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ABSTRACT

This paper reflects on the history of the community college in the United States. The author cites Tillery and Deegan, who refer to five generations of the American community college. The first generation, from 1900-1930, is characterized as being an extension of secondary school. The second generation, from 1930-1950, is characterized as the junior college generation. The third generation, from 1950-1970, is referred to as the community college generation. The fourth generation, from 1970-1985, is called the comprehensive community college generation. Finally, the fifth generation, which Tillery and Deegan do not name, refers to the period from 1985-1999. The author of this paper suggests that the sixth generation might be called (after Terry O'Banion) the learning community college generation. The paper cites O'Banion's six key principles of the learning community college: (1) creating substantive change in individual learners; (2) engaging learners as full partners in the learning process; (3) creating and offering as many options for learning as possible; (4) assisting learners in forming and participating in collaborative learning projects; (5) defining the roles of learning facilitators by the needs of the learners; and (6) documenting improved and expanded learning for its learners, the only way the learning college and its facilitators succeed. (Contains 46 references.) (NB)

A Brief History of Community Colleges and a Personal View of Some Issues

(Open Admissions, Occupational Training and Leadership)

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A Brief History of Community Colleges

Doak Campbell, past Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, said that "this junior college idea has been conceived, it was born...[but] we are not quite sure of its parentage." (quoted in Witt, Wattenbarger, Collattscheck, & Suppiger, 1994, p. 1) Campbell summed up community college history well. Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) note that there were a number of private two-year colleges established in of the 1800's. For example, Monticello College was established in 1835 and Susquehanna University was established in 1858. Both of these institutions acted as post-secondary schools and were similar in content to the first two years of American colleges of the times. In fact, higher education witnessed a burst of growth from the 1862 Morrill Act, which allowed for the sale of federal lands to states, to establish state universities or add to existing state universities (Witt et al., 1994).

Tillery and Deegan (1985) like to refer to different generations of the American community college. Their first generation is from 1900-1930, and is characterized as being an extension of secondary school. The second generation is from 1930-1950 and is characterized as the junior college generation. The third generation is from 1950-1970 and is referred to as the community college generation. The fourth generation is from 1970-1985 and is called the comprehensive community college. It was during the fifth generation, which the authors do not name, that the book was written. This period starts in the middle of the eighties and is said to extend through the nineties. If Terry O'Banion was to have his way, I think he would like the sixth generation, starting about 2000, to be called the learning community college (O'Banion, 1997).

The term junior college is generally attributed to William Rainey Harper. However, the

exact date appears to vary among references. Tillery and Deegan (1985) place Harper and his junior college designation in the first generation, starting 1900. Witt et al. (1994) place the junior college naming by Harper at 1895, a few years earlier. Furthermore, Witt et al. (1994) state that Harper created the associate degree in 1899 for the graduates of his junior college. Harper himself was an interesting character. He graduated from college at the age of fourteen (Witt et al., 1994) and gave his graduating address in Hebrew since he graduated as a biblical scholar. He obtained his doctorate in Semitic languages from Yale although he was just nineteen years old at the time (Witt et al., 1994). He was only thirty-five years old when he was chosen president of the University of Chicago (Witt et al., 1994). It was during his tenure as president of the University of Chicago during which he made his impact on education in America. The University of Chicago had only been established a few years earlier by John D. Rockefeller in 1888 (Witt et al., 1994).

Harper is generally credited with the spread of the concept of the junior college. He did his own marketing while giving lectures across the country (Witt et al., 1994). It is likely, as noted by Tillery and Deegan (1985) that Harper was also aided by other individuals, especially the university presidents of Michigan, Minnesota and California. In fact Witt et al. (1994) point to a master's thesis by Arthur Gray, which attempted to demonstrate that the University of Michigan proposed the first junior college in 1895 in Saginaw, Michigan. Ironically, in Saginaw today, there is a teaching college now known at the Saginaw Valley State University (SVSU). SVSU was a part of a university consortium in Michigan for which I worked from 1992 through 1996. How's that for a small world!

By 1901, there were approximately nine two-year colleges (Cohen & Brawer, 1996, p. 15). I say approximately, because there is a discrepancy within Cohen and Brawer's own numbers, in one place they state eight and in another location nine is the number stated (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). In 1907, the California state legislature passed the Caminetti Act permitting California high schools to offer college level work (Tillery & Deegan, 1985). The California efforts appear largely ignored in the history reported by Witt et al. (1994). These authors

highlight the history of the junior colleges by emphasizing that the "movement was centered in the Midwest" (Witt et al., 1994). Witt et al. (1994) do point out that the California state legislature did pass a bill providing for support of junior colleges called the Ballard Act (Witt et al., 1994). By 1915, the total number of junior colleges had jumped to 74 (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). Enrollment in junior colleges leveled off with the advent of World War I (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

Peace brings soldiers back from wars, so it is no surprise to find that by 1921, the number of public and private two-year colleges had jumped to over 200 (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). It was probably this leap in the number of two-year colleges that caused the U.S. Bureau of Education, headed by Philander Claxton, to hold the first national meeting of junior colleges. The conference was held on June 30 and July 1, 1920 (Witt et al., 1994). Many of the college organizers of this conference went on to be officers of the newly formed junior college organization which is known today (and will be referred to hereafter) as the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (Witt et al.). James Wood was the first president of the organization, and Margaret Reid was the first secretary (Witt et al.). During the first decade of the AACC, presidents served no more than two years. In these early years of AACC Doak Campbell served in positions as secretary, vice-president, and executive secretary, becoming the most influential figure in the organization until his acceptance of the presidency of Florida State College for Women in 1941 (Witt et al.). The AACC grew quickly from an initial 22-college member organization to a 210-college member organization by the end of the decade (Witt et al.). This brings me to the time of the Great Depression.

