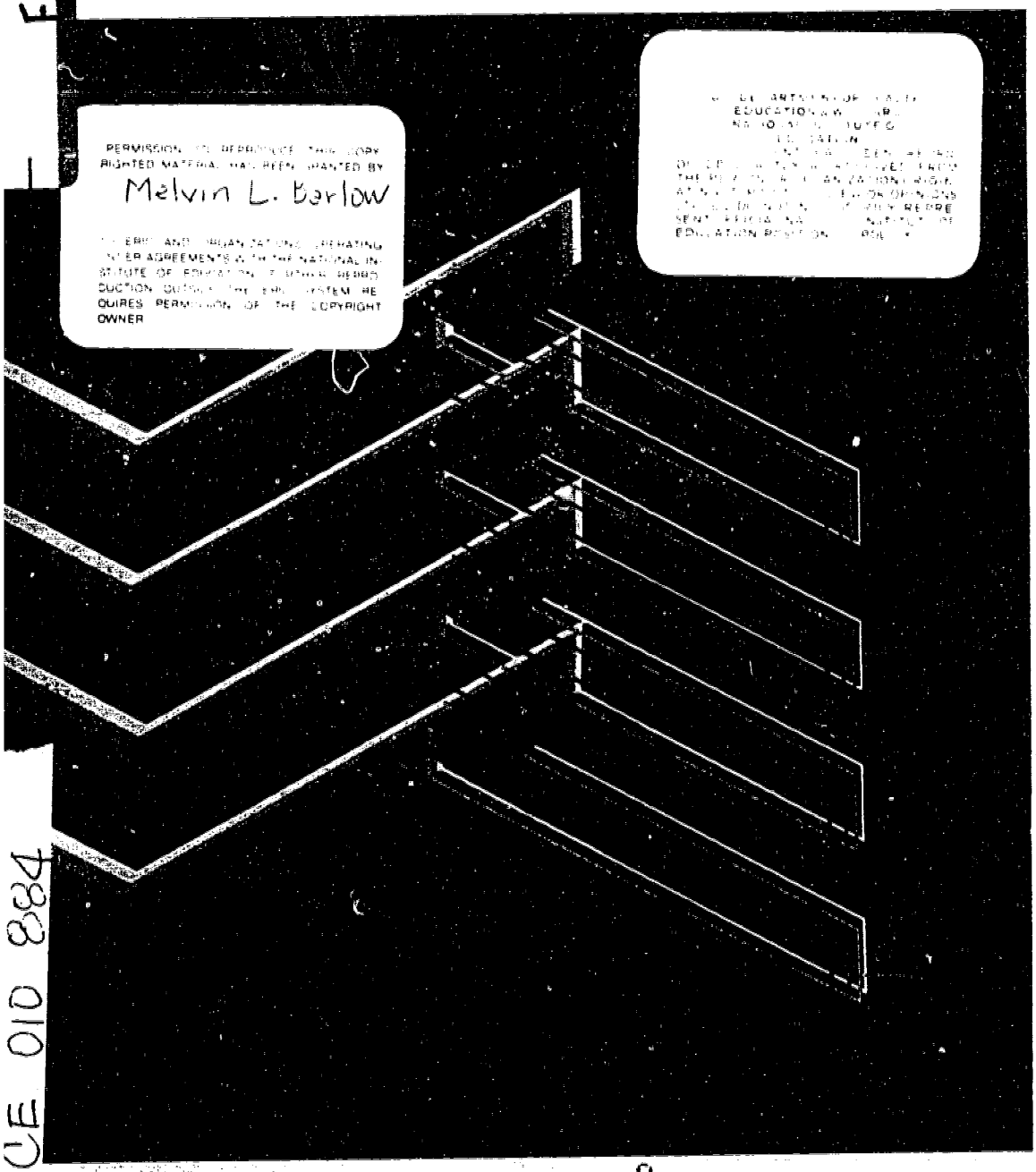
NEW PERSPECTIVES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION



New Perspectives in Vocational Education

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NEW PERSPECTIVES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

Over the past seven years at UCLA, the Education Professions Development Act has provided a unique opportunity for graduate students to pursue an advanced degree, with a major emphasis in vocational education. Not only has the EPDA provided the financial assistance and encouragement to permit a full commitment to graduate study, it has emphasized the extra-curricular activities that make this not just "another graduate program" lost in the milieu of a large urban university. Indeed the students come to the program with a wide array of previous educational experiences to use as foundation stones upon which to build their expertise during their stay at the university.

This first issue of *New Perspectives in Vocational Education* is an outgrowth of the leadership skills the program hopes to engender into its participants.

Every effort has been made to design the format of this first issue to look as professional as possible. We who have been close to the development of the journal feel this will enhance the visibility of the individual contributors, but equally as important it should establish the high quality standards that will be maintained in any future issues. Our hope would be that ultimately *New Perspectives in Vocational Education* will become at least an annual publication from UCLA's Graduate School of Education.

Vocational education in the United States today is on the threshold of its most significant contribution to society since its "official" inception in 1917. Indeed, the passage of the new federal legislation of 1976 holds every promise of shaping American education for the next decade. Not only shaping the vocational aspects of education, but spearheading the involvement with new and emerging cultural imperatives for our population. New mandates for equal opportunities for women, energy education, bilingual education, and a host of other significant issues create a wide vista for the future vocational educator occupying a leadership position.

It is just such issues of the future that are addressed by the individual authors in this publication. Teaching vocational classes in a bilingual (Spanish) situation is explored and many interesting side issues relating to it are explained. Aging Americans are an oft neglected group. They have skill training needs too, and this topic is dealt with in one article. "What About Proprietary Schools"? Are they a full partner in the total vocational effort usually thought of as being a public function? What forms of delivery system administration are most effective? Will a RAVE Council-type of area planning help to improve coordination among diverse groups of trainers?

Challenges abound, and they are explored in this journal. The future of our society, and especially of our young people, is far too precious to consider doing anything less than meeting the challenges.

It is our sincere hope that *New Perspectives in Vocational Education* will make some contribution to this end.

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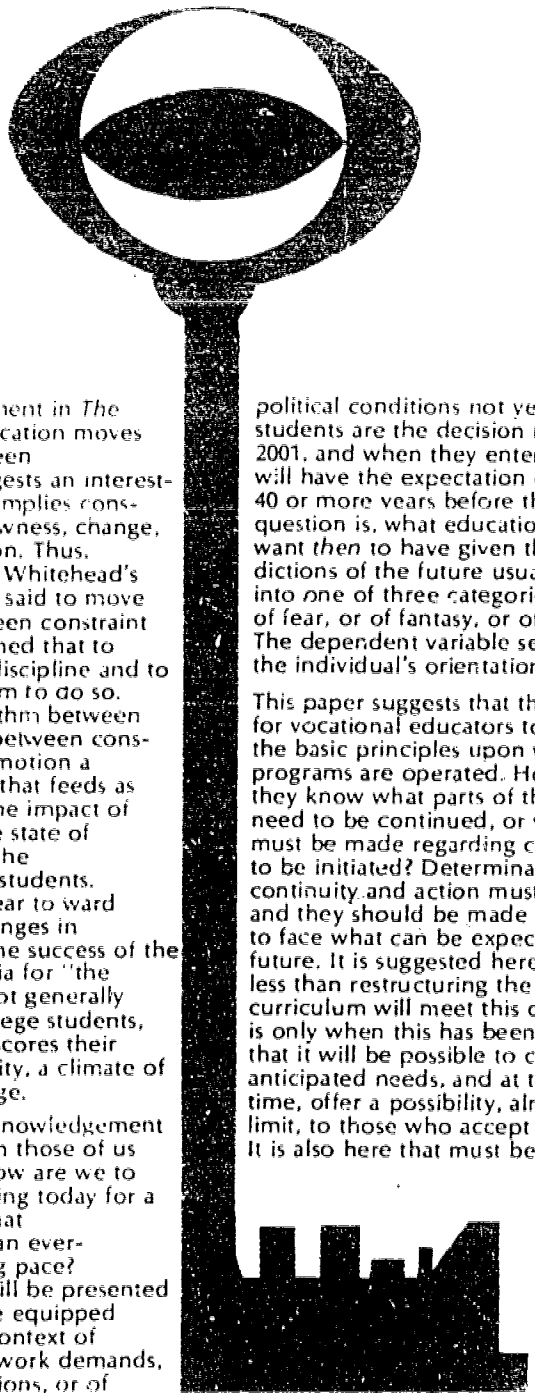
2001: A VOCATIONAL ODYSSEY



Paul A. Bott

Whitehead's (1949) statement in *The Aims of Education* that education moves in rhythmic interplay between continuity and change suggests an interesting corollary: if continuity implies constraint since it proscribes newness, change, by definition, requires action. Thus, venturing one step beyond Whitehead's position, education may be said to move in rhythmic interplay between constraint and action. It may be assumed that to remain the same requires discipline and to change requires the freedom to do so. In education, then, this rhythm between discipline and freedom — between constraint and action — sets in motion a progressively upward cycle that feeds as well on the environment, the impact of social and global forces, the state of business and industry, and the personalities of faculty and students. Students, in particular, appear to ward off notions of extensive changes in the contemporary world. The success of the media in recreating nostalgia for "the good old days" — a time not generally either that good or, for college students, that recognizable — underscores their yearning for a certain stability, a climate of familiarity rather than change.

If the pace, or even the acknowledgement of change seems to threaten those of us born in the 30's and 40's, how are we to prepare those we are teaching today for a world that will move into that upward cycle of change at an ever-increasing, possible dizzying pace? Those who come after us will be presented with situations they must be equipped to handle, whether in the context of unforeseeable societal and work demands, of as yet undreamed inventions, or of political conditions not yet existing. Those students are the decision makers of the year 2001, and when they enter their 40's, they will have the expectation of another 40 or more years before them. The question is, what education would we want *then* to have given them *now*? Predictions of the future usually seem to fall into one of three categories: projections of fear, or of fantasy, or of freedom. The dependent variable seems to be the individual's orientation toward change.

This paper suggests that the time is now for vocational educators to re-examine the basic principles upon which their programs are operated. How else will they know what parts of their programs need to be continued, or what decisions must be made regarding changes that need to be initiated? Determinations between continuity and action must be made -- and they should be made now — in order to face what can be expected in the future. It is suggested here that nothing less than restructuring the vocational curriculum will meet this challenge; it is only when this has been accomplished that it will be possible to clarify the anticipated needs, and at the same time, offer a possibility, almost without limit, to those who accept the challenge. It is also here that must be acknowledged

the ethical and moral formation of spirit needed to penetrate to the core of the vocational curriculum. When looking to the future, the temptation to introduce social concerns of value to all humanity can scarcely be ignored; and, even as facets of life of the future must be confronted while thinking about people around the globe, so too must consideration for the people down the street be kept firmly in mind. But for both perspectives, we may have need to call out the heavens for action — for vengeance will certainly follow swiftly if we do not.

Before attempting a list of some 10 situations that we must face, indeed cope with in the future, the philosophical questions upon which these situations rest must be stated: Who will be concerned about the physical environment in light of everyday, dazzling technological developments? Who will formulate the ethical decisions on the manipulation of life through medicine and the health sciences? And who will make the moral decisions in the field of economics that will affect children who will live below the subsistence level, particularly those among ethnic minorities?

It is the area of economics that brings us to our first glimpse into the future, and it is already with us: automation today provides direct links from stores to banks, checking credit, recording transactions, handling the entire process of money dealings. In essence, money in the form of cash is already passé. Immediately beyond lies the second situation: automation in our present society is beginning to cut down on the need for a workforce; over time, a society might emerge in which nonwork, or leisure, is ennobling.

The third situation inevitably supposes that in the year 2001, the majority of working people may be technicians or maintenance personnel. The highly educated are likely either to be engaged in research and development or they will be in leadership positions requiring problem-solving and decision-making capabilities.

The fourth situation suggests that five/sixths of our country's people will be urban dwellers on two percent of the land. About half the population will be located in 12 states comprising only 10 percent of the land.

Number five deals with climate control. It seems clear that climate control will operate in spectacular fashion. In fact, no further breakthroughs in technology are needed, for example, for huge nuclear reactors to generate heat capable of repelling smog at 19,000 in areas such as the Los Angeles Basin. This in turn will create a sea breeze below bringing rain and making deserts bloom as far inland as Las Vegas.

Number six concerns the drain on natural resources due to increasing populations and higher standards of living. Mining the sea, reclaiming minerals from junk, and producing mineral substitutions may be considered as solutions to alleviate the world's imbalance of important ores.

Number seven recognizes the power and precision of the laser beam and the vital part this tool will play in the fields of medicine, technology, and communication.

Number eight bears on the information that permanent stations have been planned by scientists for establishment on nearby planets by 1990. Today's newspapers already proclaim the successful exploration of Mars. Will the year 2001 see these stations manned? (peopled?)

Number nine focuses on new discoveries made in genetics, biochemistry, psychology, and medical engineering. These areas of specialized knowledge will open the creation of human life and its development to external management.

Number ten relates specifically to education; the format of the educational enterprise may be changed so that schooling will be transmitted into homes and community learning centers. The act of learning *per se* may become a lifetime occupation in support of the three or four distinctive careers or professions men and women will pursue during their lifetime.

Arbitrarily selected as these 10 points are, further illustrations of how the world will change in the next 25 years may be spun out indefinitely. But whatever the face of the future — whatever the issues that must be confronted — the

basic question remains the same: How are we anticipating the needs of the time ahead in our schools today? In order to address this question and put it into clear focus, we should remember that the rhythm between constraint and freedom requires continual interplay between both; indeed, self-constraint rises from voluntary choices, while freedom is enriched, stimulated, and directed through the constraints. Such interfacing achieves an integration of all the parts comprising the educational enterprise. Thus, to be able to follow the movement of the upward cycle described at the beginning of this paper, we should first examine the concept of continuity in education; we should look closely at the limitations and constraints implied within the concepts.

Constraints on all education, whether public or private, local or national, are relatively similar. Yet, it is the manner in which the schools will cope with these demands upon themselves that will determine the survival of current cultural values into the new age. It may be argued here that these cultural values will not be adequate or appropriate for the future, but we must, of necessity, address those values that we know now, that we teach now. To move forward, then, each educator should discover for him or herself that these constraints, within our present cultural context, actually harbor the solutions and the strategies to prepare a generation of decision makers for their role in year 2001.

A partial list of the most prevalent educational constraints we are grappling with today must include,

- Insufficient funds
- Required (and uninspired) subject matter and curricula
- Traditional practices (established through resistance to change)
- Insularity (and personal distance between administrators, faculty, students, and the real world)

To work these major constraints on the educational system of our day into educational advantages for the future may require an energy, a courage, and a willingness to take risks that appear threatening to present-day educators, at least at first consideration.

Strategy for growth requires, at minimum, an intellectual assent to the fact of change. It demands a willingness to move into new areas with new objectives, pushing each moment within its presently comfortable framework beyond what is familiar and painless. If there are solutions to existing problems, does anyone know them? Are solutions offered anywhere? The question really becomes, is it not true that solutions can be created only if real efforts are made to create them? And it is precisely therein that the first of the painful realizations must be confronted: if education is a process, a becoming, an incomplete, open-ended experience, it requires not just constant reaction, but the creation of options as well. Yet educators, including vocational educators, seemingly reject this notion. The usual approach to the solution of problems fits the formula of stating objectives, prescribing actions, obtaining results, and initiating evaluation, the entire sequence preplanned and prescheduled. An acquiescence to the notion of "becoming" produces a freedom for discovery, and thus, the creation of options.

The remainder of this paper will present reflections that are intended to address these issues. They are meant to serve only as illustrations, not to be accepted or rejected as absolutes. They constitute some samples of the many options open to creative schools and innovative educators *if* they are to rid themselves of that which is preplanned and prescheduled in today's programs. The reflections that follow are an exercise in the exploration of freedom THROUGH and WITHIN existing constraints.

- *Insufficient funds*

We all know that schools suffer desperate financial pressures. Three questions may be posed — each requiring both institutional and personal honesty in an attempt to use our knowledge toward a solution.

1. If more money were available to schools, would educators really know what to do with it? As Plato would have us do, let us answer with another question: How do we know that schools would not simply underwrite the same unimaginative programs, reinforcing crusty practices? Or, more pertinently, if given more money from whatever source, would schools be prepared to introduce, accept, and implement procedures and policies that would result in leadership caliber being formed across the present system?

2. If more money were indeed the major ingredient needed for adequate training for the future, are schools fully exploiting the funding that is presently available to them through private foundations? Schools would have to unite on all levels in a common effort at private funding, as the colleges have done; they would have to accept working with legislators toward state or national support for increased funds. Are they doing so now? Individual administrators, faculty, or graduate students in private association with such others might well move toward a solution about much needed funds if they were to utilize comprehensive efforts. Can they see this kind of move as the solution it presents?

3. Lack of money hitherto has driven educators — through desperation, mostly — to inventiveness and creative efforts. Without funds, out of very little, they have repeatedly managed to devise materials and products. Yet rarely does the individual staff member feel enough freedom to capitalize on his or her own efforts. This could mean publishing, production, or manufacturing, or any number of ways to bring these creative efforts into the schools. Not being able — or allowed — to do so causes an internal constraint that unnecessarily impinges on a problem already burdened with external restrictions.

- *Required (and uninspired) subject matter and curricula*

The concern today of some teachers and administrators for curriculum vitality through career education or other concepts reflects a willingness to inspect subject content; it also shows their desire to judge honestly the content's contribution to the long-range vision the school has attempted to establish. But this kind of clear vision and voluntary self-criticism is given to but a few, scattered-about decision makers. As a result, teaching continues, at best, on an intellectual hand-to-mouth basis. Surely, this will never ready students for active, productive citizenship in the year 2001.

- *Hampered personnel*

If, for the sake of this discussion about the future of education, we were to imagine that the curriculum were freed from the unwieldy, invalid constraints of the past, three other components would immediately be affected: personnel, time, and space. Let us examine each of these as it relates to the other two.

If a new concept of curriculum were to demand shorter blocks of time for one subject and longer blocks for others, the type of teacher needed and the resulting physical placement of the students would be affected at the same time. Indeed, if teachers were to become specialists, each with a distinctive talent to be used in a unique fashion, the amount of time required and the locale of the students to be taught would require a totally different form of distribution. Such a specialist-teacher, be it a lecturer, a student diagnostician, a discussion provocateur, a laboratory technologist, or any other type of specialist, would have to view the physical plant as a flexible service for the differing needs of the learners, not as an edifice for its own sake. Under these conditions, the daily, weekly, and yearly use of time, space, and subsequent teacher roles would develop a new set of relationships to each other, and in turn, to the educational program as a whole. It is probable that the process *per se* of to this kind of interfacing would produce in students an ability to handle change. This flexible attitude, due to daily familiarity with the effects of change, would allow the students to develop a stability of personality and of expectations, thereby freeing their minds for creative leadership. In a mobile climate of responsible change, students would be more likely to acquire the characteristics required for ease of adjustment than if they were to use their energies in a mere

effort to cope with the inevitable external pressures of change.

• *Traditional practices*

Future trends in educational institutions would appear to require a serious restudying of traditional practices, evaluating both their essential value and their applicability. Traditions of obvious intrinsic worth, such as the principles of vocational education, possess a transcendence over place and time. But vocational educators should see fit to eliminate consistently any so-called orthodoxy that cannot be justified in itself. They should at the same time take the lead in searching out those values that are perennial and constitute one generation's gift to the next. It may be argued that in one set of circumstances, some aspects of these principles will be more prominent than in another. Still, there are traditions that will always emerge as pervasive, guiding forces. These are the customs, the attitudes, and the beliefs that form the base of our ethical being now. In the absence of contrary evidence, there is no reason to believe that changes in the lives of future generations will require changes at the core of human ethics.

But there are other traditions that do have to be re-examined. Within education, for example, one definition as intrinsic to the profession as the role of the school principal may have to be shifted from that of leader to facilitator. Teachers roles may have to be changed from passive professionals to educational innovators, prescriptionists, and the earlier mentioned specialists. Obviously, this scenario calls for a redistribution of personnel and a redefinition of teacher roles and responsibilities. These concepts do probably constitute the undoing of a tradition. If so, let us make the most of it. Such determinations may well foster excellence in future teaching and learning; maybe in terms of today as well.

• *Insularity*

If progress is to come, it will have to develop from within the profession. There is currently an element of freedom that has been established by default, that is, because too little guidance emanates from the national and state levels. Local educational staffs must capitalize on this freedom to draw up lines of mutual support with other institutions. Both educational and commercial institutions must be contacted so that personal communication and public dissemination of ideas may be initiated. If today's educators fail to pick up this challenge, more parochialism and deeper insularity cannot help but flourish. In fact, the absence of a national policy in the field of vocational education should be utilized as a positive force; it actualizes the option for experimentation and opens wide the door to innovative programming. As discussed earlier, not all experiments need money. However, too often inventiveness and creative efforts never begin because money — or the lack of it — is proferred as an excuse before the efforts are begun. Essentially, the freedom from external controls that exists in vocational education should serve to stimulate an openness to discovery at every moment. In our field, the opportunities for creativity and originality in teaching will expand — if the ability to perceive their presence is augmented. "Openness to discovery" does not necessarily mean that all such efforts will come to successful fruition. Indeed, if the situation created by the discovery were to fail, the sense of freedom to experiment should not be lessened. For administrators, teachers, and students, the freedom to make a mistake should be included: true freedom does not consist in always being right.

Summary

These then are some illustrations that recognize the existence of present-day constraints. Briefly, educators need to capitalize on what they have, to extend their freedoms because of the inhibitions placed on them. A tradition of education, which once resounded to the needs of the times,today clamors for the recognition of the needs of other times: the courage to investigate, the willingness to take risks, and the sense of responsibility inherent in assuming the consequences.

The parable of the saber-tooth tiger as it applies to today's curricula is inescapable in context of the way our schools are meeting the challenge of tomorrow. If the saber-tooth tiger is extinct, isn't an education based on its survival irrelevant? It is a painful application of an honorable chronicle; but it must be acknowledged as we prepare for the year 2001.

