A HISTORY OF DISADVANTAGED STUDENT EDUCATION IN ILLINOIS: A CRITICAL INQUIRY OF ADULT EDUCATION AT A PUBLIC COMPREHENSIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE, 1976-1996

BY

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ABSTRACT

This historiography spans the years 1976-1996 and involves the case study method of inquiry. The focus of this study was the education of disadvantaged students in the state of Illinois, particularly at Parkland College, a comprehensive Community College. The evidentiary base included traditional sources of verifiable documentation like course curriculums, financial records, and college catalogs. Essentially, the evidence illustrated that public community colleges in Illinois claim to offer academic remediation for disadvantaged students but from 1976-1989, administrators invested money in counseling. It was not until the 1990s that monies were invested in programs that truly focused on academic development, and that type of programming was targeted for women.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

One could simplify the history of American public higher education in the last hundred years by noting the steps in the comprehensive community college movement, particularly the development of adult education programs, which was an effort to provide instruction for a wide variety of talents, for the least amount of money, and with an unrestrictive open-door policy. Certain programs within these "junior" colleges were expected to provide students with a wide range of options, which included academic, occupational, and adult education programming. The underlying assumption was that a community college education would not evolve into an artificial ceiling for students with proven academic ability and interest (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1970). Therefore, these two-year educational institutions were given the important function of assuring "equality of opportunity" to all the residents in its district.

The so-called community college can be traced to multiple roots, which included a tradition of small colleges and academies responsible to local school boards that developed early in the United States. Hundreds of them were established in states such as New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana. However limited, these early colleges attempted to train "men" for the occupations that were deemed most necessary for American society (e.g., the clergy, law, and teaching). They were also fundamentally concerned with the role of education in the formation of values. The Morrill Act of 1862 (c. 130, Sec. 1,12, Stat. 503) and the early land grant colleges (such as the University of Illinois) had a profound effect on American higher education, particularly in the area of adult education. The Land Grant Movement brought a new kind of "college" education to the "common" people. It broadened the curriculum of higher education through the emphasis of technology, agriculture, and applied sciences. The substantial fiscal resources awarded to land grant colleges during the twentieth century led to a

modification of their roles and functions. In fact they gradually became universities and are now recognized as national and international centers for research and for graduate and professional study. This transformation was closely paralleled by the emergence of the comprehensive community college--particularly adult education programming that, in turn, accepted, reshaped, and extended the service philosophy of the Land Grant Movement. This assertion was especially evident with respect to the admissions policy of adult education programs which were required by legislative act to accept any high school graduate or any other person over 18 years of age, regardless of whether they were capable of profiting from the instruction offered (see Adult Education Act of 1966, Sec. 305(a) or Title III ESEA, Statutes at Large, 89.750).

As a result, many two-year colleges began to gradually develop a broader concept of their role by providing a meaningful option for people who had not yet made a firm career choice. Therefore, they began to meet the need for programs of education for adults, which were to offer more varied programming, for a greater variety of students. It was to provide a chance for many adults who were not fully committed to the schooling process to enter higher education without great risks of time or money. Within the system of higher education, particularly at the community college level, the open enrollment policy of adult education programs has played the central role in the provision of universal access. For without such an open-admission policy, the community college would not be providing equality of opportunity to the maximum extent possible, simply due to the progressively selective admissions policies of other academic and technical departments. Often adult education programs were the only option for students who did not meet the academic test standard for admission into undergraduate courses. Adult education programs also provided instruction which increasingly included course work designed to acquaint their students with career opportunities, usually in vocational fields. For supporters of the community college movement, adult education programs provided the

flexibility in course offerings that could be easily adjusted to the always evolving community needs and wants, as specified in college policy. Indeed, it was presumed that if students required extensive developmental and remedial study, they would do so in adult education programs. The instructional approach was to be customized to be more academically advanced or less so, according to the past training and ability of the instructor, and the academic ability of individual students.

For District 505, Parkland College stands as the continuing open-door opportunity for persons who either want higher education or believe they can benefit from it. Parkland College is a public two-year comprehensive community college established to serve the needs of District 505 in vocational-technical fields and academic areas. The establishment of the College was authorized by the Seventy-Fourth General Assembly on July 15, 1965, with the passage of House Bill No. 1710, better known as the Public Junior College Act. This Bill, signed by Governor Otto Kerner (1961-1968), called for a state system of public junior colleges financed by state funds, local taxes, and student tuition. The Act established legal guidelines for the formation of community colleges throughout the state of Illinois. As a consequence, the East Central Illinois Steering Committee (ECISC), composed of 54 men and women from the six area counties (Champaign, Douglas, Iroquois, DeWitt, Ford, and Piatt), was created to formulate the district which would house Parkland College. This group included officials from the University of Illinois and the Unit Superintendents office who worked diligently to promote the passage of an approving referendum (see Appendix A for the East Central Illinois Steering Committee Roster). On Saturday, March 12, 1966, District 505 residents voted to establish a Class I Community College. The total vote was 13,010 in favor and 4,182 against. In the

unincorporated areas, the vote was 3,734 in favor to 1,337 against.[1] The final result of this effort was a college district covering one of the largest geographic areas in the state of Illinois. It initially included more than 2,500 square miles, contained 46 communities with approximately 250,000 inhabitants, and served 26 high school districts in 12 counties. At the time of its founding Parkland College had an assessed valuation of approximately $1,139,188,021.[2]

After the college district proposal was approved, a seven-member Board of Trustees was elected on Saturday April 9, 1966. Seven men were selected: William W. Froom of Champaign, D. Wayne Niewold of Loda, Charles M. Zipprodt of Urbana, Douglas E. Hager of Gibson City, C. W. Barnes of Monticello, Norman R. Weller of Hindsboro, and John H. Mathews of Tolono.[3] They held their first meeting in May of 1966. William W. Froom was elected the first chairman of the Board and they began the task of organizing the college. Essentially the Board of Trustees created the principles around which the college was founded and became responsible for the adoption and enforcement of all rules needed to manage and govern what became known as Parkland College. Soon after the opening this institution, an application for accreditation was submitted to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools' Commission on Colleges and Universities. In November 1967, the College was granted Correspondent status. The significance of this status was that during the succeeding months, a detailed institutional study was conducted, and the vision of Parkland

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[1] An overwhelming 68% were in favor of the referendum that established what is now known as Parkland College. In the unincorporated districts, that number was slightly lower at 64%.

[2] See Parkland College Community College (1981b), *District 505 Self-Study Information* (p. 221). Information may also be located in Parkland College Catalogs Volumes X to XVIII, 1974-75 and 1996-97.

[3] Four men initially served one- and two-year terms to stagger elections for the seven board members, all of whom now serve three-year terms.

College was developed. Dr. William Staerkel assumed the duties as the first President of the College in the winter of 1967. At this time the College offices were located at 117 West Elm Street in Urbana. From its inception until the Fall of 1975, Parkland College operated on a quarterly basis with fall, winter, spring, and summer sessions representing the academic year. Initially, all high school graduates were eligible for admission. Students were accepted in the order of their application. High school dropouts over 18 years of age were eventually given the opportunity to enroll in a GED course or other adult education programs.[4] In general, the master's degree was required for candidates for the instructional staff who taught in the baccalaureate oriented curriculum. However, in certain vocational-technical areas, such a requirement was not always feasible or necessary. Therefore, work experience was considered instead. In a few cases, primarily in adult education, where the teaching staff was originally only part-time, an appointment was made before the granting of the master's degree if work towards it were well advanced and the applicant had definite plans for its completion.[5] When Parkland College officially opened its doors in 1967, there was a total enrollment of 1,338 students. Enrollment for the Fall quarter of 1968 increased to 2,238. In its third year of instruction in September 1969, Parkland had an enrollment of 3,026 students, an increase of more than 225% over the 1967 figures. Enrollment totals clearly indicated that the College was addressing the educational needs of increasing numbers of persons in the district. However, in an effort to assure that its programs were suited to the needs of as many groups as possible and available to

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[4] Although GED Programming started in the Fall 1976 semester, it was not noted in the Parkland College Catalog (Volume XI) until FY 1977-1978.

[5] The master's degree requirement was never truly enforced in Adult Education at Parkland College. As a matter of fact, one could teach in remedial programs at Parkland with a bachelor's degree. See Parkland College Collective Bargaining Agreement Board of Trustees and PAE September 19, 1997, p. 19.

residents living in the outlying areas, Parkland implemented two distinct strategies during the 1969-70 academic year. First, several courses were offered off the main campus to increase the college's service to outlying areas of the District. Instructors went off campus to teach courses designed to give an understanding of modern mechanics and electronics (Brubacher & Willis, 1976).[6] Second was the establishment of the Preparedness Program, which was specifically designed to attract minority and disadvantaged students to Parkland College.

In 1970 the temporary facilities for Parkland College were expanded from Urbana to include downtown Champaign to accommodate the increased student population. With a total enrollment of 3,609 students, Parkland ranked ninth in day Full-Time Equivalency (FTE) enrollment among Illinois' 46 junior colleges. In the fall of 1973,.the college moved to its permanent site at 2400 West Bradley Avenue. Over 4,500 students were enrolled in that semester, continuing a trend of enrollment increases which lasted several more years before leveling off at its peak of 7,137 students.[7] Six years after officially opening its doors, on Wednesday March 22, 1972, Parkland College was fully accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (NCACSS). Official accreditation by NCACSS assured that all academic and vocational work undertaken by Parkland College students would be fully recognized and honored by all institutions of higher learning. This facilitated seamless transfer to colleges and universities across the United States.

The Board of Trustees declared that Parkland would be vitally concerned with the comprehensive educational needs of the area it served. They promised that the Board and

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[6] See especially the formative years of the Land Grant College Movement to fully understand this concept.

[7] This subsequent decrease may be a reflection of the substantial population decrease which occurred in District 505 in 1976.

comprehensive educational needs of the area it served. They promised that the Board and professional staff would recognize the dignity and worth of each person, the existence of a moral law and the need to rely on reason and cooperation to achieve progress. Additionally, they would be dedicated completely to the principles which undergird the American way of life. It was noted that the expression of these beliefs revealed a confident optimism and faith in the future of mankind. Consequently, the following nine objectives were developed for Parkland College:

1. To prepare all students to become active, responsible and self-disciplined citizens in our democratic society.
2. To prepare students for employment through technical-vocational programs.
3. To prepare students for transfer, typically as juniors, to four-year colleges and universities.
4. To provide students with opportunities to explore their potential abilities and interests.
5. To aid students in attaining a better understanding of occupational opportunities through extensive counseling and guidance.
6. To provide opportunities for employed persons to increase their job competence, or to extend their general education.
7. To provide intellectual and cultural programs for the entire District.
8. To assist the economic life of the District through services to the public and to businesses, industry and labor.
9. To provide experiences out of class as well as in class which will add to the student's growth and intellectual development.

Effective Monday, October 1, 1973, a new Illinois Community College Act became law and superseded the provisions of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HR No. 9567, Pub. L. No. 89-329). This new legislation provided guidelines for which the comprehensive community college was to operate. Since its passage in 1973, the Illinois Community College Act has been amended at various times by the State of Illinois Assembly. At least two of these provisions are

the Board of Trustees. The second, which took effect Tuesday, January 1, 1980, provided for the granting of tenure to the faculty of public community colleges upon the completion of employment for three consecutive academic years.[8]

Beginning in August of 1975, Parkland College began operating on the semester plan with two regularly scheduled semesters of instruction per academic year (Fall and Spring) plus a Summer Session. According to 1980 census data, in the Spring of 1975 and 1976, District 505 contained its largest number of residents, 260,000. However, in the Spring of 1977, the population within the District decreased by 35,000 to 225,000 residents. This was the largest population movement, plus or minus during the 20-year period of this study. During the Fall 1981 semester, Parkland instituted a selective admissions requirement for the first time. Not only must students apply with an application form, they were also required to have a completed health record, a high school transcript, a college transcript (if any), and an American College Test (ACT) report. By the Fall of 1984, it was specified that an applicant must be a graduate from an "accredited" high school, at least 18 years of age and able to benefit from college-level instruction.[9] This was a significant ideological shift from the first come first serve tradition of Parkland College's first 19 years of existence.

The influx of international students to American colleges and universities in the 1970s impacted Parkland College. Up until Fall 1973, citizens of foreign countries in the United States on a student visa were ineligible for admission. However, foreign applicants residing in District

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[8] The granting of tenure was an important victory for the Illinois Community College Faculty Association, because it helped to protect potential members from the abuses of bossism.

[9] Applicants under the age of 18 who had not graduated from an accredited high school, or earned a GED diploma had to request an exception to the Parkland College admission policy. Prior to registration, the applicant had to complete an Underage Enrollment Approval Form.

505 on other types of visas were to be considered on an individual basis.[10] In May of 1974, the Board of Trustees approved the acceptance of international students (see Parkland College Board of Trustees Meeting Minutes, May 9, 1974). But it was not until 1977 that the Parkland College catalog noted that citizens of a foreign country should contact the Assistant Dean for Admissions and Records to discuss their eligibility for admission. Almost four years after its initial edict, on January 6, 1978, the Board of Trustees filed a petition with the Immigration and Naturalization Service for approval of Parkland as a school for attendance by non-immigrant alien students under Section 101(a) (15) (F) of the Immigration and Nationality Act; approval was granted by the Immigration and Naturalization Service exactly six weeks later on February 24, 1978. Then in Fall 1978, a total of 35 international students were admitted to Parkland College but just two years later the number had increased to 130 (see Parkland College Community College, 1981a, p. 8). As a consequence, a new administrative position was established--Assistant Dean for Special Admissions and International Students. Additionally, four new objectives were recommended for consideration by the Board of Trustees. They included:

1. To meet the growing needs of the academic, social, and economic milieu beyond the Parkland College District, (e.g., international students, energy conferences, Chautauquas).

2. To offer a range of academic programs, college facilities, and services for disadvantaged and handicapped students.

3. To provide facilities for community organizations that will serve as a forum for the articulation of community issues and ideas.

4. To offer College credit for nontraditional education and life experiences stemming from the richness of a student's background. (Parkland College Community College District, 1981a, p. 17)

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[10] The decision resided with the Dean of Instruction; at this time, it was Dr. Donald Swank.

Effective in the 1989-90 academic year, most of the Parkland College objectives were amended to make use of contemporary language and a new objective was added. This new objective was to provide students with educational experiences and services which made optimum use of both human and technological resources. During the 1992-93 academic year, the philosophy and objectives were replaced by mission and purpose statements, which were written as follows:

> Parkland College is dedicated to providing for the comprehensive educational needs of its students with accessible and flexibility scheduled programs and services of high quality. In so doing, the college affords students the opportunity to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, and guidance for personal development and societal benefit. Further, the college values and works toward the economic and cultural well being of the residents of Illinois Community College District 505. The Board of Trustees and college personnel recognize the dignity and worth of each person, the differences and shared interests among individuals and groups, the contribution of diverse cultures, the value of creativity, and the need to rely on reason and cooperation to achieve our goals. (Parkland College Community College, 1981a, p. 17)

The following purposes were added and denoted equal importance in realizing the mission of Parkland College (an asterisk denotes significant mission purposes in terms of the academic programs described in this study):

1. To develop and enrich students' general education.*
2. To provide up-to-date technical-vocational and career education that meets the needs of students, business, and industry.
3. To provide developmental programs, courses, and services that are directed at preparing students to pursue college-level work successfully.*
4. To assist the economic life of the district through services to the public and to business, industry, agriculture, and labor.
5. To provide lifelong learning opportunities for students to explore their potential, abilities, and interests, and to provide and encourage participation in adult education programming.*
6. To guide and assist students in developing critical and creative abilities.*
7. To engage students actively in the process of developing a perspective on and an appreciation for cultural diversity.

8. To provide support services that enhance students' learning experiences, that promote personal growth, and that supply employment information and placement assistance.

9. To expand students' global awareness by providing opportunities for international studies and experiences. (Parkland College Community College, 1981a, p. 17)

In the 1995-96 edition, the Parkland College Catalog contained its first statement on cultural diversity. It stated that the College's commitment to cultural diversity would entail learning more about and respecting different cultures. It further stated that it would be a priority to sensitize faculty, staff, administration, and students to the plurality inherent in the term "culture." Therefore, another one of Parkland College's goals was to help spread the awareness of cultural diversity to the residents of District 505 by:

1. Respecting the inherent right of all persons to live with dignity and freedom.

2. Respecting individual rights of expression.

3. Setting a standard for the larger community by promoting sensitivity, communication, and understanding among people with differing beliefs, color, gender, cultures, and backgrounds.

4. Encouraging affirmative action for students, faculty, and staff.

5. Providing opportunities (e.g., curriculum development, art exhibits, theatrical presentations, and special events) for increasing the awareness of cultural differences and personal lifestyles within the college and within the community. (Parkland College Community College, 1981a, p. 17)

To fully understand how Parkland College performed its goals and mission to develop and enrich students' general education by providing developmental programming and services which prepared students for college level course work, an historical study was developed and undertaken. The central question investigated was what Parkland College did to provide equal learning opportunities for students to explore and develop their academic potential.

To illustrate how Parkland attempted to meet its policy edict, an analysis of relevant historical evidence was undertaken. The evidentiary base included such significant primary

information like course curriculums, college catalogues, financial records, and legislative acts. The secondary information included data presented in self-studies and annual reports.

The written presentation of this study was organized in the following manner: Chapter 1, Introduction, presented an insightful overview of the history of Parkland College, particularly its mission and purpose regarding the education of adults residing in District 505.[11] Chapter 2, the Review of the Literature, is subdivided into four sections: analytic adult education philosophy, progressive adult education philosophy, behaviorist adult education philosophy, and finally "other" adult education philosophies influencing adult education in the United States. Chapter 3 focuses on the trends and issues in adult education in the late 1970s and 1980s on the national level. Chapter 4 gives an in-depth look at Parkland College's Adult Education Program spanning the length of this study. Chapter 5 presents a reconstructive analysis of Parkland College's programs for disadvantaged students. Finally, Chapter 6 provides the conclusion with insights into the current trends in community college adult education programming.

[11] The term "adult" refers to the definition enacted through federal legislation; see Pub. L. No. 89-750, Title III, and Pub. L. No. 98-511.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Adult education has its roots in at least three philosophical movements. Therefore, the literature review gives an insightful presentation of books and articles that help to illustrate a uniquely historical, philosophical framework for adult education. These philosophies include: (a) analytic philosophy of adult education, which emphasizes the need for clarification of concepts, arguments, and policy statements utilized to support adult education; (b) progressive adult education, which is part of the social change movement in politics and education, emphasizing experience-centered education and the relationship between education and democracy, plus vocational education; and (c) behaviorist adult education, which places importance on behavior modification and learning through management objectives in adult education (this concept may be recognized in behavioral objectives and programmed learning) (Elias & Merriam, 1980; Merriam, 1980).

First, the review of literature focuses on information concerning analytic philosophy because it establishes a sound philosophic basis for the field of adult education. Second, the literature review focuses on progressive educational practices because progressivism was the school of thought which established theoretical positions leading to practical programs in adult education. Third, the review of literature is concerned with behaviorist education, the importance of which is evident in one of the fundamental objectives of adult education programming--to help students overcome any prior conditioning that may have limited their motivation. Fourth, the literature review is focused on several other philosophies contributing to the development of adult education. This section was added due to the perceived necessity to include literature that may not fit the traditional definitions of the other philosophies.

Analytic Adult Education Philosophy

Analytical philosophy of adult education has been historically rooted to Plato (1970a, 1970b) and the idea of analysis of language. It has been utilized as a way of questioning some of the basic principles generally accepted by many adult educators in the United States. Its primary concentration was on a careful analysis of educational concepts as well as on any policy statements. Although analytical philosophy has several theoretical manifestations, the two deemed significant for this study were conceptual analysis and logical positivism. In conceptual analysis, the investigator is not to construct explanations about reality; instead, he or she is to eliminate language confusion. In logical positivism, the chief teaching approach is the principle of verification, which means, if a policy statement or slogan was not verifiable through empirical data, the idea was considered without merit and, therefore, meaningless. The following books and articles demonstrate the true essence of analytic philosophy.

In the undercited, yet classical text, *Community College Response to the High Risk Student*, Moore, Jr. (1976) made a compelling argument that every facet of the community college must be scientifically researched and every policy claim reappraised. His research questions was, "Where was the evidence that academic deficiencies were being cured by the community college?" His investigation led to the creation of a list of popular ideas teachers perceived as the cause for low academic achievement among disadvantaged students. The list included, but was not limited to, cultural disadvantage, negative self-concept, and the lack of motivation. Moore associated this notion with a cultural disadvantaged hypothesis, which implied that poor academic achievement can be traced to the social, economic, and environmental background of underachieving students. This type of culturally disadvantaged hypothesis was weak because the intrinsic dimensions were almost impossible to reliably measure. The idea of negative self-concept, which stipulated that students had difficulty

achieving academically, because their attitudes about themselves and their academic abilities were negative; the result of such a perception was the reason for deficiency in school performance. Overwhelmingly, the majority of studies on self-concept was done with small children and adolescents, so Moore concluded any attempt to generalize such research to adult students at the community college level ought to be viewed with suspicion. His research also revealed that despite the complex reasons given for poor academic achievement by the students themselves, the institutional prescriptors for improvement have historically been the same--personal counseling and remedial instruction.

According to Moore's evidence, personal counseling was considered the panacea because students received the "extra attention" they needed. He added that, unfortunately, many high-risk students were concerned with learning academic information, while their counselors worried about creating the right setting and maintaining the proper etiquette during the process, thus creating a conflict in values. He stated that high risk students wanted and needed guidance, not counseling. As for remedial instruction, he discovered that students were often required to work with educational gadgets and self-taught learning materials instead of more intense, and meticulously organized academic lesson plans. Further, Moore's evidence revealed that teachers of remedial courses were often too discipline oriented, lacked sufficient background in education courses and were not representative of the backgrounds of the majority of their students. Moore summarized his findings by emphasizing that despite "open-door" policies, two-year institutions indeed had selective admissions, either for admittance as a student into the college or more likely into a specific division or department. This information was important because it justified large-scale adult education programming as an essential component of the open-door philosophy.

This idea was expanded upon by Collins (1971) in "Function and Conflict Theories of Educational Stratification." In this journal article, the author tried to assess the adequacy of two theories (functional and conflict) in accounting for the available evidence on the link between education and stratification. A "functional" theory was concerned with trends in technical skill requirements within industrial societies while a "conflict" theory was derived from the approach of Max Weber, which stated that struggles among status groups often occurred in the educational system. Collins, in his rather complex yet intriguing analysis, argued that skill requirements of jobs in industrial societies such as the United States constantly increased due to advancements in technology. As a result, the proportion of jobs requiring low skill levels decreased while the proportion that required high skill levels increased.

Thus, formal schooling environments were to provide the training, either in specific skills or in general capacities, necessary for more highly skilled jobs; however, educational requirements for employment continually rose, leading to an increasingly larger proportion of the population being required to spend longer and longer periods attending school. Collins suggested that although the idea of acquiring a formal education provided necessary job skills, it needed to be tested by passing at least two inquiries: (a) Are better-educated employees more productive than less-educated employees? (b) Are workforce preparation skills learned in schools or on the job? Collins argued that his economic evidence indicated there were no clear contributions of education to economic development. In fact, the author reported that education was often irrelevant to on-the-job productivity and, more specifically, that workforce preparation seemed to be derived more from work experience than from formal school training. Collins asserted, "the main contribution of education to economic productivity appears to occur at the level of the transition to mass literacy, and not significantly beyond this level" (p. 122). He summarized with the notion that educational attainment may be regarded as a mark of

membership in a particular group but not as a mark of technical skill or achievement. In this context, any failure of schools to impart technical knowledge was not important because (as Collins would argue) the primary function of schools was to teach vocabulary, styles of dress, aesthetic tastes, values, and manners.

This offers an excellent reason to examine the book by Willis (1981), *Learning to Labor*, in which he documents the results of his study about a working class school in the United Kingdom. His evidence illustrates that, similar to public schools in the United States, there was a major division among the behaviors of the students he studied--the "ear'oles" and the "lads." The great majority of the students, who were the "ear'oles," conformed to the roles defined for students aspired to middle-class professions, and complied with the rules and norms of the institution. The counterschool culture of the "lads," on the other hand, rejected the instructor's achievement ideology, made a mockery of the ear'oles, and used whatever means possible to display their open opposition to the instructors. Further, the lads believed that their chances for significant upward mobility were so remote that sacrificing "a laff" for good behavior in school was pointless. Willis illustrated that the lads repudiated schooling because, although they believed "individuals" were capable of "making it," conformism for their "group" or class promised no tangible rewards. Another important contribution to Willis's study was his observation that the highly valued trait of the lads was their masculinity which they equated with manual labor, while mental labor was associated with the social inferiority of femininity. This identification of manual labor with male privilege, more than anything else, ensured the lads acceptance of their subordinate economic fate and the successful reproduction of their class structure. Willis concluded by emphasizing the importance of student aspiration and instructor expectation as equal determining factors which contributed to the social reproduction of the working class. Indeed, of all the factors that contributed to the social reproduction (e.g., ability

grouping, which was how social relations were formed within the schools, and class-based differences in linguistic codes), regulation of aspirations was perhaps the most important.

This position was shared by Bowles and Gintis (1976) in their classic text, *Schooling in Capitalist America: Educational Reform and the Contradictions of Economic Life*. They asserted that the major aspects of the structure of schooling can be understood, in terms of the systematic needs for producing reserved armies of skilled labor, which legitimated the technocratic-meritocratic perspective that reinforced the fragmentation of groups of workers into stratified status groups, and accustomed students to the social relationships of dominance and subordinancy in our economic system. Bowles and Gintis further argued that strong structural similarities can be illustrated in the organization of power in the school and in the workplace. For example, students do not control who teaches the curriculum and workers do not control the content of their jobs. Another parallel was the role of grades in the school and the role of wages in the workplace as extrinsic motivational systems. In short, Bowles and Gintis asserted that social relations of the school reflect those of the capitalist mode of production, whereby the system of education and its agents, the instructors, "tailor the self-concepts, aspirations, and social class identifications of individuals to the requirements of the social division of labor" (p. 129). Their antidotal evidence included data from schools who served working-class students were more regimented and emphasized rules and behavioral control. While more affluent schools offered broader student experiences and "favored greater student participation, less direct supervision, more student electives, and in general a value system which stressed internalized standards of control" (p. 132). Hence, the school served as the trading post where socially valued cultural capital was parleyed into superior academic performance. Academic performance was then turned back into economic capital by the acquisition of superior jobs. In other words, the schools reproduced inequality by dealing in the

currency of academic credentials, thereby legitimating the entire process. To Bowles and Gintis, the structure of schooling promoted a belief among working-class students that they were unlikely to achieve academic success. This supported their conclusion that the process of schooling reinforced relations of dominance and inequality among social classes.