Ironically, the Great Depression led to an increase in enrollment at junior colleges at the same time that states decreased support (Tillery & Deegan, 1985). This was probably due to a lack of jobs, leaving people with time to think about getting an education. The number of public two-year colleges at this time is inconsistent between two of my references. Tillery and Deegan (1985) place the number of public two-year colleges at 259 compared to Cohen and Brawer's (1996) figure of 219. Furthermore, their respective figures for the number of two-year colleges

immediately after World War II are 299 versus 328. Nonetheless, it is apparent that there was little growth in the number of public two-year colleges during this period that Tillery and Deegan (1985) refer to as the second generation. World War II was now on the horizon.

World War II itself was a blow to two-year public college enrollments as well as the AACC. During these war years, Walter Eells led the AACC (Witt et al., 1994), which suffered in its membership as did college enrollment. Although Eels was not very successful as executive secretary of the AACC, his book titled The junior college, was a landmark book, used by some as a guide to establish junior colleges (Witt et al.). The period following World War II was a boom for two-year colleges. The biggest single factor, aside from soldiers returning, was the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944, better known as the GI Bill (Witt et al.). Even General Omar Bradley was exuberant about educational possibilities that two-year colleges offered for veterans, stating "the junior colleges of America are well equipped to furnish the answer to the educational problems of our young veterans" (quoted in Witt et al., p. 125). Another landmark that boosted the acceptance of two-year colleges was the 1947 President's Commission on Higher Education, better known as the Truman Commission (Witt et al.). The Truman Commission report is probably best known for its introduction of the term community college (Witt et al.), which is what is used now in referring to public two-year colleges.

The Korean War was a boom to junior colleges in two ways. First there was the matter of the draft board. In March of 1953, the Selective Service was forced to grant student deferments to all draft age men enrolled as full time students (Witt et al., 1994). Second was the extension of the 1944 GI Bill to cover Korean War veterans, which was actually called the 1952 Veterans' Readjustment Act (Witt et al.). Thus, by 1960 there were already over 400 two-year public colleges (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

However, it was not all rosy for community colleges by the end of the fifties. In 1957, the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, better known as the Eisenhower Committee, released a report that was critical of community colleges. Furthermore, it considered the responsibility for education beyond high school as belonging to the states or

local governments (Witt et al., 1994). However, at this time there was an event, which overshadowed all others at the time. That was the Soviet launching of the Sputnik satellite and the ensuing National Defense Education Act (Witt et al.). Although Witt et al. note that there were few community college students that benefited directly from this Act, it was the need for a technological education that became very apparent.

Meanwhile, at the AACC, the most influential leaders in the fifties were Jesse Bogue and Edmund Gleazer. During their tenure at AACC, they succeeded in doubling the organization budget and pushing membership beyond the 500 number (Witt et al., 1994). Gleazer proved himself to be a consummate fundraiser, obtaining funds from large corporations including Ford, Carnegie, Kellogg and General Electric. Another milestone in the fifties was the Supreme Court decision of Brown vs. Board of Education, which was to put an end to segregation in educational institutions (Witt et al., p. 197).

The sixties saw a doubling of the number of public two-year colleges going from 405 in 1960 to 847 in 1970 (Cohen & Brawer, 1996, p. 15). The cause of this does not stretch the imagination too much, while we call them the "baby boomers," it is merely an expected consequence of soldiers coming back from overseas. World War II ended in 1945, and babies born of those returning GI's would be approaching the age to enter into college in the early sixties.

The sixties decade saw the rise of the League for Innovation in the Community College (Witt et al., 1994). This organization was christened in 1968 as an outgrowth of a task force that B. Lamar Johnson put together to "share daring and often unworkable ideas and dreams [that] might well point to the needed directions and opportunities for junior college development." (quoted in Witt et al., 1994, p. 195)

Two bills that effected community colleges during the Vietnam War also caused social changes. These were the Higher Education Facilities Act and the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Witt et al., 1994). The spending bills included outlays specific for community colleges, which was the desired outcome of the influence applied by members of the AACC (Witt et al.).

It is perhaps ironic that the president that resigned in 1974 stated that "other forms of postsecondary education such as a two-year community college...are far better suited to the interests of many young people." (quoted in Witt et al., 1994, p. 229) It was almost as if he were saying that community colleges were all that some people could handle. It was ironic in that it was his administration that often referred to others as "effete snobs." Anyhow, as the Vietnam War finally came to a close, there was once again a pool of war veterans to fill the seats of more than 200 additional community colleges by the end of seventies (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

In April of 1974, a conference was held at Valencia Community College titled Beyond the Open Door - The Open College (Witt et al., 1994). Here we find an examination of where the open door policy might lead. In fact, Edmund Gleazer, Jr., president of the AACC, already had discussed the opening of the community colleges to the community at large as he foresaw a leveling off in enrollment (Witt et al.).

Gleazer was very perceptive in his prediction of a leveling off of enrollment in community colleges. Cohen and Brawer (1996) figures show that between 1976 and 1994, there was only a very small change in the number of community colleges, rising from 1030 to 1082, an increase of approximately five percent over twenty years. So what happened during this period?

In April of 1972 a number of community college governing board members decided to establish their own association called the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT). The mission of the ACCT is "to develop effective lay governing board leadership to strengthen the capacity of community colleges to achieve their missions on behalf of their communities" (Summers, 1999). Notice how the local communities are highlighted within this mission statement. Anyhow, within just four years the college membership in ACCT included 516 colleges, and by the close of the seventies, there were 720 college members (Witt et al., 1994). The ACCT is still a very influential part of the community college arena today. However, the seventies ended with the passage of Proposition 13 in California, which was an ominous signal of the decreasing of funds from the public sector.

The eighties brought two new presidents to the scene. In 1981 Ronald Reagan was

inaugurated as President of the United States, and Dale Parnell succeeded Edmund Gleazer as President of the AACC (Vaughan, 2000). President Reagan was to refer to community colleges as "a priceless treasure - close to our homes and work, providing open doors for millions of our fellow citizens...the original higher education melting pot." (quoted in Witt et al, 1994, p. 264) Unfortunately, 1981 also saw a steep downturn in the federal education and student aid levels after inflation (Labeouf & Geller, 2000).