The rhythm between constraint and freedom requires a continual interplay between both: self-constraint rises from voluntary free choices, while freedom is enriched, stimulated, and directed through constraints. Such interfacings will have the effect of integrating all the parts of the educational enterprise.

Another age spoke of this as wisdom, this integration of liberty and restriction, of the ideal and the practical, the intellectual and the moral, the personal good and the private good, contemplation and action, ends and means, authority and personal judgment, the liberal arts and the practical arts. In the technological world in which we live, what better integration is there than the marriage of "academics," "technology," and "humanism" in education? It can do no less than offer a continual renewal of the educational process, which, ultimately is life itself.

Reference

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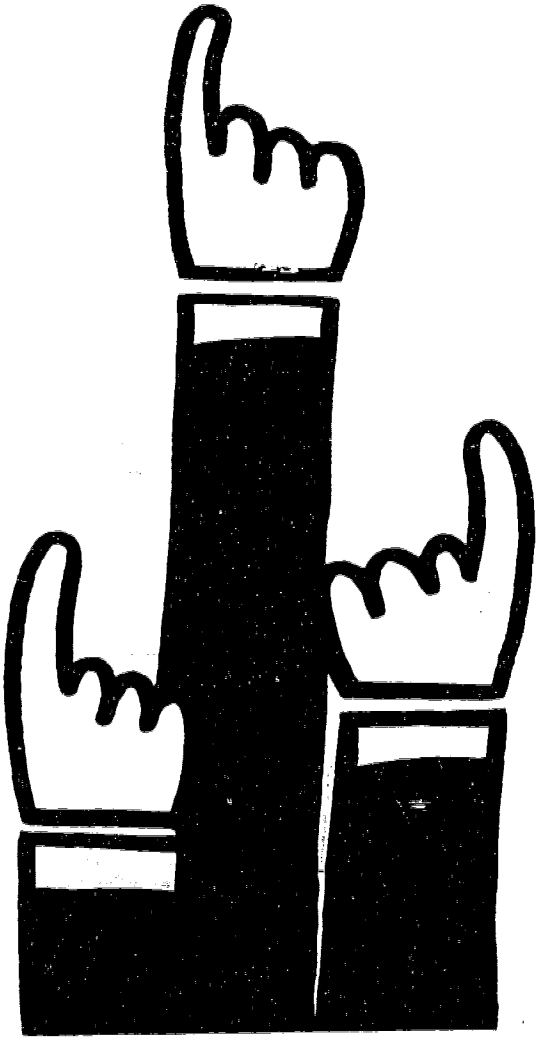
What is this RAVE in Vocational Education?

Sue E. Blevins



A close and thoughtful look at vocational education in today's society seems to uncover a host of questions. If, as leaders we are to heighten our capabilities and strengthen our sense of purpose, we must deal with our need for a feeling of security that we are on the "right track." This paper will attempt to address some of the questions that came to mind when the Regional Adult and Vocational Education (RAVE) bill recently passed in the state of California. A legislative mandate that is certain to have a profound influence on vocational education, it calls for a survey of *all* programs in continuing education and occupational plans and offerings. And so, the questions evolved:

What type of occupational preparation should be a part of the educational experience of all youth and adults? What kind, and at what level in the educational system should this preparation take place?

What should be the relationship between vocational education and training for employment in specific occupations and industry? What are the appropriate roles of the schools, on-the-job training, apprenticeship programs, work-study and work-experience programs?

To what extent should the objective of vocational education be (a) to meet the needs of the labor market, and (b) to meet the needs of the individual? Assuming that labor-market and community needs have a special influence in vocational education, what should be the role of the community-industry-advisory councils? How are they best organized and utilized in assisting vocational-education planning and policy?

How should vocational and technical education be organized and administered? What is the appropriate role of the U.S. Commissioner of Education, of state boards of education, of state boards of vocational and technical education, of local authorities? How much stress should be given to area vocational schools and residential vocational and technical schools? What part of federal funds allocated to the states should be used for programs in secondary and adult-education institutions?

If we are to recognize that the cooperation demanded by current legislative proposals as well as the specifications of RAVE are attempts at responding to the socio-economic changes in today's society, vocational educators will have to clear their unilateral perspective of their appropriate jurisdictional role in the spectrum of educational training and manpower programs. Thus, the next question inevitably asks:

What is the comparative strength of vocational education relative to industrial training programs and the manpower policies of the federal and state departments of labor?

Although this specific issue should be confronted without delay, answering the question would, once again, raise ancillary issues. If the resolution of this question is likely to determine the establishment of a more effective social and educational policy in our society, what type of person will benefit more from vocational education than from on-the-job training or short-term manpower policies? What skills, occupations, or curricula are more suited to vocational education than to the alternative, and often competing forms of manpower development?

A clue to the answers to these and other questions appears to lie within the recent enactment of RAVE: what the legislators are indicating is a need for vocational educators to be accountable for the running and the outcomes of their programs. In other words, if we are to ensure some measure of faith in our vocational-education programs, we will have to demonstrate some measure of success on what we are producing. There are, for all intents and purposes, a phletora of definitions of accountability. It is not the goal of this paper to choose among these definitions, nor to survey the differing opinions, strategies, mechanisms and so forth that have, or have not, proven adequate or ineffective in many specialized areas. For vocational education, Bowen (1974) suggested five simple and straightforward steps for a system of accountability:

- Define, clarify, and order priorities among the objectives in terms of which performance is to be evaluated
- Allocate resources to methods of production that promise maximum returns in relation to these objectives
- Evaluate their outcomes or products or results
- Relate costs and outcomes
- Report the results in appropriate form to governing boards, outside sources of financial support, faculty, administrative staff, and general public. . .

The apparent simplicity of this series of steps is deceiving. Upon closer examination, some of the difficulties inherent in each become apparent: whose definition of priorities? Whose clarification? How can one determine what method of production promises maximum returns? What, for that matter, is the definition of maximum returns? And the final poser: *Who* is really responsible? And to whom?

Whether some form of explicitness in an attempt at answering these questions can be achieved — or whether a decision is made that no such decision can be made — the goals of other proposed federal and state legislation concerned with vocational education of the future appear to address themselves directly to the issue of accountability of resources, time, and money. Certainly, there is no consensus; but the focus has to be clearer if we are to find ourselves on "the right track."

Presently, because there are about as many approaches to the issue of accountability as there are specialists in the field, some of the questions posed earlier are being answered in ways that differ and may depend upon the institution or the particular educator. For example, Sagen (1974) expressing the internal accountability viewpoint, suggests that institutions be accountable to the extent that they,

> establish and clarify goals and develop criteria against which progress toward these goals can be judged. (p. 27)

On the other hand, Byram (1971) feels that accountability is synonymous with program evaluation and that,

> the point of reference should be the extent of attainment of program objectives, and that statements of program objectives in performance terms have not generally been written. (p. 38)

Schaefer (1973) for his part believes that the assessment of vocational programming is demonstrable through skill attainment. Thus, though he seems close to Byram's position, Schaefer elaborates by saying that what is needed are acceptable achievement tests of both a theory and performance nature. Such measures, he suggests, will provide us with grounds for argument that we are being accountable in an inner sense, that is, that teachers within a program are meeting their stated goals through proper instruction, methodology, curriculum, and so forth.

Possibly because they are sensitive to this range of opinions, legislators are asking vocational educators: Do you consider yourself part of the nation's manpower effort? They then suggest that job placement is the goal of every vocational program and thus, they join the debate. For, as Moss argues (1971),

> it is not possible to determine the extent to which a vocational program is satisfying manpower demand until the manpower demand is known. (p. 38)

And adds,

> methods of forecasting manpower demand are highly value-laden. (p. 38)

And the question again is, whose values?

We must therefore accept that there is no single answer to "Who are we to be held accountable to?" any more than there is to, "What are we to be held accountable for?" The diversity of opinions on these crucial matters would tend to indicate that future legislation establishes as one of its ultimate goals a built-in system of national and/or state leadership that will define accountability in vocational education at all program levels. Since it is commonly known that legislatures are rejecting the idea so prevalent for the last decade that education will improve if only better funds are made available — neither "better" personnel nor "better" instructional materials seem to have done the job to anyone's satisfaction — it seems a logical and entirely fitting recognition of the state of the art that California has enacted a bill that asks vocational education to make operational the concept of across-the-board cooperation. In support of the "more is too much" position, Smith, Aker, and Kidd (1970) found that increased funding enticement had resulted in skewered programming of vocational-education offerings. They report that,

> the need for cooperative planning among vocational education agencies at the national, state, and community and neighborhood levels has been exacerbated by the proliferation of programs in the 1960's. (p. 88)

Indeed, cooperation is likely to be the tenor of many policies that will be placed before vocational-education leaders. And it undergirds Assembly Bill 1821, introduced by Assemblyman Joseph Montoya. RAVE is in essence an attempt at establishing such regional adult and vocational councils throughout the state of California. For Los Angeles County, the law requires that RAVE councils be set up for all 14 community-college districts. Each council is to be composed of representatives from each Los Angeles community-college district, high-school district, private educational institution as well as prime sponsor under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). The purpose of the councils is clearly spelled out: To review and to make recommendations on adult-continuing and vocational-education courses. Further, the councils will attempt

to prevent unnecessary duplication of courses offered in each council region. To facilitate fulfilling these goals, boundaries have been defined coterminous with the state's community-college districts. Clearly, the legislation is intended to foster better vocational-education programs by establishing continuity and cooperation among programs since the bill provides for the councils to represent all segments of the population and all levels of vocational-education programs. For Los Angeles, these include the secondary-school districts, the community-college districts, the county Superintendent of Schools, private post-secondary educational institutions, and CETA prime sponsors. All regions are required to review district plans, courses, and programs. The bill defines as follows: a minimum of one community-college attendance area to be determined by local school districts with final approval by the state Superintendent of Public Instruction and the Chancellor of the California Community Colleges. In addition, the coordinator is required to collect the following items for report to the regional councils:

- an inventory of all programs, course objectives, and content
- categorization of programs
- establishment of cross reference
- policy statements for adult-continuing and vocational-education courses from all segments of the population
- any agreements existing between agencies as to delineation of functions.

In conjunction with these activities, the coordinator is to see that the council activities include,

- providing liaison between the programs and potential employers and assisting in the development of a plan for the short-term improvement of both adult-continuing and vocational education.
- identifying and appointing 18 members to the advisory committee. This committee shall consist of single-member representation from several agencies, each serving a three-year term; if a vacancy occurs, the remainder of the vacant term shall be filled on an interim basis by appointment from that agency represented.

RAVE specifies that the participating agencies shall be,

- a regional occupation center and occupational program
- a state university, college, or campus of the University of California
- a field office of the Employment Development Department
- one or more representatives from each of the following groups as defined in the education code
  - the handicapped
  - the disadvantaged
  - teachers
  - leaders from business and industry
  - people from labor, labor management, and the Joint Apprenticeship Committee
  - significant racial or ethnic (or both) minorities within each region, and
  - students from all segments of the population.

The bill's intent is to survey all programs in order to make fitting recommendations which will be achieved as follows: each regional adult-and vocational-education council will meet and review, (1) all adult-continuing education plans and offerings, (2) regional occupational programs and centers plans and offerings, (3) plans of community-college districts or a unified school district to change an offered course, (4) plans of a community-college district to change a course offered as adult education to a regular, graded course, and (5) all plans required to be submitted to either the state Board of Education or the California Manpower Services council by the Comprehensive Employment Training Act prime sponsors.

Further, RAVE delineates that each regional adult and vocational-education council shall recommend plans and offerings reviewed for approval for state apportionments by the superintendents of colleges and that a recommendation for approval shall be agreed to by a majority of the members of the regional adult-vocational education council.

Additional RAVE clauses specify that the superintendent and the chancellor shall jointly promulgate regulations regarding criteria to be used by each council in reviewing courses and making recommendations for approval or disapproval, specifically, unnecessary duplication, as determined by the council. Thus, final course approval for eligibility for apportionments is the responsibility of the superintendent and the chancellor, respectively.

RAVE also provides the districts with a recourse if the council does determine illegality. Any affected district may appeal a decision of a regional adult and vocational-education council. Thirty days after receiving the appeal, the chancellor or superintendent, as the case may be, shall notify the district and the respective council of the final decision. Unnecessary duplication is defined as follows:

- Unnecessary duplication of courses shall be deemed to have occurred when two local education agencies or programs offer the same vocational or adult course to the same type of student population using similar operational characteristics as the prerequisites, unless one agency reports that it cannot meet the needs of all students requiring such services.
- Unnecessary duplication of services shall be deemed to have occurred when a local educational agency or program is opened to adults for the first time and draws students from existing approved adult education programs, without mutual agreement.

RAVE's Designation of Improvement

After establishing how all adult and vocational programs are to be reviewed, A B 1821 specifies how the council is to develop its recommendations. Each regional adult- and vocational-education council is asked to develop, with the assistance of the 18-member advisory committee, a plan for the short-term improvement of adult-continuing and vocational education. Included is a needs-assessment of skills-in-demand that is to be determined from each regional council's analysis. A manpower-management system of information, subject to legislative appropriations for this purpose, will be utilized in the development of such plans. The bill requires that each council file a plan for short-term improvement each year, on or before June 30, with the state Board of Education, the Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges, the affected district governing boards, and the regional occupational center and program, the California Advisory Council on Vocational Education and Technical Training, and the California Postsecondary Commission.

Also delineated are the following actions by the administrators: The Chancellor of the California Community Colleges and the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall each submit to the legislature by August 1, 1976, a report regarding the establishment and operation of regional adult-and vocational-education councils. The legislative analyst shall analyze the effectiveness of the regional adult-and vocational councils one year after the effective date of the commencement of the bill.

Conclusion

When we look toward the future as vocational educators, we will have to take into consideration and become familiar with two major concepts: RAVE councils — and accountability. They are the key words we must make part of our vocabulary and incorporate into our future activities. Still, the overriding issue is the involvement of policy objectives and its implementation of proposed legislation. What effect does this implementation have on the questions posed at the beginning of this paper? It would seem that the competing roles of vocational education and institutional training on the one hand and various manpower and training programs of the departments of labor on the other are in the process of being crystallized. Although coordination between institutional training at vocational schools and on-the-job

training in industry has long been an issue, much recently proposed legislation has given a new urgency to the debate. Further, regardless of what proposals are finally voted into law, a sharp light has been focused on questions that have long needed critical examination, particularly the ones of collaboration. Thus, in this spirit of cooperation, there are certain questions that must be asked for the future of vocational-education programs: (1) Who should be trained in vocational schools and who should be trained on the job? (2) Are vocational educators spending public funds in training workers who should be trained by private employers at private expense? (3) Are government manpower funds being used to subsidize employers in training workers for specific, short-term jobs which cannot serve as a substitute for fundamental long-term vocational training in community schools? (4) Is skill training for many of the disadvantaged really necessary, or can their absorption into the labor market be equally well served by short-term counseling, job placement programs, work orientation, or work experience?

But wherever the answers to these questions lead us — and whatever our stance toward the legislative mandates discussed above, the results of all educational, legislative, and industrial endeavors will influence the course of our future activities.

There is an old proverb that says the right hand must know what the left hand is doing. Perhaps legislation is the answer, perhaps it is the involvement of interested, articulate, dedicated people in the field. But whether we become involved or stand idly back is a choice we must make for ourselves. For my part, I fervently believe that we must give our input, our time, and our energy in order to accomplish the ultimate goal of improving vocational education for the future.

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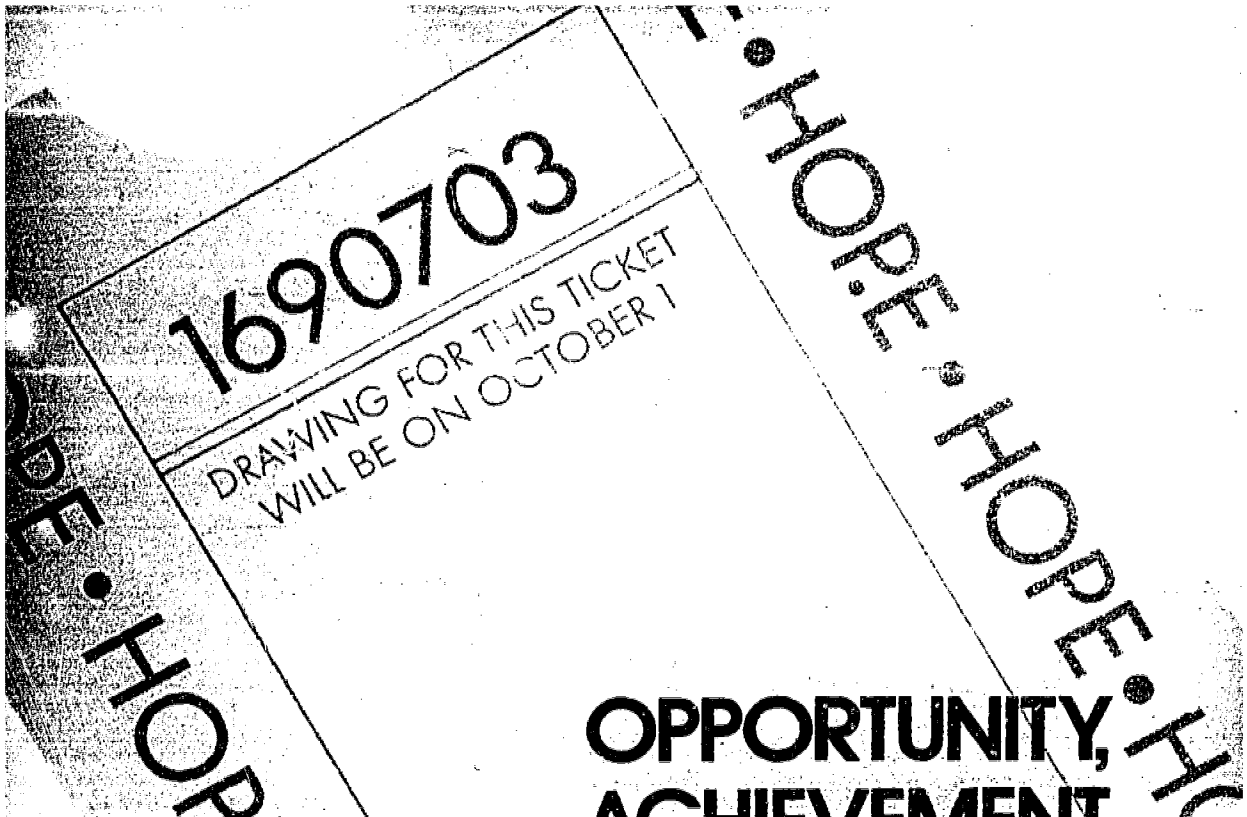

OPPORTUNITY, ACHIEVEMENT, AND BLACK AMERICANS: A CHALLENGE FOR VOCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Warren W. Valdry

A wise historian once remarked that, ". . . those who fail to learn from the mistakes of the past are condemned to repeat them." I would like to express some opinions about mistakes and about the past in vocational education. I would like to examine its present, perhaps its future, with particular emphasis on the relationship between opportunity and achievement, Black Americans and the challenge for vocational leadership.

First, I would like to define some terms. Words can mean almost anything we want. Blacks have been misled so consistently and so convincingly that we, above all people, have come to understand how important it is to know for sure what our words really mean. In fact, during Watergate, using words to mean whatever the speaker wanted them to mean raised lying to a national pastime nearly approaching an art form.

Opportunity and achievement are not interchangeable terms; this simple fact has caused an area of confusion and been the source of immense mischief in the striving of the Black community.

Opportunity, as I use the term, means the *chance* to achieve: I stress the word *chance*, which is the mathematician's word for a gamble. And that pretty well describes it. To carry the description one step further: buying a raffle ticket puts you in the game — winning the prize is another story. Of course until you get into the game, you have no chance of winning. Still, merely being in the game is some distance from the payoff, and that brings us to the question of achievement. Achievement is the *payoff*, the attainment of a goal, a skill, an occupation or an end through effort, often valorous, courageous, sometimes thankless effort.

One problem that we as vocational leaders need to address especially in dealing with our young people is the confusion between the gambler's chance of achieving and actual achievement, the result of conscientious planning, labor, and application, and most of all: HOPE. A clear and lucid difference.

In my role as vocational educator, I have many occasions to observe our young people in vocational settings — the first of many achievement-oriented encounters with life experience. Hope is a fairly plentiful commodity in the upper level socioeconomic strata and in student reaction to achievement especially in the often expressed feelings toward a high level of achievement: "Boy, I sure got lucky this time." Although this view of a high test grade or other vocational achievement as good fortune appears all too frequently, note the confusion between opportunity and the actual achievement. Indeed, students from more advantaged circumstances appear far more likely to view achievement as the result of their own hard work, their own sweat, their own native ability. We must teach students from the lower level socioeconomic strata to do likewise, tempered, of course, with that buoyant doubt that comes from knowing realistically that our silver must be gold.

There are some key lessons in our history that need to be remembered and studied. The Booker T. Washington approach to opportunity and achievement for many years did violence to the concept of Black achievement. We now know that this was because Washington made the tragic error of putting society's majority words in a Black context and then being naive enough to act on that premise. Booker T. Washington told us to educate ourselves so that we might exploit opportunities that he believed were already being offered to us. His error was primarily one of timing. The message of Booker T. Washington was totally wrong in his own time but is totally right in our current context.

We also learned that he believed that the words in our country's founding documents meant exactly what they said. The truth that all men, by definition, are equal before their creator seemed to him a fair statement of the human condition. But as we know, some men are created more equal than others, and liberty and justice for some has consistently been the way the philosophy of equality became operational and evolved into law, custom, and everyday practice. Some 40 years after his death, we began to see the error in Washington's view and began to act in terms of a new vision of Black destiny. Achievement (the end payoff), took on a new dimension and we went about the business of getting into the game — by whatever means available.