To fully appreciate Bowles and Gintis's (1976) thesis, in terms of adult education, one must first understand the concepts discussed in the classic text by Boyd and Apps (1980a), *A Conceptual Model for Adult Education*, who presented a model for conceptualizing adult education as a field of study and practice. The first principle that distinguished Boyd and Apps' theory from others' was their belief that it was an error to seek assistance from other recognized disciplines until they clearly understood the structure, function, problems, and purposes of adult education itself. To Boyd and Apps, there were at least two reasonable arguments against the free borrowing of concepts and theories. First, before seeking help from other disciplines, one must clearly see the unique and particular configurations of adult education as an activity. Second, before borrowing concepts, one must establish the similarities and differences between the context of the materials being considered for use. Furthermore, theorists must ask themselves whether any erroneous assumptions are being accepted when they were borrowing from established disciplines to define problems in adult education.

Boyd and Apps believed they identified at least four of these erroneous assumptions that proponents of borrowing from other disciplines have taken for granted. The first was that concepts from other disciplines could be applied directly to adult education without specifying situational variables. They determined that direct appropriation of concepts from other disciplines was an error because these concepts were developed without concern for adult education. The second erroneous assumption, according to the authors, was that concepts could stand by themselves. They argued that frequently researchers took concepts from one context

and applied them to another, despite the fact that concepts did not have an existence independent of the theoretical framework in which they were developed; therefore, when one borrowed a concept, one also borrowed the theoretical framework in which the concept was defined. Related to this error was the third erroneous assumption, that concepts could be combined. According to Boyd and Apps, many adult educators borrowed concepts from different sources and attempted to blend them together, often unknowingly, combining theoretical frameworks that directly contradicted one another. The fourth and final erroneous assumption, as identified by the authors, was that these disciplines could define adult education and this was supported by the fact that researchers were borrowing heavily from other fields and allowing those disciplines to define adult education for them. These and similar considerations led Boyd and Apps (1980a, 1980b) to ask how could they develop foundations for adult education.

Boyd and Apps' first step was to define the field of adult education, which they determined contained three transactional modes: individual, small group, and community. Here, they used the term transactional to characterize the nature of the learner's situation; for example were adults working independently or individually, in groups or classes, or as members of a community? The individual transactional mode referred to a situation in which an adult learned by himself, such as through participation in an independent study course. The group transactional mode described learning situations in which persons met together, like in an adult education class, where they learned to work on some problem or concern they had. However, when a group of citizens gathered together to resolve a problem faced by their community, they were working in the community transactional mode. While transactions in the group mode were solely intragroup, transactions in the community mode were primarily intergroup. Boyd and Apps (1980a) added that the transactional mode was only one dimension of adult education and

identified a second dimension as the "client focus." They illustrated that adult education served three potential clients: individuals, groups, and communities. By reporting on the Adult Education Program's client focus, they tried to ascertain who would primarily benefit from the educational activity--the individual, the group, or the community. Boyd and Apps added a third dimension to their model, which they argued constituted three systems: personal, social, and cultural. In the personal system, the aims a person projected were influenced by their history, abilities, and character. The personal system included such components as individuals' developmental levels, their motivation, and their learning patterns. While social systems were created each time a group of individuals gathered for a collective activity, each group's social interaction reflected a unique configuration. Part of the social system included the way members' interrelated the status individuals held, and the group's expectations, along with many other similar variables. The cultural system was structured upon the sets of beliefs, values, rules, principles, and customs that guided the conduct of individuals. It included shared assumptions about the conduct of human behavior such as the development of ethical, moral, and esthetic valuations. The importance of the individual systems in a given educational situation depended on the nature of the transaction; for in any given educational transaction, one system may play a more significant role than the others.

Boyd and Apps (1980a) concluded that their model made several contributions to the field of adult education. First, their model contributed to demarcating a conceptual structure of the nature and parameters of adult education. In their view, since adult education lacked a foundation that described the field, it had grown and developed without any clear direction of what it was and what it should accomplish. Second, it provided a framework for identifying and organizing problems in adult education. They asserted by using their model, researchers could systematically identify problems and questions and see the relationships among them. Third, the

model was based on the structure of adult education, not on disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, or sociology. They believed it provided a framework which could be used to evaluate the applicability of theories and concepts developed in other fields. Fourth, the model integrated instruction and curriculum, and incorporated social and cultural value systems. Their model for adult education had three dimensions--transactional mode, client focus, and system--each of which had three aspects. Using this model, they considered the goals of educational activities, and surmised that, the paramount goal of educational enterprises was growth: the growth of an individual, a group, or a community. They defined growth as the progressive movement towards the solution of problems and the development of abilities to encounter similar future problems with greater competencies. They believed this model corrected several errors among many that adult educators have had to labor under, and challenged them to provide direction and a consistent framework within which the potential of each individual could be realized.

In "The Theory-Practice Split," Elias (1982) argued that one of the most difficult problems philosophers addressed was the relationship between philosophy and action, or between theory and practice. He began by describing Aristotle's three types of human life and activity: theoria, praxis, and poeisis. Theoria (theory) was representative of the speculative life in which one searched for truth solely by a contemplative and reflective process. While theory was to achieve wisdom by understanding the basic principles of life, praxis itself included two moments, action and reflection, which required practice to achieve practical wisdom, especially in such areas as business, politics, and education. Poeisis was the term for a productive life. It entailed the making of concrete things, and through it a person developed a craft, a skill, or an art. Elias argued that this supported the notion that, in knowing and acting, it was always best to go from theory to practice, although poeisis devalued common experience and practice as

sources of true knowledge, and exaggerated the value of theory and speculation in human life. Elias asserted that in education, this viewpoint has had a certain number of well-known. harmful effects, including the belief that certain subjects (philosophy, mathematics, literature, and history) were in themselves more valuable than others (natural sciences, vocational education, technological education, and career education).

By the middle of the seventeenth century, Francis Bacon, the British philosopher of science, introduced a new mode of thought to the Western world, that the surest way to knowledge was through an examination of facts gained from experience. This empirical or experimental model of knowing was a principal element in the philosophy of pragmatism. The educational implications of the pragmatic viewpoint was that it depended less on earlier accepted theories and more on direct experience and observation. This was attributed to the fact that the academic field of adult education arose during the height of the progressive period, when the field of education was biased toward the practical. As support of his assertion, Elias (1982) illustrated how the major works in the field were books on program planning and teaching methodologies, while most papers given at research conferences dealt with practical rather than theoretical issues. He, therefore, concluded that there were at least four elements present in the relationship between theory and practice: explanation, criticism, direction, and imagination.

Explanation included the notion that a philosophy or theory explained a practice. For example, theory attempted to do in a systematic way what common sense did in an unorganized manner--to probe goals, relationships, methods, structures, institutions, norms and procedures of evaluation--while practice helped to understand theories and supplied the concrete examples needed to give insight into theory. Criticism included the notion that theories "criticized' practice, including the methods of theories of instruction, learning, and evaluation. It was,

therefore, essential that educators who used particular methods recognized the underlying assumptions of those methods and approaches. In addition, "practice" had great potential in offering constructive criticism to theory because it showed whether the theory was inadequate for explaining reality or whether, after putting a theory into practice, the theory needed to be modified. It was a theory failing to meet the test of practice that often led to its abandonment. However, educational theories had the important function of directing action; thus, whoever theorized in education should have the development of guidelines for practice in mind as the end product. Considering that the general goals of educational practice were well known (e.g., the formation of character, the cultivation of intelligence, the promotion of knowledge, education for work and leisure, and education for citizenship and social change): educational theory should be organized along lines that direct practice activities in teaching, training, learning, evaluation, and administration. Elias (1982) added that one must look at theory and practice from the perspective of the imagination, because theories were "imagined" or "constructed" possible practices, which often arose from attempts to explain, criticize, and direct practice.

This idea was supported by Long and Helm (1987), in *New Perspectives on the Education of Adults in the U.S.*, who claimed that the philosophical basis of education for adults varies according to the providers of programs, and that it was common for at least two or more philosophical justifications to coexist. The authors believed most practitioners and academicians did not have a coherent philosophy of education for adults. Therefore, they tried to explain the distinction between disciplined scholarly philosophy and one's everyday set of guiding principles. To accomplish that goal, they offered a brief overview of the main ideas of whom they considered the leading philosophers of adult education.

Long and Helm began by reporting on the basic elements of the five educational philosophies identified by Boyd and Apps (1980a, 1980b), which included perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, reconstruction, and existentialism. Perennialism was the philosophical view that basic beliefs and knowledge of the past were as applicable today as they were centuries earlier. A perennialist, therefore, focused on activities that were thought to discipline the mind, with the importance being placed on the content to be mastered, and was to be found in mathematics, languages, logic, and great books. Long and Helm (1987) described perennialism as an elitist philosophy of education because it was for the intellectually gifted, while the less able obtained vocational training. Essentialism, at least according to Boyd and Apps (1980a), was one of the more popular educational philosophies practiced in U.S. schools. The essentialist believed the significant elements of education were derived from historical and contemporary knowledge. This philosophy was drawn from both idealism and realism. For the idealist, the content of education was obtained from history, foreign language, and the classics. The realist believed that the content of education was derived from the physical world within such disciplines as mathematics and the natural sciences. Consistent with the view that the purpose of education was to preserve and transmit the culture to future generations, essentialism emphasized subject matter and a traditional approach to education. Progressivism was opposed to authoritarianism and preferred human experience as a basis of knowledge. Adherents to this philosophy did not believe in absolute knowledge, to them all things were in transition and relative. Rather than emphasizing mastery of content, progressivism was designed to help students learn problem solving or how to think. Process was emphasized rather than content and according to progressivism, the purpose of education was to improve human life in society. According to Long and Helm (1987), progressive education ideas have been highly visible in adult education literature since the 1920s. Reconstructionism, in contrast to

progressivism, focused more on ends (truths) than means (process). In this respect, reconstructionists were similar to perennialists and essentialists; the differences were between how the ends were determined. To the perennialist and essentialist, ends were absolute and eternal and were determined through nonempirical approaches. While reconstructionists, as did the progressivists, relied on the scientific method to discover truth, they believed that truths or ends were relative, not absolute. Existentialism emphasized the purpose of education. Accordingly, the objective of education was individual self-fulfillment. It was directly opposed to essentialism and perenialism in three specific ways: (a) education was not primarily an agency of society to perpetuate a cultural heritage, (b) education was not a pipeline of perennial truths, and (c) education was not a means for social life adjustment in a democratic community. Instead, education existed for the individual. Thus, it was an instrument for encouraging maximum individual choice and autonomy. Essentially, Boyd and Apps (1980a, 1980b) illustrated the major philosophies of education from broader schools of philosophy and applied them to educational issues such as the aims of adult education.

Long and Helm (1987) also discussed the ideas of Cotton (as cited in Long & Helm, 1987) who identified three general philosophical orientations in the literature of adult education. He identified them as social reformist, professional, and eclectic orientations. Social reform, according to Cotton, was the oldest of the traditions which dominated the field through the mid-thirties. Subscribers to the social reformist view were critical of the status quo, including traditional education and the special interest of those other than the oppressed. Educators of adults who held these views generally believed that individual and social intelligence had to be mobilized, on a large scale, to solve critical social, economic, and political problems. The professional tradition was more recent. It emerged as a reaction against the social reformist philosophy and was associated with the development and expansion of graduate programs in

adult education. Subscribers to the professional philosophy, as used by Cotton, perceived the function of adult education more in terms of educational ends than in social goals. The emphasis was the establishment of adult education on an additional parity with other levels of the traditional educational structure. Consequently, educators who identified with the professional tradition were most concerned with the establishment of the discipline of adult education, its professionalization, and the institutionalization of adult education. Eclectic philosophical positions were identified with adult educators whose views tended to fall somewhere between the positions of the social reformists and the professionals. Thus, the practitioner would function equally well as a functionary of a social agency designed to maintain the status quo and as an agent in another organization dedicated to change. Individual philosophy, not educational preparation was the critical element.

Long and Helm (1987) concluded that the philosophical perspectives they discussed fell into one of three general categories (a) education for self-improvement, (b) education for social change, and (c) education for corporate or national interests. They added that there were two polar perceptions of the status of adult education research discernible in U.S. literature. First, pessimism about the ability of adult educators to conduct useful research; and second, limited significance of adult education research. Furthermore, the theory in adult education was limited in its development due to the numerous partial explanations for a variety of relationships and conditions, including the size of the nation, differences among sections of the country, and the complexity of social-racial-ethnic-cultural group identity. To the authors, there was little doubt that the status of theory and research in adult education would be at a higher level of development if adult education had the same legitimacy as childhood education.

This idea was supported in the classic text, *Philosophical Concepts and Values in Adult Education,* by Lawson (1979). He argued that the phrase "the education of adults" included

activities as diverse as Certificate Courses in university extra-mural departments, cake icing classes in evening institutions, and the work done by libraries and museums. Further, that attempts were being made to extend the phrase to some aspects of community development and social work. The set of characteristics binding all these examples was not clear beyond the fact that adults were involved and in the sense that "education" was undefined. Considering that education profoundly affected people in many ways, it was incumbent upon researchers to justify these affects, and to reappraise what was being done. Education, like other social processes and institutions, developed because human beings thinking and working together had desires, ideals, and intentions and a consciousness of the things they wanted to achieve. Their concepts developed in relation to these things, as did institutions which reflected values, principles, and priorities. Lawson argued that for those reasons a conceptual analysis of adult education as a set of social processes and institutions was the focal point of his book. It was not concerned with administrative practices and teaching methods, except insofar as those represented or enshrined ideas, values, and objectives. Therefore, his approach was abstract rather than concrete and concerned with generalities and principles rather than particulars.

Lawson (1979) sought to investigate two questions: (a) whether or not there were any specifically "adult education" concepts and values, and (b) whether there were any "adult education" problems of a philosophical nature. The first of those two questions was concerned with the extent to which the "education of adults" was an extension of more generalized concepts of education. For example, were the forms of education appropriate for young children different from those appropriate for their parents? The second question of whether there were any separate philosophical problems was answered by the author when he considered the notion of what we were doing when people were being educated? Lawson asserted that whatever we mean by the concept we call education, it involved processes which changed people. They

learned new things, their behavior, and their responses were modified. In some way, however slight, they became different from what they were to begin with. When the change was planned or induced by a second person (such as a teacher), that person must accept some responsibility for what was done. Further, it needed to be recognized that the process of education (which involved teachers or other institutional agents) was, in effect, acts of aggression on the minds and personalities of students because, in most standard usages, "to educate" implied a conscious attempt to change the learner's behavior in some way. In terms of the education of adults, the questions revealed the nature of the role of the teacher in a particularly vital way because the teacher was expected to relate to people, who as adults, were equals; yet, in some way, the teacher had to engage them and change them.

Lawson added that, in the field of adult education, there were clear indications that the problems were recognized and that patterns of organization and approaches to teaching adults had been developed. These included the democratic student-orientated organization and the student-centered approach to teaching, which made extensive use of discussion techniques. However, the question still remained, "What do we use the expression 'adult education' for?" The author believed the distinction was useful when making administrative decisions on the details of course organization, where the timing, location, and duration of courses appropriate to one type of student was inappropriate to another. But he added that an administrative classification was of limited use as a guide to research into teaching methods and learning problems if "adult" was defined by social role. Therefore, the chronological definition of "adult" may be significant only if it can be shown that adults learned best in ways that were different as they aged. From a curriculum planning point of view and from an advertising and publicity standpoint, a definition in terms of content and goals would be a much more useful way of characterizing "adult education." Lawson concluded that the term adult education had a

multiplicity of uses which depended upon context and the intention of the user; therefore, no single descriptive definition could be put forward as the central "meaning" of the concept of adult education. Since there were so many descriptive definitions, they were in the end technical terms, and there was little, if any, descriptive connotation attached to the term "adult education" in common usage, except the descriptive connotation associated with the concepts of *education* and *adult* in their independent everyday senses. He asserted that the reason for this was relatively simple: there was no identifiable set of activities to which the term *adult education* referred. There was no single descriptive content to be connoted by it. In this respect, the concept was not significantly different from the general concept of *education* which, in general usage, also tended to be ambiguous with reference to descriptive connotation.

This is an excellent opportunity to review "Adult Learning: State Policies and Institutional Practices," by Cross and McCarran (1984). The authors describe adult education as the most rapidly growing segment in all education. They added about half of the growth can be attributed to larger numbers of adults in the population, and the remaining half attributed to the increased need and desire of adults to continue learning. Their review of a wide assortment of state documents indicated that, no matter what the level of participation or extent of planning and goal setting, states were being confronted with issues related to the increased presence of adults as learners. They asserted that these issues could be grouped under four overarching concerns: providers, access, quality assurance, and economic revitalization. Cross and McCartan's evidence illustrated that an increasing number and variety of providers were offering opportunities for learning to adults. In fact, almost half of all courses taken by adults were provided by nonschools, such as businesses, labor and professional associations, government agencies, and community organizations. The authors added that even without a systematic approach to determining prevalent state roles, some general impressions resulted.

Overall, encouragement seemed to be the most common approach states used in reacting to issues of adult education. Direct support and services were often used to promote access and to initiate economic revitalization. A number of states chose intervention to deal with issues of educational providers and quality assurance. Most of these efforts were toward equal opportunity for women and minorities. The evidence revealed that women had made far greater gains in adult education than had African-Americans and Latinos. At every age level for both men and women, the participation of African-American and Latinos was about half that for their White counterparts. Cross and McCartan concluded that the severe underrepresentation of these groups in adult education was largely due to factors associated with poverty, especially low educational attainment. The authors questioned whether race per se was a deterrent to participation in adult education and needed further study, especially by age group and educational background. In summary, analytic philosophy allows an investigator access to theory of educational institutions and critical analysis techniques for better understanding education policy and education concepts. Essentially, analytical philosophy is the philosophical framework best suited to understand the concept of adult education. But it is progressive adult education philosophy that best reveals the practical implications.

Progressive Adult Education Philosophy

As noted previously, progressive adult education had its historical roots in the progressive movement of the early 1900s. It emphasized such concepts as the relationship between education and society, experience-centered education, vocational education, and democratic education. Educational practices in adult education included Americanization education, English as a Second Language (ESL), and the community school movement. Progressivism had a greater impact upon the adult education movement in the United States

than any other single school of thought. It helped establish theoretical positions and practical programs. Several forms of adult education inspired by the progressives include: (a) adult workforce preparation, (b) education of the foreign born, and (c) family literacy. Further, several of the basic principles in adult education originated in progressive thought: (a) societal needs and student interests, (b) problem-solving techniques, (c) centrality of the student's experience, (d) pragmatic and utilitarian goals, and (e) social responsibility. The origins of progressive education lie in the rationalist, empirical, and scientific thought which developed first in Europe and then became predominant in the United States. The progressives advocated that the new way of seeking knowledge was reason and experience rather than tradition and authority. They defined the goals of education as both literal and individual whereby liberation of the learner released the potential for improvement of society. Pragmatism was the philosophical basis for progressivism. Although pragmatism had various dimensions of significance, for this study the significance rests in the notion that it recognized the methods for science to understand the human psychic and solve problems, and that there was a legitimate concern for social reform.

This idea was supported by Robinson (1971), in his book *The Humanizing of Knowledge: Basic Principles of Adult Progressive Education.* His thesis was that the view of education should be broadened to include all the incidental and intentional activity society used to pass on values, attitudes, knowledge, and skills. He added that since education was extensive, that it should be considered lifelong, not just during the schooling years. Robinson argued that education must include both the liberal and the practical, for both work and education. He illustrated that adult education curriculums had always included a pragmatic, utilitarian, and vocational orientation, with the focal point being the learners and their personal needs, interests, experiences, and desires. According to Robinson, students had unlimited potential for

development and growth, and that they could, through knowledge of the scientific method and experimental thinking, achieve a more satisfying life. Further, that the teacher's role was not just to capitalize on the interests that already existed in the student but to arouse interests in things that were considered educative and desirable. Robinson summarized by alluding to the fact that a student was a self-directing organism with initiative, intentions, choices, freedom, energy, and responsibility. Therefore he argued the best method of teaching entailed clarification of a problem to be solved, the development of ideas or hypothesis about the problem, and the testing of these hypothesis by examination of empirical evidence. Essentially, this method relied on the notion that learning was something that students did for themselves; thus, the responsibility of the instructor was to organize, stimulate, instigate, and evaluate the highly complex process of education. In other words, the teacher was to provide the setting that was conductive to learning and, in so doing, the teacher also became a learner (for the relationships between teachers and students were reciprocal). Both should expect to learn from each other, especially in a climate that promoted creativity, stability, individuality and a social consciousness.

The multifaceted social function of the formal educative process was supported Cremin's (1961) *Transformation of the School, Progressivism in American Education, 1867-1957*. He asserted that progressive education could not be defined because it meant different things to different people, and that these differences were compounded by the remarkable diversity of American education. He added that progressivism in education was a many-sided effort to use schools to improve the lives of individuals and that in the mind of progressives this meant several things: (a) broadening the function of the school to include direct concern for health, vocation, and the quality of family and community life; (b) applying in the classroom the pedagogical principles derived from new scientific research in psychology, and the social sciences; and (c) tailored instruction to the diverse kinds and classes of children who were being

brought within the purview of school. Cremin illustrated that educational reform occurred at the same moment as other reforms. As evidence to substantiate this theory, he also illustrated how school curriculums included workforce preparation as demanded by businessmen and social education and deemed equally important by urban settlement workers. Cremin asserted that the progressives manifested four principles of education: (a) schools should teach what students will not learn from family, friends, or their environment; (b) programs should embrace matters with general theoretical bearing on students lives; (c) there must be moral education, just without religious instruction; and (d) education should continue throughout adulthood.

These concepts were supported by Callahan (1962), in his book *Education and the Cult of Efficiency*. He supported the notion that schools and schooling must be seen within the larger context of the forces and events which shaped society. He also suggested that the pattern of organization, support, and control made American public schools vulnerable to the strongest and most determined social forces. During the Progressive Era, the most powerful forces were corporate interests. According to Callahan, corporations expressed their influence in the form of demands or suggestions that schools be organized in a more businesslike manner, and that more instructional emphasis be placed on practical and immediately useful education. To generate support for the change of a more businesslike organization and operation of schools, often the procedure involved an unfavorable comparison between schools and business enterprises by applying business criterion to education. The consequence of this comparison was the rise of business to prestige and influence as well as the saturation of business values and practices into American schools. Additionally, as Callahan suggested, the roots of the philosophical conflict of theory versus practice was established during this era.

This idea of theory versus practice was played out in Merriam and Cunningham's (1989) *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education* (hereinafter referred to as the *Handbook*). In this

book, several authors attempted to illustrate how practical implications could be properly addressed through the use of theory. For example, in the chapter entitled "Adult Basic Education," Taylor (1989) described adult basic education as a generic term which denotes the building blocks of the lifelong learning structure. He argued that basic education refers to the fundamental areas of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and mathematics, while adult literacy and basic education connotes programs of adult basic education. Taylor illustrated that many researchers broadened the definition of literacy beyond reading, writing, and math, describing it in terms of an adult's ability to function within a social context. He asserted several underlying principles of adult literacy. For example, that grade level completion measures were inadequate for definitional purposes, and that there existed a literacy continuum, ranging from the mechanisms of learning how to decode and encode to the mature use of literacy skills and processes for informed action. He stated the need to provide basic skills education to adults in the United States came primarily from two sources: (a) immigrants and refugees, who had little or no understanding of English; and (b) native-born, who had some proficiency in the basic skills and wanted to earn a high school equivalency degree, as well as the functionally illiterate, who had marginal skills in reading, writing, and mathematics.

Taylor's evidence led him to conclude that illiteracy was highest among groups with less than a high school education, among members of ethnic minority groups in regions of the country with high unemployment, and among the economically disadvantaged. He added that classes at the lowest level of ability were composed largely of minority-group adults, many of whom were school dropouts and participated in ABE as an attempt to break the cycle of poverty and disadvantage. However, classes of ABE learners who had developed some proficiency in basic skills exhibited greater durability. This group tended to be made up of people with higher ability and longer prior formal schooling. They were motivated to attend a

program as a precondition to taking courses leading to a high school equivalency certificate (GED). Students viewed this certificate as important because it had some labor market value or because it provided entrance into further skill training, and other educational opportunities. Taylor concluded that characteristics of an effective program included clarity about the overall goals of instruction, explicitness about learning outcomes and standards for judging success in achieving these outcomes. He added that the teachers' attitudes about the students' backgrounds and experiences was also crucial to program effectiveness, along with teachers' ability to connect basic skills and literacy development to job training.

In the next chapter of the *Handbook*, entitled "Adult Secondary Education," Martin and Fisher (1989) argued that adult secondary education (ASE) was intended to serve the needs of adults who had completed at least 9 years but fewer than 12 years of school. They illustrated that these programs were designed to improve students' reading, writing, computing, and thinking skills so that they could obtain a high school diploma or its equivalent. They added that although less known than ABE and ESL, ASE programs provided the credentials most in demand for entering the job market or for furthering educational opportunities. While ABE and ESL were supported largely by state and federal funds, ASE programs were usually funded by state and local taxes. Martin and Fisher reported that most arguments supporting ASE depended on what they described as narrowly utilitarian socioeconomic goals (such as training and employment); while other arguments focused on different outcomes such as social change, personal empowerment, development of critical-thinking skills, or human dignity. Therefore, the authors argued that the success of adult secondary education programs depended on the extent to which the program could achieve a balance between the utilitarian goals established by funding sources and the broader outcomes sought by participants. They suggested that school dropouts possessed several characteristics that distinguished them from college-bound students

and others who completed high school. For example, dropouts were more likely to have low test scores, low socioeconomic status, low grades and difficulty functioning in the social context of schooling as demonstrated by high levels of truancy and tardiness. Further, that school dropouts were more likely to be members of a minority group.

Martin and Fisher developed a typology which statistically differentiated six life-style categories of school dropouts: (a) entrepreneurs (owners of private businesses), (b) superiors (managers of businesses or organizations), (c) regulars (employed skilled and semiskilled workers), (d) suppliants (recipients of an indirect means of financial support), (e) marginals (recipients of public assistance, and (f) underclass (consistently engaged in antisocial acts like crime and illicit drug use). They described their research as being directed toward sociodemographic analysis, where participation was explained as a function of race, sex, age, income, education, and place of residence.