In 1989, the AACC convention was graced with its first presidential visit (Witt et al., 1994). President Bush spoke about the great example community colleges had set in the educational community and that for "this and all that you are doing, you are earning the gratitude of a nation." (quoted in Witt et al., p. 265)

In 1982, the AACC and ACCT established the Joint Commission on Federal Relations which became the focal point for a number of lobbying efforts on behalf of community colleges (Witt et al., 1994). One of its efforts led to provisions in the Higher Education Act of 1987 to provide college commuters with a cost of living on par with the dormitory students of four-year institutions (Witt et al.). Another successful lobbying effort ended in 1991 with the passage of the Perkins Act, providing funds for articulation agreements between high schools and community colleges, allowing high school students to take community college courses in the junior and senior years of high school (Witt et al.).

The latest figures about enrollment that I was able to obtain come from Phillippe and Patton (1999) and they show a small decrease in enrollment in both community colleges and four-year colleges between 1991 and 1997. This may have to do with the population as well as the economy. While one might expect that a booming economy from 1993 through 1999 should increase the enrollment, a booming economy can have a negative effect as well. For example, here at George Mason University (GMU) the department has had problems keeping students in the physics graduate program because the same people were able to make much more money in the e-business arena without an advanced degree. Personally, I have a friend that has a son who stopped going to school to take a job in a computer security business. He is making more money

than I do teaching full time, even though his mother is unhappy about his dropping out of college. He did attend Northern Virginia Community College for two years, but never obtained his associate's degree because he originally just wanted to transfer to a four-year college and didn't care about getting a two-year degree. Nonetheless, it is an example of a possible negative effect of a really booming economy.

Along with a slight decrease in enrollment, the nineties brought an increase in tuition (Geller, 2000), a decrease in federal funding (Labeouf & Geller, 2000), a decrease in state funding (Labeouf & Geller, 2000), and an increase in operational expenditures (Phillippe & Patton, 1999). The only bright side to this is the increase in private funds to community colleges (Labeouf & Geller, 2000). Altogether, this does not paint a pretty picture for the future of community colleges. It can be expected that while there is a downturn in the economy, there will be a downturn in private funds for community colleges.

It is always a danger to combine data from two different sources; however, if I do so using Cohen and Brawer (1996) along with Ruch (2001), I find that the number of two-year private colleges has more than tripled, increasing from 160 to 500. Perhaps the AACC ought to consider yet another name change, even putting back the "J" in their acronym, and invite the private institutions to join in with community colleges. This may open up a needed dialog between the different types of organizations.

George Boggs is the current head of the AACC, replacing David Pierce in July of 2000 (Community College Times, 2000). Boggs is apparently very much aware of some of the problems that lie ahead for community colleges. He pointed out possible problems including a drop in support to disadvantaged adult learners and a trend in pulling out remedial education from community colleges (Community College Times, 2000). He highlighted that both of the mentioned issues could decrease access to higher education, thus, community colleges may be forced, in the future to "restrict" access, an issue taken up in the next question.

Finally, even though I have reviewed here more than a century of history of community colleges, there is still a public relations problem that community colleges have that was

highlighted by Boggs in a letter to the editor of Time magazine. Boggs pointed out to the editor that the magazine had branded community colleges much the same as they have been for so many years (Boggs, 2000). Boggs is forced to counter such standard cliches as one alluding to community colleges as being "not ready for prime time," and another that considers community college students as "university rejects" (Boggs, 2000). In one sense, community colleges are back to where they started over one hundred years ago, at least in the eyes of writers for Time magazine.

The Open Admissions Issue

In religious school many years ago, I learned about a quote made about 1900 years ago. Ben Zoma stated: "Who is wise? The one who learns from everyone." (Kravitz & Olitzky, 1992) I learned from this the fact that I can learn from everyone I meet, even those that some might consider not to have a "true chance" to succeed.

Community colleges should not restrict admission to any class of person, even those considered as having a "true chance" of being successful. Furthermore, community colleges need to be assessed in accordance with their mission statement and admission policies, whether open admissions or otherwise.

Once a community college decides to limit access, it must also decide how it will determine the basis of admittance. Will the college limit enrollment based upon some intelligent quotient (IQ)? If so, who will administer the IQ test? What will be the cutoff for those people accepted? I recently read an article about IQ tests and myths that appeared in the magazine Psychology Today by Stephen Ceci (2001). Ceci (2001, p. 52) points out that IQ test scores have been rising over the years. In fact, IQ test scores appear to rise about 20 points per generation. That is the test scores of my parents' generation were 20 points lower than my generation's test scores. While I have no children, if I did, the test scores of my children's class would be 20 points higher than my own class. Does this mean that each generation is really more intelligent than the previous? Even Ceci doesn't hold this view. He concludes "whatever it is that IQ tests test, it is not some inherent quality of the mind." (Ceci, 2001, p. 53) Thus, how can a college justify using an IQ test as a discriminator of prospective students? Especially since students come from different generations!

If admissions cannot count on IQ tests for restricting access, what can be used? It should also be noted that whatever is ultimately used it should be fair and lack discrimination based upon ethnicity, religion or other factor that colleges are legally bound not to bias. In a democracy, why shouldn't all people be able to attend an institution of higher education? In fact, this question has actually been asked for many years. I learned that in 1870, the University of

Michigan was allowed to waive entrance examinations to any graduating high school student in a certain area (Canfield & Wilmoth, 1988). The only requirement for admission became a high school diploma from specified high schools in Michigan.