The activism of the '50's and '60's was hectic. It was often violent, sometimes misdirected, sometimes a successful attempt to shift our main thrust from waiting for achievement to doing all we could to buy our raffle ticket and participate in this life. Vocational education did allow Blacks to buy such a

ticket; vocational education must continue to allow us to do so in the future. For all the climate of activism, its tragedy, its high price in blood, its search for dignity, and its sometimes result of personal advantage — and in spite of an overall poor return on an extremely high Black investment — there has been progress. We are, in fact, holding more raffle tickets than ever before, maybe still far from a fair share of the available, but more than before. Wasn't our first order of achievement to gain some measure of opportunity, the possibility to play in the game? We have achieved that much. Where do we go from here? To achieve the right of achieving is not, for most Black Americans, a sufficient payoff. I know as a Black vocational educator that it's not enough for me.

For most of us, the immediate course of action is fairly clear. Our capabilities, our skills, our potentials have been well determined. At this point, it is incumbent upon us to utilize those potentials to the fullest possible degree within the framework of the newly widened opportunities. This seems an obvious choice, but not necessarily. At all times, and in all cases much of the measure of achievement is personal and depends ultimately on those values designated as priority by those who hold them. Personal priorities are indeed personal and as such not open to further discussion. If you consider money to be your priority, or you want to opt for status, security, or insulation from the rigor of public struggle, then your priorities are defined, decided, and final. But for those who have not yet defined, decided, and finalized their priority structure, I would venture to suggest some possibilities.

Our community has suffered from chronic unemployment and widespread underemployment. Many of us have had to make that bitter compromise with economic reality and settle for a lesser role in our occupational choice. Often the lesser role has actually meant greater money or security or status or insulation from public struggle. But I would like to remind vocational leaders that those of us who are not part of the solution are very much a part of the problem. At the same time I would like to tell those young people who are as yet uncommitted that the potential for profit is large because the risks are commensurately large. If you feel the courage to challenge the past and struggle with the future, I would suggest that you make a realistic appraisal of your own human potential. Ask yourself honestly, "Am I doing as much with my life as I really can?" Admittedly a dangerous question regardless of the answer you may give yourself. It gives a bitter taste if you have to say "Yes, this *is* the best I can do." However, I say to you now that if you find within you that you *are* capable of more, you are morally bound to exploit that additional potential to the fullest. This is true not only for yourself, for your life, but because you will offer an essential model to most of our young people. They desperately need a hopeful image with which to identify. It is up to us to recognize their need to feel that achievement is a matter of effort and application, not of good fortune. Where can they learn that lesson if we do not teach it?

In reference to teaching, I would like to look, if only briefly, at what education can and cannot do, what it is and is not doing. Traditionally, education has come to mean the vague, abstract institution that holds the instant cure-all for all of America's ills from veneral disease to the declining moral structure of our inner city. Is there something wrong with America? Find. We assumed somehow that if we'll just educate everyone, the trouble would simply go away possibly frightened into some musty corner by an awesome spectre: an enlightened and educated electorate far too informed to permit injustice, ignorance, greed, or racism to exist in its presence. In my opinion, this way of thinking has perpetrated perhaps the most persistent myth of all the half-truths we have been asked to accept as basic to the American dream.

It is reasonable to suggest that one reason for its persistence is the fact that results in the educational process are admittedly slow in coming. An improved educational process — if it is, in fact, improved — will at best produce results on a generation-to-generation basis. Not too satisfactory when applied to problems which must be solved or at least ameliorated *now*. Certainly everyone agrees when the house is in flames, fire prevention classes are not appropriate. Too often we come face to face with problems that are knotty and demanding, and so, we choose to ignore them and go on to that which appears more viable to us. To ignore the problem is to call up the school and say, "Okay educators, teach the problem out of existence." This leaves us free to go on to other things, wait a generation or so and then point to the failure of the schools to solve the problem. In spite of this consistent pattern, schools and the educational process still get saddled with outrageous demands far beyond anything that can logically be expected from an institution manned and financed by other human beings. At the same time, our educators, with a daily stethoscope on the pulsebeat of our young, receive the early symptoms of decay. These warnings beget about as much public credence as the squawking of Chicken Little. When, as that legendary bird tried to caution us, we do finally recognize that large chunks of the sky are indeed falling down, we immediately identify failure of the schools to teach and delegate education as the villain. It doesn't seem to make much sense.

"Books, research and the media constantly point out that our educational process is crippled with administrative barbed wire that substitutes bookkeeping for book learning, and that it serves as an incubator for madness and mediocrity."* In this context it is interesting to note the facts about school attendance, for example. We are all aware that a California high school receives its state money based upon ADA, Average Daily Attendance. The school itself is effectively graded and rated and rewarded based upon how many students are physically present for instruction. Counting heads is a fairly simple and straightforward process. Especially if we consider the fact there is no attempt made to assign these funds based upon the quality of the learning experience, nor upon the relevance of what the students are learning, nor the contribution that the information exposure may be able to make toward an improved life by preparing young people for a saleable skill along with book learning. Consequently, a primary lesson that the schools must, of necessity, teach is that attendance is paramount. This, in turn, is certainly consistent with the working world for which we are presumably preparing our young. Not that the working world is any different in its infinite wisdom than education's preoccupation with attendance. Only the working world calls it "work habits." The basic confusion over means (attendance) and ends tends to frustrate true achievement. In effect, once a fair "accomplishment" form would be substituted for content we would have a situation consistent with the educational process.

If this scenario sounds a bit bleak, remember there is a bright side as well. There is no point in losing sight of what education can — and is — doing. In terms of what we can do to make the transition from opportunity to achievement, education still forms the cornerstone.

Furthermore, for many Blacks there are new opportunities available that were denied us as recently as five to ten years ago. There still are closed doors as tightly locked as ever, but it must be acknowledged that many of our own earlier dreams, even fantasies, have taken shape in the world of reality. Some might think, "too late!" Perhaps, perhaps not. There are signs everywhere, if you are prepared to look for them. For example, those of us who prepared for closed careers and were forced to settle for less now have the option of pursuing an early dream.

* From an address by Robert Weiner, "Economic Development and Minorities" delivered at Rockwell International B-1 Division, Los Angeles, June 24, 1975.

Those of us who simply dreamed, but made no preparation, that is, elected not to run in a race for which there seemed to be no prize, now find that even though the prize may be baloney, the man is slicing it a little thicker these days. In short, what we must do is to teach our young a lesson that the schools can never teach: how to hope and how to win. Haven't we all learned that the best lessons are taught by enunciating a principle and reinforcing that principle with a concrete example? That same wise old man with whom I opened this paper is reported to have said, "Your actions speak so loud, I can't hear your words." Use your talents, use your time, your training, your personal drive: let your actions speak to our young people.

As for our young people, they are the trees that we have planted so that there will be fruit in generations to come. What are our hopes for their future? What are we building for them and what can they build for themselves? The blood and gut sacrifices that have brought us opportunity at so dear a price will become one more three-line notice of tragedy in the future of all our people unless we move forward and exploit our opportunities. We must initiate assertive action and develop programs designed for true achievement. We must therefore train, educate, and prepare our young people to accept the success that will become their new birthright. It is critical that we gain the right to follow a trade, a skill, a profession, a business. In itself, this is not enough. It is crucial that we achieve parallel ability to perform in one of these callings through education, both vocationally and academically.

Programs to achieve this do exist, but they are not being fully utilized at the moment. I would like to urge vocational leaders to investigate these programs and to motivate young people to participate.

In my opening statements I quoted some of the virtues of learning from the past. I would like to close by referring you to D. H. Lawrence, who said, "It is a shame that the past does not decently bury itself rather than waiting around to be admired by the present." We need to get on with the business of *now*.

□

Joan P. Klubnik

There would seem to be no argument with the assumption that vocational educators and industry personnel need to collaborate and cooperate if students are to receive the highest quality education possible. Yet the following vignette, which occurred recently, appears indicative of the current situation.

Joan: Dick, are you familiar with the community college cooperative education program?

Dick: Oh, I know what it is.

Joan: Have you ever had any cooperative students working for you in your plant?

Dick: No. Not that I know of.

Joan: You know, of course, that there are lots of contacts between companies and vocational education, especially in the community college. Has anyone ever contacted you about the cooperative education program, or about job opportunities in your company, or about your serving on an advisory committee in the plastics technology field?

Dick: No.

Joan: Hum, that's very interesting. Now the punch line! Would you be willing to have someone from a local college contact you about the possibility of your getting in some capacity? It would mean time, effort, and commitment on your part. Would it be worth it to you?

Dick: (after a pause) Sure. I'd be interested because I would hope to get good employees who would stay with the company for at least a couple of years. My company would benefit from the relationship.

This is only a summary of an actual conversation; but the message can be heard in many conversations held between interested vocational educators and industry personnel. There seems to be a lack of communication between the two agencies and both sides seem to be responsible for the situation. First, the schools are not involving industry in the school program. Companies could provide input and could participate in cooperative programs, graduate placement, and technology updates. Second, industry apparently is not at this time in economic need of large numbers of entry-level workers and, therefore, does not seem to be encouraging the development of work-oriented training programs. Third, there appears to be a universal lack of teacher aggressiveness. Teachers do not go out into industry, yet such a move would seem necessary to the development of good programs, placement, and cooperative education. Finally, and of equal importance, there seems to be a lack of commitment on the part of school administrators. My own experience makes it clear that teachers need the impetus and backing of administration if they are to go out and make the effort necessary to develop contacts.

Changes that have occurred over time as regards the roles of industry and school in the preparation of the workforce have been described in the literature. Early vocational programs were based upon apprenticeships with the master tradesman responsible for the skill training and general education of the apprentice. But as more workers were needed, schools were established, first private and then public, to prepare individuals for work and to provide a degree of general education as well. After the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, more emphasis was placed upon the scholastic preparation of workers. New laws expanded school requirements and limited the work which youngsters were allowed to do. And so worker preparation gradually reversed itself: persons were being trained in school and were expected to refine their skills on the job. Concomitantly, gradual changes occurred in training programs. The expanded and accelerated manpower needs created by World War II resulted in new training procedures. The increased need for technical training as a requisite to many jobs saw the expansion of the community-college system. The bulge of war babies flooded the job market with surplus workers with many in the population having chosen to spend more time in school. This situation created a false demand for higher education as a requisite to entering the workforce. Thus, we reached a point where, today, we have a twofold problem: a surplus of trained workers competing for jobs for which they are overtrained academically and a surplus of individuals completing community-college programs without ever having worked in their major field.

How Can the Relationship between Industry and Vocational Education be Improved?

Ever since the growth of classroom-oriented skill training there has been a question as to what the role of industry should actually be in the preparation of the workforce. This paper will endeavor to explore issues that relate to the determination of industry's future role. Of course, it must be recognized that needs are constantly changing and that training practices must change in response; therefore any possible solution must be considered temporary in light of historical perspectives. What this paper would like to achieve is to get vocational educators to consider their current relationship with local industry and to stimulate both sides sufficiently to motivate a strengthening of that relationship, particularly the lack of industry preparation in vocational programs. A series of questions and related discussions addressing the topic follow.

1. Should industry participate in training or should this be the domain of the school? Some say that industry will train only for specific skills that will satisfy immediate manpower needs but will not attend to the long-term interests of the student. Thus, if industry participates, will its immediate need destroy the current concept of providing a general education that will allow the individual to advance both vertically and horizontally? In response, some point to the benefits of industrial training. They argue that schools frequently lack modern equipment and prepare students for work on outdated equipment. While it is true that theory can be taught on older equipment, students who only see obsolete equipment will have a more difficult transition to actual job conditions. This is one reason the utilization of industrial facilities would be beneficial since it would allow students to learn on current equipment. In addition, if industry wanted better quality workers — or needed tax incentives — it would probably support industrial involvement in training programs. Past experience would suggest that industry should be involved in training. The question of the degree of participation does not seem to matter; what does emerge is a pattern suggesting that economic, industrial, and personnel needs all influence participation.

2. What role should industry play in manpower projects? Part of the problem of surplus workers might be eliminated if careful projections were made for each specific skill area. When new job markets open up, industry does the bulk of the early training. Also, when schools begin programs, training is current because the teachers in the program have just left industry or have been recently involved in industry-sponsored training programs. People learn of an emerging field; the schools are flooded with students. Industry, when in need of qualified persons, generally is willing to hire all those who graduate or complete a portion of the program; training is then completed within each individual company. But, over a period of time, qualified persons saturate the field and the school graduate finds it more difficult to secure an entry-level job. Now experience becomes a requisite for employment; and industry, because of the surplus of eligible employees, imposes elevated education requirements for entry-level jobs. In reality, the rate at which new students enter school programs does not match the decline in demand for new employees in the field. What emerges is a glut of students who complete programs, but are unable to find employment or, if they do, secure jobs on a par with their education.

It would seem that both more input from industry as to manpower and technology needs as well as wise counseling by school personnel would help alleviate this problem. Frequently, surplus conditions eventually solve themselves: fewer jobs mean fewer students entering, which means program adjustment to actual needs. Would closer ties with industry allow schools to gain prior knowledge of decreases or increases in

manpower needs and thus eliminate some of the fluctuations? The facts suggest that part of the problem lies in the time lag between changes in industrial needs and modifications in school programs. Perhaps closer ties with industry would lead to earlier warnings of impending industrial changes enabling school staff to rectify this lopsided situation.

Since future plans are often dependent upon inaccurate figures, the value of collected data may be negated. But if school personnel could improve communication, accurate local predictions about specific employment needs could be made. The immediate effect would surely be better counseling and more pertinent curricula.

3. Should industry or the school be the instigator in developing stronger relationships? It might be interesting to look at exemplary school-industry relationships and attempt to profile these bonds. Are they based on chance personal relationships? Have schools taken an aggressive role and created a "game plan" for approaching industry? If such a plan exists, can the approach be exported to other interested schools? Are some industries more progressive than others? How? Can training interest be spread through the industry so that others will also get involved? Are only certain job areas compatible with such relationships? A vocational-education plus is that programs are supposedly built upon strong industrial relations. Should a more scientific study be made of the ties that exist so that procedures for improving relationships should be developed? Maybe training programs can and should be offered to both school and industry personnel as guidelines. It might make both parties aware of the potential in the relationship through exemplary models.

4. Would industry donate a certain number of hours so that students can be introduced to new technology on the job site? Isn't it industry that objects most strenuously when new employees are not familiar with equipment? Would industry go even further and allow its employees to provide the necessary training to advanced vocational students? History has shown that industry will participate when specifically trained personnel are needed and there is no other way to find them. Should this, in fact, be done? Some developing countries appear to have found that when industry takes a very active role in employee training, it is usually not concerned with general education. If industry *is* included more actively in training, what should schools do to guarantee that students are not deprived of the general education they need for future advancement? It is of interest to note that some countries utilize the "sandwich approach" by which students are skill-trained within the institution, moved into industry for six to 12 months during which time they are taught and evaluated, and then returned to the institution for concentrated work in their areas of greatest weakness. A similar approach is currently utilized in the United States as a part of cooperative education programs based upon an objective-setting model. Students, with supervisory help, determine which cognitive or affective areas need special attention and then focus on those areas through the establishment of individualized program objectives. If this plan is to be expanded, it might be wise to emphasize the "general good" of the program so that employers will be willing to take on students for skill refinement and job preparation even if these students will not ultimately work for the company.

These are some of the questions arising from the basic problem of noncommunication between industry and school. In looking to the future, what actions can be taken to improve the communication between the two agencies? It would seem that to be effective, any action should concentrate on bridging this gap: it would provide for the movement of educators into industry; and it could serve to introduce industrial personnel into school settings as advisors, learners, and/or teachers.

Some Alternative Courses of Action

The instructor as coordinator. The first approach to consider is a re-assessment of the role of the instructor within a community college or a high school and to change his/her role from teacher to teacher-coordinator. He/she would be concerned as well with developing ties with industrial personnel whose job area relates to the coordinator's teaching area. With an average teaching load of 20-25 hours per week, the instructor might use one quarter of his/her time to make and develop out[illegible]e contact with related industries rather than assuming additional teaching duties. To move the teacher back into the industrial community is not a new concept to vocational education; it has been minimized over the years. But today's fluctuating employment needs and practices require more contact between the two agencies. Where fewer entry-level employees are needed in many current vocational areas, those who are hired must not only exhibit more technical training, they must be sensitive to current industrial practices. Today's limited need for employees simply means that personnel directors can wait. Thus, if vocational educators are to strengthen their programs, they must do more than provide general technical education: students must be given some assurance that the training they receive will adequately equip them to seek and find meaningful work in the climate of present conditions.

Another advantage of re-instating the teacher-coordinator concept is the first-hand information the instructor would obtain in the field: it would make him/her aware of local industrial activity and attitude. The instructor could be privy to information about hiring practices, new industrial equipment, current problems with new hires, projected employee figures, future company plans, changes in technical skill requirements, and a variety of other specific facts that can only come from personal contact. Information about local companies is vital to vocational programs and seems to be most available when teachers have close contact with personnel in the industries for whom they are preparing future employees. It would seem that, ideally, the teacher-coordinator should attempt to blend school and industry so completely that input from the two sources into the vocational curriculum cannot be singled out. The teacher-coordinator would, in effect, serve as a liaison between the two agencies: the position would allow the teacher to be current in his/her teaching field and would facilitate constant communication with and input from industry.

The facts seem to suggest that unless industry is aware of what the school is doing and is asked to provide input into programs, no real melding of training and work can be achieved. Records show that American industry will assist educational programs; but first, management must be told what is needed and second, it must be made aware of how the quality of the training will be improved. It may be argued that in lieu of such cooperation between the agencies, industry can take over the entire training function. However, past experience suggests that this alternative might not be in the best interests of students because industry might concentrate on specific skills and ignore the aspects of general education and theory that are the strengths of the public vocational-educational system.

For education, a program relying upon teacher-coordinators is bound to increase costs, most particularly because additional teachers would be [illegible]ed to permit the scheduling of blocks of non-teaching time for teacher-coordinators. Hopefully, administrators will see that the improvement in program and student-placement records would justify the additional funds. Even today, when money is everybody's major problem.

The role of the advisory committee. Another approach would be the real involvement of the advisory committee. If the committee were to consider itself a partner, partially responsible for the development of vocational curriculum, a more direct rapport between school and industry might

result. It might do away with the practice of making overtures simply to comply with the Vocational Education Act. Past performance suggests that educators have not always been willing to act upon the advice they seek. The inevitable result is that industry personnel, sitting as advisory committee members, realize that they serve no real function and lose interest in school programs. All too frequently, these bodies are organized, assembled, and ignored. It would appear that vocational educators might do well to seek the advisory committee's thinking and actively utilize its members' assistance.

Improved and more direct involvement of the advisory committee can vary with geographic location and occupational area. But in essence, it would add significant contributions. For example, the committee might act as a screening board for current and proposed curricula. The committee members would assist teachers modify programs, making them more compatible with industrial technology, eliminating obsolete practices, and identifying subject matter that is new and vital to industry. Indeed, teachers might request that the advisory boards evaluate each program yearly to ensure that a program is relevant. Further, an involved advisory committee might inform instructors of projected equipment changes, of strengths and weaknesses of students entering industry, and of available placement opportunities. All too often advisory committees are considered a compliance group: a yearly meeting is held and a limited number of members appear; some words are exchanged, and once again, a legal requirement has been satisfied. It seems entirely fitting that the educational system which mandates the advisory committee be the logical group to assure committee members of the value of their involvement. One suggestion might be to hold meetings at frequent and regular intervals. Another might be to move the meeting sites out of the sterile school conference room and into the classroom area or, if possible, into industrial sites.

The increased involvement of advisory committees would, most probably, not be as expensive as the teacher-coordinator concept discussed earlier and would provide some of the same benefits. It could potentially strengthen the school-industry bond and might encourage the incorporation of industrial suggestions into future curricula. If this approach were pursued, schools might possibly consider the participation on advisory committees. If this alternative were to be developed, it seems that changes would have to be made in the composition of advisory groups so that the majority of teachers could participate and benefit.

Cooperative education programs. A third approach for the utilitization of local industry in a participatory role might be achieved by strengthening cooperative education programs. The strength of these programs lies in the fact that they allow students actual industrial experience as a part of the school curriculum and frequently lead to permanent placement of students in the industries in which they interned. The program as presently constituted also allows for individual contact between industrial supervisors and classroom teachers. It is generally accepted that teachers have the potential to learn about industrial activity through their job-site visits and that they can improve school programs because of the feedback provided by the industry personnel who serve as work supervisors.

Interaction. A final suggested approach might be increased flow of persons from industry into the educational system. One way in which such persons might be utilized by the school system is to invite knowledgeable industrial personnel into schools as guest lecturers. Industry could possible sponsor this program as a released-time assignment for its personnel. The school curriculum could thus teach students the most current technology and practices. Such interaction could generate more personal communication between industry personnel and the individuals they might be hiring in the near future as well as direct contact between the school staff and the industry personnel. Another suggestion might be that industry personnel be invited to

teach specific state-of-the-art units or classes, thus piggybacking off the current proprietary school model. Another approach might be greater sponsoring of education and training research projects by both public and private sources.

Summary

There is a perceptible lack of communication between industry and vocational education. In order to correct the present situation where industry's potential contribution to the preparation of the workforce is not sufficiently tapped, several courses of action have been discussed. The past has shown that industry will cooperate when it needs adequately trained personnel or when it is approached by educators in an honest way. It may be assumed that students would benefit from closer ties between school and industry because of the potential improvement in curriculum and placement. If educators have not made sufficient efforts to strengthen the ties, positive efforts in this direction should begin now. Although a sincere attempt was made to suggest some techniques that might be used by school systems, other plausible solutions to the problem of noncommunication between school and industry should also be considered. The alternatives presented here are not meant to be mutually exclusive: indeed, each of these components of vocational education, teacher-coordinator, advisory committee, cooperative education program, and others which the reader envisions, might be strengthened simultaneously. Times are changing and vocational educators must also change. Programs must be built that will rely upon industrial input as a vital component: vocational education cannot do the job alone in today's rapidly changing industrial world.

PROPRIETARY SCHOOLS:

FUTURE PARTNER IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION?

Joyce M. McAvoy

"Which trade school are you planning to attend?" is a query to be heard more and more frequently among future high-school graduates. The question reflects the fact that the needs of graduating students go largely unmet where business and industry make impending demands. The potential of the accredited proprietary schools to meet these needs and respond to these demands may be such that they provide the answer to faster, better, and less expensive vocational training than that offered by the public high schools.