Martin and Fisher (1989) added that the most popular method among adults for completing their high school education was to pass the General Educational Development (GED) test, which was developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) and administered jointly by the American Council on Education (ACE). Ownership of a GED certificate had the legal status of a high school diploma and could be used for job applications or community and state college entrance requirements. Their evidence revealed that many students chose the GED approach because it required a smaller investment of time. Even though class attendance was not required to take the test, 80% of GED testers used some form of preparation and 50% used classroom instruction.

The GED test was normed on a national sample of high school seniors and provided a certificate of equivalency to high school graduation for individuals who were able to pass a test in each of five subject areas. The first was writing skills, which assessed the knowledge of the

conventions of written English and the ability to write an essay. The second was social studies, which measured knowledge of history, economics, political science, geography, and behavioral science. The third was science, which measured knowledge of life and the physical sciences. The fourth was interpreting literature and the arts, which measured knowledge of popular literature, classical literature, and the ability to write commentary about literature and the arts. The fifth was mathematics, which assessed skills in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry.

The authors also noted that the types of learning materials used in adult secondary education programs were largely a function of the goals of the program. For example, in programs that prepared students to take the GED test, the primary criterion for the selection of materials was the ability to facilitate the passing of the test. The materials selected closely paralleled those used in the traditional high school, like workbooks, texts, other assigned readings, as well as audiovisual and video sources. They concluded that the most consistently successful programs were those that structured and systematized their instructional materials, methods, and assessment of student progress.

In the chapter "English as a Second Language" of the *Handbook*, Orem (1989) asserted the teaching of English as a second language (ESL) was an important theme throughout the history of adult education in North America. He noted its importance because a large segment of the population was composed of immigrants. Yet, it was not until the twentieth century that the teaching of ESL was recognized as a discipline, as evidenced by the growth of teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities throughout the United States. Orem reported that in the 1970s, money from the federal Adult Education Act was being appropriated for special projects, which encouraged researchers to investigate the teaching-learning process in ESL programs for adults. He added that ESL teaching in the United States moved toward workforce preparation and bilingual vocational programming. He further adds that by the 1980s

publishers saw the financial benefit of developing special readers, workbooks, and graded programs designed to teach job-related skills to non-native speaking adult learners. Orem noted that in the field of adult ESL, at least two professional organizations were of note: the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education and the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Both organizations had units whose specific purpose was to work for the interest of ESL teachers in adult education. He concluded that based on demographic data, adult educators working with limited-English-proficient learners will likely see: (a) the number of ESL students increase; (b) workplace English displace general "survival" English; (c) a shortage of qualified, trained ESL instructors and increased use of volunteers; (d) a greater focus on teacher training, especially in-service training, because of the high numbers of inexperienced teachers entering the field; and (e) technology, including computer-assisted instruction, occupy a more prominent role in classroom instruction.

In the chapter "Continuing Education for Women" of the *Handbook*, Rice and Meyer (1989) reviewed research on continuing education for women (CEW) with special emphasis on the personal and familial needs and barriers women faced. They described how continuing education for women (CEW) programs began in the early 1960s and became institutionalized at the college level with the formation of hundreds of programs, centers, and courses on campuses throughout the nation. The women who were well served by CEW programs in the 1960s and 1970s were generally White, married, and middle class. However, CEW eventually moved beyond the original mission of helping middle-class women obtain higher education for enrichment and professional training to empowering groups of disadvantaged women. Such programs included non-traditional vocational-technical programs, government programs associated with the receipt of public assistance and programs at community colleges serving specific minority populations. These colleges offered an extensive array of remediation courses

and emphasized the acquiring of basic skills and competency-based, career-oriented learning.

Other college-based programs offered women basic math and science courses before teaching them the skills needed for entry into male-dominated occupations. Rice and Meyer concluded that, although women were returning to school in unprecedented numbers, many of them still ended up in traditional, female-dominated disciplines that had lower status, lower pay, and less opportunity for advancement. They argued that women were the primary victims of the impact of high technology, as unskilled, manual, clerical, and domestic work was made obsolete by computerization and mechanization. They further added that special programs should be developed to help women break through the discriminatory barriers they face in obtaining apprenticeships, training, and union membership in skilled trades. To the authors, the job for adult educators included not only helping women train for and obtain better-paying jobs, but also educating boys and men to readily accept women in sex-segregated occupations. They added that even though women have made great progress in entering medicine, law, and business, the number of women in technical fields, engineering, and the sciences remained small. They stressed this was the result of minimal or no training in higher mathematics which automatically eliminated women from a large number of careers.

Briscoe and Ross (1989) contributed the chapter "Racial and Ethnic Minorities and Adult Education" in the *Handbook*, which illustrated that there was a gap in the knowledge and research base relative to minority participation in adult education in the United States. They argued the development of effective strategies to serve minority adults better required critical reflections on current practice. Their evidential base included population data that revealed participation patterns of underserved minority groups in both formal and non-formal settings of adult education. They examined variables which they believed affected participation by such

minority populations as African-Americans, Native Americans, and Latinos. They argued that the data regarding minority participation in formal institutions of adult education were scarce and that information should be gleaned from a variety of sources. They concluded that the variation in data collection methods, inconsistent criteria for inclusion of minority groups and the different definitions of the term adult all contributed to the difficulty of collecting and analyzing reliable data. Nonetheless, they were able to demonstrate a connectedness between early schooling and adult education, which they believe suggested the necessity for early intervention (at least based on studies) of high school dropouts, minority student achievement, and later adult participation in formal education because attitudes towards learning in formal institutions were formed early in students' development. They illustrated that African-American students were exposed to less challenging educational programs than their White counterparts, thus limiting their opportunity to expand or to modify course options in later grades. They added that institutions placed great emphasis on competency testing and that students who started out behind received the least exposure to classical books, the least exposure to critical writing, the least exposure to the exploration of ideas, and the least exposure to critical thinking skills. In other words, their exposure was to an inferior education.

Briscoe and Ross added that educational institutions wanting to have a successful Adult Education Program within minority communities had to be prepared to give full partnership to communities and community members while facing opposition from conservative educators, as well as disgruntled members of the larger community. As an example of a community organization involved in adult education, the authors noted the Boston Literary and Historical Association, an organization that collected and preserved African-American history in order to correct long-standing misconceptions about African-Americans and two women's organizations, the National Council of Negro Women and the Hispanic Women's Council, which have

provided community based adult education programming for and about minority women. The authors believed increased partnerships between adult education professionals and leaders in minority communities could create a broad array of options for lifelong learning, including the development of community-based programs that addressed minority learning needs and styles, with the financial support coming from governmental and private sources. Furthermore, there needed to be a centralized data base at state and national levels facilitating collection and analysis of data on the participation patterns of minorities served through adult education; and researchers needed to examine adult development, motivation patterns, and learning preferences and styles of minority adults in order to develop effective strategies to serve them better.

In the text, *Foundations of Lifelong Education*, Dave (1976) argued that the idea of lifelong education had gained international significance and a wider acceptance based on the assumption that it held promise of meeting the new educational challenges of the present and the future. Its appeal lay in the fact that it had the potential to respond to new challenges without ignoring the valuable educational policies and practices developed so far. This was because it acted as an organizing and unifying principle for different developments concerning all stages, forms and patterns of education. The staggering development occurring in quick succession in communications, agriculture, industry, and similar fields, followed by the equally staggering impact of these developments on social, economic, political, and cultural life, generated a persistent demand for continuing the process of renewal of knowledge, skills and values throughout life. Dave reported that as a positive response to these problems, the concept of lifelong education was suggested as a possible solution by many educational thinkers, researchers and international organizations. As a matter of fact, one of the very first recommendations of the International Commission on the Development of Education was to propose lifelong education as the master concept for educational policies in the years to come

for both developed and developing countries. Dave's exploratory study on lifelong education, which included an extensive survey of existing literature on the subject, revealed that although a good deal of literature on the concept had been produced and the idea for educational regeneration repeatedly mentioned, little systematic work had been reported on the psychological, sociological, anthropological or other aspects of the concept. Despite the fact an extensive amount of theoretical literature on education existed, it could not be used adequately without reorganization and major reformulation because it was not based on the assumption that education was a lifelong process. Much of the existing material on the foundations of education was based on a rather narrow conception of education confined to primary and secondary schooling. Even when it went beyond those stages and included pre-school, tertiary, and adult levels, it limited itself to highly formal and institutionalized learning. He argued for the need to comprehend a new scope and wider role of education, a situation which necessitated the initiation of a process of constructing the foundations of lifelong education and developing a suitable methodology for this purpose.

Dave (1976) added that the foundations of education were often focused on the formal school stage and were traditionally derived from psychology and philosophy, while several other disciplines such as anthropology, ecology, and physiology were not taken into account adequately or directly; and for a comprehensive concept like lifelong education, that included all stages of enlightenment throughout the life-span, a broad theoretical base constructed with the help of available knowledge in a number of relevant disciplines, besides the traditional ones, was desirable. Dave argued that his study was, therefore, aimed at making a small beginning towards the fulfillment of this need, by means of identifying a number of aspects and concepts of several disciplines that characterized the multiple configurations, while interconnecting them with various elements of lifelong education so as to start a process of constructing broad-based

foundations. In order to ensure that the foundations were broad-based and comprehensive in scope, he considered it necessary to include a larger number of disciplines than usual. Accordingly, these seven disciplines were included: (a) Anthropology, (b) Ecology, (c) Economics, (d) History, (e) Philosophy, (f) Psychology, and (g) Sociology. From a methodological standpoint he considered the importance of three elements for the study. The first pertained to the nature of the content of the foundations of lifelong education. For example, what sort of content should form the foundations of life-long education? How would this content be different from the material on the foundations of education? The second was the formulation of a general procedure for developing the content. This involved familiarizing oneself with the concept of lifelong education, a process of accomplishing personal, social, and professional development throughout one's life-span. The third methodological issue included the concept of an intra- and interdisciplinary content analysis and synthesis for the proper identification of guiding principles and perspectives. Dave concluded with the notion that lifelong education viewed education in its totality, and that the three major prerequisites important for realizing the goals of lifelong education were: learning opportunity, motivation, and educability.

Contrastingly, in *Adult Learning Needs and the Demand for Lifelong Learning,* Stalford (1978) argued that recurrent education and adult education were interchangeable, and a system of recurrent education needed to include positive discrimination in favor of the educationally weakest groups. Stalford asserted that to reach the underprivileged, researchers must improve their understanding of the reasons adults participated in education and the factors which influenced their motivation. He reported that research into recruitment in motivation was distinguished by its lack of theoretical application and by the absence of an overall view of recruitment questions. The aim of his research was to illustrate the factors which explained

under participation by underprivileged groups in recurrent education. First, Stalford discussed the motives, recruitment, and impediments of the students. He discovered that students from the lower social class mostly stated that they participated in adult education in order to be able to change jobs and did not perceive education in terms of personal growth or self-realization. The findings also suggested that the most powerful psychological impediment was that students believed participation in adult education would not improve their general living situation or give them any advantages on the labor market. They also believed that study assistance, childcare, and compensation for the extra expenditures, like bus fare, had a certain positive effect on recruitment among women but was otherwise immaterial. Therefore, participation in adult education programming depended on whether students saw any value in education (e.g., whether they expected through education to meet the demands made by themselves, thereby influencing their own situation). Dave (1976) argued that it was unfortunate that the courses offered by educational organizations were determined by the demands of privileged groups, thus minority groups and the less educated had fewer opportunities than others to affect the supply of course offerings.

Stalford (1978) concluded that interest in adult education was primarily linked to work and leisure roles and that there was a particularly heavy demand for short courses, while under-educated persons had a great interest in education which related to their present occupations. Therefore, the work role was a significant way to reach underprivileged groups, either to get a job or change or improve themselves within their present job. Stalford added, if one were to be successful in recruiting the disadvantaged, one ought to investigate the preparedness of the persons for participation, the environment in which they lived, the forces in that environment which stimulated or inhibited participation, and the dominant needs. In other words, an effort must be made to view participation in terms of the total living situation of the individual. The

task will be to plot the roles of individuals (e.g., in the family, during leisure hours, as members of society, and employees), and to study educational needs and educational expectancy in terms of those roles.

In the classic text *Adult Learning Research and Practice,* Long (1983) asked the critical question, "Who will do adult education research--research that was of interest to both professional and volunteer adult education workers?" Long speculated that the basic work was conducted by professionals from fields other than adult education. He believed adult education personnel were focused mainly on the applied aspects of research. Long asserted that quality adult education research would have seven characteristics:

1. It would help to explain some phenomenon encountered in the field or discipline
2. It would help in the solution of practical problems encountered in the field
3. It could be translated into operational principles that contribute to greater efficiency and effectiveness in adult educational programming
4. It contributed to the development of essential attitudes, values, or skills important to the field
5. It could be reformulated so that it was applicable to adult education
6. It was derived solely for adult populations
7. It related to systematic education for adults. (p. 24)

Long added that the criticisms of the philosophical dimensions of the field of adult education fell into two general groups. The first group included negative observations that condemned the field because of no single unifying philosophical position which clearly established the central position on critical issues in adult education. The second concerned the lack of attention given by individual educators to the development of explicit personal philosophies. According to Long, the first group of criticisms may have been philosophical in origin because individuals who supported the drive for one philosophical position concerning

the purpose of adult education were likely to promote the position of the organization that they served. He described the second group of criticisms as more pragmatic, because it recognized the possibility that the adult education field was diverse and that the likelihood of developing a central unifying philosophy was virtually impossible.

Long proposed several reasons to explain why educators of adults had failed to systematically develop philosophical positions. These explanations included:

1. Limited appreciation for philosophy as a means for guiding behavior;
2. Limited appreciation for philosophy as a means for understanding;
3. The perception that action and philosophy were mutually exclusive and that one was doing and the other was thinking. (p. 293)

He concluded that there were two prominent approaches to seeking understanding through philosophy identified in the literature of adult education: linguistic (or conceptual) analysis and phenomenology. Long reported that linguistic analysis was based on the fundamental assumption that the proper role of philosophy was to analyze language use in order to analyze concepts. He described phenomenology as criticism based on a rigorous process of setting aside ontological judgments on the nature and essence of phenomena, whereby in the analysis, the object of one's experience and the experiencing of it was explored. This process required clarification through careful description of the aims and objectives of education, curriculum or subject matter, general methodological principle, analysis of the teaching-learning process, and the relationship between education and the society in which education takes place. Long added that there was a range of philosophical perspectives concerning major elements in the education of adults. He argued that positions on those topics were as remote as the mission of the different agencies, institutions, and organizations populating the field. Yet, they were critical and focused on some of the major issues confronting adult educators. While disagreement on

the solutions was abundantly obvious, so, too, was agreement on problem questions, which included:

1. How was adult education to be defined?
2. What was the purpose, mission, or aim of adult education?
3. Was the focus to be on the individual or on society?
4. What was the nature of the learner?
5. What was to be the relationship between the learner and the teacher?
6. What was the subject matter or content?

To properly answer those questions, educators must be aware of the historical development of professionalization within the field of adult education as illustrated in Podeschi's (1991) *Evolving Directions in Professionalization and Philosophy: An Adult Education and Worldview Construction.* Podeschi presented an historical-societal perspective which pointed to an emerging culture of bureaucratic individualism that influenced professionalization in adult education. He included a case study of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE) that portrayed a narrowing of epistemological pluralism. Podeschi reported that in adult education, scientific professionalization began as early as the 1920s with university researchers constructing (and controlling) the knowledge base from which to train practitioners. He pointed to governmental mandates and funding, to university efforts to build theory, to define the field, as well as the drive toward certification as evidence to support this analysis. He continued by noting that the 1950s started with McCarthyism but ended with the rise of rock and roll, two opposing value systems: one implied discipline, delayed gratification, good character, and the acceptance of hard work; while the other implied license, immediate gratification, and the right to a hedonistic pursuit of self-expression. The first was useful for efficient economic production, and the second justified expansive personal

consumption. Podeschi argued to keep up with their peers and, in response to societal forces, the Commission of Professors of Adult Education gave itself an epistemological makeover. CPAE's core issues were: What should be the content of the field of adult education? Should adult education be a discipline of its own, or was it a field that drew from several academic disciplines such as history and psychology? What was the best preparation for a career in adult education? What was more important in understanding adult education--psychological factors or sociological conditions, the individual or the community?

Podeschi (1991) illustrated a way to answer those questions. CPAE leadership created a task force to focus on their role in serving governmental programs, which resulted in a growing dimension of consulting activities, which created a new professional dilemma: entrepreneurial consulting versus public service. Other identifiable events permeating the activities of CPAE were increasing connections to other professional organizations, such as the American Educational Research Association. CPAE meetings not only reflected institutional efforts to develop adult education as a profession, but also reflected a drive for expertise, with sessions such as: "Wanted Alive: A Body of Literature Unique to Adult Education," "Competencies of Adult Educators," "What Are Our Behavioral Objectives?" and "What Evaluation Procedures Do We Employ?" According to Podeschi, CPAE records reflected two significant forces in American education during its formative years: federal funding and the quantitative research paradigm, both sparked by Sputnik and the resulting schooling crisis. He added that the story of CPAE can be read as an organization increasingly eager to have a professional discipline of its own while joining alliances of mutual self-interest. However, philosophical questions remained neglected, and philosophical diversity was silenced under a drive toward theoretical consensus. One result was that the quantitative paradigm dominated educational theory and scholarly research in professionalized adult education. This drive toward professionalization promoted a

syndrome of bureaucratic individualism that dichotomized technical means from philosophical aims.

Podeschi concluded that there were four strands of individualism in the United States. The first strand, biblical individualists, were rooted in Puritan traditions and viewed moral freedom as the true freedom. The second strand included republican individualists who stemmed from Jeffersonian thought, which valued citizen activism against coercion, whether economic or governmental. The third strand included traditional individualism in which the independent self was socially situated as part of a larger whole, with emphasis on community and social commitment. In contrast, the fourth strand was modern individualism, which was dominated by utilitarian and expressive orientations, who viewed the self as the primary reality, not only as the center of volition but also as the aim of life. Utilitarian individualists were historically steeped in a belief in self-reliance and saw freedom as the opportunity to get ahead through individual initiative. Expressive individualism flowed from nineteenth-century romanticism. For expressive individualists, freedom meant the expression of the authentic self in order to cultivate and fulfill the whole self. Podeschi believed such complexity had furthered the ongoing tension between needing different voices in adult education, on the one hand, and having enough commonality for effectiveness on the other. He added, if philosophical pluralism were to be a priority for educational communities, then this kind of practice was much better than a homogenizing professionalization that kept individual and institutional mindsets in adult education focused on methodological and technical questions to the neglect of questions about purpose and premises. In summary, progressive adult education philosophy is the manifestation of sophisticated theories applied to practical situations to serve some sort of societal interest. These interests reveal themselves based on the types of behaviors they promote within a given Adult Education Program.

Behaviorist Adult Education Philosophy

Watson (1925) has been generally recognized as the founder of behaviorism, which was defined as the overt, observable behavior of an organism, studied in a laboratory setting while employing scientific principles and methodology. Although the intellect, feelings, or emotions of a student's inner life were not observable or measurable and therefore not investigated in and of themselves, a behaviorist would argue that all human behavior was the result of a person's prior conditioning and was determined by external forces in the environment over which a student has little or no control. The primary educational issue for a behaviorist would be the relationship between education and the shaping of cultural values. They would support the notion that the answer lay in the educational patterns of a given society because they reflected the underlying values within that society. On the individual level, behavioral education emphasized workforce preparation so that a person could "survive." Learning how to learn was also considered an important skill because it allowed the individual to adapt to the ever-changing work environment. To the behaviorist the measurement of success was twofold: first, the student manifested that he/she had learned something by a change in behavior and, second, his/her response occurred again under similar circumstances.

This theory was manifested by Bledstein (1976) in his book, *The Culture of Professionalism: The Middle Class and the Development of Higher Education in America*. He defined professionalism as a set of learned values and habitual responses that shaped individuals emotional needs and measured their powers of intelligence. He also asserted that the American university came into existence to serve and promote professional authority in society. Bledstein further emphasized that more than in any other Western country in the twentieth century, the development of higher education in the United States made possible the social faith in merit, competence, discipline, and control that were basic to the accepted conception of achievement

and success. After all, in a country where there was no recognized title class, the chief distinction that would raise one set of persons above another was the character of their occupation and the degree of culture that it implied to the middle class. For example, colleges, in particular degree-granting education, were utilized as an instrument of ambition and a vehicle to status in the occupational world. Bledstein was able to illustrate that Americans, after 1870 but beginning as early as 1840, committed themselves to a culture of professionalism which over the years had established the thoughts, habits, and responses most modern Americans have taken for granted, a culture which had admirably served individuals who aspired to think very well of themselves. To support his notions, Bledstein produced evidence that the middle class created its social utility through the establishment of professional associations. He documented how professional associations were the principal source of propaganda upon which the middle class established its claim for professionalized status. Advocacy groups, in the form of professional associations, developed and insisted that before one was admitted into their "profession" one should be technically competent, theoretically trained, and the recipient of a degree or license from a recognized institution. Moreover, internships, professional oath ordination, association meetings, scholarly papers, awards, and prizes all served ceremonial functions that both indoctrinated the select participants and transmitted general information to the public that magnified the concept that professionals earned legitimacy and influence in American society.

This idea was supported by Karier (1975), in his important text *Shaping the American Educational State*, when he suggested viewing schools from the standpoint of "professional" educators. Karier illustrated that progressive liberals fostered the idea that the political state could be used as a positive vehicle to reconcile the competing interests of capital, labor, and public welfare. His central questions were: (a) What was the role, function and responsibility of

the professional in the educational state? (b) How and why was the system rationalized in the minds of educational reformers? (c) Who shaped the policies which guided the educational state in the 20th century? and (d) What was the relationship of those who determined policy to the liberal reformers and professional educators who managed the system to implement policy? Karier concluded that professionals were tools of power, and the university was a political and economic institution that served very definite political and economic purposes and interests. He goes on to state that the hierarchical social class system was effectively maintained, not so much by sheer force of power and violence as by the ideological beliefs of professionals within the system. According to Karier's evidence, the testing and evaluation program was the crucial vehicle through which the organization of the educational state could be organized, shaped, and directed. He added that the differentiated curriculum actually acted as a tool to channel, control, and limit the choice of students.

This idea was supported by Violas (1978) in *The Training of the Urban Working Class.* He examined the statements of educational leaders regarding the overall process of schooling and studied descriptions of school programs such as survey and course outlines. His evidence revealed that the three allies of public education were drawn from: (a) social reformers from the settlement houses and playground movement, (b) officials from the various branches of the state and federal government, and (c) businessmen and industrialists. For example, Violas illustrated that compulsory education laws were enacted almost simultaneously with child labor laws. After all, the children had to have something to do if they were not going to work. His argument was if the child could be socialized with middle-class values, then as an adult he/she would be more prone to the appropriate mannerisms. Violas also illustrated that environmental circumstances which did not conform to middle-class standards were often deemed by agents of the institution as the cause of school failure (e.g., poverty, indifferent parents, vicious neighborhood

conditions, or student values). Violas noted that these assumptions were often accepted without reliable evidence. He concluded that schools were for the primary good of the state and useful for habitual training and not necessarily for intellectual development. He added that schools helped citizens form habits conducive to an industrial society, as well as helped students learn "proper" control of their emotions. As a result, educators legitimized the system of schooling through role activism by helping to promote a common language which was essential in creating a common reality.

This idea was investigated by Tight (1996) in the classic text *Key Concepts in Adult Education and Training.* He examined six basic terms, three of them--adult, education, and training--formed the title of his book; the other three--learning, teaching, and development--were closely related. He argued that together those six terms were core concepts which defined, in competing ways, the breadth and nature of the whole field of study of adult education. He asked what was meant when someone was called an adult; and what distinguished adult education, adult training, and adult learning from education, training, and learning in a more general sense? He answered these questions by asserting that adulthood was considered a state of being that accorded status and rights to individuals while simultaneously conferring duties and responsibilities upon them. He added that adulthood was an ethical status which rested on the presumption of various moral and personal qualities, whereby one recognized that adults were a heterogeneous group of people that would form the customer base for adult education and training.

A rather simpler definition of education was given by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (as cited in Williams, 1977) who defined it as organized and sustained instruction, designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills, and understanding valuable for all activities of life. The key phrase used to distinguish

education from learning was "organized and sustained instruction." According to Tight (1983, 1996), this implied the involvement of an educator and an institution, though the education might be mediated through the printed text or through a computer program. To Tight, it also suggested that education was not a speedy process but took a lengthy period of time. Learning, by contrast, was not seen as necessarily involving instruction and often occurred over a shorter timeframe and in smaller segments. Tight noted that different approaches to understanding what was meant by education had been pursued by sociologists by focusing on its function and place within society. Within this discipline, he identified a range of analytical approaches, including the functionalist, Marxist, and interpretive. He argued that while knowledge and understanding have been recognized as the avowed purposes of education, they should be viewed as socially constructed rather than absolute. Therefore, the educational system should be seen as an apparatus of the state, with its function being the production of people (workers) with desired skills and qualities. From this perspective, state education was in the business of reproducing existing social and economic divisions.

The idea of training was usually associated with preparing someone to perform a task or role, typically in a work setting. Tight distinguished education from training on two grounds: first, that education was a broader and deeper learning activity; and second, that training was more likely to be involved with the development of narrower skills. He concluded that learning was a fundamental human process but that there was no common understanding of how one learns. Tight (1983, 1996) reported there was a full range of behavioral, cognitive, and humanistic learning theories, with the fundamental difference being between those who regarded learning as an outcome and those who saw it as a process. He argued that, as a result, most textbooks for adult educators and trainers gave minimum attention to learning theory while

often resorting to a "cookbook" type approach when it came to giving practical advice (Tight, 1996).