One hundred years later, the City University of New York (CUNY) instituted an open admissions policy. I lived in New York at the time and I recall some of the controversy that this set off. This needs to be taken within the context of the times. In 1968 there were riots in the streets of Brooklyn, New York's Bedford Stuyvesant section was one such area, as there were in many other cities across the nation. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. had been assassinated in April of that year and New York's Senator Robert F. Kennedy had been assassinated in June of that year. At the same time the Vietnam War and anti-war demonstrations were a daily occurrence. Anyhow, access to higher education was one of the issues that many people thought could help alleviate the inequities between whites and blacks. Even today, the level of education attained effects the wages earned (Ceci, 2001).

In 1970, the Carnegie Commission of Higher Education published a special report related to the community colleges of the nation. Here's a quote from their conclusions.

> The Carnegie Commission supports open access to the "open door" college for all high school graduates and otherwise qualified individuals. The community colleges have a particular role to play in assuring equality of opportunity to all Americans. The Commission, while supporting open access, does not believe that all young people either want higher education or can benefit from it. (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1970, p. 2)

While the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education was espousing an open door policy for all community colleges, it was quite aware that higher education is not necessarily for everyone. But the commission made it clear that higher education should be available for all those who wish to continue their education.

The open admissions policy of CUNY, which includes eight community colleges, has been examined as a case study for and against open admissions policies. In reports that I was

able to obtain, not one noted a statistically significant change in the outcomes, based upon statistics available before and after open admissions. Some of these studies examined system-wide statistics only, while others examined the four-year institutions separate from the community colleges.

Rosen, Brunner and Fowler (1973) produced one period study of the open admission policy in New York City. Overall, this study is rather negative about such open admission policies. They discuss some "considerable faculty dissatisfaction with open admissions" (Rosen et al., p. 142) which occurred at Kingsborough Community College (in Brooklyn). However, they also noted that some community college faculty actually volunteered their time for tutoring purposes, to aid those that needed it to obtain the appropriate level of prerequisite knowledge (Rosen et al.). It is unfortunate that more attention wasn't paid to the sacrifice of those faculty members that saw fit to do so. This study concluded, "open access is simply not provided for all." (Rosen et al., p. 154)

In Lavin, Alba, and Silberstein (1981), I found that the conclusions of the authors led them to an almost paradoxical conclusion. That is, they not only concluded that an open admissions policy is beneficial to minorities, but ironically, it was also beneficial to whites. In fact, Lavin et al. point out that New York City had established the Free Academy in 1847 as the first tuition-free public institution of higher education. So open admissions in New York City had a history long before its implementation in 1970. However, Lavin and Hyllegard (1996) are still forced to conclude, "the idea of higher education as a right is still not accepted." (Lavin & Hyllegard, 1996, p. 244) It should be noted that Lavin and Hyllegard (1996) could not find any evidence of a statistically significant nature, between graduates before or after the open admissions policy was implemented.

Lavin and Hyllegard (1996) have statistics that demonstrate there was no significant difference between the grade point averages of students in New York's community colleges between 1970, prior to open admissions and 1980, after a decade of open admissions. Lavin and Hyllegard (1996) also have data pointing to the fact that open admissions did indeed level at least

one playing field, that is related to the choosing of a career or vocational track in the community colleges or choosing a transfer type program. By 1980, whites, blacks and Hispanics were statistically equivalent in their choice of curricula. Unfortunately, CUNY could not keep up its no-tuition policy for long, as financial crises in the city, first in the middle of the seventies and then in the early nineties, forced changes in the policy, for financial survival.

I did find a study that examined exclusively the community colleges in the CUNY system. Steven Gerardi (1990) compared various indicators of success, such as the grade point average, between the freshmen of 1989 and similar data for freshmen at the advent of the open admissions policy in 1970 (Gerardi, 1990). Briefly put, Gerardi found that there was no statistically significant difference between his study group of 1989 freshmen and a group of freshmen between 1970 and 1973 (Gerardi, 1990). I do believe that the Gerardi results would have been more interesting if he had historical data prior to 1970, but he worked with the data that he could obtain from that era, which also corresponded to data that he obtained in 1989. Gerardi (1990) concludes that "over the 20 years since the implementation the open-admissions policy at CUNY at the Associate degree level, there has been a consistency of academic performance outcomes."(p. 12)

I have presented results based upon studies of open admission policies showing that such policies do not lower educational outcomes. However, having such admission policies certainly needs to be taken into consideration when assessing any community college's performance. So how might you measure the effectiveness of a community college?

In 1994 the Association of Community Colleges (AACC) convened a roundtable group to address and measure the effectiveness of community colleges. A report was first released in 1994, and then the report was revised in 1999 (Alfred, Ewell, Hudgins, & McClenney, 1999). The group first set out to define the word effectiveness, as viewed in relation to community colleges. They concluded that institutional effectiveness was "the ability of an institution to match its performance to its established purposes as stated in its mission." (Alfred et al., 1999, p. 6) The group then defined guidelines for establishing measures of effectiveness. A key term

established was that of the core indicator. A core indicator is "a measure that describes a critical, widely recognized outcome of mission...that is clearly responsive to key constituent groups and is produced regularly." (Alfred et al., p. 8) According to this panel group, 14 core indicators are used to measure the effectiveness of a community college. Core indicator number 13 relates to the participation rate in the service area of the community college. This core indicator would have to be dropped from a community college's assessment if it were not allowed to have open admissions. Furthermore, core indicator number 14 relates to the responsiveness of the college to the community needs. This core indicator should also be dropped from a community college's review of effectiveness if it cannot have open admissions. Both core indicators noted would be greatly effected by open admissions or a lack thereof. Thus, whether or not a community college is allowed to have an open admissions policy, can greatly effect how its effectiveness can be measured.