Many of today's public-school students are protesting the long hours of tedious lectures and meaningless assignments on esoteric topics that have no apparent link to their future. Their discontent is expressed through skyrocketing drop-out rates, an all-time high youth unemployment rate, and increasing juvenile crimewaves. Clearly, a more effective approach to traditional education is needed. Some intermediary step, a transition between the academic school environment and remunerative employment to help teenagers make the painful and uncertain adjustments to becoming self-sufficient individuals must be found.

The young people needing this assistance are not only those who are not going to college and who need to become self-sufficient immediately following high-school graduation, but also those who do plan to go on to higher education. For both groups, work provides identity and focus for future goals. In this context, Lawrence Earle, Vice President of Management Technical Institute in Kansas City said,

> We generally tend to address ourselves to a classification of clientele not oriented to colleges and universities. These students shun long hours of lecture because they find such courses as history boring but they have come out of high school having no skills with which to get a job.

Indeed, although most proprietary schools do gear their courses to meet the needs of the nonacademic student, many college graduates could also benefit from proprietary schools, Mr. Earle reported.

> Even some students with college degrees are disillusioned. The attitude in America is that the college provides you with a degree, but now you must go look for a job. Frequently, there are no jobs.

College students then can turn to the proprietary schools to provide them with the skills needed to obtain employment.

Wilms (1975) found that disadvantaged students did better in proprietary schools than they did in high schools. His study reported that these students selected proprietaries over community colleges because the lengthy training and supplemental courses imposed by conventional public education did not appeal to them. Specifically, the brief courses offered by the private vocational schools, scheduled into short segments for quick mastery, allowed low or nonachieving students to feel accomplishment in a school environment. This first taste of success, other researchers concurred, may be as responsible for preparing this type of student to work at a skilled job as the content of the course.

Projections into the future indicate that the number of consumers who will need the services of vocational training is increasing and might continue to do so. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (1976-77) predictions indicate that by 1985, 60 million jobs will be available for technical and service-oriented people; all will require a particular vocational skill. To turn to public schools and expect them to provide the necessary training is to be unaware of the heavy burden the school system is assuming in its efforts to keep pace with industry's rapidly changing technological needs. It cannot be expected of public schools to offer adequate training for the wide range of skills that might be needed in the future. However, the smaller, proprietary schools are geared to do just that and thus send their graduates into future society with a marketable set of skills. Indeed, they are flexible and adaptable enough to do this; from present indications, it would appear they can do it effectively.

There is, however, an acute problem that must be confronted in discussing the role to be played by the proprietary schools in the educational picture. Until recently, many proprietary schools reportedly were expensive, rip-off diploma schools, and as such, best avoided. This attitude was bolstered by the fact that community colleges could and did offer similar training at virtually no cost. But if the status of proprietary schools was somewhat suspect, the Federal Trade Commission's enforcement of more stringent regulations in 1975 and the imposition of higher approval standards by private school accrediting organizations have gone a long way toward erasing this unfortunate image. Briefly, the Federal Trade Commission (1975) now requires that proprietary schools do not guarantee employment in their recruitment advertising unless they are able to fulfill such claims. If they do, the commission requires that placement rates be made available to the public. As for the accrediting agencies, i.e., NATTS (National Association of Trade and Technical Schools) and AICS (American Independent Colleges and Schools), they now require inspection of proprietary schools every five years to ensure that their standards are on a par with prevailing educational standards. But more effective than either the Federal Trade Commission or the accreditation organizations to keep proprietary schools adhering to *bona fide* standards are the experiences of their clients, both students and industry. Unscrupulous operations may get away for a while with providing poor training or promoting job opportunities that do not exist — a truism in all forms of business-related activities — but no proprietary school can expect to stay in business for long, or prosper at all, if it does not consistently provide its clientele with job skills that prove marketable.

It is self-evident that proprietary schools, which are profit-making organizations, must effectively meet demand for training and must do so at a level that not only covers costs, but yields a profit. Then again, it may be assumed that there would be no profit margin if the types of training offered in such schools were identical to and available in public schools at no cost; or equally telling, if students enrolled in the private schools because they assess their resources as superior. Several proprietary-school administrators and an administrator of a public school confirmed both these assumptions in a series of personal interviews. An institutional statement of purpose that the administrators interviewed agreed upon was that proprietary schools strive for, and generally achieve, high placement rates for their graduates.

The figures show that although proprietary schools cannot promise a job, they do contribute much effort to ensuring student placement and frequently achieve high rates of success in this area. For example, at the Phoenix Institute of Technology, 93 percent of the graduates were placed in jobs for which they were trained. According to Carel de Laet, Administrator for Operations of this organization, "We concentrate on those students who do not have a job." Similar reports are found at the Management Technical Institute, Inc., in Kansas City, Missouri. Lawrence Earle, the school's vice president, reports that 94 percent of the students taking the full one-year course are placed in a job for which they were trained, generally within 60 days of course completion. Although the rate drops to 85 percent placement within the same time period for those taking the shorter course — generally the lesser qualified students — the Kansas City school's spokesman stresses that the student does obtain employment in the field for which he/she is trained. Further, where all schools concern themselves with initial placement, many offer provisions for lifelong placement facilities as well. For example, at the Phoenix Institute, the administrator emphasized,

> We provide lifetime placement assistance. Fifteen to 20 percent of our placement work is getting the student a second job. We feel that it is our responsibility to get them a job.

Not surprisingly, proprietary schools capitalize on placement success. Advertisements are everywhere emphasizing the student approach to education; the yellow pages of the telephone directory, local newspapers, drive-in movie commercials, and other media outlets are used to expound the features of the nearby proprietary school.

But advertising is not enough. In order to achieve sufficient skill development and ensure maximum placement rates, proprietary schools must meet other student requirements. These include:

- relevant curricula
- modern, up-to-date equipment
- qualified, knowledgeable instructors
- remedial education
- flexible scheduling
- frequent course offerings
- financial aid counseling

These features are of great importance to the schools and together, they constitute a large part of their student appeal:

- According to de Laet, the Phoenix Institute of Technology is sensitive to the need for relevant curricula. He reported,

  > In architectural drafting, we provide 20 semester hours of table work. In a community college, that would be equivalent to four or five years.

  He added, "The university forgets to teach people how to draw." Hank Habegger, Practical Schools, Anaheim, California, concurred,

  > Proprietary schools do it (teach students skills) quicker, better, and with a more concentrated effort than public schools. Our training is more practical than theoretical. That is, 25 percent of the training is theoretical and 75 per cent is hands-on practical skill development.

- Proprietary schools respond sharply to the need for up-to-date equipment. While discussing this student requirement, de Laet of the Phoenix Institute suggested,

most of the non-proprietary schools do not have the course materials or equipment to train. Therefore, when the students graduate from the community college, they are not ready for work because they are not familiar with the equipment and facilities they will be using.

In fact, many proprietary schools pride themselves on having equipment which allows the student to transfer easily into an industrial setting.

- In addition to relevant courses and new equipment, proprietary school offer courses taught by qualified instructors most of whom are former craftsmen or professionals with practical experience in their specialities. These courses are usually available on an open-entry/open-exit basis. In many such schools, it was found that most instructors had worked a minimum of 6 years in the area he/she teaches.

  The advantages of this experience are obvious: it enables the instructors to know the demands their students will face on the job and it enables them to guide the placement of their students because they are familiar with a particular employment area.

- Generally students must be high-school graduates or possess a GED (Graduation Equivalency Diploma) in order to enter proprietary schools, although some exceptions may be made. However, what happens if the student is unable to read or do basic math problems even though he/she does have a diploma? Indeed, testing prior to enrollment may be done in order to determine students' aptitudes and basic learning skills. Remedial instruction is offered when it appears that such help is needed. Because all activities in proprietary schools are geared toward meeting the goal of student placement, personal improvement and enrichment courses may be offered in order to give the student more confidence when he/she goes on job interviews.

- Another feature that indicates proprietary schools are in business to meet the needs of the student is the flexible scheduling of courses which begin at frequent intervals. Day, evening, and week-end courses may be scheduled in order to meet the time restrictions of a working student.

  Students do not need to wait until September or January for the new semester to begin. Proprietary schools offer courses at frequent intervals, usually weekly, bi-monthly, or monthly, depending on the course offering and the demands.

- Finally, proprietary schools try to meet students' needs by offering them financial aid counseling. Accredited proprietary schools can offer federal financial assistance such as FISL (Federally Insured Student Loans), BEOG (Basic Education Opportunity Grant), SEOG (Supplemental Education Opportunity Grant), NDSL (National Direct Student Loans), veterans benefits, and work/study programs. As one proprietary school administrator said, "Students' financial problems are our financial problems." This is one way of saying that proprietary schools depend on students' tuition to stay in business.

A Direct Link with Industry

In order to remain in close contact with the present and future needs of industry, proprietary schools depend heavily on advisory boards, comprised of local business representatives. If industry through these representatives indicates a particular skill is not in great a demand, the school adjusts its offerings accordingly, so that placement will be possible. Another proprietary school administrator said, "We can't afford to have a poor reputation. Proprietary schools must perform. The reputation gets around that you are not good, you will not get more students." Conferring with industrial contacts provides for immediate information regarding job demands.

What Are the Costs?

The disadvantage of the proprietary schools? The student must pay for the education. No tax money supports proprietary schools. However, as one educator said, "Students tend to place more value on those things that cost money than on those things that are given to them." Also, some educators indicate that students attending proprietary schools seem to be more aware of the importance of serious studying and succeeding. Costs for tuition at a proprietary school may range from a few hundred dollars for a short course requiring little equipment to

several thousand dollars for longer, complex skill training. Most students appear to view proprietary schools as an investment from which they can easily recoup both their financial and time losses through a better paying job acquired in a few months or weeks. In contrast, students attending a community college may require two years before they can begin collecting on their skill training. The proprietary schools charge their students the full costs of education while competing with publicly supported junior and community colleges that offer similar education free of charge. They survive by providing lean and effective job training in a relatively short period of time.

Ironically, even though the costs of proprietary schools seem high, there was total agreement by all educators interviewed that such schools can produce students with employable job skills for less money than that presently being spent in public education. In some instances, public education uses and pays proprietary schools to train their students in specific areas, surely an acknowledgement of the range of diverse skills offered by the private school. One public educator said, "Yes, we use proprietary schools. They can do it (provide skills and training) cheaper than we can." Some recent research findings indicate that cost per student per year is apt to be only about half as much it is in public vocational schools.

Business, industry, and the general public must consider the benefits of a greater utilization of the proprietary schools in the future. For business and industry, proprietary schools are able quickly to provide trained graduates for new and for existing labor market needs. This fortuitous state of affairs is largely due to the excellent articulation between industry and industry-trained faculty, and to the proprietary schools' *raison d'être* to place most — if not all — their graduates in the type of positions for which they were trained.

For the general public, the benefits are evident. Due to fast changing and expanding needs for skilled workers, it is virtually impossible for public education to train students in every area. The need for complex and expensive facilities, among other factors, prohibits such a flexible approach to skill training; acquiring equipment to meet these changes and demands would place a tremendous tax burden on the public. Presently, proprietary schools are providing skill training in tandem with public education. Wilms (1975) reported that this type of training, while equally valuable, is less expensive than charging the total responsibility to public education.

Although vocational education is a complex and far-reaching field, current skill training and job placement are two major aspects that must be achieved. Proprietary schools with their built-in accountability factor to meet market and student demands appear to be the ideal partner for public vocational education. The gap between the world of work and the world of education must be bridged decisively if the needs of our future society are to be met. And the proprietary-school educators are aware that they must "deliver." One proprietary school administrator expressed is succinctly when he said, "We must be effective. It's the only way we can stay in business. Because this is a profit-making operation and because you can't stay in business without a product, the economics of the situation provides pressure." In the continuing and clear need for public education and proprietary schools to work together, perhaps this pressure is the common denominator.

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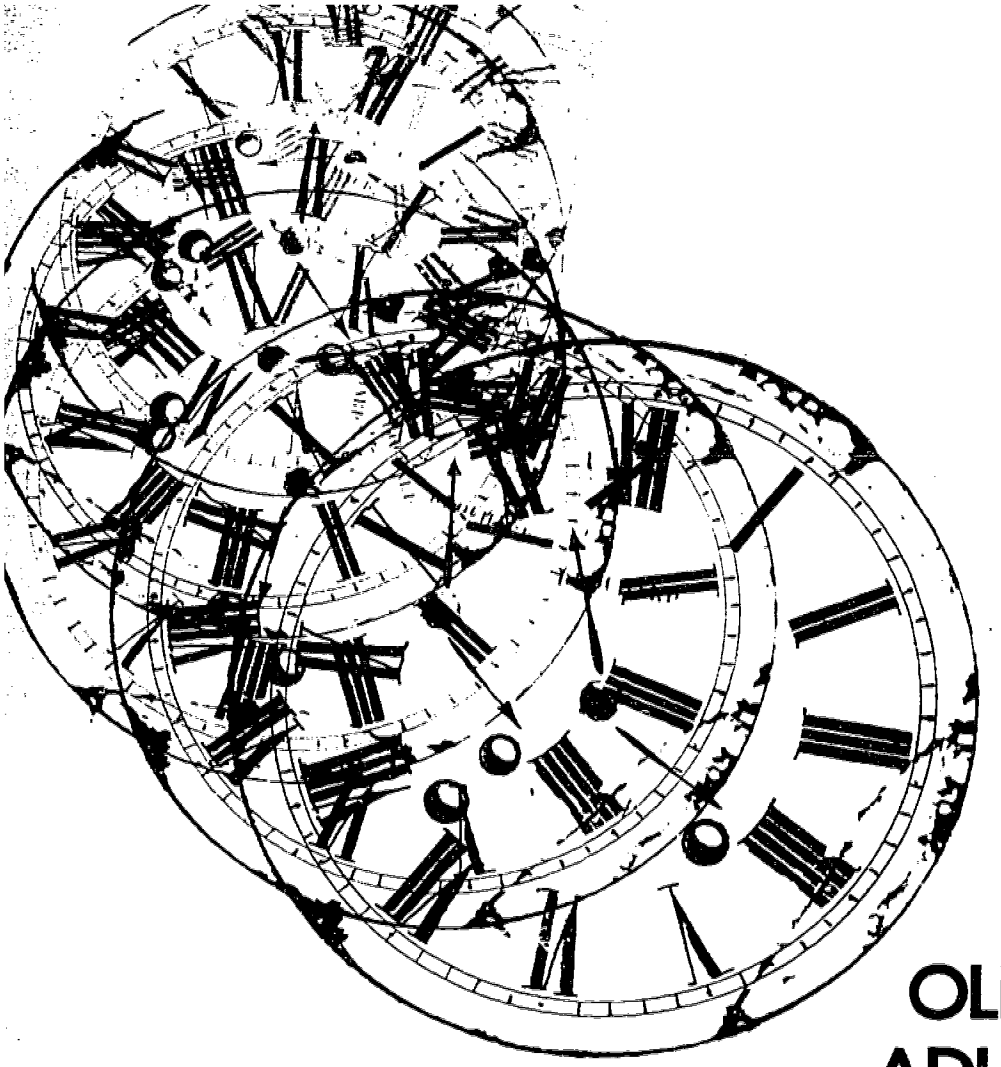

OLDER ADULTS: THE NEEDS OF A NEW MINORITY

Lynda T. Smith

It may be ironic, if not paradoxical, that the emergence of a society that enables an increasing proportion of its members to live more than 60 years is the same society in which only a small proportion of those living to reach that age, or beyond, are characterized as "wanted" or "needed" participants in the productive population, that is, in the labor force. The growing numbers of unemployed people beyond the age of 60 constitute a major social problem in America today. Too many older Americans see themselves as unwanted and unneeded, because their needs for such things as competence and influence are no longer being met. Moreover, our current social policies condemn too many older Americans to a penurious existence.

One contributing factor to this situation appears to be the transition from yesterday's agricultural to today's industrial economy because this shift has been accompanied by industry's decreasing utilization of older persons. In contrast, Sheppard (1971) suggests that there are a disproportionately large number of older persons employed within the shrinking agricultural sector.

How old are "older" Americans? Government agencies and other concerned bodies seem to disagree when attempting to define the perimeters of the comparative term. Department of Labor statisticians, for example, define anyone over 45 as an "older worker." Social Security guidelines, on the other hand, do not consider people "old" enough to receive Social Security benefits until they reach the age of 62. For purposes of this discussion, "older" will be defined as applying to anyone 55 years of age or over. This definition is not entirely arbitrary: within most older worker vocational-educational programs, 55 is the minimum eligibility age. It would appear that the differing definitions of who is "old" in our society point up the senselessness of using chronological, as opposed to functional, age classification.

Statistics show us that older Americans are growing both in number and in their proportion to the total population. As of mid-1976, there were 23 million Americans 65 and older (Lamb, 1976). For the year 2000, a generation from now, a figure of 29 to 33 million Americans over 65 years of age is projected (Hermalin, 1971).

Concomitantly, the economic facts of life show that many older Americans really need the additional income which a job provides. Lamb (1976) asserts that Americans over 65 currently represent the fastest growing poverty group in the nation. He attributes this situation to an inflation rate which has risen far faster than have Social Security cost-of-living increases. Despite a 527 percent increase in Social Security payments between 1960 and 1975, government statistics show that one in six persons 65 years of age or older now lives in poverty; only one in 10 persons under 65 years of age falls into this category (Lamb, 1976). These figures are based upon the government's definition of poverty as an income of under $46 a week for a single person and $57 a week for a couple.

While these statistics have a bearing upon a number of moral and social issues, the increasing proportion of impoverished older adults in the American population has enormous economic implications for our society. A basic economic concept is the "dependency ratio" of a given population. This is the number of nonworking, or dependent, persons over 60 for every hundred employed persons between the ages of 15 and 59 (Sheppard, 1971). As the number of retired persons in a population increases, the dependency ratio tends to increase. When this occurs, the younger working population must deal with the economic issues involved in supporting a higher ratio of older dependents. Concurrently, a greater number of older persons must somehow manage to survive on meager or inadequate incomes.

While jobs might ease the financial plight of many, determining what appears to be the overall "need" for older Americans is only part of a suggested solution to this unfortunate situation: many need training they never received, retraining of skills acquired some time ago, and upgrading of skills they acquired but did not put to recent use. Two and one-half million people over age 65 are considered functionally illiterate because they have either no formal education at all or less than five years of total schooling. Moreover, 50 percent of older Americans have not completed eight years of elementary school (Weg, 1975).

There is evidence to support the fact that many older Americans need to work (Barresi, 1974), desire to work (Schulz, 1974; Johnson, 1972), and could benefit from vocational education (Beard, 1961; Stewart, 1969). Thus, as an increasingly larger proportion of Americans reach "older" status, it would appear inevitable that vocational educators should attend to these citizens' needs and wishes.

Questions for the Future

The demographic trends described above will doubtlessly lead to the utilization of older workers in the American economy and this influx cannot but develop into a major policy issue in the near future. Within this framework for the future, several pertinent questions will need to be addressed. Two such major issues are discussed below in some detail.

1. To what extent will the younger workers of *today* willingly drop out of the labor *tomorrow* when they grow into their late 40's, 50's, and 60's?

Statistics indicate a positive correlation between amount of schooling and rate of participation in the labor force. In other words, we must confront the dual fact that adults with inferior educations tend to be "eased" out of the labor force, while people with more schooling tend to remain in the labor force for a greater number of years. Since currently the median education level of the American population has been found to be rising, this relatively higher education level of future workers may make them tend to resist mandatory retirement. An interesting topic for sociologists, psychologists, gerontologists, economists, and for vocational educators as well.

2. If we consider that while the educational level is rising, the present birth rate is declining, to what extent will the scantier working-age population of *tomorrow* be willing to pay for decent living standards of a growing retired population?

Again, in terms of today's figures, older persons constitute an increasing proportion of the adult nonworking population. The dependency ratio has been increasing and may well continue to increase in the forseeable future (Killingsworth, 1970). In a period where increasing demands for decent income maintenance levels for older persons will be on the rise, (to be met primarily through Social Security taxes on the working population), there may be resistance on the part of the working population to provide such decent income levels to larger and larger numbers of retirees.

It is an issue that will have to be faced in the United States, as it will in all industrialized nations in the future. What it means is that we may be moving toward a period in which greater efforts have to be made to reduce the unnecessary reasons for early retirement. These attempts may have to be initiated in an effort to come to terms with related questions: how to keep the dependency ratio at a tolerable level and whether to make retirement more of an option on the part of each individual worker. To do both, retirement rules would have to be coupled with a functional diagnosis of employability based on factors other than year of birth. How can vocational education become more sensitive in its response? Or, more precisely, how should vocational educators be preparing to respond to the vocational needs of older adults? The remainder of this paper will explore some possible answers to this urgent situation.

The Changing Clientele of Vocational Education

There are a number of areas in which vocational educators can move to respond to the needs of older adults. Today most vocational-education programs are geared to meet the needs of youth and most vocational-education practitioners (teachers, counselors, and administrators) have been trained primarily as educators of elementary-and secondary-school populations. It would seem, therefore, that the vocational-educational areas of program development and practitioner training of the future would need to include the needs of aging adults, vocational education's new clientele. Because vocational educators will have the opportunity to be influential in making future policy decisions in this area, they might begin by turning their attention to vocational *training, curriculum, program design, research, political action,* and *long-range planning* to accomodate these changing needs.

- *Vocational training.* It would appear that the first order of business is the broadening of the vocational-education curriculum in academic institutions. This would allow for more teaching time and training experience of future vocational educators to be centered on the older population. Academia has much to account for. As it stands now, social and philosophical issues relating to work and aging are largely ignored by academic vocational educators. Further, techniques for training and retraining older workers are excluded from the university vocational-education curriculum. "Many teachers provide models for neglect and avoidance of the elderly," reports Robert Butler, Director of the National Institute on Aging (1976). This disinterest in work and aging results in students coming away from their training perpetuating attitudes of futility and pointlessness toward the vocational concerns of the older adult.