This idea was investigated by Smith (1982) in *Learning How To Learn: Applied Theory for Adults*. The author asked, "What is Adult Education?" and argued that the term was used in at least three ways. First, to describe a process through which people continued to learn after formal schooling ceased; second, to refer to the organized activities that agencies and institutions provided for adults; and third, to convey the idea of a field of social practice. He added that the overall concept or umbrella term, "adult education," was not always used. Some people preferred "continuing education" or "life-long learning." However, neither term has carried the negative connotation that adult education had for some people because of its long association with literacy and remediation. Nonetheless, students in literacy programs were, in their essential characteristics, like everyone else--healthy, well-adjusted, and even the wealthy. Smith illustrated that these adults were less likely to respond to programming related to developmental tasks, and that their motivation was often provided by strong family feelings (e.g., learning in order to help their children learn). He also reported that despite the fact they had demonstrated learning skills in order to survive, these adults were subject to anxiety and doubts about their learning ability when they entered formal educational situations. Furthermore, they were usually subjected to heavy outside pressures arising from employment, parenthood, community work, housework, or the reaction of spouses to their decision to return to school. Smith's research also led him to identify another group of adult education participants, professionals. These individuals had relatively high incomes, access to resources, and a variety of lifestyles. They were the group most likely to continue their education. They were better established in their communities, more mobile, and more confident of their abilities. But since they were often disenchanted with formal education, their decision to participate in

adult education was usually made on a basis of personal attitudes toward "professional" development and the expectation of superiors, despite the absence of research which demonstrated positive payoff from such activity. Smith concluded that while few professionals doubted their own learning ability, their participation and learning were affected by the need to avoid revealing professional incompetence in public.

Similar ideas were discussed by Cross (1981) in *Adults As Learners: Increasing Participation and Facilitating Learning,* a text motivated by her growing conviction that adults must be prepared to make learning a continuing, lifelong activity. She argued that lifelong learning was not a privilege or a right and that educators had an obligation to aid lifelong learning by using the best knowledge available. Based on this assumption, Cross conducted a comprehensive survey of the literature concerning adult education, looking especially for the implications of research and theory for improving practice. Cross believed her task posed two major problems: first, how to focus on the diffused concept of lifelong learning; and second, how to cope with the sheer volume of literature in adult education. She settled on two definitions of lifelong learning that she thought provided better guidelines than any others for considering the future of education and learning. One definition was devised in the early 1970s by the Commission on Non-Traditional Study; it put the student first and the institution second, concentrated more on the student's need than the institution's convenience, encouraged diversity rather than uniform prescription, and de-emphasized time, space, and even course requirements in favor of competence and performance. It was concerned for the learner of any age and circumstance, for the degree aspirant as well as the person who found sufficient reward in enriching life through constant, periodic, or occasional study. The second definition, at least in Cross's view, helped to place the learner in the context of the learning society. For her, the term lifelong education and learning denoted an overall scheme aimed at restructuring the

existing education system and developing the entire educational potential outside the education system whereby men and women were the agents of their own education. That definition contained three basic ideas about the nature of lifelong learning. One was that the entire formal educational system, from elementary school through graduate school, should be restructured to develop lifelong learners. Second, not only were schools and colleges to serve as the targets for improved education but all organizations and learning resources were to be marshaled on behalf of lifelong learning. Third was the importance of helping people become self-directed learners, and active agents of their own education.

Cross (1981) tried to build a holistic understanding of adults as learners by reporting research findings from different methodological perspectives. The purpose was to examine existing learning theories and to suggest a conceptual framework for analyzing the interactions between learners and their environments. She argued that the research methods for seeking answers to the motivation of adult learners fell into four basic designs: (a) in-depth interviews, (b) statistical analysis of motivational scales, (c) survey questionnaires, and (d) hypothesis testing. She added that the conclusions which emerged from those four methodologies differed in details yet offered enough consistency to enable the identification of several groups that participated in adult learning. The first design group was the goal-oriented learners who used learning for specific objectives like public speaking, learning to deal with family problems, and learning better business practices. Activity-oriented learners composed the second design group. They participated in the educative process primarily for the sake of the activity itself rather than to develop a skill or learn subject matter. The third was the learning oriented group who pursued learning for its own sake. Cross illustrated that among the top-rated reasons students gave for continued learning were: pleasure from receiving the content, feelings of being a successful learner, and satisfaction from the activity of learning. She noted that most of the

literature of adult education tended to be learner-centered rather than instructor-centered, so if adult educators wanting to know how to help adult learners learn, they needed to understand how teachers should behave in order to facilitate learning. This idea is espoused in the next section by several of the authors whose books or articles were reviewed.

Other Education Philosophies That Influenced Adult Education

While the three philosophies already discussed were the primary concepts used in adult education, a cursory look at the other philosophical contributors to adult education is warranted. These philosophies include: liberal, humanistic, and radical adult education. The central emphasis for liberal education was to be given to the classics in literature and social and intellectual history. Its conceptual orientation was toward theoretical understanding rather than mere transmission and absorption of factual knowledge or merely development of technical skills. The best way for this to be achieved, according to Plato (1970a, 1970b) was through dialectic, while the intuitive approach was espoused by Augustine. The students could achieve this understanding through the contemplation of nature and beauty, critical reading, and the discussion of classical writings. Liberal adult education never becomes obsolete because the student received an education of the mind, a knowledge of theory. Such theoretical knowledge can be applied to many different situations. Thus, the student is able to bridge gaps between what he or she knows while flexibly dealing with novel situations, as well as being capable of moving into the unknown. The emphasis of the humanistic educator was on the freedom and dignity of the individual person. They were concerned with the development of the whole person with a special emphasis upon emotional and affective dimensions of the personality. Therefore, humanists proposed a system of education which enhanced social, emotional, spiritual, and intellectual development where the instructor would be humane and sensitive,

allowing students to become self-sufficient, to develop all their potentialities, and to learn naturally.

The goal of humanistic educators was the development of students who were open to change and continued learning while they strived for self-actualization as fully functioning individuals. Thus, the focus was on the individual learner rather than on the body of knowledge. This notion paralleled radical adult education which was supported by Freire (1982) in his classical text, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, in which he advocated the utilization of education to bring about social, political, and economic change in society. Essentially, the radical education philosopher raised questions about the role of authority in society, including the very existence of state systems of schooling. The radicals opposed national systems of education because of the conviction that education in the hands of the state would serve the political interests of those in control. They also added that radical reforming education was bound to fail because moderate change was the only one acceptable to the status quo. Radical educators offered criticism and vision in at least two spheres: first, they questioned the notion of basic values; second, they questioned all of society's structural arrangements including family, schooling, and work. Radical adult education was useful as an extreme alternative to other education philosophies.

To fully understand these notions, the best place to begin is with Cunningham's (1989) article, "A Sociology of Adult Education," in the *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education* (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989). She illustrated that at the beginning of the twentieth century, education became more and more relegated to schooling. At the same time, schooling was linked to commodified work, legitimized by the concepts of human capital formation, which had forced the content and the processes of schooling to emulate a factory and a bottom-line mentality. In addition, a parallel educational enterprise, almost as large as the schooling

institutions, had developed within the market sector stressing economic productivity. She asserted that within such conditions sociology provided a unique perspective for educators because it centered the analysis of education around society and its social organization rather than on the individual.

Cunningham (1989) added that one problem in adult education was that too little thought or action responded to the social conditions in which educators and students lived, worked, and learned. She argued consensus integration and psychology were the standpoints for most adult educators and, accordingly, power and power relationships remained invisible. She noted that this dominant standpoint recognized the knowledge of science and rationally as real knowledge and tended to ignore other competing knowledge. She believed such assumptions denied the human agency potential of the non-elites to produce knowledge that countered elitist formulations; therefore, the question for adult educators was whether to locate their practice in civil society or the economic sector. She argued that, at least for some, building a strong civil society was adult education's historic function.

Others who believed that the proper role of adult education was in the market or economic sector of society, focused their activity on providing life-long vocational education for the twin goals of building human capital and a competitive national economy. Cunningham (1989) believed the new vocational education went beyond the "Taylorized" production worker of yesteryear because the manufacturing workforce of today was being educated to be "flexible" with the capacity for adaptation as the workplace continually changed. Still, for others, this was seen as defiling the heritage of adult education because the curriculum was controlled by the corporation; its ultimate goal was to promote the economic interests of the enterprise. As a consequence of those observations, Cunningham envisioned a framework that would be used to analyze social movements that included a transformative vision, a critical pedagogy, and a

pedagogy of mobilization. She concluded that adult education was deeply embedded in the ways society was socially structured and was often associated with maintaining systems of privilege. She also suggested that the history of emancipatory adult education could be a source of critical insight and practice in changing adult education's role in these relationships.

Perhaps the most reliable way to accomplish this goal was discussed in *Methods in Adult Education* by Kahler (1985). He illustrated that the same general principles applied to adult education that governed education at other levels. He asserted the difference was largely a matter of application and relative emphasis. For example, in adult education, the interests and needs of mature people were taken into account rather than the interests and needs of children or youth. Essentially, adult education took advantage of the older person's superior ability to solve problems which required reason and judgment. It also tied in with the experiences of adults, with their behavior patterns, their basic loyalties, their aptitudes, and with their environment. Kahler tried to use his evidence to describe how people learn and the conditions which promote learning. He argued that the desire to learn was essential to effective learning, especially with adults who were under no compulsion to attend classes or to complete assignments. Therefore, the teacher's job was to arouse in the student a strong desire to learn the material taught and to keep this desire alive and strong throughout the course. Students should have a clear understanding of the educative objective including what to read, what exercises to do, and how to carry projects to a successful completion. Consequently, if students understood the task, then learning should be more rapid and effective. The author believed learning was influenced by whether it brought satisfaction or annoyance and, in general, a thing learned was strengthened if the result was satisfying. Kahler noted that students learned best if their environment were pleasant, if the work were interesting, and if they felt that they were making progress toward reaching their goal. He added that the secret to success in adult

education was to have definite behavior or performance objectives and for the entire institution to drive toward them consistently. Additionally, he believed that the general principles, laws, techniques, and important truths which were frequently used should be taught by the teacher so that they can be recalled by the student when needed. On the other hand, complicated formulae, long lists of names, large tables, and other little-used data that were usually found in handbooks, encyclopedias, dictionaries, and directories need not be taught to be retained permanently. But the student should be taught where to find and how to use this type of information.

This type of logic was professed in the article "Andragogy: An Emerging Technology for Adult Learning" by Knowles (1996), who said farewell to pedagogy. He asserted most of what was known about learning had been derived from studies of learning in children and that most of what was known about teaching had been derived from experience with teaching children under conditions of compulsory attendance. Knowles argued that since adults were usually voluntary learners, and could simply disappear from learning experiences that did not satisfy them, there was a need for a new approach; therefore, he developed andragogy which was premised on four assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners. These were different from the assumptions about child learners. These assumptions were that as a person matures, his or her self-concept moved from being a dependent personality toward being a self-directed human; he or she accumulated a growing reservoir of experience that became an increased resource for learning; his or her readiness to learn became increasingly oriented to the tasks of social roles; his or her time perspective changed from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application and, accordingly, his or her orientation toward learning shifted from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem-centeredness.

Knowles used the example that the first image children have of themselves as a separate entity was that of a dependent personality whose life was managed for them by the world. This

self-concept of dependency was encouraged and reinforced by the adult world. But something dramatic happened to their self-concept when they defined themselves as an adult. They began to see their normal role in society no longer as being a full-time learner but increasingly as a producer or a doer. Their chief sources of self-fulfillment were now performance as a worker, a spouse, a parent, or a citizen. They saw themselves as being able to make their own decisions and face the consequences. In other words, he or she perceived themselves to be wholly self-directed and needed to be perceived by others as such. However, when these same individuals were exposed to a learning environment in which they were treated with respect, were involved in mutual inquiry with the teacher, and were given responsibility for their own learning, the initial reaction was typically shock and disorganization. They were typically not prepared for self-directed learning and needed to go through a process of re-orientation to learning as adults, or to learn new ways of learning.

Knowles noted that the learning climate which included the physical environment had to be one in which adults felt at ease. He asserted behavior of the teacher influenced the character of the learning climate more than any single factor because the instructor made students feel accepted, respected and supported. Therefore, in andragogy, a basic element was the involvement of adults in the process of planning their own learning, with the teacher serving as a procedural guide and content resource. The teacher was more a catalyst than an instructor, and devoted energy to helping the students get evidence for themselves concerning the progress they were making toward their educational objective. According to Knowles, the art of teaching was essentially the management of two key variables in the learning process--environment and interaction. Therefore, the critical function of the teacher was to create a rich environment from which students could extract learning and then guide their interaction with it in order to maximize their learning from it. Second, the teacher was to expose students to new possibilities

for self-fulfillment and help each student clarify his or her own aspirations for improved behavior. First, the teacher was to provide physical conditions that were comfortable (e.g., seating, temperature, lighting, and decoration). The teacher was to seek to build relationships of mutual trust and helpfulness among the students by encouraging cooperative activities and refraining from promoting competitiveness and judgementalness. Third, the teacher was to formulate learning objectives in which the needs of the students, of the institution, of the teacher, and of the society were taken into account. Fourth, the teacher was to help the students organize themselves (project groups, learning-teaching teams, independent study, etc.).

This can only be accomplished with the type of support services discussed in the article "Nontraditional Approaches to Counseling Adult Learners" by Wertheim (1981), whereby she illustrated the increased interest in counseling adult learners, despite the fact that the status of adult counseling remained unclear. She added that although educational opportunities for adult learners had increased dramatically, counseling opportunities had not similarly increased. She called for nontraditional counseling methods for adults which could be viewed from at least two perspectives: the first did not involve face-to-face communication; and the second, though face-to-face, occurred in nontraditional settings.

Wertheim asserted that correspondence, perhaps one of the most traditional methods of communication, could also be a non-traditional method of counseling, because when correspondence was formalized and involved several exchanges, it became innovative. She argued that what made written communication innovative was the presentation of a guidance package for the adult learner. When participants in this program returned one packet of materials to the counseling office, another packet was immediately sent out. Since most of the interaction was written down, students had a record of their guidance and counseling sessions, and this record could be used as a reference later. Wertheim believed the telephone could also

be used as a nontraditional method of counseling adult learners. She asserted the simplest form of telephone counseling was the routine, single telephone call in which the student whose question demanded an immediate answer called the counselor for specific information, referral, or advice. She added that these calls should be facilitated by the use of a toll-free telephone number, and the counselor should be identified by name so that the student would have a resource at the institution. She concluded that the interest in nontraditional approaches to counseling came from an effort to formulate programs which appealed to adult learners and was an outreach effort locating counseling and advising centers in non-university settings (such as storefronts, libraries, and shopping centers), and that these approaches were developed to appeal to those who may enroll or were already enrolled in an organized learning program.

In the article "The Second Chance, The Vital Myth of Equal Opportunities in Adult Education," Rinne and Kivinen (1996) asserted that adult education was often described as a "second-chance" system which offered a second beginning for those being held back in social status because of inadequate education and training. They argued that, in accordance with the ideals of democracy, adult education provided students with a means of enhancing their social status and represented for many people an extension of their formal education. They insisted that adult education could be viewed as a form of "cultural consumption," offering considerable potential status value and contributing to the formation of cultural capital. The authors illustrated that a significant number of participants in adult education were drawn from educational professions, whereas marginal groups, in terms of participation in adult education, came from the working-class. In fact, their evidence revealed that there was a close link between income and levels of adult education activity; for example, the higher the income, the higher the participation rate; and the higher the income bracket, the more funding employers put up for training. Similarly, higher participation rates in adult education were found among those

who completed high school and those going on to complete university degrees while lower rates were found among those who had only taken vocational classes. Persons who had achieved senior positions through degree-level or advanced vocational education were in later life more likely to be found in the classroom again; whereas, the most marked lack of interest in ongoing education was found among those holding basic post-compulsory vocational training. The authors concluded that the second chance applied to a minority of the students taking part in adult education, and that the heaviest consumers of adult education services were from highly privileged groups. They rationalized that if adult education were genuinely a second chance route, then at least some high participants would have been people with relatively modest educational backgrounds. Therefore, for those whose formal educational career ended in elementary school, or in basic post-compulsory vocational training, adult life was unlikely to foster the perceived need to participate in adult education other than by compulsion or in the face of the threat of unemployment. In summary, "other" adult education philosophies were developed to utilize nontraditional methods of educating adults. The concepts were designed to meet the immediate concerns of conscientious educators wanting to advance the knowledge and wisdom of their students without falling prey to institutional mechanisms which limited the potential of adult learners. For maximum comprehension of the literature review, it is necessary to report on the national issues and trends in adult education during the time period of this study.

CHAPTER 3

NATIONAL ISSUES AND TRENDS IN ADULT EDUCATION DURING THE LATE 1970s AND 1980s

The ensuing chapter focuses on the national issues and trends in adult education during the late 1970s and 1980s. The first section is concerned with the significant issues of adult education in the 1970s. Seemingly, the federal government attempted to illustrate the societal importance of adult education in the United States by leading the charge to systemize data collection and promote the notion of lifelong learning through dissemination of information and granting of funds. The second section concentrates on the 1980s, which may be described as the fiscal, theoretical, and methodological maturation of adult education in America. This idea was evidenced by the financial support of the federal, state, and local partnerships developed during this decade. Further, reauthorization of the Adult Education Act (Pub. L. No. 89-750, Title III, 1966) with its many amendments provided the financial incentive for state adult education administrators to begin the process of implementing programs based on both qualitative and quantifiable data and to share these best practices nationwide. The evidentiary base for this particular chapter was heavily reliant on data collected and disseminated by the Department of Education and the National Advisory Council on Adult Education (NACAE). This information is presented in an historical narrative which describes the crucial demographic data, issues, and trends that impacted the direction of the Adult Education Movement during the years discussed in this study.

Adult Education Issues and Trends in the Late 1970s

This study spans the years 1976-1996. It begins with the year 1976, in the midst of the American Revolution Bicentennial. It was also the 10-year anniversary of Pub. L. No. 89-750,

Title III, which established the Adult Education Act (1966) and officially involved the federal government in the regulation of the educative process of adult learners. The purpose of the Act was:

> to expand educational opportunities for adults and to encourage the establishment of programs of adult education that will: (1) enable all adults to acquire basic skills necessary to function in society; (2) enable adults who so desire to continue their education to at least the level of completion of secondary school; and (3) make available to adults the means to secure training that will enable them to become more employable, productive and responsible citizens.(20 USCA Sec. 1201, Pub. L. No. 89-750, Sec. 1208a & 1208b, November 3, 1966)

The Adult Education Act (1966) was amended on several occasions, but perhaps the most significant amendment occurred April 13, 1970, and is known as Pub. L. No. 91-230, Title III. Essentially, this legislative act empowered the President to:

> appoint a National Advisory Council on Adult Education . . . [that] shall review the administration and effectiveness of programs under this title, make recommendations thereto, and make annual reports to the President of its findings and recommendations (including recommendations for changes in this title and other Federal laws relating to adult education activities and services). The President shall transmit each such report to Congress . . . (20 USCA Sec. 1201, Pub. L. No. 91-230, Title III, Sec. 311, April 13, 1970, 84 Stat. 159)

One of the most significant recommendations made by the National Advisory Council on Adult Education (NACAE) was that a single federal agency be established with Cabinet status, having the responsibility for coordinating all educational programs for children and adults. NACAE suggested the name of this entity be the United States Department of Education. Further, the Council recommended that a Bureau of Adult Education be established within the Department of Education with the responsibility for coordinating and administering all educational programs (NACAE Annual Report, 1976, p. 15). This particular recommendation was justified by NACAE on the grounds that it was unfortunate that the single most important issue in America, education, was in a triangular competition with health and welfare in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) for support and attention from Congress and the Executive

Branch. The "Council" also made several other significant recommendations in the 1970s. They included a recommendation of larger amounts of Federal research funds, to help better understand how adults learn and the competencies needed by adult education staff to facilitate this learning. NACAE also recommended that additional funds be provided to determine with greater precision the program funding necessary to serve more adults in the "target population" because funding levels were inadequate to identify, enroll, and retain adult learners having the greatest adult education need, those at the lowest functional levels, including migrant workers, the handicapped and other isolated groups (NACAE Annual Report, 1976, p. 17).

When the first year of funding of the Adult Education Act was completed in 1967, available data showed 25 states, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia making a financial contribution of $25, 223, 629 at the state level to adult education programs. The federal contribution that year was reported as $26,280,000 by the United States Office of Education. By the beginning of this study, 1976, state support had increased to a reported $122,052, 864, with every state in the Union, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia providing funds for adult basic education and adult secondary education at either the state and/or local level. Although the federal funding for ABE and ASE did not keep pace with the states contribution, there still was a substantial increase to a reported $67,500,000 (NACAE, 1977; see Sec. II, Annual Report to the President, pp. 16-28).

Despite the fact that the federal-state financial partnerships have grown substantially since the enactment of the Adult Education Act in 1966, ten years later, 23% of the states accounted for 90% of all funds for adult education and 37% of the states provided less than $100,000 to support such programming. This lack of state level commitment (as evidenced by little or no allocation of funds at the state level) was related to reaching low percentages of the target population, for example the 12 states that allocated less than $24,000 for adult education

at the state level reached as a group only 2.3% of their target population compared to the national average of 4.25% (NACAE, 1977, Sec. II, p. 17). Despite the obvious inadequacies of the ability of program administrators to reach their target population, the federal government continued to increase the state allotments for Adult Basic Education throughout the late 1970s. For example, in FY 1977 the states were allotted $71,500,000 by the Feds; while in FY 1978, it was increased to $80,500,000; and in FY 1979, it was again increased, this time to the sum of $90,750,000.[12] These increases occurred despite there being no impartial evaluation of the first decade of the Adult Education Act and its operations. Nonetheless, there was a manifestation of several notable demographical patterns, such as more than half of the adult education participants were female, and that the enrollment of Native Americans, Asians, and Latinos increased substantially, while the percentage of African-American enrollment decreased by almost 50% (from 43% of the participants to 23%) (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980).

The 1970s also witnessed a trend in the change of delivery systems in adult education. The National Advisory Council on Adult Education reported to the President in its 1979 Annual Report that in the early 1970s between 71% and 75% of adult education courses were conducted in elementary and secondary school buildings. However, by the late 1970s, due to the expanded outreach of adult education administrators, nearly half of the learning sites were in specifically developed "adult learning centers" like work sites, community centers, hospitals and other institutions (e.g., libraries and community colleges). NACAE also noted the adult education trend of increased distance learning through the use of technology, primarily television. Another prominent development during this time period was the notion that adult

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[12] See Appendix D of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education: Adult Basic Education Fiscal Years 1976-1979, State Allotments, pp. 62-63.

education was the panacea for the alleviation of social issues as diverse as illiteracy, high school dropouts, U.S. citizenship, public aid dependency, and job training. This notion may explain Pub. L. No. 95-561, Title XIII (20 USCA Sec. 1201, Sec. 1301, November 1, 1978, 92 Stat. 235b), an amendment to the Adult Education Act (1966) requiring public and private non-profit organizations be involved in adult education programming as equal collaborators if adult education programs wanted to receive federal money.

In summary, the 1970s was a decade of substantial growth in adult education programming, at least in terms of financial support from federal-state partnerships. From FY 1976 through FY 1979 the federal government allotted $310,250,000 to the states for adult education programs. This funding was used in many different ways, none of which required a critical evaluation of the respective programming. This lack of critical analysis led the National Advisory Council on Adult Education to recommend to President Jimmy Carter that the federal government take more control over adult education programming. This recommendation led to a policy of more federal involvement in adult education primarily through rules and regulations, monitoring, technical assistance, and evaluation.[13] Consequently, issues and trends of adult education in the late 1970s may be understood as a concerted effort of the federal government to coordinate and improve management and efficiency of federally funded adult education activities, with the overall goal to establish accountability. This was a crucial development when one considers that in the field of adult education, reporting requirements consisted of a fairly simple accounting of how federal money was spent. The reports were made of a "head count" in nature rather than true qualitative indicators. Other significant trends in the late 1970s include

[13] A close read of Pub. L. No. 95-561 Title XIII, Part A, enacted November 1, 1978, would be insightful.

the federal government's commitment to gender equity issues in adult education, with the establishment of the Women's Education Equity program which was initially funded at $10,000,000. This benefit to women who were the major consumers of adult education programs continued into the 1980s.

Adult Education Issues and Trends in the 1980s

There were two significant events that took place in the first year of the 1980s. First, there was the inauguration of Ronald Reagan as President of the United States in January, followed by the creation of the Department of Education in May of the same year. As the new Republican Administration moved into the oval office, a wave of political and economic conservatism overtook the nation. President Reagan almost immediately began to attack the education establishment; however, adult education programs were unaffected by the President's venom, at least when viewed with a financial perspective. In fiscal year 1980, state allotments for adult education saw the federal government contribute $99,926,828 to serve a total of 2,057,982 students of which 1,152,073 were women (56%) and 905,909 were men (44%). The racial/ethnic numbers were as follows: Whites--954,499 of which 403,541 were men and 550,958 were women; African-Americans--451,446 of which 196,518 were men and 254,928 were women; Latino/a--447,040 of which 214,640 were men and 101,085 were women; Native Americans--22,694 of which 9,992 were men and 12,702 were women. The three states with the largest concentration of African-American adult education participants were Florida with 88,147, followed by South Carolina with 37,740 and North Carolina with 32,434. The three states with the largest concentration of Latino adult education participants were California with 141,499, followed by Florida with 83,819, and Texas with 64,530. The three states with the highest concentration of Asian adult education participants were California with 66,129,

followed by Hawaii with 15,250, and New York with 12,957. The largest concentration of White adult education participants was in Florida with 285,774; followed by Texas with 55,913; and North Carolina with 47,995. Of the states mentioned, only in California did men outnumber women and that was exclusive to the Latino cohort (NACAE, 1981; see Table 1 of NACAE Annual Report, p. 37). A significant number of these participants were either unemployed (655,131) or receiving public assistance (192,489) (NACAE, 1980; see Table 5 of NACAE Annual Report, p. 41).