I also feel that the concept of open admissions should be examined in the context of a modern learning college. Terry O'Banion (1997) states that the learning college is based upon six key principles. In O'Banion's (1997) own words:

1. The learning college creates substantive change in individual learners.
2. The learning college engages learners as full partners in the learning process, with learners assuming primary responsibility for their own choices.
3. The learning college creates and offers as many options for learning as possible.
4. The learning college assists learners to form and participate in collaborative learning activities.
5. The learning college defines the roles of learning facilitators by the needs of the learners.
6. The learning college and its learning facilitators succeed only when improved and expanded learning can be documented for its learners. (p. 47)

I first observe that the above criteria are applicable to any person. Thus, there is no

reason to deny access to any person using the above criteria. A learning college can follow all of the above guidelines equally to all students. I next observe two of the criteria above as being very appropriate to open admissions policies.

If the learning college must "create and offer as many options for learning as possible," then the absence of open admissions is contradictory to this goal, because the options for learning will be limited to those that fit the admissions policy. In fact, if the community college limits its admissions to a privileged few, based upon examinations that have questionable scoring, it will necessarily reduce the amount of change in the learner that it will facilitate. That is, because those being admitted are not in need of learning as much as those that are not admitted to the college. I again return to the issue of how the community college is going to determine who should be admitted to the college? What are the criteria for admission? How can the college know a priori that one student is going to "fail" and some other is going to succeed?

O'Banion (1997) concludes his description of a learning college by stating that such an institution "places learning first and provides educational experiences for learners anyway, anyplace, anytime." (p. 61) If there is no open admission policy, there can be no learning "anyway, anyplace, anytime," as there simply would not be the need for this policy if only those chosen, are those guaranteed to "succeed." Open admissions and the learning college go hand in hand. And the effectiveness of a community college must be measured against its admission policy if it is to remain a truly effective "community" college.

In 1999, CUNY celebrated the 30th anniversary of it's establishing an open admissions policy at two-year and four-year branches. In April of 1999, the faculty senate of CUNY met and agreed to the following decree, as recorded by its executive director.

> Whereas, research has shown that hundreds of thousands of New Yorkers have benefited from this policy - entering the university, graduating, moving on to earn advanced degrees, entering the workforce and contributing to the economy of New York City, New York State, and the nation, Therefore, Be It Resolved, that the University Faculty Senate reaffirms its strong commitment to the universal access to higher education that Open

> Admissions has mad possible, and to the educational financial policies that are necessary to ensure its continued success. (Phipps, 1999, p. 1)

Unfortunately, not all citizens feel the same towards the open admission policy as the faculty of CUNY, as represented by the faculty senate. On June 7, 1999, Mayor Rudolph W. Giuliani released a report prepared for him by a special task force on CUNY. The report was quite critical of open admissions. There are few substantiating statistics in the report. The only statistic quoted in the summary is the SAT scores. The task force seems to judge SAT scores as the single indicator of CUNY students, instead of being an indicator of the high schools that produced the students that took those SAT examinations. I do not feel that this is a fair indicator of the success or failure of CUNY open admissions. I also find the language particularly harsh as follows.

> CUNY's post-1969 admissions policies and its destructive symbiosis with the New York City public schools have led to a university system that is remarkably homogeneous in terms of the overall low levels of students' academic preparation. Whereas every other large public university system in the U.S. has multiple campuses whose entering students' SAT scores average in the first or second quartile, CUNY does not have a single senior college whose entering students' SAT scores average in the top half of SAT takers nationwide. (Renfro & Armour-Garb, 1999, p. 118)

I would like to conclude my response to this question about the place of open admissions policies within community colleges with a quote from Dr. Horace Webster, the first president of the Free Academy of New York that ultimately became CUNY. Webster was addressing students, faculty, staff and their families at the Free Academy in January of 1849:

> The experiment is to be tried, whether the highest education can be given to the masses; whether...the children of the whole people can be educated; and whether an institution of learning of the highest grade can be successfully controlled by the popular will, not by the privileged few, but by the privileged many. (quoted in Roff, Cuchiara, & Dunlap, 2000)

Once again it is seen that the "new ideas" of 1970 are really the old ideas of a generation gone before them. I guess there is some truth about learning from the past, and the problems of repeating mistakes if lessons from the past are not learned.

The Occupational Training Issue

Today, I believe that the issue of occupational training versus a traditional liberal arts education is no longer debatable. Occupational training within community colleges is an established fact and it is successful. In April of 1996, an extensive study was completed that examined the linking of community college coursework with occupational training. This study by Bragg and Hamm (1996) obtained funding from the Office of Vocational and Adult Education and the U.S. Department of Education. I believe Bragg and Hamm (1996) best sum up their findings in a glowing endorsement by community college staff and faculty in the following passage.

> There appeared to be universal agreement among all program staff from the colleges studied that work-based, experiential, and applied learning were a powerful method to educate students for entry-level technical work. Students appeared to learn more quickly and their learning was of greater relevance than when in only one venue, whether it be at the college or work. (p. 47)

This report provides much evidence for the ability of community colleges to provide occupational training as well as a liberal arts background. If faculty desire more evidence for the ability of programs to adjust for occupational training as well as traditional studies, they can wait for a report to be released in July of 2002 by the Secretary of Education. This report is congressionally mandated under an amendment to the Carl Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act also known as Perkins III. To develop this report the Secretary established a committee called the National Assessment of Vocational Education (NAVE)(Forman, 1999). I believe that Brint and Karabel (1989) is a dated volume, and that the authors could not provide an up to date view of the occupational training issue in community colleges at the time of its writing.