Future vocational leaders will need to develop a perspective that will guide their actions toward a positive set of policies and programs for seniors. Unquestionably, the people who will be most influential in the field of vocational education in future years are the present and future graduate students in vocational education and related areas, such as adult education, counseling, curriculum, administrative studies, and research. It is their training within the university vocational-education curriculum that needs to be redesigned to include aspects of training, retraining, counseling, and job placement for seniors. Its immediate impact will be to alert and orient the future leaders in vocational education to the occupational status and employment problems of older workers.

- *Curriculum.* The following are suggested courses for inclusion in a university vocational-education curriculum geared to defining the problems of the older worker. These starting points for curriculum redesign consist of two theoretical courses, which might serve as an introduction to the topic, and two practice-oriented courses to meet the needs of those vocational-education practitioners planning to work with older adults:

Course #1: Problems of The Older Worker

(Social/Psychological Barriers to Employment)

This course would explore the external and internal forces that affect the older worker. External factors could include population shifts, economic factors, employer biases, biases of employment agencies, and the role of institutions in the job-seeking process. Internal factors might consist of jobseeking behaviors, motivational factors, and self-concept, as well as their implications for counseling and placement. Older workers and staff members from local agencies, such as the Employment Development Department, might be invited as resource persons. A field visit to an older workers' training program should be included in the course.

Course #2: Vocational Gerontology

This would be a broadly based multidisciplinary course that would bring experts from other fields into vocational education. The problems of the older worker could be examined from the perspectives of law, sociology, economics, psychology, political science, philosophy, medicine, and so forth.

Course #3: Training and Retraining Strategies For Older Workers

Retraining older workers requires changes in traditional methods of training in order to adjust the institution (in this case, education) to the individual. This course would have a dual focus: (a) the modification of the trainer's behavior, and (b) strategies for changing the traditionally based expectations of older adults. Required reading would include Belbin's *Training Methods for Older Workers* (1965) and *Problems in Adult Retraining* (1972).

Course #4: Job Redesign Strategies for Implementation

This course would be most effective if offered with a concurrent practicum experience. The primary focus would be on the assessment and implementation of a program geared specifically to redesign jobs for older workers and other groups with special needs. Interpersonal factors, such as relationships with employers and personnel considerations would be emphasized.

- *Program design.* In addition to changing university training, vocational educators should become more involved in the creation and advertisement of older worker educational programs. Programs designed for seniors differ somewhat from traditional vocational programs designed for youth. The major emphasis is on part-time employment as the means by which a large number of older people can share the work opportunities found and created by the program. Creative ways are sought efficiently to train several workers to perform each full-time task. Components such as outreach, counseling, and referral are more heavily emphasized in an older workers' program. Such programs are designed to stimulate social action and self-help. "Seniors helping seniors" is the catchword. Despite the impact made by the National Council on Aging's *Senior Worker Action Program* (1972) and similar

demonstration programs, the area of vocational program development for older workers is still in its infancy. There is a great need here for vocational educators with commitment to seniors and expertise in program design.

- *Research.* Very little research has been done on the numerous issues pertaining to the older worker. For example, there is a paucity of data-based information on the following topics: the significance of work at various phases of the human life span; problems of development and utilization of the older worker; the impact of flexible work routines; the impact of abolition of mandatory retirement ages; mid-life career changes; the problems of the older working woman. Vocational educators have the research expertise to undertake examination of these issues, in cooperation with unions, industry, and representatives of government, such as Employment Development Departments and Area Agencies on Aging. Beside providing needed information, studies pertaining to the older worker would ultimately heighten an awareness of this issue among vocational educators and among educators in general.

- *Political action.* The mission of vocational educators is not only to educate people for success in the workaday world, but also to educate the American people on current and emerging social and vocational issues, thereby influencing the climate of opinion and facilitating change. For this reason, it would seem that vocational educators need to continue their involvement in the political process with respect to the concerns of older workers.

  Several things might be done. Vocational educators could help push for the abolition of mandatory retirement policies. The adoption of flexible retirement policies, emphasizing a functional concept of age, appear to be the best approach to the determination of a fair retirement age. Vocational educators could encourage the enactment of flexible-hours legislation to expand the availability of less-than-full-time job opportunities. They could also work creatively with business and industrial organizations on the development of home-based or senior-center-based part-time employment opportunities.

- *Long-range planning.* Finally, vocational educators should become more involved in long-range planning for the needs of older workers. In addition to thinking in terms of Annual Plans and Five Year Plans, vocational educators could begin to project in terms of "25 Year Plans" or "50 Year Plans." Demographic projections for the future are available, as are demographic data for the present and from the past. These could be referred to in projections of future developments in vocational education.

A Timetable for the Future

As a case in point, one could predict chronologically the future consequences of making graduate students aware of the vocational needs and desires of seniors. This would heighten the awareness of other educators and would ultimately influence public opinion. It should be kept in mind that some effects of changing the university training of vocational educators would be detected soon after implementation, whereas other effects would not make an appreciable impact until many years later:

1975-1980: University vocational-education curriculum is redesigned to include vocational gerontology topics.

1980-1984: Graduate students are stimulated to do some needed research on the employment concerns of seniors. Researching these issues leads to publications in professional journals. This, in turn, leads to an increased emphasis on the employment problems of older workers at national and regional vocational conventions, such as that of the American Vocational Association. More vocational educators at places other than universities become aware of the issue.

1985-2010: Many more older worker educational programs are started, due in part to vocational educators' publicizing this unmet need and using their expertise to secure funding. Innovative part-time employment opportunities are developed for seniors in some public-service agencies and institutions and in some of the more wealthy and community-conscious private corporations. At the same time, the popular press carries more articles about older workers' educational programs. The press also features articles dealing with the problems of private

retirement systems and the Social Security system. With more older people in the population, public opinion begins to change.

Vocational educators are influential in the movement to make mandatory retirement policies illegal. At this point in time, however, the effort fails on a national level. Nevertheless, the states of California, Florida, New York and Pennsylvania enact flexible-retirement and flexible-hours statutes. (These four states account for approximately one-fourth of the older population in America at the present time.) (Weg, 1975).

2010-2030: The "post-World War Two baby boom" generation, those individuals born between 1944 and 1956, reach retirement age. This is an articulate, well-educated generation . . . a generation that influenced social change in its youth, during the campus upheavals of the 1960's.

According to historian William Chafe (1974), three conditions are necessary for a protest movement to occur: a point of view around which to organize; a positive response by at least part of the aggrieved group; and a social atmosphere conducive to reform. In the first three decades of the 21st century, these necessary components might well be met. Thus, the situation as we know it today would change dramatically and the vocational needs and desires of seniors would be considered and taken into account.

But before we get carried away by our enthusiasm, it is important to keep in mind that no protest movement springs up overnight, as Athena sprang full-grown from Zeus's forehead. Instead, conditions conducive to protest build up as if on a continuum: public opinion *becomes* conducive to reform, and individuals *develop* an awareness of their grievances. Today, in 1977, the social atmosphere is already beginning to change. Congress has recently passed the Life-long Learning Act (P.L. 94-482), which further legitimizes the right of all Americans to continue their education throughout their lives. Moreover, some enlightened vocational educators are interested in jobs for seniors and more older worker training programs are in existence. The critical element for professional vocational educators centers around the interpretation of needs growing out of these trends.

In the future, it is hoped that older adults will have increased opportunities to benefit from vocational education and meaningful employment. According to Barlow and Allen (1974), the "most crucial" of all principles which guide vocational education is that

> vocational education should be open to *all* students regardless of race, color, sex, age, political persuasion, religion, or national origin. (Italics added)

It is time for vocational educators to respond to the needs of older adults as they have to the needs of youth. Vocational educators must become aware of the need to move toward the development of work flexibility over the total lifespan (Havighurst, 1969). Only in so doing will our nation utilize all of its human resources and assure a full and productive life for all citizens.

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SHAPING THE FUTURE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS WITH FORMATIVE EVALUATION

Jeffrey S. Davies

It would appear that if we are to plan improved vocational-education programs in the future, we must better understand the strengths and weaknesses of current programs. Evaluation technology offers a valuable tool to help us put present programs into clearer focus. Indeed, using formative-evaluation techniques to pinpoint the assets and the problem areas of ongoing programs will give vocational educators the ability to build on the programs' strengths and reduce the weaknesses. At this time, when so many new programs have been initiated, new approaches have been introduced, and alternative school and skill acquisition practices are being presented, evaluation may be viewed as an important element to help vocational education

look forward to a new generation of high-quality programs.

A Definition

The Center for the Study of Evaluation at UCLA has developed a five-stage evaluation framework. The Center framework defines evaluation as the process of determining the kinds of decisions that have to be made; selecting, collecting, and analyzing information needed in making these decisions; and then reporting this information to appropriate decision makers.

Essentially, evaluation provides information to determine the strengths and weaknesses of a program at different phases of the program and thus enables decision makers to determine the need to modify, to retain, or to discontinue a program.

The five stages of evaluation as developed by the evaluation center at UCLA include (1) *needs assessment*, which provides information about how effectively an existing education program is meeting its goals and objectives; (2) *program planning*, which provides information about procedures for developing new programs — or locating and selecting among available programs — and structuring an evaluation component in the written program plan; (3) *implementation evaluation*, which provides information concerning the extent to which procedures detailed in the program plan are actually operationalized as planned; (4) *progress evaluation*, which provides information — while the program is ongoing — about the extent to which program procedures are generating the desired gains in student progress; and (5) *outcome evaluation*, which provides information that will enable decision makers to reach a valid and well-informed determination about the final success of the total program.

This paper is concerned with those phases of evaluation that hold the most promise for identifying the strengths and weaknesses of current vocational-education programs for future planning purposes: implementation and progress evaluation. Separate, but closely related, these phases constitute the formative evaluation aspect of the total evaluation framework. We will look at formative evaluation as an entity. We will also consider the similarities and distinctions between the two stages comprising formative evaluation and compare them in terms of their utility to data-based program revision and documentation (Fink, Davies, & Klein, 1976).

Why Formative Evaluation for Vocational Education?

Formative evaluation is especially useful in considering the future of vocational-education programs because the collection and analysis of the data are conducted while the program is ongoing. Formative evaluation spans the entire life of the educational program, from ordering materials, conducting training sessions,and arranging facilities to the final instructional sequence. The evaluative information is communicated to the program personnel to enable them to monitor and improve the program; thus, the success of a formative evaluation depends, to a large extent, on the timeliness of the information collected. If, during the course of doing a formative evaluation on a vocational-education program, adverse side effects are noted, action can be taken to define and correct the problem(s); if unplanned, but positive outcomes are found, perhaps they can be formally incorporated into the program plan and thereby ensure they will continue to occur. In all cases, recommendations can be developed for program improvement as a consequence of formative evaluation.

Unfortunately, the research literature on this type of evaluation in vocational education provides few examples. Although the Vocational Education Act of 1976 mandates periodic evaluations, there appears to be a lack of clear understanding as to *what kind* of evaluation is called for. Weiss (1973), reporting on a study by

Columbia University's Bureau of Applied Social Research of 10 applied research projects, found that when

> administrators expected 'formative' evaluation to aid ongoing program development and evaluators designed 'summative' (outcome) studies to render judgment on the program *after* its conclusion, administrators lost interest and withdrew support. (Emphasis this author's).

Indeed, the evaluations that have been produced as a result of the Vocational Education Act may be generally characterized as outcome (or summative) evaluations which, as described earlier, provide a final judgment on the overall success of a completed program rather than an assessment of a program in operation. Among the few vocational-education evaluation reports available for study is an outcome evaluation written by Heinkel and Tepedino (1972). Their report provides a prime example of the importance of the *timing* of the evaluation procedure: in their study of a marine technology program, they found a wide gap between industry's needs and the number of students enrolled in the marine technology education program. But outcome evaluation is done at the end of a program, and thus, the report came too late to point out this discrepancy, and *too late to have* students select alternate courses of study. Such is the nature of many outcome/summative evaluations.

Formative Evaluation: Implementation evaluation

An implementation evaluation is conducted to determine the degree to which procedures specified in the program plan are being followed as planned. The data collected may be used for two purposes: program documentation and program modification.

Documentation of a program by keeping a historical record of information is useful for future replications of the program. Thus, a project can benefit from the past trials of a program.

Program modification is equally important. Suppose, for example, that an implementation evaluation is conducted during the first month of a new program and it is discovered that several classes have not been able to use a wood lathe due to a mechanical breakdown. This type of information may lead to a program modification, e.g., a change in the curriculum sequence to include work with the lathe at the end of the course.

If outcome evaluation — a far more prevalent type of evaluation — had been performed at the conclusion of the program cited above, it would merely have indicated that students had not achieved minimum standards in learning the operation of a lathe, not why this situation occurred. Although this example seems to present a simple problem and an obvious solution, it is just this type of systematic and ongoing evaluation information collection that can pinpoint problem areas and thereby prevent large-scale program failures.

Assessment measures. Implementation evaluations are usually conducted by using three sources of information: observations, interviews, and records. Great care must be taken to ensure that the data-collection instruments are both valid and reliable. Considerations such as timeliness and cost-effectiveness may guide the evaluator in the selection of data-collection methods. The information for decision making must be ready when needed if a program is to be modified in its formative stages.

Assessment schedule. As indicated earlier, the schedule for implementation evaluations should be written into the program plan; it should consist of at least three implementation evaluations to be conducted during a program. The first evaluation should occur prior to the first day of student instruction. This implementation evaluation might focus on such events as teacher orientation to the project, distribution of classroom supplies, and student assignments to classes. The second implementation evaluation should take place shortly after the inception of instruction, after a classroom

routine has been established. This may occur in the third or fourth week of instruction. Any significant discrepancies between actual classroom practices and the procedures specified in the program plan should be discovered and reported as early as possible in the program. The third implementation evaluation may take place some time later, depending on the length of the program. This type of evaluation scheduling provides a check that the program procedures are actually being carried out as planned.

Formative Evaluation: Progress evaluation

A progress evaluation is conducted to provide information about the degree to which a program is achieving its prespecified objectives. Like implementation evaluation, progress evaluation may be conducted for program documentation and program modification purposes. However, progress evaluations are usually scheduled for the end of each unit of study within a course, and thus provide a record of how the program is proceeding toward its objectives. If problems are found, an implementation evaluation might be called for using data obtained during the progress evaluation. For example, if students at one school are consistently achieving higher scores on tests than students at another school, these progress data might prompt an implementation evaluation to determine what procedures, if any, are causing the difference. It is important that the results of the tests required for progress evaluation within a classroom are not used to grade the students nor used as a basis for judging student capabilities; the tasks required by the administration of these tests should be viewed as a valuable component of the learning process as well as a source of feedback for the teacher and quality control for the planning of future units of the course. Briefly then, where implementation evaluations tend to focus on process activities, progress evaluations tend to focus on interim student performances.

Assessment measures. Many different measurement techniques are appropriate for progress evaluations. Selected response tests include true-false, matching, or multiple choice. Constructed response tests include essay, short answer, and completion. There are, in effect, a multitude of additional measurement techniques: performance tests and tasks, records, checklists, interviews, and observations. Selection of the appropriate progress-evaluation instrument should be based on a number of factors. Among these are the primary requirement that the results of the instrument — whether built by evaluation staff or bought from a commercial firm — assist in answering the pertinent evaluation questions. Indeed, it should be remembered that their answers require meaningful data and therefore only those data that may be meaningful in terms of possible program improvement should be collected. Consideration should be given to the type of data needed by the decision maker, the cost of the data collection, the reliability and validity estimates, the unit of analysis, and most of all, to the potential audience of the evaluation report.

Some examples

To illustrate the differing concepts of implementation and progress evaluations and the appropriate use of each, three examples are given below. They suggest the need for formative-evaluation procedures that are sensitive to the many variables operating in ongoing vocational-education programs.

Case Example #1: Progress evaluation

A new Distributive Education program was installed in Hamilton High School in September. A *progress evaluation* was scheduled for the end of the first unit in October. The criterion-referenced, multiple-choice achievement test results indicated

that students averaged 80 percent correct responses on the first objective but only 60 percent on the second objective, dealing with principles of product display in a show case. Subsequent interviews with the teacher revealed that many students had missed class sessions due to frequent football pep rallies and assemblies. The principal rescheduled these rallies and assemblies during the noon lunch hour.

Case Example #2: Implementation evaluation

The Vocational Guidance and Counseling Project was designed to help provide students with information about various occupations. An implementation evaluation conducted during the sixth month of the program revealed that counselors were not following procedures outlined in the program plan. A classroom observation report explained that the SRA kits were missing some components, the career film loops were broken, cassettes bearing occupational information were inaudible, and the vocational guidance films were badly scratched. When interviewed, several teachers pointed out the poor condition of the instructional materials and justified their use of substituting various books and lectures not included in the program plan. When appraised of the situation, the project director secured funding for the purchase of replacement equipment.

Case Example #3: Progress evaluation

Preliminary progress data collected in a new Agricultural Education program were disappointing. In a performance test, students had been unable to perform maintenance operations on a farm tractor. A check of school records disclosed that the test had been conducted on a make and model of tractor different from the one on which the students had practiced. In a committee meeting with the project director and agricultural education teachers, it was agreed that students should practice on several different types of tractors, if possible, and that test situations should be consistent with practice sessions.

In summary, close attention to the strengths and weaknesses of currently operating vocational-education programs will pay off when planning new, improved programs. To help shape future vocational-education programs, more implementation and progress studies need to be conducted on present programs. Specific information is required for long-term planning and formative evaluations have been designed to meet this need for specificity.

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CONFLICT IN CALIFORNIA CAUSAL FACTORS AND A PROPOSAL TO REDUCE ITS INTENSITY

Lewis R. Tarbox

The Issue

Over the past few years, there appears to be taking place in California a visible sharpening of the traditional conflict between the various segments presently competing for the limited resources being allocated to education by county, state, and federal resources: the four-year schools, the community colleges, the regional occupation centers and programs, and the regular K — 12 system. If the four-year schools are separated into two subsystems, i.e., the University of California and the state university/college system, there are actually five levels. In addition, within each segment, there are special interest groups that also compete for funds. A matter of primary consideration to those involved in vocational education is the [illegible]ification of this conflict, parti[illegible]s it concerns the schism that contin[illegible] exist between academic and vocatio[illegible]ofessionals and personnel. Within e[illegible]f these groups function

many other subgroups, each lobbying for a special interest. Within the vocational-education groups, special attention is being paid to the duplication by the various educational delivery systems in providing vocational courses to the public. It is this area of vocational education this

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paper will discuss in an attempt to shed some light on the conflict within the California educational community.

The Intensification of the Conflict

The five-percent cap. In his 1975-76 budget, Governor Brown of California imposed a five-percent growth cap upon all educational institutions and agencies. In the past, educational institutions had prepared their budgets based on average daily attendance (ADA) forecasts of the next year. For the fiscal year 1975-76, administrators and school boards had followed the usual procedure of beginning their budget process in the late fall of the preceding year. This customary timeline enabled them to be ready for public hearings in the early summer and for the finalizing of all proposed budgets in the month of August. But in June, 1975, without warning, the legislature passed the state budget which included the five percent cap. It came too late for the adjustment of budget proposals to reflect the cap. But the effect of the cap was unequivocal: no program requiring state assistance was to increase by more than five percent of its funding for the preceding year, unless of course, the local districts wanted to absorb the extra cost out of local funds. Thus, when the state legislature accepted the proposal, a principle of educational finance in California changed dramatically almost overnight. At the same time, the change required all who determine educational budgets to re-order their priorities and budgeting processes. Indeed, the governor requested the continuation of the five-percent growth cap for another year. Thus, the effect of the squeeze placed upon local funds was to be continued.

The response of administrators and school boards to the cap was predictable. Programs were cut where possible and in some cases, staff was reduced. At the present time, as new budgets are being prepared, it is clear that resources are being allocated to those groups who have the strongest voice in the affairs of the particular district at the particular moment. Inevitably, the imposition of the growth restraint has resulted in intensified competition for scarcer resources within the educational community . . . and the allocations are not always made in the best interests of one of the critical participants in the educational process: the student.

Similarly, competition — and tension — within the California educational community has increased with the passage of AB1821 (Montoya). Section 1 of this bill establishes regional adult and vocational-educational councils composed of representatives of local educational agencies. The function of these councils is to review and make recommendations on vocational-adult- and continuing-education courses. The bill also seeks to prevent unnecessary duplications within the various regions set up under its specifications. In October, 1975, hearings were held throughout the state. It is no secret that the hearings, particularly those in Los Angeles, generated heated discussions when formal presentations were made by spokesmen for the various segments of the educational community. Widely discussed during the hearings was the level of state funding and the degree of control exacted by the state for that support. It was found that if the typical level of state funding for educational units in California is approximately 30

percent (with 10 percent federal and 60 percent local funds), the state appears to want to exert 51 percent control for its 30 percent support while the federal government appears to expect educational programs to follow their guidelines.[1] (See "What is this RAVE in Vocational Education" elsewhere in this journal).

But, where competition for funds increased, the old academic/vocational education conflict emerged with renewed vigor. Indeed, the five percent limiting of funds set off a host of reactions, particularly by special-interest groups who clamored for their fair share by questioning the validity of existing educational goals and objectives. Indeed, there are times the basic purposes of educational institutions must become subject to new interpretations. In California, where existing ADA formulas have dictated state support, statements broadening the appeal of the institutions were added, thereby gaining additional ADA and thus, increased state support. Most schools and colleges hewed pretty closely to worthwhile student objectives, students needs and most particularly to academic teaching and the pursuit of excellence, but in some instances, appeals and inducements were added to the point of overriding what some would consider to be the legitimate purposes of educational institutions.

For example, a position paper presented by Richard Reed at Barstow College (1975) told of one small college in California that did take another look at its educational mission. At that one small college, the philosophy of the college took into consideration the diversified character of potential or actual students, the nonacademic occupational or career goals compatible with a college program, the necessity for good citizenship, and the existence of significant differences of opinion concerning what other educational programs should be included in the curriculum. Dr. Reeb reported, "The result was a rather untidy but not indefensible collection of goals which persons of both academic and vocational bent could live with." He clearly indicated that he felt the philosophy of a college should balance the primary academic objectives with the secondary nonacademic objectives.