Funding for adult education programs was consistent, as the state allotment continued at $99,926,828 for fiscal year 1981 and fiscal year 1982. However, in fiscal year 1983 there was a significant funding reduction for adult education programming. Perhaps, in response to the classic publication, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (National Commission on Excellence in Education [NCEE], 1983), the federal government cut the state allotments for adult education to $86,400,000. This was the first time in the 17-year history of the Adult Education Act that it was funded at a lower rate than the previous fiscal year, causing a rippling effect throughout the nation because every state and territory received a cutback (NACAE, 1984; see p. 31 of that Report).[14] Fortunately, for state adult education administrators, President Reagan recognized the importance of a program that increased its overall enrollment from 37,991 in FY 1966 to 2,596,544 by FY 1984, and signed into law the reauthorization of the Adult Education Act, Pub. L. No. 98-511 on October 19, 1984, extending its mandate through 1988. However, there were several notable revisions which included: (a) an expansion of the term "adult" to include those beyond the age of compulsory

[14] This does not include the Northern Mariana Islands because they received $68,760, but this was their first time being funded.

school attendance under state law as well as those who have attained 16 years of age; (b) the support of Secretary of Education for applied research, development, demonstration, dissemination, evaluation and related activities which will contribute to the improvement and expansion of adult education in the United States; and (c) specific requirements for the collection of uniform data. But perhaps the most significant change of the Adult Education Act (1966) was the elimination of references to special populations within the Act. The leading reasons for the proposed eliminations were: (a) as written, the existing legislation was designed to serve all adults, 16 years of age or older who had neither a high school degree nor its equivalency and were no longer required to be in school; (b) the needs of the special groups could be addressed through individual state plans; and (c) references to special populations frequently resulted in duplication of effort. Obviously, these amendments were satisfactory to the members of Congress because federally funded state allotments for adult education increased to $95,000,000 in fiscal year 1984. Every state and territory received an increase in funding except New York and Pennsylvania (NACAE, 1984; see p. 31 of that report).[15]

Most adult education administrators continued to be happy as the state allotment continued to rise in fiscal year 1985, with the federal government granting the states and their territories $101,963,000 for adult education programs. In this particular fiscal cycle, every state and territory received a funding increase except American Samoa and Guam whose funding levels remained the same. The monies were used to serve 2,879,125 adult education participants (see NACAE, 1986, *Report to the President*, p. 48). However, 1986 saw the economic fortune of adult education administrators take a turn for the worst, as for the second time in four years the Reagan Administration reduced the state allotments for adult education. This time monies

[15] New York received $324,191 decrease; Pennsylvania received a $72,770 decrease.

were cutback to the pre-1980s and amounted to $97,579,000. This money was used to serve 3,069,145 adult basic education, adult secondary education, and ESL students. In 1987 the Federal allotment increased to an all-time high of $102,000,000, this was followed by $105,981,000 in FY 1988. Whereas every state had received a reduction in funds during FY 1986, each state and territory received an increase in funds in both fiscal year 1987 and 1988. Essentially, the 1980s concluded with the critical issue in adult education being adult literacy, including its causes, its extent, its impact on employability, productivity, parenting, and citizenship. NACAE recommended a thorough review of methods being used in the remediation of adult illiteracy as well as fostering a trend to promote increased involvement of the private sector in adult literacy programming. Another significant trend was the continued effort of the federal government to develop a standardized data base from which adult education program accomplishments and student and programmatic characteristics could be systematically evaluated. These data would be used to develop a plan to meet the demographic changes that were occurring throughout the United States. In other words, issues of immigration and "majority minority" were on the horizon and adult educators needed to be prepared for the influx of non-native speakers and the demands of people of color and women. This information concerning the national issues and trends in adult education may be better understood through an in-depth look of the Adult Education Program at Parkland College during the same period.

CHAPTER 4

PARKLAND COLLEGE'S ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM DURING THE LATE 1970s AND 1980s

An essential feature of the community college's claim to open access was its low tuition or, in the case of adult education, no tuition. The Adult and Continuing Education Program at Parkland College offered academic, occupational, and community service programs designed for adults to further their education. The goal of the program was to perform the following functions:

1. To help District 505 residents become informed about issues and problems facing the nation and world.
2. To help adults gain useful workforce preparation and knowledge for employment entry or career advancement.
3. To offer instruction useful for adults to further effective living.

Courses were offered in the day and evening during the academic year and in the summer session. The classes were both for credit and noncredit. The credit courses earned students academic credit hours that counted toward a certificate or degree. Non-credit classes included services to the community in the form of educational, informational and cultural programs. For the purposes of this study, there were two academic programs that provided a significant evidentiary base and were, therefore, considered appropriate for extensive review. These two academic programs were the Preparedness Program and the General Education Development (GED) Program.

First, a descriptive analysis of the Preparedness Program is presented, which was the first academic program targeted toward disadvantaged and underprepared students in Illinois. This is followed by a discussion of the General Education Development (GED) Program which was established to help high school dropouts acquire a high school equivalency diploma and

ultimately continue their education at Parkland College. Once the development of the GED Program has been illustrated, an insightful illustration of the relationship between the Adult Education Program and the Learning Lab will be demonstrated. Following this section, will be the conclusion, a historical narrative about the development of the Adult Basic Education, and the English-as-a-Second Language programs.

Preparedness Program

The Preparedness Program is a college level developmental program designed to provide economically disadvantaged and educationally underprepared students an opportunity to attend college. The program was structured to meet the specific educational needs of its participants (remedial or otherwise) and to prepare them for college-level work. Students were admitted into the program based on their desire to attend college, and their perceived need to further their education. Generally, students who enrolled in the Preparedness Program were expected to spend a minimum of two quarters in the program. Upon completion of 28 credit hours, the Director awarded each student a Certificate of Achievement. The credit hours were initially organized in the following manner:

Table 1

Organization of Parkland College Credit Hours

Course	Credit hours
Basic Communication	8
Reading and Study Skills	8
Mathematics	8
Orientation	2
Physical Education	2
Total hours	28

Two noteworthy courses offered by the Preparedness Program were Seminar 100 and Seminar 101. Both courses were worth one credit each and open to students in the Preparedness Program only. Seminar 100 included orientation to Parkland College's services, including career and transfer programs. Personal and vocational counseling, as well as multi-cultural activities, and field trips were also included. One other requirement was a weekly group "rap" session which included all of the program staff and students. In Seminar 101, also known as the Preparedness Seminar II, students were expected to continue the weekly counseling sessions, cultural activities, and field trips; but the emphasis in counseling was directed toward advising students on how to enter and graduate from a career and/or transfer program at Parkland College. During the 1975-76 academic year, Parkland College began operating on a semester plan, and the requirements for the Preparedness Program changed. Since its inception in 1969, the academic requirements were Basic Communications for eight credit hours, Reading and Study Skills for eight credit hours, Mathematics for eight credit hours, and Orientation to College for two credit hours. The following are the course descriptions (paraphrased here) for the original course requirements for the Preparedness Program during the Fall quarter:

> Reading and Study Skills 090: Four Credit Hours: This course was designed to help students develop good reading and study habits. It included phonics, spelling, vocabulary drills, comprehension, previewing, and techniques for studying. The course applied these skills to students' other courses and other problems affecting college work.
>
> English 090: Four Credit Hours: This course was designed to give the student a review of grammar, sentence structure, paragraphing and essay writing. The course included letter writing and business writing such as letters of application and the completion of application forms.
>
> Math 090: Four Credit Hours: This course was designed to involve a review of basic math and computational skills. The emphasis was on preparing the student to deal with the kinds of math experiences encountered in everyday life. There may be individual assignments geared to a student's particular course of study.

Preparedness Seminar 090: One Credit Hour: This seminar included orientation to the college and orientation to career and transfer programs, personal, vocational and social counseling, cultural activities, and field trips. A group counseling session including all staff members and students in the program met weekly. The purpose of the seminar was to expand students' awareness of career and social opportunities and to help them attain self-concepts which can lead to success in these areas.

For the Winter, the requirements were:

Reading and Study Skills 091: Four Credit Hours: A continuation of R&SS 090 with particular emphasis on critical reading and evaluation. The course also applied these skills to the students' course work and other problems affecting college work.

English 091: Four Credit Hours: This course was a continuation of English 090. The particular emphasis in this course was expository writing. The student was also introduced to methods of research and principles of argumentation.

Math 091: Four Credit Hours: A continuation of Math 090 with particular emphasis on competence in college Algebra.

Preparedness Seminar 091: One Credit Hour: This seminar also included weekly group counseling sessions and cultural activities and field trips. The particular counseling emphasis was directed toward preparing the students to enter a career and/or transfer program in the college.

In the fall of 1975, the Preparedness Program course requirements were changed to Basic Communications and English (090 and 091), for three credit hours; Study Skills and Reading (090, 094, 095, 096, 100), for four or five credit hours, Mathematics (091), for three credit hours; Preparedness Program Seminar (PRP 110) continued for one credit hour; the Learning Laboratory (ALS 110) was included as a requirement for the first time for two to four credit hours; and several elective courses for which a student could earn from zero to four credit hours. During Spring 1976, more changes were made: Basic Communications became variable, for one to three credit hours; Study Skills and Reading increased from two to four credit hours; Mathematics (091) also became variable from zero to four credit hours. The most significant change occurred with the Learning Laboratory (ALS 110) which was allowed zero to eight credit hours. In Spring 1978, Basic Communications changed from the variable credit

of one to three credit hours to the single option of three credit hours. Other significant changes of the Preparedness Program occurred in the 1981-82 academic year. For example, an Award of Achievement was granted instead of a Certificate of Achievement (awarded since the program's inception). During the 1989-90 academic year, more changes were made in the Preparedness Program curriculum. The Preparedness Program Seminar (PRP 110) was no longer a required course, and the Study Skills and Reading courses (RDG 090, RDG 094, RDG 095, RDG 096, RDG 100) were eliminated. Instead, Critical Comprehension Skills (CCS 096, CCS 097, CCS 098, CCS 099, CCS 100) were added as required courses, and the governance was transferred from the Adult Education Department to the Humanities Department. As a replacement, Preparing for College (GRO 110), a one credit hour course, was added to the Fall 1990 semester requirements. The mathematics requirements were increased from zero to four credit hours option to four to five required credit hours in the Spring semester. In 1993, the Preparedness Program eliminated its Award of Achievement. In the ensuing year, the Program continued to decrease its course offerings, as the Preparing for College (GRO 110) was eliminated from the curriculum.

In summary, the Preparedness Program may be considered the father of the remedial/developmental programs at Parkland College. Troy Simpson, Jr. (1972a, 1972b), the program's original director, did a superior job structuring and organizing an academic curriculum for disadvantaged students. Evidence of this statement was that the entire curriculum was ultimately dismantled and utilized in other academic departments within the College. For example, the study skills course was introduced simultaneously in Humanities while it was being phased out in Adult Education. An in-depth analysis of the curriculum revealed no significant difference. The same may be said for the orientation to college course in the social science department. That course was almost identical to the one designed for the Preparedness Program

by Troy Simpson (1972a, 1972b) 30 years ago. The next academic curriculum to be discussed is the GED.

General Education Development (GED)

The General Education Development Program was instituted at Parkland College in 1976. The GED program was developed to help adults at least 18 years old, living in District 505 without a high school diploma, receive instructional preparation for the high school equivalency exam. For an applicant to be enrolled in the GED Program, students had to attend an orientation session, which included a diagnostic test and an interview with a "counselor" to discuss the test results. The test results were used to help the counselor "guide the student into choosing" the best reading, English, or math course necessary for the student to prepare to pass the high school equivalency exam. The following course curriculum (Parkland College Catalog, Vol. 9, 1975-76) was offered during the day or evening:

> ALS 110: Offered through the Learning Lab course curriculum.
>
> ENG 090 Basic Writing I: Practice in grammar--sentence structure, punctuation, paragraphing, essay writing. For students who needed substantial improvement in basic writing and language skills.
>
> ENG 091 Basic Writing II: Continuation of ENG 090. Additional study of sentence structure, punctuation, paragraphing, and essay writing.
>
> ENG 099 Writing Skills Review: Review of skills in writing clearly and concisely. Emphasis on the essentials of grammar and punctuation and of form and content in sentence, paragraph, and theme.
>
> GED RDG 090 GED Reading: Review of reading strategies useful for efficient reading of the social studies, science and literature passages, on the GED examination.
>
> GED ENG 091 GED English: Review of parts of speech, grammar and usage, rules of punctuation, capitalization and spelling necessary for efficient analysis of sentences on the GED examination.

MAT 091 Arithmetic Skills: Review of operations with whole numbers; study of fractions, decimals, percent, ratio, proportion, and signed numbers.

GED MAT 092: GED Mathematics: Review of percents, interest, graphs, measurement, ratio and proportions, geometry and algebra necessary for satisfactory performance on the GED Math test.

RDG 090 Experiences with Language: Small group discussions and activities focusing on the role of language in one's daily experiences Emphasized basic reading readiness skills.

RDG 094 Reading Fundamentals: Review of basic reading skills. Emphasized word attack, sight words, vocabulary, dictionary use, and oral and silent reading for increased comprehension.

RDG 095 Techniques of Reading: Instruction in reading to help achieve skills necessary for efficient reading of non-fiction and fiction material. Emphasized work on vocabulary, dictionary usage, and comprehension skills.

RDG 096 Reading and Study Strategies: Development of reading skills and study habit necessary for effective reading of college textbooks. Emphasized reading the textbook, note-taking, test-taking, study methods, vocabulary development, scheduling study time, and library skills.

The time spent in the GED Program was to range from one to four semesters and was dependent on the student's rate of progress. At the end of each semester the student was required to arrange an appointment with the counselor to evaluate his or her readiness for the high school equivalency exam or to plan his or her next step in the program. In 1983, Adult Education Departmental policy was changed to reflect that the GED program was now estimated to be effective in eight weeks to four semesters, rather than one to four semesters. Another significant change was the addition of four new courses to help students prepare for the high school equivalency exam:

BIO 099 Introduction to Biology: Basic introduction to biology including scientific method, diversity of life, chemistry, cell structure and functions, heredity, reproduction, development, nutrition, ecology, and evolution. Designed only for those with little or no high school science who expected to continue in BIO 101, 121 or 141.

MAT 090* Whole Numbers: Whole number operations without a calculator and use of an electronic calculator to solve practical problems.

MAT 094* Pre-Algebra Skills: Ratio, proportion, percent, conversion of units, area, perimeter, signed numbers, order of operations, formulas, basic equations, basic exponent laws, word phrases, and basic word problems.

(*Note*. The asterisk denotes that the course code and title were changed, but the academic skills being developed were the same as in previous years.)

SOS 090 Developmental Social Science I: A survey of social science focusing on the connections between society and the individual. Ideas from the areas of psychology, sociology, political science, economics, geography and history was studied. The course drew on the life experiences of the students.

SOS 091 Developmental Social Science II: A survey of social science continuing the investigation of the relationship between the individual and society. Ideas from psychology, sociology, political science, economics, geography and history was studied. The course drew on the life experiences of the students.

SOS 099: Survey of social sciences for students needing social science review. The course exposed students to geography, history, political science, sociology, economics, philosophy of science, and psychology. Students explored how social science applied to their lives.

Five years later, in 1988, a three-level academic sequence was created to provide adults regardless of their skill level the opportunity to build the academic skills necessary for them to eventually pass the high school equivalency exam. The sequence was organized in the following manner (Parkland College Catalog, Vol. 17, 1988-1989):

Level One, GED Skill Building I, 16 weeks
RDG 090, RDG 091, ENG 061 (included job skills), MAT 090, SOS 090, SOS 091
(a) Foundation for testing begins in Level I, (b) Students earned the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills I upon successful completion of Level I

Level Two, GED Skill Building II, 16 weeks
RDG 070, ENG 071 (included job skills), MAT 091, SOS 095 (satisfied Constitution requirement)
(a) Testing was arranged with instructor, (b) Students earned the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills II upon successful completion of Level 2.

Level Three, GED Test Preparation 3, 8-10 weeks
RDG 080 (included preparation for Constitution test) ENG 081, MAT 082
(a) Testing was arranged with the instructor, (b) Students earned the High School Equivalency Diploma upon passing the General Education Development Test and the Constitution test.

The Award of Achievement in Basic Skills was granted in recognition of the commitment and persistence of adult education students who had taken the opportunity to improve their academic skills and completed between 13 and 19 credit hours of instruction in preparation for the GED and/or the Constitution test. To earn the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills I, an adult education student had to successfully complete the following academic courses:

1. Four credit hours of English (ENG 061).
2. Four credit hours of Reading (RDG 090, 091).
3. Four credit hours of Social Science (SOS 090, SOS 091).
4. Three credit hours of Mathematics (MAT 090).

To receive an Award of Achievement in Basic Skills II, students had to successfully complete the following curriculum:

1. Four credit hours of English (ENG 071).
2. Four credit hours of Reading (RDG 070).
3. Two credit hours of Social Science (SOS 095).
4. Three credit hours of Mathematics (MAT 091).

In the 1989-90 academic year, the following courses were added to the Adult Education Level One curriculum, GED Skill Building I: CCS 096 and ABE 094 (Whole Numbers). ENG 061 was renamed GED 061. The reading courses (RDG 090 and RDG 091) were eliminated. In Level Two the GED Skill Building II curriculum was changed to reflect that ENG 071 was renamed GED 071 and that RDG 070 was renamed GED 070. In Level Three the GED Skill Building III, the RDG 080 course was renamed GED 080. ENG 081 was renamed GED 081, and MAT 082 was renamed GED 082. Additionally, the requirements for the Award of

Achievement in Basic Skills I, II, and III were changed. The reading requirement was lowered from four credit hours to three credit hours. The new course descriptions are listed as follows:

> GED 061GED Writing Skills I: Sentence and paragraph writing practice emphasizing parts of speech, rules of punctuation and capitalization, basic grammar, and sentence and paragraph structure.
>
> GED 070 GED Reading Skills II: Development of reading strategies necessary for successful performance on the three GED reading comprehension tests. Emphasis on development of critical reading skills needed to pass Test 4: Interpreting Literature and Arts.
>
> GED 071 GED Writing Skills II: Extensive writing practice with emphasis on organizing, developing, and revising test essays. Systematic coverage of conventions of standard English. Based on end-of-course performance, student may proceed to GED Writing Skills Test Preparation.
>
> GED 080 GED Reading Skills Test Preparation: Review of reading strategies and development of critical reading skills needed for success on the GED test. Emphasis on applying critical reading skills to social science, natural science literature, and practical reading passages.
>
> GED 081 GED Writing Skills Test Preparation: Review of parts of speech, grammar, usage; rules of punctuation and capitalization necessary for success on the GED exam. Also, emphasis was placed on practicing persuasive essay writing in a testing situation.
>
> GED 082 GED Math Skills Test Preparation: Review of arithmetic, algebra, geometry and development of word-problem solving skills needed for success on the GED math test. Emphasis on estimation, data analysis, using formulas, and logical reasoning. (Parkland College Catalog, Vol. 18, 1989-1990)

New course descriptions were not the only additions in the 1989-90 academic year. The Adult Education Program also began to offer free classes and free textbooks to high school graduates who wanting and needing academic remediation or entry level employability information. This class was aptly named Transition to College and Career (TRN 070 and TRN 080).

During the 1992-93 academic year, the three levels of the GED skill building program were eliminated as were the four credit hour requirement for social science (SOS 090 and SOS 091). There was also a significant policy change to reflect that students were allowed to begin classes at any time during the semester. Other significant changes included, an increase in the

required number of credit hours to receive the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills I. Students were now expected to receive 12 to 26 credit hours of instruction, up from 13 to 19 credit hours. The requirements to receive the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills II also underwent policy changes. The courses were now more reflective of selective admissions within the department. For the English, reading, and math courses, an obvious distinction was made between Adult Basic Education (ABE) and Adult Secondary Education (ASE). To be an ABE student one had to read below 8.9 on the Test for Adult Basic Education (TABE) and was required to be in this adult education course sequence: Reading ABE 090 or ABE 093; Mathematics ABE 091 or ABE 094; English ABE 092 or ABE 095. However, those students who read 9.0 or above on the TABE were in a different, more advanced course sequence that led to the high school equivalency exam: Reading ASE 090 and ASE 094, Mathematics ASE 090 and ASE 094, and English ASE 092 and ASE 096. The Mathematics (MAT 091) and Social Science (SOS 095) courses were eliminated, basically guaranteeing ability grouping based on assessment test scores which "objectively" measured proficiency in reading comprehension and mathematical computation. One other course was offered for GED preparation, GRO 090. It was presented in the following manner in the Parkland College Catalog (Vol. 21, 1992-93):

> GRO 090 Job Skills and Career Planning: Focused on past successes and personal skills that one can bring to a job search: interviewing, resumes, completing an application, how and where to look for a job, and how to keep a job. Directed primarily at non-high school graduates with little or no successful job experience.

The Job Skills and Career Planning class was the first time a workforce preparation course was recognized as an academic and instructional responsibility (because it was attached to the description for GED test preparation, an academic endeavor). In the Fall 1993 semester, the Parkland College Catalog stated that students could attend GED classes on campus, at a

community site, or at the Rantoul Adult Education Center. In that same academic year, GED 070 was added as a reading requirement to receive the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills I. The requirements for receipt of the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills II were changed as well. The requirements in English (ASE 092 and ASE 096), Reading (ASE 090 and ASE 094), and Mathematics (ASE 091 and ASE 095) were replaced with one course, GED 061. The very next academic year, 1994-95, five years after its introduction, the Award of Achievement in Basic Skills I and Basic Skills II were eliminated; however, all courses taken in preparation for the high school equivalency examination continued to be free of charge.

In summary, the GED Program at Parkland College may be considered an extension of the open-access policy required of public community colleges in Illinois. Many adults were given another opportunity to complete their high school education without a substantial financial burden. Since GED classes were offered at several sites throughout the District, the Adult Education Department played a significant role in expanding the comprehensive educational offerings of Parkland College. This presents the perfect opportunity to illustrate the relationship of the Adult Education Department to the Learning Laboratory.

The Learning Laboratory

Although the Learning Laboratory was not under the jurisdiction of the Dean of Adult and Continuing Education, it warrants extensive discussion because of the significant relationship maintained between the Learning Laboratory and the academic programs in the Adult Education Department. The relationship may be explained in the following manner. In the Fall 1973 semester, Parkland College established a Learning Laboratory to help students improve their skills in math, problem solving, reading, studying, and writing. Each student was expected to learn through an individualized program of study designed especially for him or her.

Students enrolled at Parkland College were permitted to use the Learning Laboratory to upgrade their academic skills and to learn how to apply those skills to course work. The Learning Lab was designed to serve applicants who:

1. Would like to improve their academic skills regardless of level without taking a "college" course.
2. Would like to refresh unused academic skills.
3. Had not learned college level academic skills.
4. Had to withdraw from a course during the semester but wanted to keep earning college credit.
5. Had problems studying for college course work.
6. Wanted to learn the skills needed to succeed in college or on a particular job.
7. Needed help succeeding in a particular college course.

Thus an academic skills development course, offered exclusively through the Learning Laboratory, was developed and called Applied Learning Skills 110 (ALS 110). The course was offered for variable credit up to eight credit hours (depending on the student's needs) and was eligible to be counted as college credit hours earned by the student for a Certificate, Associate Applied Science (AAS) or Associate General Studies (AGS) degree. A student was permitted to begin work in the Learning Laboratory at any time during the semester. This was a critical option for students because a student who officially withdrew from a college level course could then add ALS 110 up to the equivalent of the credit hours of the course dropped for no additional fee. However, students were also allowed to use the Learning Lab free of charge (if they were enrolled in courses in the Adult Education Program) because, before the adult basic education component was added to the GED program, the Adult Education Department paid

the tuition of these students.[16] But in 1986-87, the Learning Laboratory eliminated the option for students to improve their academic skills without being enrolled in a course. Thus leaving the lowest level student to be educated in isolation in the Adult Education Department. Consequently, the Adult Education Department redesigned its academic programming to reflect their new responsibility. Thus, adult basic education was implemented and a seamless academic path was created for disadvantaged and underprepared students. Now nonreaders, through those in need of a high school equivalency, were being served at Parkland College in the Adult Education Department. Therefore, a discussion about adult basic education (ABE) at Parkland College is warranted.[17]

Adult Basic Education

In the 1986-87 Parkland College catalog, for the first time, Adult Basic Education was recognized as a separate and distinct academic program, whose sub-categories were the GED Program, Title XX Program, and Literacy Volunteers. The Title XX Program was a federally funded program designed to help welfare recipients return to school for educational training that would help them increase their chances for success in finding a job. If the student was a high school graduate and a welfare recipient he or she was eligible for five credit hours of free tuition, free books, and free bus transportation to and from Parkland College while enrolled in the Title XX Program. The Title XX Program was managed by a Coordinator who recruited,

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[16] The Adult Education Department would pay the tuition of its Learning Laboratory students through its Title XX funds, as well as other federal and state adult education funds.

[17] A discussion of the Learning Laboratory is warranted because its mission and goals are essentially the same as those of adult education; in fact, both programs shared personnel.

counseled, enrolled, and maintained the mandated financial and educational records of each student.[18]

State funds arrived three years later in the 1990-91 academic year as the ISBE Adult Basic Education Program Committee vowed every effort would be made so that any adult resident of Illinois would have the opportunity to:

1. Complete high school through the GED program
2. Obtain literacy skills requisite for effective citizenship and productive employment
3. Benefit from employment skills and vocational classes for students whose immediate goal was employment.[19]

To ensure that there was no cost to students who qualified for any of the three categories stated, the Illinois State Board of Education provided funds to guarantee all Illinois residents had the opportunity to earn at least a high school equivalency. However, these state monies were not to cover college-level instruction.

During the same academic year, the following course descriptions were listed for Parkland College's Adult Basic Education:

> ABE 090 Basic Reading Skills: Skill development focusing on basic level reading functions. Individualized format.
>
> ABE 091 Basic Arithmetic Skills: Skill development focusing on basic arithmetic concepts and functions. Individualized format.
>
> ABE 093 Basic Reading Skills Class: Review of basic reading skills. Classroom format.
>
> ABE 094 Basic Arithmetic Skills Class: Basic arithmetic concepts and functions. Classroom format.

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[18] For a fuller description of the Title XX Program and the responsibilities of its coordinator, see *Parkland College* (1981a), "Financial Aids for Special Populations" pp. 82 and 95.

[19] These courses were offered only at the Rantoul Area Learning Center and other district sites, not on the Parkland College campus.

ABE 095 Basic English Skills Class: English skills development, focusing on basic language functions. Classroom format.

In Adult Secondary Education, the courses were listed as follows:

ASE 090 Secondary Reading Skills: Skill development focusing on secondary-level reading functions. Individualized format.

ASE 091 Secondary Math Skills: Secondary-level mathematics skill development focusing on mathematical functions beginning with decimals and percentages. Individualized format.

ASE 092 Secondary English Skills: Skill development focusing on secondary-level language usage functions. Individual format.

ASE 093 Secondary Reading Class: Skills development necessary for efficient reading of non-fiction and fiction material. Classroom format.

ASE 094 Secondary Reading and Study Skills Class: Skills and study habits necessary for effective reading. Classroom format.