Brint and Karabel (1989) state that "faculty at some of the schools did raise concerns about the rapid shift toward occupational training." (p. 178) However, the authors themselves note, within the endnotes, that "virtually all education is, as Dewey noted, in some sense vocational." (Brint & Karabel, p. 269) Thus, the attainment of a degree in a science, such as physics, is really a way to prepare the student for a career in physics. This is a type of occupational training. Similarly for history or any other major for which the student is seeking a degree. As Brint and Karabel (1989) state, "a community college program in cosmetology or dental hygiene is certainly no more vocational in character than a law or medical program in a prestigious professional school." (p. 269)

There is another approach to meeting the needs of the business community. Community colleges can respond to the needs of the business community by demonstrating how the needs of the business community are met within the context of the courses taken to meet the transfer requirements, or the two-year degree requirements. Terry O'Banion (1997) points out that the business community will "insist on and will only support a system of higher education that produces students with the kinds of skills their companies need to remain competitive." (p. 37) Compliance with a skill set desired by the business community is not unique to O'Banion's learning college. In 1970, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1970) made the following observations:

> Occupational programs in community colleges are constantly increasing in scope and variety. The larger and more complex the labor market, the more varied the occupational curricula of the community colleges are likely to get. (p. 19)

I am involved at George Mason University (GMU) within a program known as Technology Across the Curriculum (TAC). Dr. Susan Warshauer currently leads this program which was initiated by the Associate Dean for Academic Programs of the College of Arts and Sciences here at GMU, Dr. Dee Ann Holisky. The philosophy of the program is that the students should learn a number of information technology skills, while simultaneously meeting his or her degree program requirements.

I believe that an examination of the skills being approached by the TAC program along with their significance to the business sector will highlight how administrators can address such business skills within the academic environment. Holisky lists the ten skills that the TAC program targets:

1. Students will be able to engage in electronic collaboration.
2. Students will be able to use and create structured electronic documents.
3. Students will be able to do technology-enhanced presentations.
4. Students will be able to use appropriate electronic tools for research and evaluation.
5. Students will be able to use spreadsheets to manage information.
6. Students will be able to use databases to manage information.
7. Students will be able to use electronic tools for analyzing quantitative and qualitative data.
8. (Selected) students will be able to use Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for handling and analyzing spatial data.
9. Students will be familiar with major legal, ethical, and security issues in information technology.
10. Students will have a working knowledge of IT platforms. (Holisky, 1998)

For each of the ten IT skills, Holisky (1999) provides a basic level and advanced level of example skills. IT skill #1 includes the ability to read, write and exchange electronic mail messages. At the advanced level, IT skill #1 includes some higher level skills in electronic communications such as the ability to do collaborations on papers via the Internet and participate in web conferencing. IT skill #2 deals with the use of word processors and the hypertext markup language (HTML). IT skill #3 deals with the ability to develop simple web pages and provide information via the Internet. The advanced level of IT skill #3 deals with the use of presentation software, such as PowerPoint. IT skill #4 develops a student's ability to perform web searches using different search engines, and at the advanced level utilize databases via the internet and intelligent Boolean searches. IT skill # 5 develops a students ability to manipulate numerical

data within a spreadsheet and create graphs and displays for appropriate presentations. The advanced level of this skill set has the students utilize statistical features of the spreadsheet and incorporate the spreadsheet into presentations with a word processor or presentation developer such as Microsoft PowerPoint. IT skill set #6 would have the students develop their own small databases to organize any given set of data. At the advanced level, the student should be able to utilize formal search languages, especially the Standardized Query Language (SQL), in the query of large databases. IT skill #7 develops the student's ability to perform numerical analyses and provide some simple descriptive statistics. At the advanced level of skill #7, the student should be able to perform advanced statistical analyses such as the analysis of variance and its associated tests for goodness of fit, such as the Chi-Squared or Student-t tests. IT skill set #8 refers to a specific type of computer program known as a geographic information system (GIS). Basically, GIS software allows the user to display any type of information that is linked to a specific location. For example, if you knew that it was a certain temperature at a certain location on a certain day and a specified time, you can place that in a GIS and you will be able to do statistical analyses of the changing temperatures over time for that location. IT skill #9 is not so much a skill set as it is a familiarity with issues associated with the use of computer technology. For example, a student ought to know about the legal implications of using electronic mail or the copyright issues of web pages on the Internet. A student should also be aware of the so-called computer viruses and how they can be avoided. Finally, while Microsoft would like the world to think that there is only one computer platform, and that is a personal computer running a Microsoft operating system, there are other computer platforms and operating systems. The most popular operating system utilized by scientists is actually UNIX. UNIX has many different flavors, such as LINUX for the personal computer and SunOS for the Sun computers. The different platforms are addressed as part of IT skill set #10.

As part of the TAC team within the Department of Physics and Astronomy at GMU, I have been involved with the incorporation of IT skills within the astronomy laboratories that I teach. One example of IT skills is the introduction of the use of the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet

in the laboratory exercise. Instead of just having the students gather data with paper and pencil, I have had students collect their data on an Excel spreadsheet. I then ask the students to display the data in a graphical format, and ask for them to write an explanation of their understanding of the results using the computer word processor. Thus, within a student's general education required science course, the student is gaining IT skills that the university was asked to teach to its students by the business community, via requests at the state level.

Another example of where community colleges have already incorporated business skills within the associate's degree program is from the Virginia Community College System (VCCS). Dr. Richard Drury conducted a survey of the VCCS and found that the entrepreneurship concepts that the business community wanted students to learn were already incorporated within certain classes, such as Business 116 given at the Northern Virginia Community College (NVCC) in Annandale, Virginia (Drury, 1999). Thus, within associate degree courses the community colleges are able to provide the student with an opportunity to learn business concepts and information technology skills. This is not in conflict with any learning acumen.

Furthermore I believe it's important to consider what the consequences of ignoring the business community requests might be in the long run. Actually, history already has answers that can be examined. As long ago as 1660 in New York, Dutch settlers founded private schools that performed many functions (Ruch, 2001). These schools taught surveying, navigation, and bookkeeping. Skills that were not taught in the early colleges or free schools available at the time, but the skills were required of people if they wanted to work for the land developers, shipping firms and other businesses that were flourishing in the New World.

In fact, the first colleges on this continent were based upon the colleges in England. The subjects taught at these colleges included theology, Greek, Latin, classical literature and philosophy (Ruch, 2001). There were also the higher education institutions that emphasized professions such as law, medicine, and teaching. With no institutions incorporating business, farming or engineering, the need for experts in these fields were met by having foreigners immigrate to the U.S. or opening up private institutions that would meet the needs of the

business community. Finally, in 1917, the American government itself officially recognized the requirement for such education and passed the Vocational Act of 1917 for what was called "career education." (Ruch, 2001, p. 56) This allowed World War I veterans to get federal government support for many types of vocational training.