Similarly, I would like to suggest that there need not be a polarization between the academic and nonacademic programs in education. Although there are many instances of this kind of conflict, they indicate nothing so much as a fear that academic programs may be threatened by vocational-education programs. Indeed, such attitudes have been successful in affecting the skewness academically oriented personnel may desire; supporting figures may be found in the California Advisory Council on Vocational Education Report for 1974-75 (p. 5). This report indicates that, while occupational programs have been growing with enrollments up over 34 percent and vocational instruction being offered in over 300 fields, there is nevertheless greater emphasis on the college preparatory track by both counseling and guidance staff. But don't those in education of the so-called academic bent take their courses in the hope that they will be able to find positions utilizing the skills learned in their courses? While these people do not take vocational programs as such, aren't they nevertheless seeking education that will lead to employment? Is this not seeking education for employment skills? And is this not the same objective as that of the machinist, the accountant, or the laboratory technician who goes to school or college? There can be no argument that all courses eventually lead to vocational goals for most students (although some may be seeking recreational or other pursuits) and that these goals are the overriding objective of our educational programs. J. K. Little (1971) indicates that schools should be open to all and serve purposes as broad as the range of human vocations and avocations,

providing educational opportunities in which students may participate throughout their lives. The critical issues, then, really is whether the curriculum meets the needs of students in satisfying their career objectives. Surely, reaching these objectives is why they came to school. And just as surely, if their needs are not met, they are likely to act as consumers do in any free society; they will seek to satisfy their needs utilizing other delivery systems.

Three Options

To do nothing. There are probably as many solutions to solving conflicts within the educational community on the state and local levels as there are individuals willing to recognize conflict. However, because all possible solutions must take into account that most of the conflict is caused by a shortage of resources to conduct viable educational programs, those solutions that are either impractical or impose added costs cannot be considered. But since there are only three directions in which one can go: stand still, advance, or retreat, it might be worth noting that the factors of impracticality and costs are the very deterrents quoted by some administrators and school-board members for not doing anything at all. This status-quo attitude seems to derive from the traditional bureaucratic position that to act is useless, because problems come and go, and over time, are replaced by other problems. To act upon some of these problems, therefore, stirs up a hornet's nest of additional problems — all costing money and much effort, while it really makes little difference which problems are solved, or whether an attempt is made to solve them at all. These do-nothing administrators appear to feel they serve effectively if they plan over a long period of time. It must be admitted there is some justification for this attitude, for as innovations such as AB1821 or the five-percent cap are imposed upon the educational community, forces do spring up and go to work to change them.[2]

Still, the "don't rock-the-boat" attitude presents some inherent dangers, particularly where the innovations might turn out not to be passing fads. For example, while moves are already being made to change AB1821, the concept of regional councils of some kind to monitor the duplication of programs may well be made a part of all — or any — new legislation. But what may occur with respect to one "change" may not for another; many bills other than AB1821 have not carried this impact of "change" over an almost universal spectrum. Thus, standing still might well be effective for most ongoing programs, for when old programs are changed, there will be attendant needs to accomodate these changes. The "art" now appears to imply the ability to distinguish between innovations that will be standardized and those that will disappear after a short time. In clear reference to today's problems, it might mean that to do nothing at the present might be a positive action.

To effect change. If change is to be effected, however, the likely way to go about it is to revamp the budgeting process. This is particularly true in the area of future planning. Long-range planning has been a part of business and industry as well as education for a long time, but business seems to have done a better job of responding to it in their budgeting processes. Indeed, business and industry indices show that the most successful profit-making institutions are those that have adjusted their goals and objectives as conditions changed. It would therefore be reasonable to assume that a similar response would be beneficial to education as well. Within the range of control mechanisms, a developed budget is one of the most effective tools administrators have at their disposal. But they must be used. Koontz and O'Donnell (1972) list five basic kinds of budgets:

- Revenue and expense budgets
- Time, space, material, and product budgets
- Capital and expenditure budgets
- Cash budgets
- Balance sheet or Position statement budgets

These kinds of budgets used by the business world can be modified to fit educational institutions, and some have, in fact, been effectively used by educators. At most institutions, it is not the budget that is at fault, it is the budgeting process. Generally the process is the same: it starts out with the distribution of budget forms to department heads. This request to submit a budget assumes the administrator is able to determine what the department will be needing the following year; little or no mention is made of needs beyond the next year. When all departments' forms are filled in, they are combined into a master budget, which is then adjusted for available resources. These adjustments are usually of an arbitrary nature, frequently made in the form of a set percentage reduction or achieved by the cutting of specific requests felt by administrators to be "less essential" or "not necessary."

This budgeting process, as practised within most educational institutions, seems backward in orientation. Budgeting for nonprofit-making organizations, in contrast to commercial enterprises, cannot be based upon projected sales since there are no estimated revenues and no product requirements from which to develop the other necessary budgets. For nonprofit organizations, then, budgeting should start with the programs and services the institution will render; programs and services that are dictated by predetermined institutional goals and objectives.

For educational institutions, the critical factor is projected enrollment both in the short and the long-run time frames. Within this framework, goals and objectives must be determined upon consideration of elements such as student needs and desires, community needs, and state and federal guidelines. Student needs in particular must be seriously considered; if they are not, students will find institutions that do give them careful attention. Once priorities have been established, programs can be adjusted to available resources.

The key to this budgeting process seems to be not only the establishment of goals and objectives that satisfy student and community needs, but also the communication of such needs to those most directly concerned. It would seem that priorities for budgeting purposes can be set up in this fashion and that institutional short and long-range plans can be accomodated while including the guidelines set by state and federal legislation. Thus, the master plan should include goals, objectives, and priorities, and all available local, state, and federal resources can be brought into play to solve local educational problems. A vivid illustration of this method of planning is provided by the Northern California Program Development Center, at Chico, California. The Chico Center is based upon a three-phase program:

1. The ranking of educational goals by the educators, the community being served, and the students of the institution.

2. The evaluation and assessment of how well current programs are meeting the goals.

3. The development by the staff of program-level performance objectives to achieve the goals if they are not now being met.

The three phases are scheduled to be completed over a given time frame; this period may be not less less than six months but may last over two years. Significantly, the commission on educational planning of Phi Delta Kappa distributes the Chico Center program as a model for community and professional involvement. What it shows is that once goals and objectives have been determined and priorities established, it is possible to develop budgets reflecting student needs and desires.

Conflict should decrease as the levels of communication and understanding between those involved in education increase. Since the specific budgeting process an educational institution selects does reflect the perspectives and attitudes of the personalities concerned, it would seem that everyone will want to give his/her best efforts. Though the job may not be accomplished perfectly at first, experience will permit refining the process until the budget arrived-at will reflect all factors and change is indeed effected.

To cut back. The third way to deal with the conflict is to cut back staff and programs in immediate response to the pressures. This has appeal for the near-term, squeezed-upon funds. Cutting back responds to the pressing problem of restricted growth and nonproliferation of programs designed to attract student ADA under the previous financing methods. It relieves the pressures being placed upon local funds. But it also creates other problems, such as the troublesome questions of whose programs should be cut, and which teacher can be released without disrupting the continuing programs of the institution. In addition, tenure laws and the new collective-bargaining law must be considered, particularly since there exists a surplus of teachers and most of those currently working have tenure. It would be difficult, if not impossible, to dismiss a currently employed teacher. At California community colleges, even part-time teachers can gain tenure. Thus, while programs may be cut, these and other factors could keep the expenditures of funds at or near the same level as before with only the number of course offerings being restricted. Once again, it is the student who is the real loser if cutting back is the way selected to deal with the problems.

Fixed, variable, and semi-variable costs

Most educational writers have recognized that "fixed budgets" are markedly unsatisfactory in today's changing environment. We have all experienced where technological changes have made programs obsolete almost overnight and legislative acts have changed the ground rules as quickly as the stroke of a governor's pen. In order to respond to these fluctuations, accountants have suggested education analyze all of its costs and break them down into fixed, variable, and semi-variable costs. Experts then would use sophisticated methods to separate variable and fixed cost out of the semi-variable costs. Using P E R T, probability analysis, and computers, these experts would be able to project budgets at various levels of enrollment and financing. Indeed, for those institutions that have the expertise and equipment available, this method is feasible. However, such a system does not appear appropriate for those schools and college districts in California that are smaller and have limited resources and facilities. For those, let us turn to business and industry once more for a model. Small organizations prepare budgets for at least three levels of operations, (1) the most optimistic, (2) the least optimistic, and (3) the most probable level. In many educational organizations, once the regular (or most probable) level budget has been prepared, it would not be difficult, borrowing the fixed/variable costs concept of the business world, to prepare the other level budgets. If education were to use multilevel budgets, it would be possible to act positively upon changes in the environment, such as AB1821 or the five-percent cap. But in any case, the budget can be based upon a preconceived plan developed according to goals and objectives prioritized by those most concerned with the programs. Certainly, such a step will take most of the surprises out of the system and reduce the level of intensity of conflict within the educational community. In California education, emphasis can then be placed where it belongs: upon viable programs that meet the needs and desires of the students and the communities in which they do — and will — live and work.

Footnotes

[1]At the hearings of the Assembly Select Sub-Committee on Education at Los Angeles in October, 1975, a further illustration of the emotional dialogue that took place was an overheard comment from a participant: "Those who shout the loudest in an argument usually have the weakest position to support or defend." Most participants seemed to agree that the multiplicity of delivery systems we now have is ineffective and only creates the potential for

duplication and waste of resources. Dr. Walter Garcia, President of the Rio Hondo Community College District and the 1974-75 President of the California Community and Junior College Association, expressed the belief that the regional occupational centers and programs should be combined with the various high-school and community-college districts in which they are located. He also suggested that there should be a delineation of functions and responsibility for adult and continuing education. He further indicated that there had been an average increase in 1975 of 10 percent in ADA statewide in community-college enrollments, a clear indication of how the 5 per cent cap was hurting. Generally, the conflict-split appeared to be on three levels, the high schools, the R O C's and the R O P's and Community Colleges, with all three segments being critical of the other.

[2]As this paper was being prepared, the state legislature passed SB1641 and AB2790 which effectively removed the five-percent cap and the defined adult category in state support for financing adult courses at lower levels than the under-21 age categories at community colleges. There were also additional court decisions that had an effect upon the equalization of local taxes for school support, one of which was a California Supreme Court decision reaffirming the earlier Serrano ruling declaring present California property tax laws supporting schools unconstitutional because of unequal local support levels.

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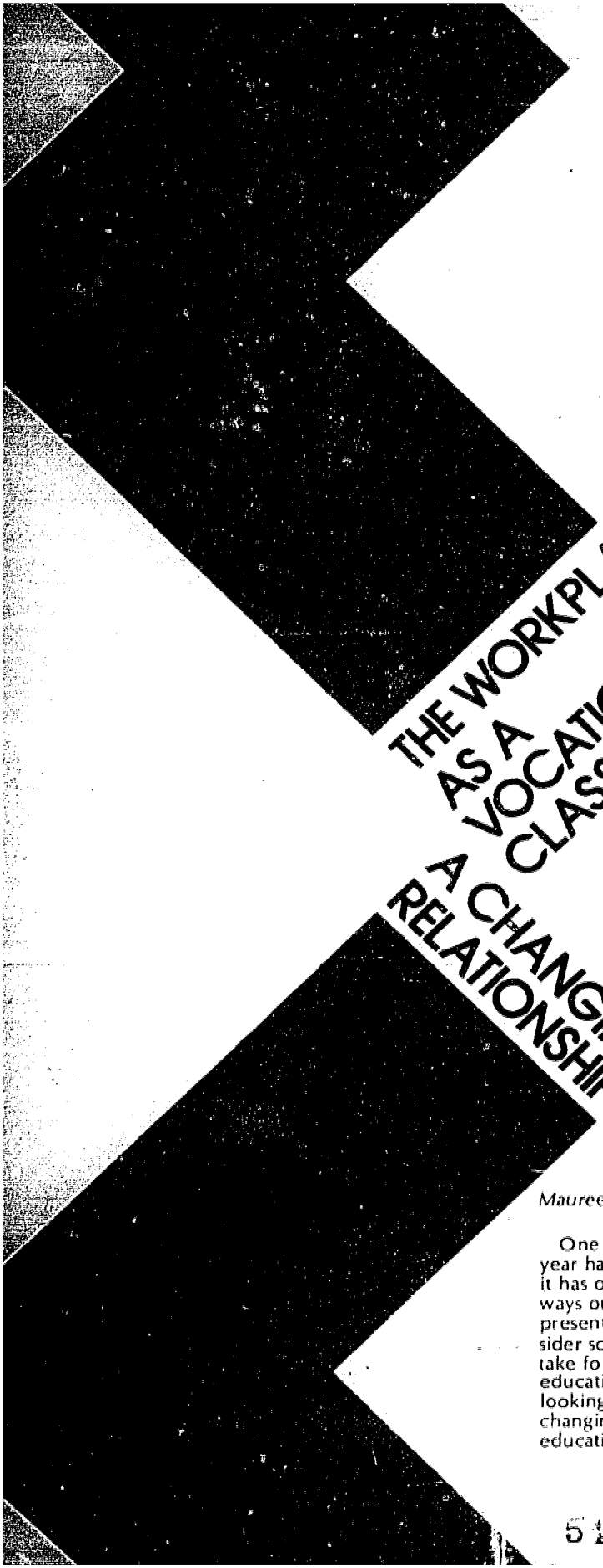

THE WORKPLACE AS A VOCATIONAL CLASSROOM: A CHANGING RELATIONSHIP

Maureen F. Jensen

One of the features of this bicentennial year has been the time perspective it has offered to reflect upon some of the ways our heritage has led us into the present. It also has given us pause to consider some of the directions we might take for the future. For vocational education, this dual focus translates into looking at an interrelated concept, the changing relationship between vocational education and the workplace. Workplace

is here defined to include all industry as well as labor, agriculture, manufacturing plants, offices, stores, and giant corporations.

In vocational education, we have projected our efforts into a single thrust concentrated exclusively upon the school. Participation by the workplace to date has mostly been confined to efforts made within the school framework. Traditionally, workplace involvement consists of such school-oriented activities as providing jobs for students who need work experience to graduate, of supplying classroom equipment, materials, speakers, grants, funds, scholarships, of organizing or agreeing to fieldtrips, and of a limited participation in school matters as advisory council members.

Efforts by the schools themselves have been no more innovative. Assistance sought by the schools consists principally of input from PTA organizations, involvement of volunteers both in classroom and extracurricular activities, and of service by parents and staff on committees. Clearly, the vocational horizons need to be expanded and nontraditional roles for workplace involvement in educational programs explored. This paper will address itself to the umbilicus that should be established in order to achieve business-industry citizenship.

Burt (1970) discussed the evolving social conscience of business. He reported that this concept seemed to have led to a number of workplace-education participatory programs manifestly established to help eradicate such prevalent social ills as poverty, unemployment, discrimination, poor and irrelevant public education, and waste of resources. Still, while workplace social consciousness was not a new phenomenon and occasional efforts were essayed over a period of years, Burt suggested that preoccupation with disadvantaged minorities produced the first major concerted efforts in an attempt to deal constructively with problems related to the recruitment, employment and training of these minorities. He argued convincingly:

> The lessons industry has learned from its participation in the War on Poverty and other manpower development programs has convinced great numbers of employers that the best way for this country to disengage itself from a permanent program of remedial education and vocational training in their shops and offices is to become directly involved in improving public education. (p. 155)

Burt also took note of the two underlying assumptions that stimulated many workplaces to become involved in improving vocational education: "double taxation" and the shortage of entry-level skilled employees. He defined "double taxation" as the burden carried by industrial and organization leaders, who, as citizens, pay for public-school training and as employers, have to pay again for remedial on-the-job programs. Beall (1976) reports that in a 1971 Senate speech he had found the federal government to be investing approximately one dollar in remedial manpower programs for every dollar invested in preventive vocational education. Five years and no improvement later, perhaps it is time for us to reorder our priorities. A system this noticeably ineffective would require both profit-oriented employers and overtaxed citizens to welcome an attempt at change. It is clear that the road to improvement is to involve all concerned in vocational-education programs.

A mutual recognition of the benefits inherent in cooperative efforts between education and the workplace do of course antedate the 1960's. As early as the initial quarter of the century, the first vocational-education legislation was enacted with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. Barlow (1976) reports that some years before, the American Federation of Labor had presented a case for vocational education at its Toronto convention. In 1909, the young labor federation had proved conclusively to the investigating

committee and to the interest of business organizations, boards of trade, other labor organizations, and educators that their recognition of demands for industrial education was based on the real need to find an alternative within the educational system to the old apprenticeship system. In addition, before Smith-Hughes passed, a report had been delivered to the U.S. House of Representatives defining the three sources of manpower waste, i.e., the involuntarily idle, the imperfectly employed, and the improperly employed. The report indicated that these categories of the workforce must be eliminated before increased production could begin. The involvement of industry representatives had been clearly established with the passing of these early federal laws. Their function was defined as of then: to advise, direct, evaluate, and assist in the conduct of vocational-education programs. But the issue has never been that simple.

If we recognize that there is nothing new in the concept of initiating a meaningful industry-education relationship, it is noteworthy that industry appears to be increasingly encouraging relationships it opposes when educators initiate laws mandating similar objectives. A related study (1968) done by the National Industrial Conference Board found that, during the late 60's, business interest in public affairs had increased significantly for the 1,000 companies surveyed. A majority of the companies studied indicated their concern for socioeconomic problems and their actions contributing to the resolution of those problems were described. In addition, the study found that 69 percent of the 1,000 organizational respondents expressed concern for the improvement of work/career opportunities for minority groups.

Indeed, during the last decade, industry involvement was widespread in such programs as manpower development and training programs, job corps programs, advisory committees to opportunities industrialization centers, community action agencies, concentrated employment programs, urban coalition, the National Alliance of Businessmen, and many others. The major impact of these programs has as yet to be fully assessed. However, the list of participating workplaces numbered in the thousands and all recognized this participation as a need to involve their organizations in educational programs. The insights thus gained by industry regarding basic vocational-education needs as well as the more general problems of schools may well help explain why today, industry continues to initiate cooperative relationships with education.

At the same time, partly because of this increased involvement, industry seems to have become more aware of school failures. A major criticism directed at school administrators concerns their unwillingness to accept advice and assistance offered by industry, particularly for those programs educators have attempted to make relevant to the needs of the target population as well as to industry's needs for skilled employees. Former head of USOE Terrel Bell (1976) suggests that vocational education has had to change more than other areas of education because it must deal with the demands and trends of the labor market which fluctuate constantly. Continual attempts must be made to incorporate technological and industrial innovation into new or existing programs. In addition, Commissioner Bell points out that vocational education is also responsible for augmenting basic cognitive skills so that workers will be able to go beyond entry-level jobs. He reports that career awareness and an improved understanding of a variety of work environments "may assume greater importance than it now holds." Dr. Bell

also feels that, "more than ever before, vocational education will expand its collaborative activities to encourage youth to stay in school and continue their education." (p. 10) He foresees more extensive cooperation with other institutions, such as industry, business, and the home, and suggests, "employers will share more of the burden which has been placed on education to effect social change, including social mobility and equity." (p. 10) Indeed, industry's awareness of the schools' inability to effect the changes needed to meet current needs has led to the emergence of company-owned and run vocational schools such as Westinghouse, North American Rockwell, Ryder, Philco-Ford, and others. These corporation-run schools are in addition to the traditional private vocational schools.

But as more and more segments of the workplace are participating increasingly in educational programs, there remains a nagging conviction that our schools have served well only a comparatively small percentage of the population and have offered the majority a mediocre education. Burt and Striner (1968) report that we have not dealt effectively with a sizeable number of students who are competitively disadvantaged entering the mainstream of our economy.

In answer to this concern, workplaces have committed themselves to educational-involvement programs to a greater extent and with a uniqueness never before manifested. Many companies,including Aetna Life and Casualty, Iowa Power and Light, and the Chrysler Corporation have adopted schools. This method of educational involvement fosters assistance for vocational programs as a whole, including student activities, work experience, instructional materials, and tutoring. These are services that aid the disadvantaged; but they also help in gaining information needed to develop programs that profit both industry and education.

Kindred (1974) found that business sectors are usually more willing to cooperate with schools than educators assume, especially in the area of career education. There are several reasons for this attitude, among them the fact that more and more job applicants know little about work, little about how to complete application forms, little about simply sitting through an interview. It would be to the advantage of industry if it were to encourage students to explore job possibilities and availabilities and to do so at an early age. Increasing numbers of business people seem to be aware of this situation: many assign the responsibility of working with education to a representative. If such a liaison resource does not exist within a company, many personnel departments provide contacts for schools by inviting students to talk with them — or with other department employees — about specific job requirements or career opportunities in the industry.

An example of such a large-scale joint effort providing a number of workplace vocational classrooms is the California Regional Occupational Programs. Although established on a statewide basis, these programs are funded by local high-school districts for the purpose of entry-level training. The ROP represents a viable network that produces an umbilical relationship: it gives life to the corporate citizenship goals of business in addition to providing a pool of trained, qualified young adults who have explored in the real work world their career needs before leaving high school. Keep in mind that the average metropolitan high school sits on about 26 acres of land, instructs approximately 2,600 students, and has necessarily limited staff, equipment, space, and funds. Conceptualize, then, a campus

stretching throughout an area of 750 square miles and serving more than 13,000 students yearly. Those are the dimensions of the length and breadth of what Los Angeles Unified School District's Regional Occupational Programs considers to be its campus. It is important to note that the programs use not only the district's regular high schools for class sites, but puts into service dozens and dozens of local industry and business locations. The total value of human resources, tools, supplies, and sophisticated equipment made available for student use thus adds up to billions of dollars.