ASE 095 Secondary Math Skills Class: Ratio, proportion, percentages, conversion of units, area, perimeter, signed numbers, order of operation, formula, basic equations, basic exponentials, word equations and basic word problems. For adult secondary education students. Classroom format.

In the ensuing year, 1991-92, an additional Adult Secondary Education course was added to the curriculum:

ASE 096 Secondary English Skills Class. This class provided extensive writing practices with emphasis on basic grammar, diction, and sentence structure. Introduction to principles of composition necessary for excellent performance on the GED Writing Skills Test.

Two years later (1994-95), the following courses were added to the Basic Skills Level:

ABE 050 Adult Basic Education Assessment and Placement A: Assessment of academic skills at the 0-2.9th grade-level in reading and mathematics.

ABE 051 Adult Basic Education Assessment and Placement I: Assessment of academic skills at the 3-/4.9th grade level in reading and mathematics.

ABE 052 Adult Basic Education Assessment and Placement II: Assessment of academic skills at the 5-/8.9th grade level in reading and mathematics.

During that same academic year, two new courses were added as a requirement for the Secondary Skills Level:

> ASE 054 Adult Basic Education Assessment and Placement IV: Assessment of academic skills at the 9-/12th grade level in reading and mathematics.
>
> ASE 055 Job Skills and Career Planning: Focused on past successes and personal skills that one could bring to a job search (e.g., interviewing, resumes, application completion, job search and job retention). This course was primarily directed at non-high school graduates with little or no successful job experience.[20]

Other significant developments in the 1994-95 academic year included the addition of Project READ as an adult education program that provided training for literacy volunteers for tutoring of adults who wanted to improve their basic reading and writing skills. Also the Rantoul Adult Education Center (RAEC), located in the Myna Thompson School in Rantoul, Illinois, was recognized as an important partner in providing adult education in District 505.[21] In fact, it is in the Rantoul Adult Education Center that the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program was developed. The course descriptions for English as a Second Language were as follows:

> ESL 060 Beginning Listening and Speaking for Non-Native Speakers of English (Level I): Development of essential listening and speaking skills needed by non-native speakers of English in order to function in daily life. Prerequisite: literature in first language.
>
> ESL 070: Intermediate Reading and Writing for non-native Speakers of English (Level II): Development of essential listening and speaking skills needed by non-native speakers of English in order to function in daily life. Prerequisite: literature in first language.

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[20] ASE 055 was the same curriculum for GRO 090 which was not offered as a GED Preparatory course in 1994-95.

[21] See 1994-95 Parkland College Catalog where RAEC was recognized for the first time as the outcome of an intergovernmental agreement.

ESL 080 Advanced Reading and Writing for Non-native Speakers of English: Development of reading and writing skills needed for entry-level functioning in the workplace and community college. Prerequisite: literature in first language.

In summary, the Adult Education Program at Parkland College was utilized to meet the College's mandate of open access to all the citizens of District 505. This Program has served students who could not read, as well as those who needed high school diplomas and wanted to learn English as their second language. The course descriptions illustrated that the Adult Education Program was designed to develop the academic skills of Parkland's underprepared students. Therefore, this warrants an in-depth look at the programs for disadvantaged students at Parkland College, as presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

PARKLAND COLLEGE'S PROGRAMS FOR DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

To adequately illustrate the historical development of the academic programs in adult education at Parkland College during the 20-year period of this study, a critical analysis of the financial resources used by public community colleges in Illinois, Parkland College and its Adult Education Program was initiated. One of the most consistent and reliable data collection agencies concerning the monetary resources used by the aforementioned entities was the records of the Illinois Community College Board (ICCB), a primary funding source for the academic programs offered in adult education. One such monetary resource was the Disadvantaged Student Grant (DSG) for Illinois public community colleges which was administered by the ICCB. The data for the disadvantaged student grants for the fiscal years 1976-1996 were reconstructed and analyzed to help illustrate the historical development of the academic programs described in this study.

State funds for Disadvantaged Student Grants were first made available to Illinois public community colleges in Fiscal Year 1973. Initially, the purpose of the disadvantaged student grant was to "encourage and enable economically disadvantaged students to enroll in community colleges and to help people get off welfare rolls and on payrolls" (Illinois Community College Board, 1979, p. iii). However, in FY 1977, a significant ideological shift was made to fund programs for the educationally disadvantaged rather than the economically disadvantaged. Originally, funding for disadvantaged student programs was granted and distributed to community college districts based on the percentage the district had of the total state monies received from federal sources for their student financial aid programs. However, in a special session of the Illinois General Assembly, House Bill 2 was approved. Essentially, the

Bill changed the way money was distributed to community college districts for addressing the educational needs of disadvantaged students. It provided special grants for disadvantaged student programs beginning in FY 1978. State monies were to be distributed to community college districts based on enrollment in remedial and developmental courses during the previous academic year. The General Assembly also stipulated that the financial expenditures from the disadvantaged student grant were to be limited to courses and activities related to remedial and developmental programming for disadvantaged students. As a result of the passage of House Bill 2, community college districts began to compete for disadvantaged student funds, especially since funding was based on each district's proportional share of the total credit hours "produced" in remedial and developmental instruction statewide during the previous fiscal year.

The last time Parkland College was awarded money under the original guidelines (to encourage and enable disadvantaged students to enroll in community colleges and to help economically disadvantaged students get off welfare) was in Fiscal Year 1977. During that year Parkland received a total of $48,804 to serve disadvantaged students.[22] Parkland proposed to use these funds to continue the Preparedness Program. This program was designed to help disadvantaged students develop the academic skills necessary for success in college that they were educationally underprepared to perform as a consequence of social, economic, or academic disadvantages (Simpson, 1972, p. 6). Additionally, the Preparedness Program staff was to help prepare disadvantaged students for entry into a baccalaureate or career-oriented program at Parkland College. The staff was also required to involve all Preparedness Program participants in a seminar for the critical purpose of programmatic evaluation that would help

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[22] See the Summary of Illinois Community College Board (1977), *Disadvantaged Student Grant Awards for Academic Year 1975-76*, p. 39, for the itemized funding allocation.

improve the services of the program. There were 110 African-American students served through the Preparedness Program, of which 36 were welfare recipients (33%); 85 of them continued their education at Parkland in an associate degree or career certificate program, an impressive 77% retention rate. Along with the money already awarded Parkland by the ICCB, $22,785 of other state funds were also awarded in the form of Disadvantaged Student Projects, thus increasing the DSG total at Parkland to $71,589 (Illinois Community College Board, 1977).[23] In the ensuing academic year (1976-77), Parkland received $72,951 to serve 71 new African-American students admitted into the Preparedness Program (Illinois Community College Board, 1978).[24] Of these 71 students, 46 continued in career oriented programs for a 65% retention rate. The average grade point of the preparedness student was 2.0.

Beginning in FY 1978, the Illinois Community College Board awarded Disadvantaged Student Grants based on the number of contact hours rather than on the number of participants. Parkland responded by continuing the Preparedness Program and, for the first time, proposed that the Learning Laboratory be incorporated into the disadvantaged student project "since one of its major functions was to assist the educationally disadvantaged." This shift in emphasis from the economically disadvantaged to the educationally disadvantaged resulted in the reevaluation of the allocation of funds to each college district. For example, since its inception the administrators of the DSG appropriated a $10,000 basic grant annually to each community college district, but in FY 1978 no basic grant was awarded. Instead, monetary allocations

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[23] State appropriation for the DSG, as approved by Governor Walker, was $2,708,400.00 with the additional appropriation, as approved by the legislature, of $84,558.90 bring the total to $2,793.958.90 for FY 1977.

[24] See ICCB (1978) Table VI, "Summary of Disadvantaged Student Grant Awards for Fiscal Year 1978," p. 40. See also "Summary of State Funds Approved by the ICCB for Disadvantaged Student Projects FY 74- FY 78," p. 42.

were based entirely on the number of FY 1977 remedial and developmental credit hours generated by each college as reported on credit claims to the Illinois Community College Board. This change in policy had a significant impact at Parkland as the number of students that received services funded by the disadvantaged student grant skyrocketed to 1,135. These students generated 56,750 contact hours and 4,585 remedial and developmental credit hours for academic year 1977-78.[25]

Other substantive changes in the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program included the evaluative process. Initially, program activities were evaluated in terms of goals and objectives, budgets, reports, and statistics. Each year the college districts were required to report disadvantaged student grant activities and accomplishments to the ICCB. But starting in FY 1978, colleges were required to submit a description of unique and exemplary accomplishments, anecdotal situations, or noteworthy achievements of a person or group served by the Disadvantaged Student Grant (DSG). One other noteworthy policy change occurred in fiscal year 1978--the systematized collection of student characteristic data (e.g., the number of students by sex, racial/ethnic origin, and age). Of the 1,135 students that benefited from the Disadvantaged Student Grant at Parkland College, women numbered 616 (54%) and men 519 (46%). The racial/ethnic origins were: 23 Asians (2%), 349 African-Americans (31%), 18 Latinos (2%), 734 Whites (64%), with 11 unknowns (1%). The number of students by age were 414 in the 16 to 20 age group (37%), 258 in the 21 to 24 range (23%), 233 in the 25 to 30 age group (21%), 137 in the 31 to 39 range (12%), 56 in the 40 to 45 age group (5%), and 37 in the 45 and over range (3%).

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[25] Although Parkland had an overall increase in DSG funding, there was a decrease in DSG Project funding. The amount went from $22,785 to $20,894 a decrease of $1,891 or 8.3%.

In FY 1978, there was no policy requirement to report a given disadvantaged student's program emphasis regarding program activities. However, during the analysis component of the Annual Report of the Illinois Community College Board Disadvantaged Student Grant Program for Illinois Public Community Colleges, the assistant director for student and community services, Toni C. Harris, was able to group the activities into 20 categories. Those categories included: (1) Academic Advisement, (2) Adult Basic Education, (3) Advisory Council, (4) Career Assessment, (5) Counseling, (6) English/Second Language, (7) Financial Assistance, (8) GED Preparation, (9) Individual Instruction, (10) Job Placement, (11) Job Seeking Skills, (12) Learning Lab, (13) Off-Campus Centers, (14) Outreach/Recruitment, (15) Prevocational Training, (16) Referrals, (17) Seminars/Workshops, (18) Specialized Testing, (19) Staff Development, and (20) Tutorial Service. Of these programs, Parkland College was recognized to have participated in two--Adult Basic Education and Learning Laboratory.[26] However, one requirement to receive DSG money was the submission of a summary evaluation of the previous fiscal year's Disadvantaged Student Program. In the first five years (1973-1978), the request was limited to a single question: What did your Disadvantaged Student Program produce during the past year? But, in FY 1978, the ICCB began to require more specific information, such as the kinds of activities provided, the number of students served by the activities, the client groups served, and the nature of the outcomes (e.g., improved skills, reading level attained, GED completions, and number of public aid recipients employed). Dr. Donald Swank, Parkland's Dean of Instruction, was the College's contact person for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. He reported that during the 1977-78 academic year, Parkland served 117 African-

[26] Although Parkland was recognized for ABE and the Learning Laboratory--the Preparedness Program also participated in GED preparation, outreach and recruitment, as well as academic advisement, while the learning laboratory was involved in individual instruction.

American students through the Preparedness Program (55 in the Fall semester and 62 in the Spring). Dr. Swank observed that students in the Preparedness Program:

> . . . were given special attention in recruitment and assistance in being admitted and enrolled. That while the students were enrolled in a variety of classes dependent upon background, ability, and interest, the preponderance of students were enrolled in remedial and developmental courses such as ENG 090, ENG 091, MAT 095, RDG 090, RDG 094, RDG 095 and RDG 096. In addition, all students were required to be enrolled in PRP 110, which was a seminar to discuss problems, procedures, study habits, and goals to be successful in college. Of the 55 enrolled in the fall, 30 continued in the spring semester . . . for a retention rate of 55%.

Another 1,055 disadvantaged students worked with the staff of the Learning Laboratory and received assistance in developing their basic skills and in gaining self-confidence. Apparently, there existed a duplication of services at Parkland because the Learning Laboratory was now overlapping one of the goals of the adult education's Preparedness Program which was tuition free. Nonetheless, thanks to the increase of state funding for disadvantaged student programs, many community colleges including Parkland, had money to experiment with new teaching methods, to create new instructional materials, and to develop new approaches to educating the educationally disadvantaged.[27]

In FY 1979, the Illinois Community College Board again reevaluated the Disadvantaged Student Grant program. Consequently, the method of distribution of Disadvantaged Student Grants was changed to include a basic grant of $15,000 for each college district with the remainder of the state appropriated $3.8 million to be distributed on the basis of enrollment in remedial and developmental courses in the previous academic year. For example, in order for Parkland College to obtain a Disadvantaged Student Grant, Dr. Swank had to submit three documents: (a) an annual report on Parkland's Disadvantaged Student Program for the past

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[27] The Disadvantaged Student Grant Program was appropriated $3,706,900 in FY 1978.

year; (b) a plan for the proposed Disadvantaged Student Program for the new fiscal year; and (c) verification of a combined local match (either cash or in-kind) at least equal to the total amount of the state Disadvantaged Student Grant funds received. The application and approval procedures were also revised in 1979. For the first time, colleges were required to submit: (a) quantitative, measurable objectives which included the kind of activity to be provided and who would be served by the activity (e.g., client group), the number of persons projected to be served, and the nature of the outcomes (e.g., skills to be improved, attitudinal changes, knowledge development); (b) a description of the linkages of the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program to other educational, business, and governmental organizations; and (c) the methods the College used to measure the success of the Program. Informational sessions were held throughout Illinois for administrators responsible for Disadvantaged Student Programs to explain the kinds of data that would be required in annual reports, and to discuss the direction and future of the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. Essentially, the Illinois Community College Board (ICCB) wanted more accountability and more sophisticated evaluation measures, as well as some recognition for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program's accomplishments (see Figures B1 through B12 in Appendix B).

During this same time period, a number of state educational agencies became interested in lifelong learning, in general, and remedial education, in particular. The Joint Education Committee (JEC), composed of members of the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE) and the State of Illinois Board of Higher Education (SIBHE), passed a Resolution outlining the future of remedial education in Illinois. Essentially the Resolution stated:

> Remedial efforts should be continued at the postsecondary level as long as entering students are lacking basic (academic) skill[s]. Within the structure of post-secondary education, it was the community colleges (with their open admissions policies) that should respond to the remedial needs of the postsecondary student. Community colleges have viewed and should continue to view the remedial function with equal priority to its

> other missions such as baccalaureate, vocational and technical education. The community college should be recognized as the postsecondary institution where deficiencies in basic skills of adults will be addressed. Although degree credit should not be awarded for remedial work, community colleges should be increasing their role in remedial programs while the state universities were decreasing their role in remediation. (ICCB, 1979, p. 57)

The ICCB endorsed and the ISBE and the SIBHE adopted the Resolution on remedial education in Fall 1978. In further action on December 12, 1978, the JEC passed another resolution, which stated that the:

> Illinois State Board of Education and the State of Illinois Board of Higher Education coordinate and expand their efforts to improve and broaden the delivery system for education of adults through the secondary level; and that the existing Interagency Task Force serve as the state mechanism among agencies involved in adult education toward the purpose of resolving problems of mutual concern including financial support of adult education, fiscal program support and program placement, and the coordination of delivery of programs at the local level. (ICCB, 1979, p. 57)

The passage of this Resolution by the Joint Education Committee (JEC) illustrated their recognition that adult education courses and activities were clearly a part of the mission and scope of the comprehensive community college. Further, the JEC realized that the availability of state funds to support the role of Illinois public community colleges as the primary delivery system for adult education was essential. In Fiscal Year 1979, Parkland College was granted $29,640 by ICCB in the form of a $15,000 basic allocation, and a $14,640 remaining allocation. The remedial and developmental credit hours amounted to 3,955 or 0.48% of the total proportion of credit hours (816,712 total) throughout Illinois public community colleges. Due to the decrease in total credit hours of the students served by the Disadvantaged Student Grant (from 4,585 in FY 1978 to 3,955 in FY 1979), a loss of 630 credit hours or a 14% decrease, funding declined from $52,057 to $29,640 or a loss of $22,417 (-36%).

In FY 1980, the legislature appropriated funding for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program at $4,700,000. Each college received a basic grant award of $15,000 with the

remaining funds to be distributed proportionally to the districts based on the previous year's enrollment in remedial and developmental, adult education, and English-as-a-Second Language courses. The 1979-80 academic year saw 124,259 participants statewide utilize the resources of this grant. Of this total 69,088 (56%) were women and 55,171 (44%) were men. At Parkland College during this fiscal cycle, 1,366 were students served through the Disadvantaged Student Grant. Of this number, 602 (44%) were male and 764 (56%) were female. Two were Asian (0.22%), 3 Native Americans (0.23%), 36 African-Americans (2.5%), 20 Whites (2%), and 1,302 were Others (95%). The age demography was 23 students age 16 or less (1.7%), 100 in the 17 to 20 years of age (7%), 520 in the 21 to 24 range (38%), 400 in the 25 to 30 age group (29%), and 223 in the 31 to 39 range (16.3%).

In FY 1981, the state funding for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program increased 8.5% to $5,100,000. These monies were expected to be used by the community colleges to "address the concern of all students, [but] especially those who were least inclined to attend." This population included just about everybody and could be comprised of minorities, economically disadvantaged, high school dropouts, displaced homemakers, low achievers in a degree program, unskilled laborers, limited English speakers, and adult part-time students who wanted to improve career opportunities. ICCB asserted that the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program had the ability to address these needs through vigorous recruitment and outreach efforts, creation of teaching materials, and offering of special courses. The ICCB reiterated that meeting the needs of the disadvantaged student was clearly a part of the mission of the comprehensive community college and deserved state funds for its continued effectiveness (ICCB, 1981, see Annual Report, p. 32). In academic year 1980-81, the Disadvantaged Student Grant served 116,612 Illinoisans, of whom 84,622 (72.54%) were women and 31,990 (27%) were men.

To apply for Disadvantaged Student Grant Program funding, colleges had to submit to the ICCB an application packet which included information on objectives of the local program and budget details. Once ICCB approved the application packet, the initial grant of $20,000 per community college was distributed. The remaining appropriated funds were distributed quarterly based on enrollment in remedial and developmental, adult education, and English-as-a-Second Language courses. Each college was required to submit mid-year and end-of-year reports that yielded data which reflected their program. In FY 1981 (for the first time), ICCB presented the following definition of a disadvantaged student, which was taken from the Federal Registry. It stated the following:

> Disadvantaged students were individuals with academic potential who demonstrate a need for remedial and specific services as a result of a deprived education, cultural, or economic background, or a physical handicap or limited English-speaking ability that are in need of such services to assist them to initiate, continue or resume their education. These services were, 1) intensive instruction in basic academic skills, 2) guidance and counseling with regard to educational and career opportunities, and 3) a comprehensive counseling and enrichment program for the purpose of developing creative thinking, effective expression and positive attitudes toward learning. The goal of the program shall be to increase the retention and graduation rates of such students. (ICCB, 1981, *Disadvantaged Student Grant Program Annual Report*, Introduction)

At Parkland College, during FY 1981, there were 222 students served by Disadvantaged Student Grant funds. They accounted for 3,570 credit hours in remedial and developmental, ABE, GED, and ESL courses. Of the 222 students served in the 1980-1981 academic year, 5 of them were Asian (2.25%), 2 Native Americans (0.90%), 79 African-Americans (35.58%), 4 Latinos (1.80%), 130 Whites (58.55%), and 2 listed as Other (2.25%). Of the participants, 107 were male (48.20%) and 115 were female (51.80%). There were 3 participants age 16 or less (1.35%), 94 were 17 to 20 (42.34 %), 52 were 21 to 24 (23.42%), 36 were 25 to 30 (16.22%), 22 were 31 to 39 (9.91%), 13 were 40 to 55 (5.86%), and 2 were 55 or older (0.90%). The ICCB awarded Parkland the basic grant of $20,000 and an additional $35,708 for a total of

$55,708. Of the 28 questions on the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program Evaluation (see Appendix C), Parkland answered *yes* 24 times (85.71%), *no* 3 times (10.71%), and gave *no answer* (left blank) 1 time (3.57%). The three negative answers were to the following queries: (a) Did your Disadvantaged Student Grant Program include a component for conducting preservice, in-service and other staff development activities? (b) Did your Disadvantaged Student Grant Program provide childcare or early childhood development services? (c) Did your Disadvantaged Student Grant Program provide transportation services? In FY 1980 the ICCB continued to standardize data collection statewide as they began to require community colleges to submit reasons for separation from disadvantaged student grant programs. At the beginning of the decade, Parkland College did not collect that type of information; therefore, FY 1981 was the first time Parkland collected and submitted that information to the ICCB. The top three reasons Parkland students gave for leaving the program were: (a) to enter another training program (33%), (b) to meet personal objective (25%), and (c) to take a job (10%). The bottom three reasons for leaving were: (a) family problems (1%), (b) transportation problems (1%), and (c) childcare problems (2%). The retention rate of disadvantaged students was 54.95%, while the impact included the fact that 18 students earned their high school equivalency diploma.

In FY 1982, the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program was appropriated $5,000,000 by the legislature, which was a loss of $100,000 or a decrease of 0.980%. During the 1981-82 academic year, 143,907 students were served by the Disadvantaged Student Grant throughout Illinois. Of this total 78,924 (54.85%) were women and 64,983 (45.15%) were men. The formula used to distribute the Disadvantaged Student Grant was to decrease the basic grant per campus ($20,000 × 51) from the total appropriation, then divide the remaining allocation by the number of remedial, developmental, and adult basic education and adult secondary education

credit hours earned two years previously.[28] Based on that formula. Parkland generated 4.326 credit hours, earning .43% of the total proportion of credit hours for the state of Illinois and was granted the basic allocation of $20,000 plus the remaining allocation of $17,251 for a total of $37,251 or $8.61 per credit hour, more than double the state average of $3.99 for Disadvantaged Student Grant allocation per credit hour. Parkland served a total of 258 students. Three were Asian (1.16%), 87 were African-American (33.72%), 10 were Latino/a (3.87%), 154 were White (59.69%), and 4 were listed as "Other" (1.55%). There were 118 males (45.74%) and 140 females (54.26%). There were zero students in the 16 or less age range (0.00%), 106 students were between 17 and 20 (41.08%), 69 between 21 and 24 (26.74%), 44 between 25 and 30 (17.05%), 24 between 31 and 39 (9.30%), 13 between 40 and 55 (5.04%), and 2 were 55 or above (0.78%). The top three reasons for program separation were: (a) to take a job (6.98%), (b) to enter other training (5.81%), and (c) to meet personal objective (5.43%). The bottom reasons were: (a) family problems (0.39%), (b) childcare problems (0.39%), and (c) transportation problems (0.39%). Since there were 104 respondents to the Reasons for Separation Survey, it logically may be assumed that the retention rate in Disadvantaged Student Grant Programs at Parkland was 59.69%. Of the students continuing in the program, 23 earned GED's (14.94%). The Disadvantaged Student Grant coordinator continued to be Dr. Donald Swank.

In FY 1983, the state legislature again appropriated $5,000,000 for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. Of the 387,822 students attending Illinois community colleges, 184,046 (47.5%) received services provided through the Disadvantaged Student Grant. The majority of

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[28] This was the first year that the ICCB began allocating the Disadvantaged Student Grant in this manner.

students enrolled in Illinois' community colleges were White and numbered 269,948 (73.3%); followed by 63,841 (17.3%) African-Americans; 20,382 (5.5%) Latinos; 9,997 (2.7%) Asians; 1,997 (0.5%) Native Americans; and 1,920 (0.5%) international students, and another 19,737 who declined to indicate their race or ethnicity (ISBH, 1983, p. 64). At Parkland the racial/ethnic distribution of the 8,490 students was as follows: 7,544 Whites (88.9%), 541 African-Americans (6.4%), 185 international students (2.2%), 106 Asians (1.3%), 70 Latinos (0.8%), and 44 Native Americans (0.5%) (ISBH, 1983, p. 67).

In FY 1984, the 38 Illinois public community college districts that received funding from the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program reported a total of 197,418 students who received support services (an increase of 13,372 students from FY 1983). The Adult Basic Education Program (first- to eighth-grade reading level) had the highest number of students enrolled at 20,187 for an average of 4.5 credit hours each, followed by Adult Secondary Education (9th- to 12th-grade reading level) with 14,181 students enrolled for an average of 4.4 credit hours each. Students enrolled in English-as-a-Second Language courses averaged the highest number of credit hours at 5.9 per student. A total of 52,169 students took these adult education courses for an average of 4.5 credit hours per student, essentially more than one-fourth (26.43%) of the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program monies were committed to adult education programs in the academic year 1983-84. However, it should be noted that the largest proportion of the $5,000,000 appropriated in FY 1984 was expended on salaries and benefits for instructors, tutors, counselors, and support service personnel, such as readers or note-takers for the blind, interpreters for the deaf, and drivers for handicapped students. Salaries and benefits totaled $3,710,490 (74%). The second largest expenditure was for administrative costs, which were

$719,278 (14%) (ICCB, 1984b).[29] ICCB rules required that the total administrative expenditures not exceed 30% of each district's total disadvantaged student grant. The costs may include administrative salaries, office staff salaries, office equipment, utilities and rental facilities. The students in Adult Basic Education in Illinois generated 90,461 credit hours, while the Adult Secondary Education students generated 61,849 credit hours, and in remedial courses the students generated 13,014 credit hours. At Parkland College there were 8,346 students enrolled in the different instructional programs. Of this number 3,568 (42.75%) were men and 4,778 (57.25%) were women. The ethnic origin of the students were as follows: 7,422 (88.93%) Whites; 583 (6.99%) African-Americans; 119 (1.43%) Asians; 112 (1.34%) international students; 69 (0.83%) Latinos; and 41 (0.92%) Native Americans. There were zero students in the remedial/developmental category for District 505, while adult basic education had 25 students and adult secondary education had 44 students (ICCB, 1984c).[30] Parkland received $39,094 from the ICCB in the form of a disadvantaged student grant in FY 1984.[31]

In FY 1985, the Legislature appropriated $5,300,000 for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program the first increase in three years. During that same time period the Illinois Community College Board amended the rules that governed disadvantaged student grant expenditures to allow expenditures for courses only if the courses were not also claimed for credit hour grant funding. Consequently, the number of students and credit hours claimed by

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[29] See ICCB (1984b), "Statewide Summary of Unaudited Expenditure Through ICCB Disadvantaged Student Grant for FY 1984," p. 59.