Ultimately, if community colleges do not respond to the business community and its required skills, then it is likely that someone else will do so. In fact, Ruch (2001) points out that this has already happened. He writes that "the for-profit sector of higher education continued to develop in part because of what was not provided by the traditional colleges." (Ruch, p. 55) However, if recommendations, such as those by Bragg and Hamm (1996) are heeded, then this country might be able to look forward to what they refer to as "the establishment of a system of standards, certifications, and credentials ... useful in bringing some order to a rather disordered workforce preparation system in the country." (p. 52)

Perhaps Marlene Griffith and Ann Connor (1994) best sum up the blurry line of education and vocational training as follows:

> Community colleges offer the academic skills which new jobs require - from basic reading, writing, and math to entry-level computer competencies and interpersonal skills. The line between training and education is blurring. In our reading we often found the terms used interchangeably. (p. 78)

Advice to Future Leaders

I recall a story I learned about 40 years ago in religious school. It dealt with a prankster that went around to numerous clergymen, of all faiths, asking them to teach him the principles of their religion during the time that he was able to stand on one foot. For days he went through town, being told that it wasn't possible and that he obviously wasn't interested in learning about their respective religion. One day he knocked at a particular clergyman's door, and again asked his question. This time, to his surprise, the clergyman answered that it was a simple request. The answer was "treat others as you would have them treat you, all else is commentary on this precept." According to the story, the prankster was so impressed that he decided to learn more

about this clergyman and his religion.

If there were just one thing that I could tell a colleague just accepting an offer of a community college presidency, it would be to treat all those that worked for her, as she would like to be treated. There are of course many works on leadership and college presidencies available to any prospective presidential candidate.

One well-known reference for any academic leader is by Robert Birnbaum (1992). Birnbaum breaks up his textbook into three major sections. The first section provides the reader with the concepts of leadership as addressed by the five-year study that serves as the basis of this book. Birnbaum (1992) continues in section two by presenting the numerous relationships that a president of a college establishes between herself and the people around her, both within and without of the college itself. Part three presents the results of the study of presidents at 32 colleges including 8 community colleges.

To a colleague about to assume the presidency of a college I would insist that she read Birnbaum's (1992) second chapter. This chapter contains quotes and anecdotes from the interviewed college presidents, highlighting so-called "myths and mysteries." I think O'Banion (1997) would disagree with the following anonymous quote from a college president:

> I think that a president who announces what the vision of an institution is on day one is asking for trouble. You need to alter the vision to be consistent with the culture, or you have to let it emerge from what is being talked about on campus. (quoted in Birnbaum, 1992, p. 28)

Aside from addressing the above myth associated with presidential vision, Birnbaum (1992) addresses the following myths: the myth of the president as a transformational leader, the myth of presidential charisma, the myth of distancing a president from her followers, and the myth that there exists a single style or set of traits of a successful college president. The second half of the Birnbaum's (1992) myths and mysteries chapter deals with such mysteries as: the formation of a successful administrative team; the effects of experience on the successful college president; and, the real differences between men and women. Summarily, Birnbaum (1992)

cannot supply any significant results based upon his five-year study that would lend support to any of the myths noted above.

A more pragmatic read for my colleague would be Balderston's (1995) text on the management of a university. This book would provide her with an overview of such daily activities as the governance, organization, budgets, budgeting systems, revenues, enrollments, tuition, fees, financial aid, facilities, graduate education, university-based research, standards, assessment, restructuring and insuring excellence (Balderston, 1995).

Dr. Gustavo Mellander conducts a graduate class in educational leadership at GMU and he likes to have his students read a book that contains biographies of some of the greatest leaders that we have had on this world by Howard Gardner (1995). Unfortunately, most leaders whose biographies are between the pages of this book, are white men. The only black leadership example is Martin Luther King, Jr., and there are no examples for Latinos. Prior to providing the biographies, Gardner (1995) provides an overview of his theory of what makes for a good leader, and his theory is tied up in the "stories of identity - narratives that help individuals think about and feel who they are, where they come from, and where they are headed - that constitute the single most powerful weapon in the leader's literary arsenal." (p. 43) Thus, to Gardner (1995) it is the story that wraps up the leader and the leader that is wrapped up in her story.

The Gardner (1995) presentation is one of description, that is, leadership is defined by presenting descriptions of leaders. At the other end of the leadership reference spectrum are the books that are prescriptive, that is, the authors prescribe to the reader what it is leaders do. None are more prescriptive than John P. Kotter's book, which shows his ego by having his own name in the title of the book (Kotter, 1999). Kotter begins his book by laying out ten "observations about 'managerial behavior'" (p. 6) and he concludes with an agenda for a leader, specifically a general manager.

Two other prescriptive books were recommended to me when I interviewed leaders at the Manassas campus of the Northern Virginia Community College (NVCC). James K. Van Fleet (1972) lays out 22 mistakes that a leader is prone to make. Philip B. Crosby (1984) lays out 14

crucial steps to total quality management, although the author promises that it won't involve any tears. A more exhaustive list (containing 30 key concepts for leaders) by Major General Perry Smith (1997) is available on the World Wide Web. General Smith makes between five and ten thousand dollars for an appearance and he will tell you in person, for that small fee, that above all a leader must know herself. General Smith himself refers to this list of 30 concepts as "30 blazing flashes of the obvious." (Smith, p. 1)