The Los Angeles district has found that this initial, real-life exposure to the world of work has proven invaluable to the students, especially to those who have never set foot in or talked personally with a worker from an aircraft plant, with a furniture manufacturer, a landscaping company, a printshop, or a boat builder. To accomodate this need, there are two kinds of ROP programs: the "Day" ROP and the Regional Occupational Programs Center. The "Day" ROP has approximately 5,000 students a year attend classes 10 hours a week, usually in two-hour sessions in the morning or early afternoons. Students are bused to other high schools within the district's local administrative areas, or to nearby Regional Occupational Centers, or business and industry sites that offer their particular program selection. The second ROP program has grown to such immense proportions that it has been given status as a separate school and is called the Regional Occupational Programs Center. ROPC has an afternoon and Saturday program, offered outside regular school hours. As many as 90 percent of these classes are given at workplace sites. Erlich (1976) reports that about 8,000 young people are enrolled every year, in classes that range in size from 10 students at a county animal regulation center to more than 275 at Rockwell International's B-1 Division.

The Security Pacific National Bank participates in the second type ROP program. This corporation, among many throughout the country, has set forth a citizenship policy designed to contribute positively toward the quality of life in all 500 communities where Security Pacific banking offices are located. Through this alliance with education, two ROP programs are operating as part of these citizenship goals, one in the head office and one in a branch banking office. In the head office, located in downtown Los Angeles, students from six inner-city high schools learn general office skills in on-the-job work stations before graduation. Any student who shows an interest in banking and demonstrates office-business skills in high-school course work is invited to enroll. The instructor, who is responsible for the students, is a certificated school-district employee and works closely with the bank's educational relations officer. The latter represents the bank and is responsible for the coordination efforts between the district and the corporation.

The ROP instructors involved not only have responsibility for the selection of the student participants, but also for the related classroom instruction. Security Pacific provides the practical experience with employees and bank equipment on a one-to-one basis with the students. Transportation for the student to the bank site from the feeder high schools is provided by the school district. The student is trained for proficiency in a job but does not replace a paid employee or receive compensation while being trained. Instructional materials are provided to the classes by the bank and are given assistance by employees performing any particular job function. These employee supervisors are called station captains; they volunteer not only to work with the program, but also to help train and evaluate trainees progress every ten hours of instruction time. Training plans, including specific performance objectives and expected duration of training for each objective, are developed and maintained by the ROP instructor.

Joint efforts such as this one can present traps that must be carefully avoided when initiating industry-education alliances. Achievement of a proper balance between a particular company's employee needs and the objectives of vocational education must be a constant concern. Education and training limited to serve a number of companies rather than the community-at-large cannot justify public support. Another trap that needs to be avoided is industry demands for schools to spend excessive amounts of dollars for shop equipment and supplies which are part of the training and which can — and should be — provided on-the-job.

Educators, researchers, and planners have been conspicuously engaged over a long period of time in discussions concerning workplace education. Although today few doubts are cast on the validity of the concept, there appears to be a somewhat defensive attitude on the part of some that too much is expected of this kind of joint effort. Where pitfalls such as the ones described above have to be carefully avoided, even more important is the need to keep a clear perspective and not endow such attempts with the expectation of results — or even side effects — they cannot achieve. In this respect, Grubb and Lazerson (1975) much-quoted article on the continuities and fallacies of workplace education has indeed provoked an attitude of caution among vocational educators. Feldman (1976), borrowing from the rebuttal to that article by the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, suggested,

> The dialectical extravagance of Grubb and Lazerson is out of place in serious discussion of the goals and achievements of career and vocational educators . . . Many educators, including vocational educators, see the need for enormous improvements in workplaces and are often among the severest critics of the inhuman use of human beings by organizations of all sorts. But few would agree that there is an inherent, inexorable tendency toward such abuses.

Feldman further pointed out that vocational educators, in a search for support, have recklessly suggested that workplace education would solve all the problems of the world — from ingrown toenails to peace of soul. He cautioned that some of the ills of society, such as unemployment, underemployment, and worker dissatisfaction cannot be resolved by one constituency alone. Solutions to these problems can only be achieved, Feldman affirmed, in a joint effort where both the workplace and educational segments continue to work together to set right certain "crimes commited by the economic structure."

Indeed, a number of organizations have been developed to foster such cooperative efforts. Prominent among these are the Industry-Educational Councils. The Northern California Council states its objectives as follows,

> . . . recognizes the complete interdependence of education and industry . . . obtains its leadership equally from education and the entire community . . . recognizes that unless the dividedness which exists can be eliminated and mutual respect, confidence and cooperation can be established, we shall be wasting the greatest resource available to all of us . . . the trained manpower and leadership which is essential to our country and the world. (NCIEC, p. 1)

There have been other actions taken that signal the achievement of collaboration between the two agencies. Schools have appointed a number of industry-education coordinators and business has paralleled these appointments with increasing numbers of company and union educational liaison staff.

Although the mention of industry advisory committees goes back as far as the Smith-Hughes Act, the demand for greater industry involvement particularly in evaluating programs increased with the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Again, the 1976 Vocational Education Amendments call for additional support for alliances and continued support for advisory councils on all governmental levels, councils *not* to be constituted by a majority membership from the field of education. The responsibilities of these advisory councils are not restricted to program evaluation. The 1976 Amendments also spell out advisement regarding programs, services, and other activities of vocational education, as well as the introduction of individuals from business, the professions, and related field of endeavor into the schools as counselors, advisors, and/or vocational teachers. In addition, there is support for bringing students into working establishments and giving counselors or vocational teachers experience in business, the professions, and so forth. Support for these types of exchanges is not confined to words: appropriations for funding these activities are available.

There seems to be no question that vocational education has witnessed an evolution over the past 60 years in the development of the workplace-education partnership. Passing from oratory to eulogy to persuasion to legislative mandate, vocational education has clearly found that such alliances are in the best interest of all served. Rather, the question is whether workplace involvement in education will grow — and in which direction. Shane and Shane (1969) in their massive forecast for the 70's saw that,

> During the next ten years, business will participate in education to a greater extent. The growth of a cooperative business and education relationship will be of greater portent in the seventies. (p. 29)

Whether these experiences, given additional impetus, will usher in a period for the next decade of relevance, involvement, participation, commitment, and cooperation among all supporters of vocational education remains to be seen.

To conclude this essay with the thoughts of one of vocational education's most vocal supporters, Senator Beall (1976) emphasizes that the one vital goal is to provide more work-experience opportunities in addition to improving the coordination of training programs with job opportunities and other manpower efforts. Such a perspective calls for determinations by business and industry not only to serve the corporate citizenship goals, but to join with education in defining career objectives and helping to fulfill their needs for skilled manpower.

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AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE

¿se hablan español?

Arthur Hidalgo

The need for communication skills

Historically, vocational education has dealt to a large extent with training programs designed to prepare individuals for an occupation so that they may secure immediate employment upon completion of these programs. At the same time, it is widely accepted that the requirements of industry determine occupational skills needed for employment and occupational maintenance. Over the years, business, industry, and the state employment development department representatives — through advisory committees — have met periodically with educators to review the current occupational programs in relationship to the trends of employment market analysis, job availability, occupational

skills required for entry level, continued retraining, and other pertinent matters. Traditionally, inter employee-clientele relations and job responsibilities have been concerns of the advisory committees, although the advisory capacity was only to review and recommend. After suitable study, vocational educators would consult with curriculum specialists, counselors, administrators, and program evaluation specialists to analyze the advisory committee's recommendations. The intent generally was to operationalize the findings and thus, determine the latest educational methodology of the delivery system for implementation and student participation in learning about current required technical and occupational skills. In other words, the transition from the classroom to the job was made a relevant process. Congressman Perkins from Kentucky says in the *American Vocational Journal* (1976),

> vocational educators must (also) make greater efforts to assure that the job training that they are offering is relevant to the jobs which will be available to students upon completion of school and to adults when they finish their vocational courses. (pp. 104 and 114)

Clearly, it is of paramount importance for all vocational programs to be relevant to industry and to the society it mirrors. If there is a new challenge facing vocational education on its way into America's third century, the questions to be confronted are largely the same questions industry and society have been contronting for many years: offering goods and services to a clientele whose English may be limited — or not exist. The new challenge, then, is one of communication. For vocational education, this means a determination whether to include communication skills within the occupational programs that are related to the job market, both in terms of performance and service.

But if one were to affirm that these communication skills are indeed vital, does the responsibility of learning another language lie with the student or the instructor? With the community or the educational institution? With industry or the clientele it serves? And for that matter, how do you define communication and what constitutes a "foreign" language? Haugen (1956) defines knowledge of a foreign language as the ability to communicate from the range of passive understanding of mixed dialects to mastery of complete language use other than English. Still, although bilingualism and biculturalism in America have strong roots, commerce, trade, and services have been communicated in English since the turn of the century, due, according to Dolores Litsinger (1975) to the "assumed assimiliation of economic, educational, or social aspects of a larger society." This process may continue today in many areas of the country, but the 70's have brought a new phenomenon. Minorities have found that while maintaining communication in non-English dialects, bilingual and bicultural capabilities enabled them to keep alive their cultural identities as they assimilate into the mainstream. This is a pattern unlike that of earlier immigrants, who assimilated into the larger population while losing their original identity in the mainstream. We have only to recall the "greenhorns" and others who were taunted because they were lagging in their absorption within the society of the day. The recognition of this divergence of social and economic identities across the country has generated volumes of material and caused millions of dollars to be spent on bilingual and bicultural education. It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the question of cultural assimilation versus cultural separatism. It is, instead, to present a careful examination of the new challenge and attendant problems for vocational education to come to terms with the needs of communities where English is not the dominant language and where its use is limited.

Demographics support the notion that Spanish may serve as a viable example in determining the importance of the use of a foreign language within the context of vocational education in the United States.

Some Statistics

It has been estimated by government census (1972) that there are over 16 million persons of Hispanic background in the United States, a large percentage of whom are either Spanish-speaking (approximately 6+ million) or have close Hispanic cultural ties. In addition, it is estimated that over 200,000 persons a year of Hispanic or Latin American origin immigrate into the United States with New York, Florida, and the Southwestern section of the United States showing the largest concentration of these immigrants. Although many of the new arrivals earn their livelihood in an English-speaking environment, a considerable amount of their earnings and investments are spent in situations where Spanish is used for communication.

In 1971, the state of California, with particular emphasis on southern California, released some revealing statistics. Information taken from a study commissioned by a local Los Angeles Spanish-language radio station (KWKW) showed the following count and economic distribution of Spanish-speaking, Spanish-surnamed, or Hispanic-origin populations.

Southern California
Spanish-Speaking Populations
(1971)

Los Angeles County	1,290,000
Orange County	160,000
Ventura County	74,000
Santa Barbara County	46,000

Earnings for all four counties showed a total of $4.3 billion, of which over $3 billion spent for consumer goods. In Los Angeles and Orange counties alone, over $1.3 billion was spent on such goods. The same source found that approximately $1.7 billion was spent communicating in Spanish (Forbes, Stenson, and Baldridge. Radio Stations KWKW and KOXR). Although this study was done in 1971, there is no reason to believe that these figures reflect full cultural assimilation; they do show a clear picture of earnings and expenditures of population figures released by the U.S. Immigration Department. There is, in addition, evidence that over one million illegal aliens are living within these same areas, many of them of Hispanic culture and not included in any census figures.

Educators, law enforcement agencies, lawyers, doctors, health services, people in real estate, banking, and many others were the first groups to feel the impact and the legal ramifications and economic disadvantages of not communicating and translating Spanish correctly; these groups also were the first to assess the advantages of being able to provide such services when and where they did. Today, southern California's awareness of the need to know a second language seems to be growing. To cite a recent example as reported in a local California newspaper (San Gabriel Tribune, Jan. 23, 1977), "Valley Spanish-Speaking Areas would Get Assist: Medics Trained in Mexico." The article goes on to say that the University of Southern California School of Medicine and the County Department of Health Services are jointly designing a program to allow American medical students presently studying in Mexico to return to the United States and complete their internship-training in areas where Spanish is the dominant language. The new program, called "Fifth Pathway," will allow Californians to return to California after four years of medical study to work in health offices and health centers as interns, clerks, and in various other capacities. The assumption is that these students will be particularly well-suited to work in Spanish-speaking areas because all had to learn the language while in Mexico. Another example: The Highlander, Sept. 1, 1977, reports that staff at the Los Angeles County Medical Clinic have computerized the labeling of prescriptions in Spanish: half of the dispensary's 3,000 to 5,000 prescriptions per day go to Spanish-speaking persons. And the health services are not alone. Other service-related industries are beginning to react. Example: the Marriott Hotel chain is actively seeking personnel able to communicate in other languages and to place them in key positions. The Marriott management has found an upsurge of travelers who speak no English.

In addition to these figures, Los Angeles County shows some 11,218 (1971 figure) business ownerships of Spanish-speaking origin. Obviously, the economic as well as social impact of people of Hispanic origin or culture must be recognized.

It would appear, in the light of these statistics, that opportunities for vocational students who can speak and write Spanish are limitless. This may be a bold statement to make. Further, Spanish in this paper is not meant to describe the Spanish language as it appears in classroom literature or as it is used in the classical sense. The need for students is to learn Spanish as it is used in the work-a-day world. The urgency of this need surely is what Barlow (1976) had in mind when he referred to Edwin Lee's assumptions that lie at the base of the place and nature of vocational education in the social economic order. Assumption no. 5 states,

> An adequate program of education for work requires cooperation with a wide variety of nonschool agencies and groups. Some of these are in the community immediately served by the schools. They include employers and employees both singly and in groups; they include parents and youth itself; and they include such organizations as public and private employment agencies, chambers of commerce, service clubs, and religious and charitable organizations. The list is almost as comprehensive as the gamut of such organizations represented in the community.(AVA Journal, p. 65)

If we are to interpret Dr. Lee's statement that the community, employees, employers, and schools must cooperate with each other for relevant and successful educational programs, it is apparent that the key for cooperation among these various entities is the understanding and consideration of each other's human values, whatever the methods of communication.

Thus, vocational educators will have to respond to our ever-more complex society and the facts of social and economic life generated by the various forces that make up this society. Until very recently, bilingual education in vocational education was largely ignored. Maybe this deficiency was due to the fact that with few exceptions schools failed to see and point out to firms and organizations the economic advantages of offering services to Spanish-speaking clientele by Spanish-speaking professionals. Yet, the Basic Occupation Language Training Report (BOLT) to the U.S. Department of Labor (1971) clearly stated,

> Non-Spanish-speaking professionals and other persons who provide indispensable services to Spanish-speaking communities could better perform their services and better communicate with the people they serve if they had a working knowledge of Spanish and a better understanding of the culture and customs of their Spanish-speaking clients.

First, we must address the fact that some students in vocational education come from Spanish-speaking homes; but we must not forget that we cannot expect colloquial Spanish-speaking persons to respond in technical and sophisticated occupational terms or phraseology when industry and/or service-related professions require Spanish interpretation. It is, in effect, much the same as assuming that students from underprivileged Anglo or Black backgrounds will be effective if they use street-type English in formal situations. Certainly it constitutes less than a source of professional pride when older people or children are in need of medical or other services and they cannot be understood. From a humanistic as well as an economic point of view, the list of the need for bilingualism is endless. Indeed, the problem cannot be solved by the use of conversational (kitchen) Spanish. Emphasis must be placed on correctly translating and/or knowing the technical terms and phrases used in the specific occupational areas.

There are, after all, about as many different Spanish dialects as there are ways to speak English.

If we agree that the medical profession, the police, and all others who deal with the Spanish-speaking community are becoming aware of the need for trained bilingual personnel — or they make requests for such personnel through advisory committees — these agencies and industries are essentially recommending that foreign language and bilingual specific terminology be integrated into vocational training. To try and meet this recommendation presents a major challenge to vocational education. It would appear that the only possible answer is to include non-English communication skills into the vocational-education curriculum. This approach is important to the mono-English speaker as it is to those who will find employment in communities where the use of English is limited, but who speak colloquial Spanish. Recognition of this need has led Congress to include bilingual training funds in the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 under Title II, Section 181. These funds amount to a total of 300 Million dollars to extend over 5 years, beginning with fiscal year 1978. Where federal funds for bilingual and bicultural education had earlier been allocated to primary and secondary education, Congress has now included bilingual vocational-education training, and done so, "in the best interest of the country, an asset to the community, industry and society."

As mentioned earlier, the demands for bilingual education and the need to communicate in an actual job environment have created a new relevancy to vocational education — and to language instruction. For vocational education, the importance of Spanish to the workforce poses the question whether it is the responsibility of vocational education to offer foreign-language or bilingual instruction. Foreign languages have of course always been part of the liberal-arts domain. Foreign-language classes have been offered throughout our educational institutions either as a prerequisite for higher education or because linguistic knowledge played an important role in the liberal-arts curriculum. The Rowland Unified School District described its language arts programs as follows (1971) "Understanding of another culture is greatly enhanced when there is practical use of the culture's basic language, when literature can be read and when conversation can be carried on with some facility."

The language instructor within the liberal-arts curriculum traditionally upheld these curricular points — until students failed to enroll for classes due to the nonrelevancy of a language prerequisite or incompatability to actual language spoken outside the classroom. Here too the challenges of our changing society proved their impact. Haugen (1956) suggests that differing motivations for use of language leads to differences in learning reinforcement among bilinguals, particularly since the primary motivation is usefulness of communication, with function in social advance, emotional involvement, religious and literary-cultural values as well.

It is interesting at this point to note that if society has expressed its new awareness through congressional funding, the sweep of reaffirmation of our civil rights has been expressed through the courts and the establishment of advisory groups in traditional educational institutions. And so too, the public sector is expressing a new interest in learning a foreign language — and for all of us, this resurgence is resulting in better multicultural understanding. The occupational relevancy, which focuses now on a new dimension for students and educators in the mainstream of vocational education, is a result of these realities.

It has been a slow process. In 1968, President Johnson signed into law the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act). In May 1975, the bilingual training programs under Part Five of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 were amended to include awards and contracts for the development and operation of bilingual training programs.

What does all this mean for vocational education? The question is answered for us by employers, whether in industry or across government levels. There is a clamor for bilingual personnel able to perform occupational responsibilities effectively in two languages or in the appropriate language of the clients they serve. The challenge is clear: we *must* respond!

Below are some examples of occupational language training programs that have succeeded in these goals.

BOLT and Other Programs

The Basic Occupational Language Training —BOLT— program used in New York with its large Spanish-speaking populations has proven highly successful because the program formulated a methodology uniquely suited to provide trainees with a positive and useful language experience. BOLT used:

- a team of highly empathetic teachers skilled in audio-visual and audio-lingual techniques for teaching English as a second language
- a course curriculum based on job related vocabulary and usage needs, and
- a flexible delivery system of the most advanced electronics equipment which allowed BOLT to take the class directly to the students rather than vice versa.

Concurrent with the development of the English BOLT, monolingual supervisors, management personnel, and civil servants who were heavily involved in the activities of the Puerto Rican and other Hispanic-origin community were taught Spanish-language skills. The methodology for the one was essentially the same as for the other. The U.S. Department of Labor has available the final report on the program.

At a local community-college level, Santa Ana (California) Jr. College has instituted another program. Its aim is to train secretaries in a bilingual secretarial clerical program. Started at the request of local industry, the program actually develops bilingual competence in monolingual trainees and teaches bilingual students skills needed to work effectively in mono-English offices. Where this second feature is realistic and beneficial to the Hispanic student, the first is a recognition of the understanding and consideration of human values of even richer implications.

Conclusion

If vocational-education relevancy is to be achieved, a team effort involving students, language instructors, and vocational educators must work jointly within a bilingual occupational training program — or with an occupational training module for students now bilingual. Or, the foreign language can be introduced at various appropriate entry-points during the occupational training program. This last can be done after the specific skill is learned in English or if the student is weak in English but fluent in a foreign language.

The relevancy and occupational necessity of knowing a foreign language will cause an increase of enrollees in the foreign-language classes. Actual work experiences illustrating the usefulness of bilingualism related to vocational education will also encourage those students who traditionally view a foreign language as a handicap. Such students will be encouraged to view being bilingual as an advantage without negative restraints.

A spin-off of this philosophical approach is the exposure of career awareness; exposure to work experience may also be included in the foreign-language classes.

Another spin-off is the realization on the part of those students who desire employment upon completion of their training program that language can be an effective tool for finding employment.

The effective use of business-industry-advisory representatives who serve the non-English speaking clientele can help educators — both vocational and language instructors — to identify problems and technical terms common to everyday work experience. Core terms and technical language not ordinarily used in conversational or non-English can be identified and clustered to specific occupational areas.

Federal funds are now available that can be used for bilingual education in the vocational-training areas. Both industry and educators should institute research programs to be able to determine if an occupational training course should be offered totally in English, should be bilingual, and/or to what extent the foreign language should be included in the vocational training.

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ARTICULATION:

A COMPELLING LIFELINE FOR THE FUTURE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Suzanne R. Weinheimer

"Articulation" is a word frequently heard in educational circles. It probably qualifies — along with "coordination," "communication," "accountability," and some others — as a prime example of current educational jargon: the fairly undefined technical vocabulary of a special group that means different things to different people in that group; and something entirely different again — if comprehensible at all — to the population at large.

These words, undoubtedly initially selected by innovative educators because they represented meaningful descriptors of educational concepts, appear to be increasingly in danger of becoming caricatures of their original purpose. One has only to review what has been accomplished in many educational institutions over the last few years to realize that these words, and those like them, while intended to characterize action, continue to be used in the

professional literature, in meetings, and in other situations where educators gather, without being *acted upon*. Thus, when any or all of these words are used, they are gradually shrugged off as empty rhetoric. This response cannot but create an expanding public cynicism and, worse, the eventual loss of trustful expectations that the process to achieve concrete results will be put into motion.

What all of this means is that in the minds of many within the educational establishment, as well as among education's public clientele, the basic integrity of the entire teaching and learning process may be in jeopardy. At least part of the reason could be the careless abandon with which we use valued words. It would seem that to restore confidence in the process, we must confront the reality that, in education, our follow-through does not go far beyond our utterances.

The concept of articulation presents a case in point.
Certainly, articulation is a worthy example of consensus agreement as to its educational value, yet a clear case of an "utterance" with, at best, a variable "follow-through." Though this essay is concerned with vocational education, the implications of a closer look at articulation may well be applied to other facets of education.