[30] See ICCB (1984c), "Summary of Opening Fall 1983 Student Headcount Enrollment By Instructional Program Area: Data and Characteristics, March 1984 Illinois Community College Board," Table I-3, p. 4.

[31] There is no reliable way to trace how this money was utilized.

disadvantaged student programs decreased substantially from FY 1984. For example, 5,206 students were served in adult basic education (ABE) and they generated 12,527 credit hours however that was a decrease of 14,981 students (-74.2%), and a decrease of 77,934 credit hours (-86.15%) from the previous fiscal year. There was a similar occurrence in adult secondary education (ASE) where the student numbers decreased from 14,181 to 5,057 (-73.71%) and the number of credit hours decreased from 61,849 to 49,089 (-23.25%). While the numbers of remedial students also decreased from 5,814 to 4,291 (-26.19%) they generated an increase in credit hours from 13,014 to 13,182 (+1.29%).[32] At Parkland College, 266 students were reportedly served through the disadvantaged student grant, all of them by some form of counseling service. In terms of the courses offered, there was no information provided concerning remedial or adult education (the first time that ever occurred). Nonetheless, Parkland was allocated $41,892, although the total expenditures were $42,572.64, all of which was used for the salaries and benefits of counselors.[33]

In FY 1986, the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program was appropriated $7,000,000 by the legislature. Now grant funds were required to provide extra services that assisted educationally disadvantaged and handicapped students wishing to pursue educational programs at community colleges. As a secondary addition, "a portion of the grant funds may also be used to provide remedial and adult basic education, adult secondary education, and English as a Second Language courses for students deficient in those basic educational skills" (ICCB, 1986, Agenda Item 16, p. 97). The way the community colleges received their money remained the

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[32] Fewer students in remediation could generate an increase in credit hours because of an increase in the number of remedial courses offered, from 418 to 508 (+18.71%).

[33] See the ICCB (1985), "Unaudited Disadvantaged Student Grant Expenditures in Fiscal Year 1985 by District," p. 76.

same as in previous years, a $20,000 basic grant with the remaining appropriation distributed to each college district based on the number of credit hours produced in the remedial and adult education courses the second prior year. This distribution formula served as an indicator of the number of academically disadvantaged students who needed services at each public community college. During FY 1986, the grant amount awarded to districts ranged from $30,023 to over $4,000,000 with a median grant award of $59,000. The 38 Illinois public community college districts who received Disadvantaged Student Grants reported serving a total of 342,095 students (duplicated), an increase of 48,428 (+14.16%) over FY 1985 (ICCB, 1986, p. 97).

Further, there were 47,141 students (duplicated) who enrolled in courses funded by the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program, an increase of 27,959 (+59.31%). Of all the special services funded through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program in FY 1986, counseling had the highest number of students using the service with 102,193 accounting for 167,432 contact hours, an average of 1.64 contact hours per student. The second highest category of student usage was testing/evaluation, with 97,369 students accounting for 170,527 contact hours, or 1.75 contact hours per student. While tutoring was third in the number of students using the services 72,760, it was the first in generating the highest number of contact hours, 207,067 an average of 2.85 contact hours per student. Between FY 1983 and FY 1986 the highest percent increase in the use of a support service was in testing and evaluation services. While the second highest increase was in the use of counseling. This suggests that Illinois community colleges were placing a greater emphasis on counseling and assessment testing for course placement. Simultaneous with the growth of test assessment enrollment, remedial courses and adult basic education courses had an increase of 238%, adult secondary education courses had a 95%

student increase while English-as-a-Second Language had a 155% increase.[34] As previously noted, the rules that governed the Disadvantaged Student Grant were revised to allow up to 30% of the grant to be used for adult education and remedial courses.

Understandably, the number of college districts funding remedial and adult education courses through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program doubled. As a result, the number of course sections provided through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program increased by 1,190% and the number of credit hours produced increased by 318%.[35] To further illustrate this point, in FY 1985 there were 364 adult basic education course sections in community colleges throughout Illinois, but in FY 1986 that number increased to 8,382 courses. In adult secondary education the course offerings went from 395 course sections to 1,587 in the same year. The number of remedial course sections increased from 508 to 856. Consequently, the number of students in these respective course offerings increased as well, from 5,206 to 17,571; from 5,057 to 9,883; from 4,291 to 7,872; further, the credit hours earned increased from 12,527 to 98,003 in adult basic education; from 13,740 to 35,148 in adult secondary education; and from 13,182 to 23,603 in remedial courses.[36] Most of the disadvantaged student grant dollars were used for salaries and benefits $4,974,047 (71%); followed by administrative expenditures $1,110,850 (18.0%). Comparatively, money for staff development was increased to a paltry $27,820 up from $11,709 which still did not reach the fiscal level of FY 1984 when it was $33,265. Despite the monetary increase, staff development remained less than 1% (0.40%) of

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[34] See ICCB (1986), Table 3 "Comparison of Courses Supported Through Disadvantaged Student Grants in Fiscal Year 1984-1986," p. 101.

[35] Revisit ICCB (1986), Agenda Item 16, p. 100.

[36] Revisit ICCB (1986), Table 3, p. 101; see "Number of Course Sections FY 1984-FY 1986," percentages developed through elementary statistical analysis.

the total expenditures of the disadvantaged student grant. At Parkland 289 students were served by the ICCB Disadvantaged Student Grants, of which 274 (94.81%) received counseling and 15 (5.19%) received another kind of support service. This may explain why the $54,024 Parkland College received as its disadvantaged student grant, $51,959 (96.18%) was used for the salary and benefits of counselors, while the remaining sum $3,253 (6.02%) was used for "other" services.[37]

In fiscal year 1987, the Illinois Community College Board was authorized to distribute $7,566,000 in appropriated funds for the Disadvantaged Student Grant to each public community college in Illinois. There were no significant changes from the previous fiscal year for the allocation of funds. However, the support services began to be targeted for a "special population" and designed to assist students in achieving their individual educational objectives. During the 1986-87 academic year the disadvantaged student grant program helped to serve a total of 246,739 students throughout Illinois. Of the variety of services available to students, the most frequently used service was tutoring (84,651 students). Testing and evaluation (80,118) and counseling (61,710) were the second and third most used services, respectively. This may explain why Illinois community colleges concentrated their services to support disadvantaged students in three areas: tutoring, counseling, and testing and evaluation. Obviously, this decision was made when ICCB had no restrictions on the amount of money the Disadvantaged Student Grant a college could spend to support credit courses. It was not until FY 1986 that the Illinois Community College Board changed its rule to allow no more than 30% of the disadvantaged student grant money to be used for credit courses. This change was followed in fiscal year 1987

[37] It is important to note that no adult education or remedial course was funded by the DSG in 1985-86.

with the expansion of the disadvantaged student grant program to include special programs targeted toward minority students. Thus, grant rules were revised to clarify this additional objective and, more importantly, the amount of the grant was increased to pay for these additional programs.[38] At Parkland College the number of students served through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program was 285, of which 268 (94.04%) received services in counseling while 17 (5.96%) received service in the "Other" category. Parkland reported 1,386 contact service hours for FY 1987, all of these hours were listed under counseling. Another 211 contact hours were listed under "Other," making the total contact hours 1,597. District 505's total expenditures for disadvantaged students was $59,592, of which $46,330 (77.75%) paid for counselor salaries and benefits, $6,549 paid for "Other" services (10.99%) and $6,713 (11.26%) covered the administrative expenditure. Neither the adult education nor remedial education programs received monetary support from the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program for the students they served; minimally, they offered no courses that were financed through ICCB appropriations.

In FY 1988 the Disadvantaged Student Grant received a $7,932,990 appropriation from the Legislature. When monies were distributed among the community college districts, individual grants ranged in size from approximately $32,000 to $5,000,000, with a median of $63,000. Of the many support services provided throughout Illinois by the Disadvantaged Student Grant, tutoring had the highest number of students served (87,553), generating a total of 645,378 contact hours or an average of 7.37 contact hours per student. The second highest category of student interaction was testing and evaluation, which served 85,721 students for a

[38] During FY 1987, 107,018 students were served through the special minority programs at Illinois community colleges.

total of 173,685 contact hours. The third highest number of students served was in counseling (69,149), yet counseling generated a higher number of contact hours (185,223) than testing and evaluation. Students funded by the special minority program totaled 126,727. The top three services provided to these students were *counseling* (41,072 students with 148,398 contact hours), *tutoring* (40,165 students with 265,369 contact hours), and *assessment/testing* (32,750 students with 69,052 contact hours), respectively. In courses supported through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program, Illinois community colleges had 25,732 students in adult education (+9.7%) that generated 43,530 credit hours (+4.7%), while there were only 7,339 students in remedial courses (-14.3%) that generated 20,377 credit hours (-14.4%) in the 1987-88 academic year (ICCB, 1988).[39] However, salaries and benefits $5,709,281 (70.6%), along with administrative costs $1,563,714 (19.3), continued to be the highest expenditures for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. Again staff development received a pittance, $35,647 (0.4%) of the expenditures for FY 1988. At Parkland, 321 students generated a total of 1,730 contact hours, of which 170 students generated 820 hours (47.40%) for counseling; 100 students generated 780 hours (45.08%) for testing/evaluation; 40 students generated 80 hours (4.62%) for referrals; and 11 students generated 50 hours (2.89%) of the "Other" category. In fiscal year 1988, the Disadvantaged Student Grant expenditures for District 505 totaled $64,257. Again most of the money--$50,194 (78.11%)--paid for salaries and benefits for counselors.[40]

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[39] See Table 5, p. 5, of the ICCB Annual Report (1988), entitled: "External Attachment Agenda Item 12, December 2, 1988."

[40] The remaining monies were spent on administrative costs ($9,631) and "Other" direct support ($4,432).

In FY 1989, $7,993,000 was appropriated to the Illinois Community College Board for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. A total of 308,655 disadvantaged students were served and generated 1,075,752 contact hours of special support services, a substantial increase (11.20%) over previous years. As was constant throughout the 1980s, the three highest providers of service for disadvantaged students were counseling with 99,111 students (32.11%) who generated 167,737 contact hours; followed by tutoring with 94,412 students (30.59%) who generated 595,002 contact hours; while testing/assessment was third with 80,710 students (26.15%) who generated 135,011 contact hours. The special programs, which were designed for specific "special populations" and also funded through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program, served over 37,500 students. This included the special minority programs which reached 7,713 minority students, the greatest number of which were African-American 3,883 (50.34%) followed by Latinos with 2,058 students (26.68%), 716 Asians (9.28%), 146 Native Americans (1.89%), and then by 910 (11.80%) for "Others." Of all the money allocated for Illinois disadvantaged students, $6,110,832 (76.9%) was used for the expenditure of salaries and benefits, followed by administrative costs $977,473 (12.3%). Staff development continued to be an expenditure of less than 1%--$29,087 (0.4%).[41]

It should be noted that 69,879 students received instruction in remedial and adult education courses. At Parkland, 783 students received services provided through the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program. Three of those students (0.40%) received tutoring and generated 55 contact hours, while 320 of them (40.87%) received counseling and generated 1,530 contact hours: 208 (26.56%) were served through testing/assessment and generated 416

[41] For the first time there is an expenditure category for consultants $19,322 (.2%) These funds probably could have been claimed for administrative or staff development costs.

contact hours, 89 (11.37%) received referrals, 2 (0.26%) received disabled student support and generated 92 contact hours, while 161 (20.56%) received some sort of outreach service and generated 575 contact hours. In FY 1989 Parkland College received a disadvantaged student grant award of $62,555. As in previous years, the bulk of the award was used for counselors $34,989 (55.93%), while $18,568 (29.68%) was used for administrative expenditures; $6,000 (9.59%) was used for other direct support; $1,501 (2.39%) for materials; and, for the first time, money was spent for student activities, although it was a paltry $1,500 (2.39%) (ICCB, 1989).[42]

In FY 1990, there was a resurgence of the commitment to improve minority student representation at community colleges throughout the state of Illinois. For the first time the disadvantaged student was now recognized as the "underrepresented" student and the legislature appropriated $9,000,000 to the newly named Special Populations Grant. In a December report to Governor James R. Thompson, the Illinois Board of Higher Education (SIBHE, 1990) defined underrepresented students as women, disabled students, and minorities. Although female enrollment exceeded male enrollment at the community college level, their low matriculation in the disciplines of mathematics, science, and engineering led to low representation in the jobs paying the highest salaries and offering the most societal influence. Therefore, women were afforded the status of an underrepresented student. With respect to "minority" students, the ideas and methods for increasing their proportion of matriculation and graduation included the exact same strategies described throughout this study. For example, there was a continuation of counseling and tutorial services as well as special financial aid targeted for minority student attendance. As a result, community colleges across the state began

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[42] See ICCB (1989), Table A-6, "Unaudited Disadvantaged Student Grant Expenditures in Fiscal Year 1989," p. 13.

to develop strategies to create a more supportive campus environment. At Parkland College there were seven programs designed to support the needs of underrepresented students:

1. The Affirmative Action office which was budgeted at $58,200, was of service to 270 (31.95%) students of which 250 (92.59%) were African-American, 5 (1.85%) were Asian, 15 (5.56%) were White.[43]

2. The Building Fairness Project which had a total of 120 (14.20%) participants, all of whom were women.

3. Comprehensive Adult Employment Development received $26,300 and had a total of 14 (1.66%) students, all of whom were women: 11 African-Americans (78.57%) and 3 Asians (21.43)%.

4. The Preparedness Program (Disadvantaged Students/Special Populations) received $75,900 and served 276 students, of which 220 (79.71%) were African-Americans, 20 (7.25%) were Latinos, 14 (5.07%) were Asians, and 22 (7.97%) were Native Americans.[44]

5. Student Support Services (Handicapped) received $19,600 and served 100 students, all of whom were disabled.

6. Vocational Education Special Needs received $16,600 and served 53 students, all of whom were disabled.

7. Women in Technology had 12 students, all of whom were female.[45]

In total, Parkland College budgeted $186,600 to assist their underrepresented student population, of which $128,400 (68.81%) was administered by the Adult and Continuing Education Department.

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[43] Of the 270 students served by the Affirmative Action Office, only 10 (3.7%) were female and 5 (1.85%) were disabled, according to the category "Others served by the dedicated programs." See SIBHE (1990), Table 30, "Programs for Underrepresented Students at Illinois Public Institutions Students Served, Fiscal Year 1990," p. 79.

[44] Only 96 of the Preparedness Program students were listed as female (34.78%).

[45] Several other programs developed during FY 1990 were: the Building Fairness Project--no budget was reported; the Sex Equity Program was budgeted $34,000; Single Parent Opportunities and Training Program received $5,610; and the Special Needs Assistance Program received $40,000.

In the ensuing year (FY 1991), the legislature appropriated $9,280,000 to the special populations grant to assist community colleges in their continued efforts to increase the enrollment of underrepresented groups. The idea to create a climate that sustained racial and ethnic diversity was the prevailing theme. Consequently, curricula was modified to include the contributions of underrepresented groups and to broaden instructional methodology for teaching classes filled with diverse students. On the whole, Parkland College served 5,619 underrepresented students in its various programs during the 1990-91 academic year. Of the aforementioned total, 2,594 students (46.16%) were served by the following adult education programs, which also includes the dollars and staff years budgeted. The Preparedness Program was budgeted $85,600 with a 1.50 staff budget to serve 2,530 students. The Vocational Education Special Needs Program was budgeted $5,900 with a .20 staff budget to serve 54 students. The Single Parent Opportunities and Training Program was budgeted $5,610 with .50 staff time to serve 10 students. In the spirit of equal educational opportunity, many community college districts wisely concentrated their efforts on developing new educational and occupational opportunities for women. As a matter of fact, in FY 1991, Parkland College made a significant change in the services to and involvement of underrepresented groups in its district when the Board of Trustees selected Dr. Zelema Harris, a nationally renown African-American woman educator as the president. The Board also formalized its affirmative action plan to comply with federal guidelines to increase diversity within the faculty, staff, and administration.

In fiscal year 1992, the General Assembly appropriated $9,580,000 to the Special Populations Grant and enrolled a total of 368,475 students in community colleges throughout the state of Illinois. The majority of these students (214,052) were female (58.1%). The large majority were White women who totaled 153,997 (71.94%); African-American women numbered 32,646 (15.25%); Latina women numbered 17,033 (7.96%); Asians, 7,830 (3.66%);

Native Americans, 843 (0.40%); international students, 642 (0.30%); and "Unknowns," 1,061 (0.50%). In terms of a gender gap, the most significant difference existed within the African-American student cohort. In the fall 1991 semester, a total of 52,226 African-American students were enrolled in community colleges in Illinois, of which 32,646 were women (67%) compared to only 19,580 males (33%).[46]

The next significant difference occurred within the White student cohort. White students totaled 262,570: 153,997 women (58.6%) and 108,573 men (41.4%). There was only one student cohort where men out-numbered women and that was the Latinos: 17,305 men (50.4%) to 17,033 women (49.6%). At Parkland College, there were 3,941 underrepresented students served during the 1991-92 academic year. Fifteen of them were served by the Sex Equity Program while the remaining 3,926 were participants of the Preparedness Program. To serve these students, the Preparedness Program was budgeted $93,700 while the Sex Equity Program received $34,000. In terms of staff years budgeted, the Preparedness Program received 1.50 and the Sex Equity Program received zero. The racial and ethnic composition was as follows: African-American, 630 (16.05%); Latino, 22 (0.56%); Asian, 12 (0.31%); Native American, 27 (0.69%); and "Unknown," 3,105 (79.09%).

In fiscal year 1993, the legislature appropriated $8,888,500 to the Special Populations Grant. There was a total of 367,603 students enrolled in community colleges throughout the state of Illinois. Of this total, 260,866 (71.0%) were White; 50,735 were African-American (13.80%); 35,949 were Latino (9.80%); 15,295 were Asian (4.20%); 1,577 were international

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[46] See SIBHE (1993, January), Table 2, "Community College Enrollment by Racial/Ethnic Category and Program Type Fall 1986 to Fall 1991," p. 72; and Table 3, "Enrollment by Sex, Racial/Ethnic Category and Sector, Fall 1991," p. 73.

students (0.40%); and 1,671 were "Unknown" (0.50%).[47] Of the total number of students enrolled in community colleges, 214,075 were women (58.20%) while 153.528 were men (41.80%) . The enrollment by gender and racial/ethnic category was as follows--White: women 153,595 (41.78%), men 107,271 (29.18%); African-American: women 31,849 (8.66%). men 18,886 (5.13%); Latinos 18,070 (4.92%), Latinas 17,879 (4.86%); Asian: women 7,998 (2.18%), men 7,297 (1.98%); Native American: women 869 (0.249%), men 641 (0.17%); International students: women 899 (0.25%), men 678 (0.18%); "Unknowns": women 986 (0.27%), men 685 (0.19%).[48] The three racial/ethnic groups with the largest number of students enrolled were Whites, African-Americans, and Latinos. White women outnumbered White men by 46,324 or 17.8%, while African-American women outnumbered Black men by 12, 983 or 25.6%. Latinos remained the only racial/ethnic group in which male students outnumbered female students in enrollment.[49] At Parkland College 2,689 underrepresented students were served through a variety of programs. The vast majority of these students 2,508 (91.8%) were served through the Adult Education Department. The Preparedness Program served 753 students, while the Sex Equity Program served 39 students, and the Women's Program served 1,716 females.[50] The college budgeted 1.50 staff years to the Preparedness Program with a monetary budget of $92,700; the Sex Equity Program was budgeted zero staff

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[47] See SIBHE (1994, January), "Enrollment by Sex, Racial/Ethnic Category, and Sector Fall 1992," p. 74.

[48] See SIBHE (1994, January), "Enrollment by Racial/Ethnic Category at Illinois Institutions of Higher Education Fall 1980 to Fall 1992," p. 71.

[49] Although the difference was negligible (0.03%), it signaled an ethnography issue that may be worth investigating if one were interested in Latinos in higher education or adult education.

[50] Oddly no racial/ethnic data were reported for any of these adult education programs.

years but received $34,000; while the newly created Women's Program was budgeted 0.62 staff years and allotted $28,600. The Adult Education Department administered $155,300 (55.94%) of the $277,600 that Parkland College budgeted to serve underrepresented groups.

In fiscal year 1994, $8,888,500 was appropriated by the legislature for the Special Populations Grant, while Illinois community colleges enrolled 354,717 students. Of those students, 251,672 (71.0%) were White; 47,658 (13.4%) were African-American; 35,694 (10.1%) were Latino; 15,391 (4.3%) were Asian; 1,402 (0.4%) were American Indian or Alaskan; 1,635 (0.5%) were international students; 1,265 (0.4%) were "Unknowns." Women outnumbered men 206,468 (58.2%) to 148,249 (41.8%), a difference of 58,219 (16.40%). The enrollment by racial/ethnic and gender status was as follows: White women 148,102 (41.75%), White men 103.570 (29.20%); African-American women 29,711 (8.38%), African-American men 17,947 (5.06%); Latinas 18,134 (5.11%), Latinos 17,560 (4.95%); Asian women 8,045 (2.27%), Asian men 7,346 (2.07%); Native American women 807 (0.23%), Native American men 595 (0.17%); Internationals: women 942(0.27%), men 693 (0.20%); "Unknown" women 727 (0.20%), and "Unknown" men 538 (0.15%). For the first time Latinas outnumbered the Latinos by 574 (1.60%). This marked the first time that women outnumbered men in enrollment in every recognized racial/ethnic category.[51]

At Parkland College, 5,191 students were served by an underrepresented student program during the 1993-94 academic year. Of this number, the Adult Education Program served 3,426 of these students, which was approximately two-thirds of all of those served. The Preparedness Program served 655 (19.12%); the Women's Program served 1,461 female

[51] See State of Illinois Board of Higher Education (SIBHE) (1995, January), "Enrollment by Sex, Racial/Ethnic Category, and Sector, Fall 1993," p. 78.

students (42.64%), and the Sex Equity Program served 310 students. For the 1994 fiscal year, Parkland College budgeted $350,200 to programs that helped to serve underrepresented students. Of this total, $309,000 was administered by the Adult Education Program, and allocated in the following manner: the Preparedness Program received $105,700 and was budgeted 1.50 staff years; the Sex Equity Program received $34,000 and was budgeted 0.07 staff years; and the Woman's Program received $29,600 and was budgeted 0.50 staff years.[52]

In fiscal year 1995, the General Assembly appropriated $9,960,000 for the Special Populations Grant; there were 346,979 students enrolled in community colleges throughout the state of Illinois. The enrollment by racial/ethnic group was as follows: White, 242,774 (70.0%); African-American, 48,535 (14.0%); Latino/a, 35,189 (10.1%); Asian, 15,391 (4.4%); Native American, 1,338 (0.4%); International student,1,659 (0.5%); and "Unknowns," 2,093 (0.6%). Of additional significance was the student enrollment by program type. In academic year 1994-95 a total of 82,427 students were in adult education programs, approximately one-quarter (23.76%) of all students enrolled in Illinois community colleges. The racial/ethnic grouping for adult education was as follows: Whites, 65,165 (79.06%); African-Americans, 7,824 (9.49%); Latino/a, 4,705 (5.71) Asians, 3,213 (3.90%); Native Americans, 274 (0.33%); Internationals, 595 (0.72%); and "Unknowns," 651 (0.79%).

The enrollment by gender and racial/ethnic group was as follows: Whites: women, 144,463 (41.63%)--men, 98,311 (28.33%); African-Americans: women, 30,585 (8.81%)--men,17,950 (5.17%); Latina,18,118 (5.22%)--Latino,17,071 (4.92%); Asians: women, 8,109 (2.34%)--men, 7,282 (2.10%); Native Americans: women, 767 (0.22%)--men, 561 (0.16%);

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[52] It should be expected that pragmatic information would be difficult to collect and report when there are only 2.07 total staff years budgeted to serve 3,426 students. See previous footnote.

Internationals: women, 991 (0.29%)--men, 668 (0.19%); and "Unknowns": women. 1.193 (0.34%)--men, 900 (0.26%).[53] At Parkland College 5,024 "underrepresented" students were served by various programs. In the Adult Education Department, 2,733 students received service, representing 54.4% of the underrepresented student population at Parkland. The Preparedness Program served 759 (27.77%) students: 454 (59.82%) African-Americans; 56 (7.38%) Latino/a; 41 (5.40%) Asians; 6 (0.79%) Native Americans; and 202 (26.61%) Whites.[54] The Vocational Education-Carl Perkins Program served 143 (5.23%) students, and the Women's Program served 1,652 female students.[55]

Parkland College budgeted $368,700 to serve their underrepresented students. Of that total, $207,000 was administered by the Adult Education Program. The monetary allotment was as follows: Preparedness Program $107,800 (52.07%), Vocation Education-Carl Perkins Program $68,500 (33.10%), and the Women's Program $30,700 (14.83%). The staff years budgeted were 1.50, 1.0, and .50, respectively, for a total of 3.00 staff years. It should be noted that the Transition to College class was introduced during this academic year and served 179 underrepresented students. Of the 179 students, there were: 80 (44.70%) African-Americans;14 (7.82%) Latino/a; 31 (17.32%) Asians; 1 (0.56%) Native American; and 53 (29.61%) Whites.

In FY 1996, the legislature appropriated $12,700,000 for the Special Populations Grant, while the total enrollment in community colleges in the state of Illinois was 337,716. The

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[53] See SIBHE (1996, March), "Enrollment by Sex, Racial/Ethnic Category and Sector at Illinois Institutions of Higher Education in SIBHE 1994 Fall Enrollment Survey," p. 53.

[54] This was the first time in three years that any racial/ethnic data were reported; however, there was no information concerning the gender of the students.