With respect to staff morale, Smith (1997) offers a minimum of eleven rules of thumb. For example, high on Smith's list is the need to be magnanimous. That is, leaders should be willing to share their power and allow talented person the ability to lead others themselves. Just below magnanimity is the important characteristic of listening. Sometimes, a leader can make a follower feel important (thus increase morale) just by listening carefully to suggestions that she may have to give to the leader. Another important leadership role is to protect innovators. Smith notes that it is important to encourage those persons with ideas, and know when an idea is not a good one and should be ignored. Smith also has what he calls a "platinum rule." This is precisely what I had mentioned in the opening of this response, that is "treat others the way they would like to be treated." (Smith, 1997, rule #14)

Regarding a positive public image, Smith has approximately four key rules that he would have a leader follow. A leader needs to trust her instincts and her impulses. She should avoid what Smith calls "the cowardice of silence." That is, leaders need to be willing to make waves and speak out when something is wrong or someone has done something wrong. Smith (1997) even advocates maintaining a "sense of outrage." If there is something wrong that jeopardizes people that work for her, she must be willing to "get mad occasionally." She also must not be intimated by anyone, especially male peers, who may try to put her in her place by showing what she doesn't know. Finally, Smith warns leaders against loosing touch with the latest in their field. She must keep up with what is happening, and she cannot depend on her own personnel for that information.

Managing growth entails many qualities of a leader. As already mentioned, a leader

needs to keep up with the latest in what is going on in her arena. She can do so by participating in the AACC and the ACCT meetings. There are also symposiums that will allow her to keep touch with the community college innovations, especially the League for Innovation. She can also maintain correspondence with other peers in the area and across the nation. Basically, this is all covered by what Smith (1997) refers to as getting "ready for the future."

While some suggest a prescriptive list of things to do as a leader, others attempt to dispel what are referred to as myths about leadership. Susan Komives, Nance Lucas and Timothy McMahon (1998) refer to the following myths about leadership.

- Leaders are born, not made.
- Leadership is hierarchical, and you need to hold a formal position (have status and power) to be considered a leader.
- You have to have charisma to be an effective leader.
- There is one standard way of leading.
- It is impossible to be a manager and a leader at the same time.
- You only need to have common sense to learn how to be an effective leader. (p. 27)

Komives, et al. back up the shooting down of these myths with Gardner (1995) and other references. However, there are authors that not only espouse some of these myths but also take them to another level. Unfortunately, one of these authors is by Robert Greene (1998), and his book was an international bestseller and sold millions of copies. Power and leadership, according to Greene (1998) go hand in hand. Not only does this support one of the myths of Komives et al. (1998), but it also concentrates on power as the key to leadership. Greene's form of leadership is nothing less than mean and nasty. For example, Greene notes that leaders should "get others to do the work for you, but always take the credit" (Greene, 1998, p. 56). This is not only counter to Smith's (1997) guidelines, but also runs counter to Komives et al. (1998) and of course Gardner (1995). Finally, don't look for Greene to recommend any vision or plan. Look at his last piece of advice for leaders, what he calls "assume formlessness." He notes that "by taking a shape, by having a visible plan, you open yourself to attack" (Greene, p. 419). Greene's

type of leading with extreme aggression is scrutinized to some degree by Deborah Tannen (1998) in her book The argument culture where she spends an entire chapter examining the "aggressive culture." I know which culture I would prefer to work within, and from my experience, I think I know which leadership culture others would prefer as well.

My personal favorite of the prescriptive books for leaders is one that highlights 50 leadership lessons illustrated from examples that go back in time some 3200 years. The book by David Baron and Lynette Padwa (1999) reflects on the extraordinary leadership qualities of Moses. If I want to know about maintaining staff morale, I can read about how Moses sustained his leadership through 40 years in the desert (Hertz, 1964). If I want to learn about public image, I can look to see how Moses dealt with the Pharaoh of Egypt (Hertz, 1964). Moses knew he was a poor speaker as he humbly noted that he "was not a man of words" (Hertz, p. 219). He tried to use that as an excuse not to go before Pharaoh; but he was told by God "is there not Aaron, thy brother." (p. 220) Aaron was apparently known for his oratory abilities, and here Moses gets an additional lesson in delegating authority. If I want to learn about managing growth, I can see how Moses managed the growth of a people over 40 years under harsh conditions. Moses didn't need to raise any monetary funds, but desert survival is as difficult and tricky as raising money for any educational institution. Baron and Padwa (1999) also point out that Moses demonstrated how to "resolve conflicts quickly and objectively" (Baron & Padwa, 1999, p. 160) as demonstrated by the rebellion of Korach (Hertz, p. 638). Finally, if I wanted an illustration of a mission statement, I cannot imagine a more respected one for a nation than the Ten Commandments.

Under the assumption from the question that my colleague is a woman, I would also recommend that she look into joining the National Institute for Leadership Development (NILD) housed in Phoenix, Arizona (Wolin, 2001). This organization is geared to women leaders of community colleges. NILD notes that there are now almost 400 community college chief executive officers within the organization. If this data can be combined with Cohen and Brawer (1997), then roughly 40 percent of the community colleges in the nation are run by women.

NILD stresses that leaders do not have to compete in order to excel (Wolin, 2001). Furthermore, NILD stresses that there are many leadership methodologies, all of which are equally valid and should be acknowledged as being so. NILD also stresses that "leaders are more effective when they support and encourage others" (Wolin, 2001). These concepts are in agreement with many of the prescriptive edicts of other leaders, such as Smith (1997) and Moses. The latter exemplifying how "leadership is not so much the exercise of power itself as the empowerment of others." (Baron & Padwa, 1999, p. 102)

Even with all these lessons to be learned from leaders going back in time as much as 3200 years, my colleague will benefit most by doing the job. Perhaps the following quote sums it up best: "You learn to talk by talking, you learn to walk by walking, you learn golf by golfing, you learn typing by typing, you learn best by doing it!" (Dryden & Vos, 1999, p. 162) I will add that my colleague will best learn how to lead, by leading. If a crisis arises, remember that John F. Kennedy said "great crises produce great men [and women], and great deeds of courage" (Kennedy, 1956, p. 51).

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