Defined in Webster's *Dictionary*, ARTICULATION is a noun, of Latin derivation, meaning "1. The action or manner of jointing or interrelating," as well as "2. The act of giving utterance or expression; the act or manner of articulate sounds." The conventional application of the word to education generally refers to the jointing denotation - e.g., the coming together of people and materials representative of different segments of the educational community for purposes of sharing information and, possibly, active collaboration (co-laboring) on spheres of common concern. Is it possible that the dichotomy in the two definitions of this word has contributed to the problem of the word being used, but with little or no jointing action?

Articulation is one of the words that fill endless policy documents or are used to impress various audiences. It may be found in nearly every educational policy report, in a wide range of educational evaluation instruments, in training materials and programs both for all specific educator roles and in the general resource materials intended to assist educators in improving the system. It would seem, therefore, that articulation has general acceptance as a viable and useful educational concept. However, those who take the time to scrutinize the programs and institutions that, through articulation, would be joined in cooperative endeavor, will probably find little evidence of real articulation activity. Articulation, then, is merely a *paper* policy.

But in vocational education, there exists a tremendous need for articulation efforts among various groups. For example, among (1) staff, advisory groups, students, and administration on local, county, state, and federal levels; (2) across prevocational offerings, secondary programs, adult-education programs, community-college programs, regional-occupation programs and centers, and college and university programs; (3) with "external" resources such as business/industry/labor, state and federal advisory councils, secondary and postsecondary statewide governing boards for vocational education, appropriate legislative committees, the Employment Development Department, federal and state workforce training programs (CETA); (4) with other educators and agencies dealing with the same "special" student populations, such as the disadvantaged and handicapped; and (6) with private vocational-training programs, vocational-student organizations, as well as with the surrounding communities-at-large represented by the governing boards of the local educational agencies.

In short, the functioning arenas of vocational education in which the opportunity for articulation is possible — if not yet operational — are vast. One might ask why this is so. It has been suggested that one reason is that vocational educators are sensitive to the exposure that articulation inherently produces because it makes them vulnerable to critical views

and might force them to defend their policies. It has also been suggested that vocational educators, like many others in education, are protective of their individual jurisdictional domains. Undoubtedly, territorial isolation and independence of function among the various facets of vocational education have increased over the years due to the practice of categorical funding. Whatever the contributing factors, the results of this situation have been separate development, separate administration, and separate operation of vocational programs, regardless of duplication and other ineffective as well as discriminatory practices. There have been few incentives to share, to communicate, that is, to articulate.

But, where circumstances previously allowed such deterrents to collaborative efforts to impede progress, the climate is no longer the same. At this time, most publicly supported programs and agencies are under close scrutiny by private citizens or by the public's elected representatives and consumer-supported "watchdog" organizations. One result of this close examination has been changes in some of the laws governing federal and state support of these public programs. For example, the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976, recently enacted by the 94th Congress of the United States, contain a clear national mandate for vocational education and vocational-training agencies and their personnel to coordinate, cooperate, and articulate on many aspects of their programs. In California, Senate Bill 1821, enacted during the 1975 legislative session, established the Regional Advisory Vocational Education Councils, whose primary purpose for existence is to bring together the representatives of the diverse vocational-education and training factions for cooperative planning and to ensure that duplication of programs does not occur within regional boundaries. It would seem evident, therefore, that continuation of fiscal support and the position of vocational education as a high national, state, and local priority will depend on the ability of vocational educators to "put their house in order."

When one looks at the wide sphere of vocational-education operations, it is obvious that choices have to be made, and priorities established. For example, surveying the vast purview of existing avenues for *articulating* a single vocational program with the above spheres of influence, clear choices can only be made through the systematic development of individual program priorities.

Where is the initial focus to be directed in establishing those priorities? If vocational educators' primary concern is to impact the educational experiences of students, priority should be given to articulation efforts with staff of other departments within their institutional communities. If, on the other hand, the primary concern is to enhance communications and to build collaborative bridges between individual vocational programs and the surrounding community-at-large, a multidimensional plan of action should be devised.

Some suggested facets of articulation designed to assist the individual planner in future articulation efforts are discussed below.

Articulation within individual courses

Because vocational courses afford many opportunities to articulate with the dynamic nature of individual student development, courses should be designed — or reorganized — to allow students to enter and exit course content at different points. Such open-entry/open-exit policy is not only likely to increase participation in vocational courses, but also presents a way to demonstrate that a primary goal of vocational education is to meet the needs of students rather than to perpetuate the existence of what many consider to be an arbitrary training system.

Articulation between courses in the same vocational program

Where a common core of skills and knowledge, for no apparent pedagogical purpose, is repetitively reinforced within vocational-program offerings, reorganization efforts are needed to extract these essentials from each course content. There are a number of methods by which this core may be presented to all participating in vocational programs: through individualized learning packages, through programmed learning methodology, or through audio-visual materials centrally disseminated from a vocational resource center, to name a few. Whichever strategy is used, this articulation effort can ensure that (1) the individual student is held responsible for integrating all necessary concepts, and (2) the total course content of each program offering evolves into a unique contributor to student development. Articulation, then, becomes intrinsic to the streamlining process and does not require additional exertion.

It is evident that, taking this approach one step further, the process could be developed between various vocational programs within the same institution, e.g., business education, industrial education, work-experience education, and others. And, once begun, this approach might even be expanded to include all vocational-program offerings operating within the same facility, regardless of administrative jurisdiction. For example, this could be the arrangement between Regional Occupation Programs and Adult Education vocational programs housed in a common educational institution with secondary vocational-program offerings.

Articulation between vocational and nonvocational departments with the same institution

For too long, educational programs have been separated, segmented by departmental designations and independent administrative roles and responsibilities. Often the only formal interdepartmental staff interaction in an educational institution occurs at the periodic meetings of department heads. Thus, individual department competitiveness for institutional favors is fostered, traditional discriminatory attitudes, for cooperative planning, and cross-departmental offerings for students and opportunities for changing staff attitudes, for cooperative planning and cross-departmental offerings for students are not readily facilitated. This insulated approach to education has outlived a useful purpose and is, in fact, antithetical to meeting the needs of today's student population.

One of education's vulnerable areas for criticism from the "outside" community is in the lack of articulation between the so-called academic and nonacademic educational programs, as well as between the various departments within individual institutions. If one takes an objective view of the educational system, it would seem unconscionable that students continue to see little or no relationship between English, mathematics, and science courses, as examples, in terms of their relevance to their lives beyond the educational process. The relevance of subject matters to real-life issues is an emphasis that must be addressed in all courses at every level of the educational spectrum — an basic responsibility of the educational establishment as a whole.

There are a number of ways this responsibility can be confronted. One, to integrate career-education concepts into every course content, articulating these principles through all segments of the educational curriculum. At the point that vocational-education and training programs enter the educational curricula, heightened opportunities for integration will be manifested. Second, through cross-departmental team teaching, cross-curricular course offerings, multidisciplinary programs, and other collaborative efforts, relationships between subject-matter contents will become evident. For example, the relationship of manual skills such as verbal, computational, writing, and other skills to each other and to one's life beyond the educational arena become apparent and can be perpetuated. Anything less than this sort of cooperative approach within education is increasingly unacceptable to the majority of students and to

those responsible for the support or non-support of educational programs.

Articulation between comm[illegible] level institutions in near geographical proximity

Cross-institutional articulation between educators of similar specializations and/or grade level assignments within the same district is especiall rich in opportunity for staff development. Often the differences in teaching, planning, and administrative strategies and methodology between institutions are sufficiently diverse to afford abundant "new" input to all participants in the sharing process. This can be expanded further by having workshops, seminars, and special-interest meetings in which staff from other school districts participate as well.

The potential for growth and change exists when people are brought together. Of course, care must be taken in the design of such sessions to afford maximum individual and small-group interaction for adequate sharing of ideas and approaches.

Articulation between institutions representative of diverse grade-levels and student-age groups

These groups represent one of the most frequently mentioned and least implemented articulation opportunities made available to educators today. The lack of this kind of articulation is one reason for senseless repetition in student requirements and the use of materials from one level of education to another. Student interest and motivation to acquire subject-matter knowledge and skills are inexcusably depleted through menial and repetitive experiences. Vocational education can no longer afford to ignore a proactive approach to ensure articulation between the different levels of vocational programs, e.g., secondary programs, adult-education programs, Regional Occupation Programs and Centers, community-college programs, and others.

There are some students at each level of these vocational programs who may be more appropriately placed in a different level of a vocational program. However, the student's individual development is sometimes sacrificed in the battle for funding according to attendance (ADA) ratios. Lack of knowledge about available vocational programs for students, perpetuated by the continuing lack of staff articulation efforts, is a contributor to the loss of students in vocational-education programs.

A requirement of every community should be rapid movement toward area coordination of vocational programs in order to facilitate articulation among staff and accessibility of programs to students. Even with this type of coordination effort, mandated by the California legislature through Assembly Bill 1821, the prevailing attitude toward perpetuation of private domains has resulted in the establishment of over 70 Regional Vocational Education Councils throughout the state of California.

Articulation between educational programs, governmental agencies, and other community resources

Vocational education is among those educational programs most in need of articulation with community agencies and resources. However, there are few, if any, vocational-education programs in which this relationship has been exploited to the maximum benefit of all concerned e.g., students, the work community, and the educational program, among many others. Community resource development and utilization is a continuing and dynamic process — a give and take relationship. Too many vocational programs fall short of their potential in the development of student work stations. In many settings, vocational educators appear to be as removed from current contact with business, industry, and labor resources as their

academically oriented colleagues. There are, however, some exceptional individuals who have the knowledge and understanding of community development and the encouragement of their administration in this regard.

Articulation with community agencies that share responsibility for common "special" student groups — the disadvantaged and handicapped — are often grossly underutilized. The Department of Rehabilitation and the Employment Development Department have resources for these students that could be integrated into the school program. However, vocational-education and training programs are far from realizing parity in the integration of these students into regular vocational programs. Our communities are the real losers for not having the benefit of an integrated workforce adequately prepared to enter available occupational categories for which existent vocational-training programs could prepare them.

One could go on to reiterate additional opportunities for articulation as yet unrealized as well as to cite other instances of unreached potential in this area of concern. Yet, the basic factor impacting the future development of vocational-education articulation efforts resides in the individual vocational educator's sensitivity to articulation opportunities.

No, it will take one step more than sensitivity to opportunities for the current situation to change. The next step needed is for opportunities to become reality through commitment to action by every dedicated vocational educator. Words, hollow rhetoric not followed by deeds are the bane of the educational establishment's existence.

If a good, clear look is cast at the potential of articulation efforts, a framework for greater efficiency, a time and effort saver, rather than an add-on to present responsibilities may be perceived. As viewed by this author, articulation is a necessary survival skill — a compelling lifeline — for the future of vocational education.

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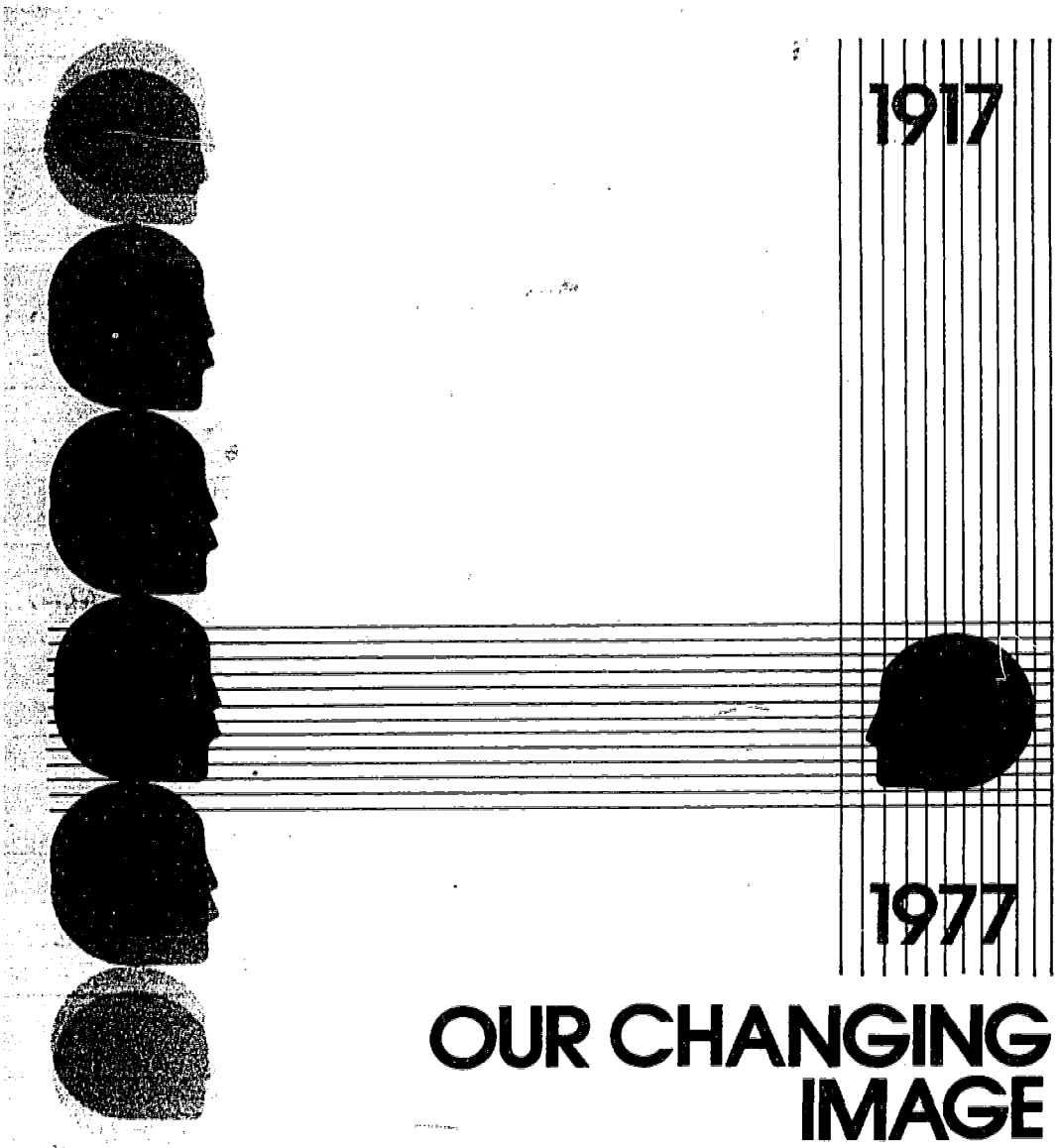

OUR CHANGING IMAGE

Mara Marken

The public image of vocational education has traditionally been ascribed with a second-class social status. The low prestige associated with practical education resulted from the original division of American education into two approaches: academic and vocational. The colonists, true to their English heritage, did not believe that children of commoners and the poor should aspire to the lifestyle produced by a classical education. Latin grammar schools were, therefore, established to provide the academic needs of professional and cultured families. The apprentice system was adapted to serve the basic educational and vocational needs of children of the vast majority of working families. By dividing education into two exclusive approaches, one academic and one vocational, the colonist created an artificial separation that has troubled our nation to this day.

The separation between academic and

vocational education was distinguished by three factors: content, teaching method, and the distinction made in social status. Academic education focused upon the classics, literature, history, philosophy, science. Its teaching method relied upon lectures and books. Finally, it was bestowed with high social recognition and prestige. The apprentice system, by contrast, provided basic math and reading instruction and training in specific job-related skills. Its teaching method stressed practical experience. Socially, it was endowed with the common social status of the working man's education.

When vocational education became a component of public education in 1917, the public image of what separates vocational and academic education was already well established. Changes in the two systems continued to occur, however, as the economic and social needs of society changed. But the image changed little. Academic education was associated with high-prestige white-collar professions. Vocational education retained the social status associated with blue-collar, low-prestige jobs.

Meanwhile, the social position of the vocationally trained continued to gain status throughout the 20th century. Technology raised the sophistication and status of most jobs, working conditions improved, and economic rewards increased. In spite of vocational education's association with increasing socioeconomic rewards, academia continued to maintain the public's reverence.

During the 50's and 60's, the distinction between vocational and academic education reached its apex. The launching of Sputnik in 1959 established a national precedent for the education of theorists and engineers. Academic curriculum became embedded with instruction in advanced theoretical concepts. Emphasis upon acquisition of a college degree increased in the hope of meeting the national need for scientists and technicians. By the mid-60's, more students were pursuing a college degree than ever before in American history. Vocational education had meanwhile grown to include a multiplicity of occupations from laboratory technician to computer programming. But during the early 60's, theory was the valued commodity, and practical vocational education gained little notice.

Today, the appropriateness of separating education into two distinct approaches is being critically challenged. First, the social-class distinction between the two is unrepresentative of society. A college degree no longer ensures a higher paying job or social prestige. The oversupply of college graduates during the 60's resulted in a devaluation of a baccalaureate degree. Students began questioning the meaningfulness of an academic education whose theoretical emphasis lost its relevance to practical reality. In addition, status, income, and employment security for vocationally trained technicians have begun to equal those of many positions in professional fields and are expected to make further gains in the future.

Secondly, the segregation of content and teaching method according to the two systems is no longer meeting the educational needs of the student. The technical sophistication of many occupations mandate that vocational education expand its theoretical course content. Academic education, meanwhile, has become aware of the necessity for practical experience and application of theory.

The clear distinction between the social status of the vocationally and academically trained has become fuzzy. Job titles and status of the vocationally trained often fall into the white-collar classification. Meanwhile, many college graduates are fighting rising unemployment rates by taking blue-collar jobs. It is for this reason that the public, for the first time in 200 years, is beginning to re-examine their mental image of vocational education. The old image of basic-skill development for low-prestige, low-pay jobs is no longer tolerable. It is intolerable because of the strong social need for a viable alternative to the academic versus vocational approach.

What is needed now is a unified educational system. One in which a student can develop both theoretical and practical knowledge. One in which the importance and relevance of both the fine arts and applied arts are examined. A system that challenges the students to question what they want from life and what they are willing to sacrifice to achieve it. One in which the student is provided with a number of pathways to goal achievement, and one in which the student feels no social stigma or pressure to adopt one road over another.

Unfortunately, the educational community, as always, is one step behind the public in identifying and adapting to the changing socioeconomic climate. The old mental images of what constitutes vocational and academic education still permeate the school system. It is important that we, as vocational educators, attempt to influence people to change their outdated conceptions. The attitudes inherent in the present image restrict cooperation and communication between the two systems. An open integrated system will not become a reality until academic and vocational education are given equal recognition and value.

How can we hope to change the public image of vocational education? First we can take a critical look at ourselves to see how representative the image is of the facts. An image not only reflects the facts but also the attitudes and values of the observer. Therefore we must examine not only the quality of our programs but the attitudes people express toward vocational education. Let us look at a couple of attitudes commonly expressed about vocational education and examine them for their validity.

One attitude, which for years has found expression among students, is that vocational students just are not as smart as academic students. Brilliance in American education has always been measured in terms of academic achievement. Vocational education is still seen as providing a basic education and skill development. Before we immediately reject this attitude as ridiculous, let's remember that we have helped create it. Let us take a look at our students. Most vocational students are those who have been turned off by academic education. They are often the potential dropouts. In spite of the career-awareness movement, few students receive individual vocational counseling until they have failed to meet the standards of academia. As a last resort, they are called into the guidance office and counseled to gain a vocational skill. High achieving academic students seldom receive counseling regarding their vocational and educational options. Students who maintain high grades only receive counseling on how to study for the SAT and how to fill out a college application. With counseling procedures like these, it's not surprising that people think that the academic failures are funneled off into vocational education.

Next, let's look at our curriculum. Is it comprehensive, demanding, stimulating? In most cases yes, but it's the few exceptions that need attention. In many secondary programs the emphasis on *basic* entry skills is made at the exclusion of in-depth exploration of governing principles. Take a vocational program in photography for example. One parent recently told me that he was appalled that, after two years of vocational training in photography, his daughter knows nothing beyond the technology of cameras, picture taking, and developing. No instruction was provided in the elements of photography; composition, harmony, balance. Students were not exposed to the history of photography or the work of the masters. Vocational curriculum must provide more than basic skill development. The sophistication of our students will match the sophistication of our programs.

Another persistent attitude is that vocational education leads to low-prestige, low-paying jobs. The fantasy still lingers that college graduates will be the thinkers, creators, and leaders of the future while vocational students will be the workers, the followers. First we should consider whether our curriculum is providing instruction in the development of leadership, independence, and creative

problem solving. Are our students receiving the necessary communication skills to facilitate upward job mobility? Are we providing enough courses in management and how to go into business for oneself? If our curriculum is not including these components then our graduates may, indeed, settle for jobs that require no more than basic entry-level skills.

There are a number of similar stereotype attitudes that need to be verbalized and examined. Where the attitudes reflect deficiencies in our programs, we should recognize this deficiency and make necessary corrections. Where they are based upon misconception, bias, and myth, we should take the initiative to educate the public.

The image many people have of vocational education reflects a lack of awareness about program offerings. Public schools publicize the success of the football team and the science fair awardees, but seldom recognize the success of the vocational students. Recognition is important if a student is to feel a sense of pride in accomplishment. We need to give our students and programs visibility. This can be accomplished in a multiplicity of ways; by publicizing our successes in newspapers and parent magazines, by strengthening vocational youth clubs, by presenting informational programs at PTA and school board meetings, and by expanding counseling programs.

To dispel the old image of vocational education, we need too the cooperation of academic education. Our challenge is to illustrate to the public the equality of all education. If this is done, children will feel free to pursue the road of personal development most suited to their individual needs. There are several ways we can gain the attention and cooperation of academic leaders. First, we can publish articles in a wide variety of academic journals. Second, we can become more active in educational organizations other than the American Vocational Association. Finally, we can participate in the planning and development of academic curriculum which relates knowledge to real life experiences.

Even more than a simple public relations campaign, we need to get more people involved in the planning and development of vocational programs. Firsthand experience is the best way to show the inappropriateness of attitudes. The more people become involved, the more values they will ascribe to their mental image of vocational education. Education is a life-long experience. We learn in a variety of ways. No one way is better than or less than another. All educational approaches are of value as long as they serve the needs of the student.

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