[55] See SIBHE (1996, March), "Programs for Underrepresented Students at Illinois Public Institutions Students Served, Fiscal Year 1995," p. 87.

racial/ethnic composition was as follows: Whites, 234,443 (69.40%); African-Americans, 46,703 (13.80%); Latino/a, 36,304 (10.70%); Asians, 14,874 (4.40%); Native Americans, 1,259 (0.40%); Internationals, 1,846 (0.50%), and "Unknowns," 2,287 (0.70%).[56] The total student enrollment in Adult Education Programs was 81,119, or approximately one-fourth (24.02%) of all students in community colleges. At Parkland College, the various underrepresented student programs served 5,707 students--3,851 of these students, or more than two-thirds (67.48%), were served through the Adult Education Program. The breakdown of student enrollment and participation for each program was as follows: Preparedness Program, 744 students (19.32%); the Woman's Program served 2,797 female students (72.63%); the Vocational Education-Carl Perkins Program served 285 students (7.40%); and the newly created Single Parent Program served 25 female students (0.65%).[57] Parkland College budgeted $524,800 to the programs that served underrepresented students. Of this sum, $247,200 (47.10%) was administered through the Adult Education Program. The money was distributed in the following manner: The Preparedness Program received $128,300 (51.90%); the Single Parent Program received $11,000 (4.45%); Vocational Education-Carl Perkins received $74,600 (30.18%); and the Women's Program received $33,300 (13.47%). The staff years budgeted were 1.20; 0.20; 1.65; and .50, respectively, which totaled of 3.55 years.[58]

In summary, there was a substantial amount of tax dollars ($141,635,484) used to fund programs for disadvantaged and underrepresented groups in Illinois during the length of this

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[56] See SIBHE (1997, March), "Enrollment by Racial/Ethnic Category . . .," p. 90.

[57] See SIBHE (1997, March), "Programs for Underrepresented Students . . .," p. 90. No racial/ethnic data were reported.

[58] Racial/ethnic data were not consistently reported; not enough staff to accurately maintain, organize, and analyze information while also serving the majority of underrepresented students.

study (1976-1996). The manner in which these monies were used are both revealing and alarming for students (other than women) interested in programs designed to help them develop academic skills necessary to graduate from college. It is revealing because the evidence shows that most of the funds for disadvantaged students were used to finance the salaries of counselors, not instructors trained in academic remediation. It was alarming because it was prosperous for colleges to keep students in remedial and adult education courses because of the manner in which DSG monies were awarded (based on number of credit hours generated). For example, in the 1970s, money was primarily spent to help the culturally disadvantaged (which may be decoded to mean "Black students") enter and matriculate at a community college; the 1980s was targeted toward the educationally disadvantaged, which meant poor people, especially those in rural areas. But the 1990s was different, in that the target for academic assistance was women. Programs that addressed the perceived needs of "underrepresented" groups, which did not necessarily mean economically disadvantaged or academically underprepared, were created. In fact, the evidence discussed in this study suggests that "underrepresented" was a politically expedient way to assist women, financially and otherwise, to enter the more strenuous academic disciplines of science, math, and computer technology. Nonetheless, it should be noted that the role played by adult education in Illinois and at Parkland College particularly illustrated that their role was vital as an administrator of funds and as the primary link to the promise of equal educational opportunity. In Chapter 6 conclusions and current trends in community college adult education programs are presented.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND CURRENT TRENDS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

This particular historical analysis focused on the years 1976-1996 and was a case study of disadvantaged student education in Illinois. The primary focus was adult education at Parkland College, a comprehensive two-year college. Chapter 1, Introduction, presented an overview of the historical development of the comprehensive community college which may be traced to multiple roots, including small colleges and academies in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana, as well as to the Morrill Act of 1862. Chapter 1 also presented an overview of the early land grant colleges, such as the University of Illinois, including a historical narrative of the development of District 505 and the founding of Parkland College which occurred on July 15, 1965.

A central component of the narrative was a discussion of Parkland's mission and purpose statements and how those statements were transformed during the time period of this study. This was followed by a review of the literature in Chapter 2, which was organized in four sections and focused on the development of a reliable framework for understanding adult education. The literature was rooted in the following four adult education philosophies:

1. Analytic adult education, which was rooted to Plato (1970a, 1970b), and the idea of analysis of language was a way of questioning some of the basic principles generally accepted by many adult educators in the United States. Its primary concentration was on a careful analysis of educational concepts and policy statements.

Although analytic philosophy has several theoretical manifestations, the two deemed significant for this study were conceptual analysis and logical positivism. In conceptual analysis, the investigator is not to construct explanations about reality; instead he or she is to eliminate language confusion. In logical positivism, the chief teaching approach is the principle of verification, which means, if a policy statement or slogan was not verifiable through empirical

data, the idea was considered without merit and, therefore, meaningless. These concepts were appropriately utilized by Moore, Jr. (1976) as he made a compelling assessment, that every facet of the community college must be scientifically researched and every policy claim reappraised. He asked "where was the evidence that academic deficiencies were being cured by the community college?" His investigation led to the creation of a list of popular ideas teachers perceived as the cause for low academic achievement among disadvantaged students. The list included such notions as cultural disadvantage, negative self-concept and the lack of motivation. He concluded that the cultural disadvantage hypothesis, (which implied poor academic achievement can be traced to the social, economic, and environmental background of underachieving students), was weak because the intrinsic dimension were almost impossible to reliably measure. Moore (1976) added that overwhelmingly, the majority of studies on self-concept were done with children and adolescents, so any attempt to generalize such research to adult students at the community college level ought to be viewed with suspicion. As for lack of motivation, Moore (1976) demonstrated that community colleges determined that personal counseling was the panacea for student success because they would receive the "extra attention" they needed.

Unfortunately, since many disadvantaged students were concerned with learning academic information while counselors were worried about creating the right setting, this created a conflict in values. Willis (1981) concurred with Moore (1976), at least concerning the notion of lack of motivation, as he concluded that the importance of student aspiration was determined by both the student and institution, with the institution's regulation of aspirations being the most important.

2. Progressive adult education, which had its historical roots in the progressive movement of the early 1900s, emphasized such concepts as the relationship between education and society, experience-centered education, and vocational education and democratic education.

Educational practices included Americanization education, English as a Second Language, and the community school movement. Several forms of progressive adult education include workforce preparation, education of the foreign born, and family literacy.

Further, several of the basic principles in adult education originated in progressive thought; (a) societal needs and student interests; problem solving techniques; centrality of the students experience; pragmatic and utilitarian goals; and social responsibility. The origins of progressive education lie in the rationalist, empirical, and scientific thought which developed first in Europe and then became predominate in the United States. The progressives advocated that the new way of seeking knowledge was reason and experience rather than tradition and authority. Pragmatism was the philosophical basis for progressivism. Although pragmatism had various dimensions of significance, for this study, the significance rests in the notion that it recognized the methods for science to understand the human psyche and solve problems , and that there was a legitimate concern for social reform. These concepts were championed by Stalford (1978) as he argued for a system of adult education which included positive discrimination in favor of the educationally weakest groups. He asserted to reach the underprivileged, researchers must improve their understanding of the reasons adults participated in education and the factors which influenced their motivation. He added if one were to be successful in recruiting the disadvantaged, one ought to investigate the preparedness of the persons for participation, the environment in which they lived, the forces in that environment which stimulated or inhibited participation, and the dominant needs. In other words, an effort must be made to view participation in terms of the total living situation of the individual. In order to accomplish such a massive undertaking Long (1983) argued that the process required clarification through careful description of the aims and objectives of education, and the relationship between education and the society in which education takes place. Podeschi (1991) best summarized progressive adult education philosophy as the manifestation of sophisticated

theories applied to practical situations to serve some sort of societal interests; interests which reveal themselves based on the types of behaviors they promote within a given educational program.

3. Behaviorist adult education concerns the relationship between education and the shaping of cultural values. For supporters of this particular philosophy, the educational patterns of a given society reflected the underlying values within that society. Behavioral education emphasized workforce preparation and learning how to learn. To the behaviorist, the measurement of success was twofold: first, students would manifest that they had learned something by a change in behavior; and, second, their response would occur again under similar circumstances.

4. "Other" adult education philosophies were reviewed and included liberal, humanistic, and radical. The central emphasis for liberal education was the classics in literature and social and intellectual history. Its conceptual orientation was toward theoretical understanding rather than mere transmission and absorption of factual knowledge or merely development of technical skills. The humanistic educator emphasized the freedom and dignity of the individual person and proposed a system of education which enhanced social, emotional, spiritual, and intellectual development. While radical educator raised questions about the role of authority in society, including the very existence of a state system of schooling, they opposed national systems of education because of the conviction that education in the hands of the state would serve the political interests of those in control. Radical adult education was useful as an extreme alternative to other education philosophies. For example, Cunningham (1989) envisioned an educational framework that would be used to analyze social movements that included a transformative vision, a critical pedagogy, and a pedagogy of mobilization. The practical application of this vision was suggested by Kahler (1985) as he argued that the teacher's job was to arouse in the student a strong desire to learn the material taught and to keep this desire alive and strong throughout the course. He added that students should have a clear understanding of the educative objective including what to read, what exercises to do, and how to carry projects to a successful completion. Consequently, if students understood the task, then learning would be more rapid and effective. Therefore, students should be taught general principles, laws, techniques and important truths which were frequently used, rather than complicated formulae, long lists of names, large tables and other little-used data that were usually found in handbooks, encyclopedias, dictionaries, and directories. However, the student should be taught where to find and how to use this information. Knowles (1996) went further, he argued the critical function of the teacher was to create a rich environment from which students could extract learning, while exposing students to new possibilities for self-fulfillment.

Next, Chapter 3 was a presentation of national issues and trends in adult education in the late 1970s and 1980s. During this time period, the federal government tried to illustrate the societal importance of adult education programming. They led the charge to systematize the

collection of relevant data and promoted the notion of lifelong learning, primarily through the dissemination of information and the granting of funds. The evidentiary base for this particular section was heavily reliant on data presented by the Department of Education and the National Advisory Council on Adult Education (NACAE). The significant information revealed by these data sources included that during the late 1970s and 1980s the federal government allocated $1,198,955,484 for adult education programming. Further, that 56% of the total students served were women with the remaining 44% being men. As far as the racial/ethnic breakdown: Whites represented 46%; African-Americans represented 22%; Latino/a represented 22%; Asians represented 9%; and Native-Americans 1%. This was followed by Chapter 4 which focused on Parkland College's Adult Education Program during the late 1970s and 1980s. The evidence used for this particular section (e.g., catalogs, curriculum outlines) suggested that the Adult Education Program at Parkland was designed to help improve the academic ability of disadvantaged and underprepared students in its district, as well as help with workforce preparation and facilitate the acquisition of a GED diploma for students who dropped out of school. This included such courses as reading and study skills which was designed to help students develop good reading and study habits. It entailed phonics, spelling, vocabulary drills, comprehension, previewing, and techniques for studying to be applied throughout the students time in college. There was also the Preparedness Seminar which included orientation to the College and to its career and transfer programs. The purpose for the seminar was to expand the student's knowledge of all the academic and career oriented support services open to them as students.

Chapter 5 was a presentation of Parkland College's programs for disadvantaged students, which included an in-depth analysis of the financial resources utilized by community colleges in Illinois to support academic programming in adult education. One of the most

consistent and reliable data collection agencies was the Illinois Community College Board (ICCB), which also administered the Disadvantaged Student Grant, a significant source for information to understanding the historical development of adult education in Illinois and at Parkland College. When I reconstructed and analyzed the Disadvantaged Student Grant, from 1976 through 1996, I discovered that every present-day developmental and remedial course at Parkland College was a generating offspring of a once-free academic curriculum offered through the Preparedness Program. The evidence revealed the dissolution of the free pre-collegiate academic curriculum in adult education while the Humanities Department and, eventually, the Social Science Department gained a significant cohort of tuition-paying students by simply incorporating Reading and Study Skills (now known as CCS) and with Orientation (now known as Orientation to College) into their respective instructional offerings.

Another significant revelation was the manner in which Disadvantaged Student Grant monies were used by public community colleges in Illinois. During the 1970s there was a statewide push for equal educational opportunities for the "culturally disadvantaged," so the Illinois General Assembly provided funding for a disadvantaged student grant to help community colleges recruit, retain, and graduate African-American students.

However, during the 1980s the edict was changed and instead public community colleges, if they were to continue receiving funding, were required to recruit, retain, and graduate more of the "educationally disadvantaged" (which included both African-Americans and poor rural Whites). Therefore, the Illinois Community College Board was authorized a significant monetary increase for the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program to finance this shift in emphasis. An interesting fact concerning disadvantaged student education in Illinois during the 1980s was most of the monies appropriated to the Disadvantaged Student Grant Program was used for counseling, not academic remediation. This observation was indicative of all 38

public community college districts in Illinois, and can be verified by simply reviewing ICCB records. However, during the 1990s, the disadvantaged student became known as the "underrepresented student," and Illinois' public community colleges now received their funding from the Special Populations Grant instead of the Disadvantaged Student Grant, which continued to be administered by the ICCB.

This money was to be used to serve underrepresented groups such as minorities, the disabled, and women. But, the annual reports reveal a different strategy for helping the "underrepresented students" compared to the "culturally or educationally" disadvantaged. Administrators developed varied and institutionalized women's programs that provided monetary and programmatic assistance to female students. This was a significant change in strategy from the counseling technique employed in the 1980s. For example, although female enrollment exceeded male enrollment throughout the community college system, their low matriculation in the disciplines of mathematics, science and engineering led to low representation in the jobs paying the highest salaries and offering the most societal influence. Therefore, women were afforded the status of "underrepresented" student and, throughout the state, programs were designed to address their needs (e.g., Building Fairness Project, the Comprehensive Adult Employment Development, Women in Technology, the Sex Equity Program, the Woman's Program, and the Single Parent Opportunities and Training Program). However, there was no such diversity of programming developed for the culturally or educationally disadvantaged. In fact, as illustrated throughout Chapter 5 of this study, the approach to remediating these particular students was an investment in counseling. Year after year in the 1980s a substantial majority of disadvantaged student grant money was used to pay for the benefits and salaries of counselors, not academic remediation. Further, the second most funded program for DSG monies during this time period was assessment testing, which

determined course placement. The significance of this particular finding is that with the increase in assessment testing led to an increase in enrollment in remedial and adult education courses which benefited each college district because they received additional funding based on the number of credit hours produced in remedial and adult education courses. In other words, the more students that were in remedial and developmental courses, the more money a school could generate. Based on that logic it is understandable why the number of remedial and adult education courses funded through the DSG program doubled, thus producing a 318% increase in credit hours (ICCB, 1986). Unfortunately, this growth in remedial courses was spurred by a competition to acquire a larger percentage of the monies allocated for these types of programs. Worst, there was no incentive to advance the students from the precollegiate to the collegiate curriculum, thus the longer students stayed in remediation the more money schools could generate, while there was no fiscal reward for moving students along toward graduation. This disincentive to academically progress students must be addressed system-wide. One specific programmatic possibility includes increased funding for staff development, particularly in the area of academic remediation. These programs can be similar to the required seminars concerning gender equity of the early 1990s, with the focus on best practices for the academically underprepared. The program should be mandated and have a curriculum with classic texts about the development of educational philosophies. This will help the instructors broaden their pedagogical knowledge and understanding of disadvantaged students. The money to finance this endeavor may be budgeted from the special populations grant which has no restrictions on how these tax dollars can be used to improve academic skills. However, there also needs to be a reappraisal of the policies that govern the financing of disadvantaged student education in Illinois. The evidence presented in this study reveals that any claim regarding community college efforts to remediate disadvantaged students must be investigated. Further,

an in-depth study of the demographic data of those most affected by remedial education must be undertaken. For example, one may want to investigate how many African-Americans, Latinos, Asians and/or Native Americans are represented in developmental and adult education courses to learn if minorities are overrepresented in these courses, and how many of them progress toward graduation and/or transfer to four year colleges and universities. We can then determine if Karabel (1977) was correct when he alleged that America was the land of opportunity and the capstone was its system of public education, which was evidenced by its equality of opportunity.

What would the graduation rate of the "culturally and educationally" disadvantaged students have been if administrators had focused on monetary assistance and consistent academic remediation rather than counseling? What if instructors from all the disciplines within the community college ranks were mandated to participate in staff development activities (similar to the required seminars concerning gender equity in the early 1990s) which addressed best practices for the academically underprepared? What if the culturally disadvantaged student were not perceived as in need of counseling but, instead, in need of academic remediation for academic success? What if, as with women, monetary resources and the primary educational objective aimed to graduate more students from college with a science or math degree, in order to gain more influence in society and to receive higher remuneration because they had a degree in a sought after field of specialization? One would expect a significant increase in students' retention and graduation rates, thus increasing the number of disadvantaged students eligible to matriculate at four-year colleges and universities where the more valued and prestigious degrees lead to increased career opportunities. Therefore, it is incumbent upon public community college administrators to invest more money into programs specifically designed to help "special populations" improve their academic skills. This means mandating and funding staff development activities which familiarize instructors with classic texts concerning educational

philosophies that will help broaden the instructors' pedagogical knowledge so that they can help to improve the academic deficiencies of disadvantaged students so that more of them will graduate.

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APPENDIX A

EAST CENTRAL ILLINOIS STEERING COMMITTEE ROSTER

EAST CENTRAL ILLINOIS STEERING COMMITTEE: ROSTER

Chairman:	Henry L. Green, 608 Pennsylvania, Urbana, Illinois	367-6880
Vice Chairman:	Dr. Lowell B. Fisher, 711 Delaware, Urbana, Illinois	367-1894
Secretary:	Elisabeth Jane Levine, 1203 W. Church, Champaign, Illinois	356-8276
Treasurer:	Ernest M. Harshbarger, Court House, Urbana, Illinois	367-2806
Coordinator of Program Information:	David C. Krivan, 1905 Bellamy Drive, Champaign, Illinois	352-8253

ECISC Office: 101 No. McCullough, Urbana, Illinois (217) 367 - 8401, Ext. 61

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	Fred Bohn	Broadlands
	John Mathews	Tolono
	Howard Koerner	Sidney
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	A.J. McKinney	Paxton
	Raymond A. Quinlan	Monticello
	William W. Froom	Champaign
	Dr. Ray H. Braun	Urbana
	C.W. Barnes	Monticello
	Norman R. Weller	Arcola
	Wayne Niewold	Paxton

Consultants to the ECISC:

M. Ray Karnes, Ph.D., Professor of Vocational & Technical Education, Head of Department, University of Illinois, Urbana — 333-2839

Jerry S. Dobrovolny, M.S., Professor of General Engineering, Head of Department, University of Illinois, Urbana — 333-2730

Address all correspondence to: East Central Illinois Steering Committee
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Final Revision 2/16/66

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William W. Froom, Board Pres.

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Carroll Garrison, Unit Sup't.
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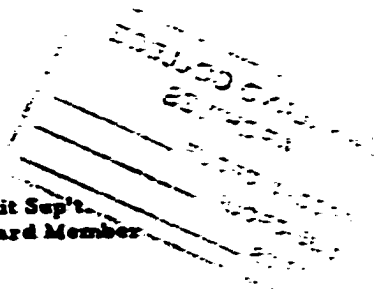

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APPENDIX B

FIGURES SHOWING ICCB ANNUAL APPROPRIATION FOR DISADVANTAGED STUDENT GRANTS FOR YEARS 1976-1996

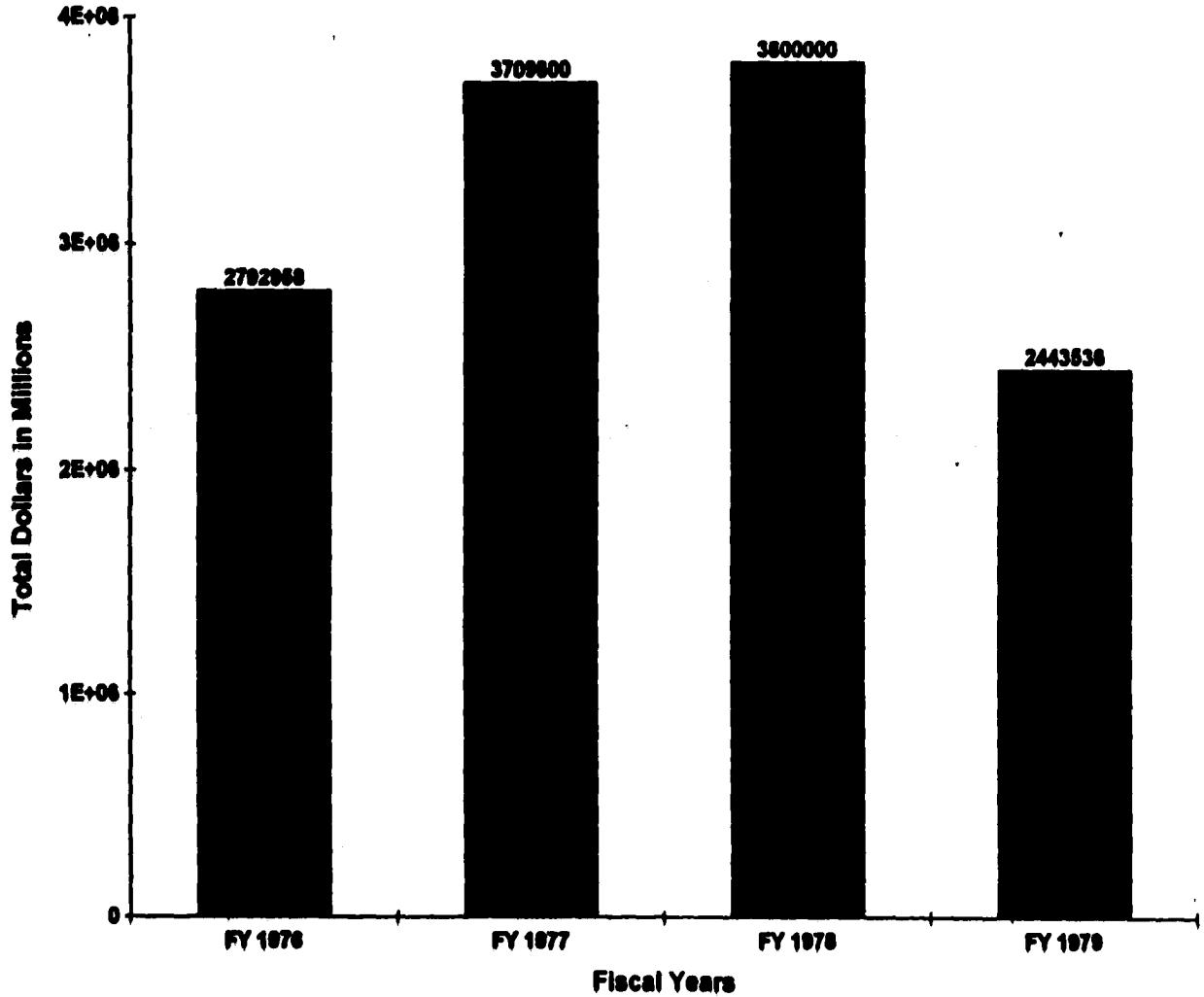

Figure B1. ICCB appropriation for Disadvantaged Student Grant for Illinois public community colleges for FY 1976-1979. From *Illinois Community College Board Disadvantaged Student Grant Program for Illinois Public Community Colleges FY 1976-1979.*

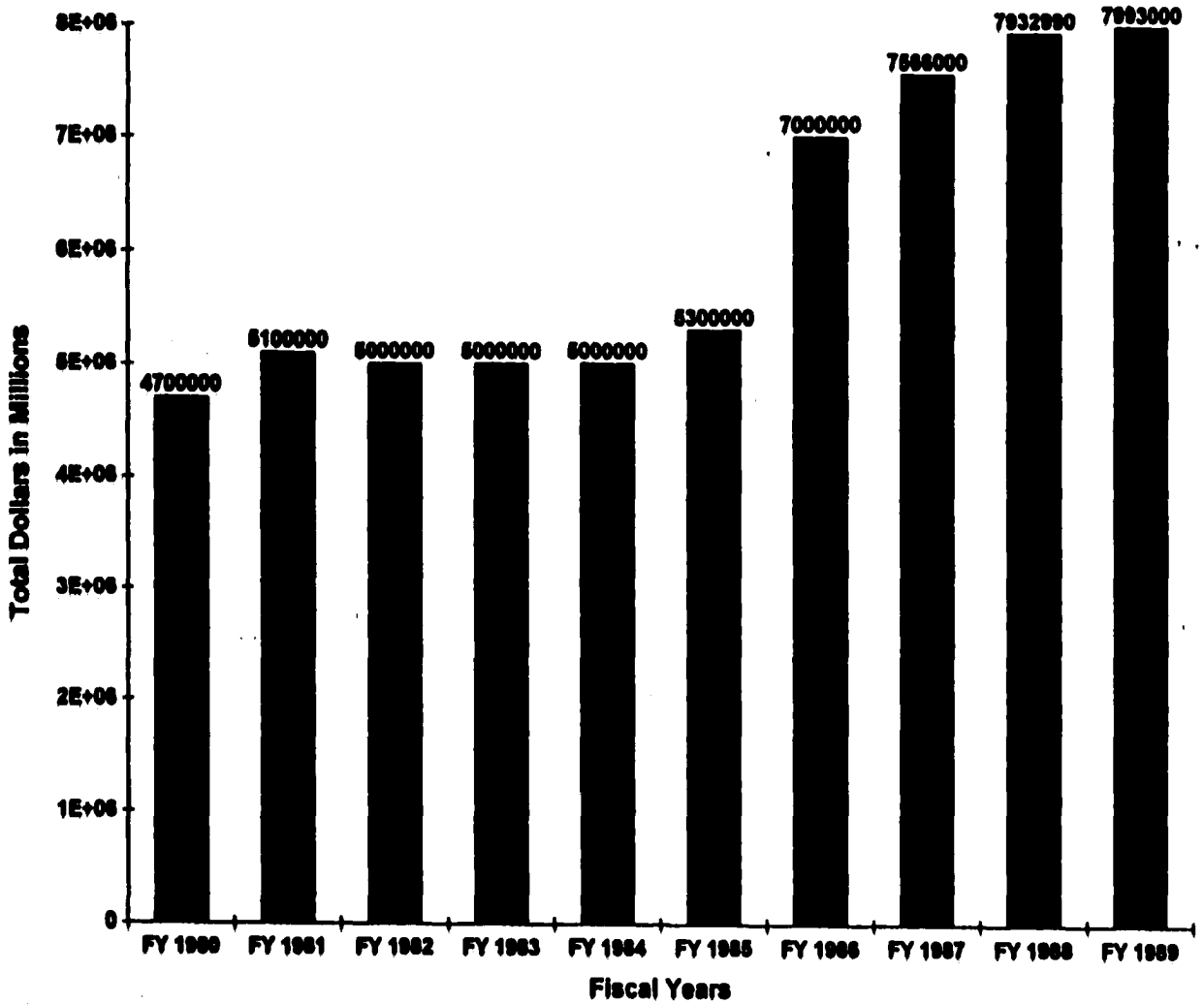

Figure B2. ICCB annual appropriations for Disadvantaged Student Grants for Illinois public community colleges FY 1980-1989. From *Disadvantaged Student Grant Report for Illinois Public Community Colleges FY 1980-1989.*

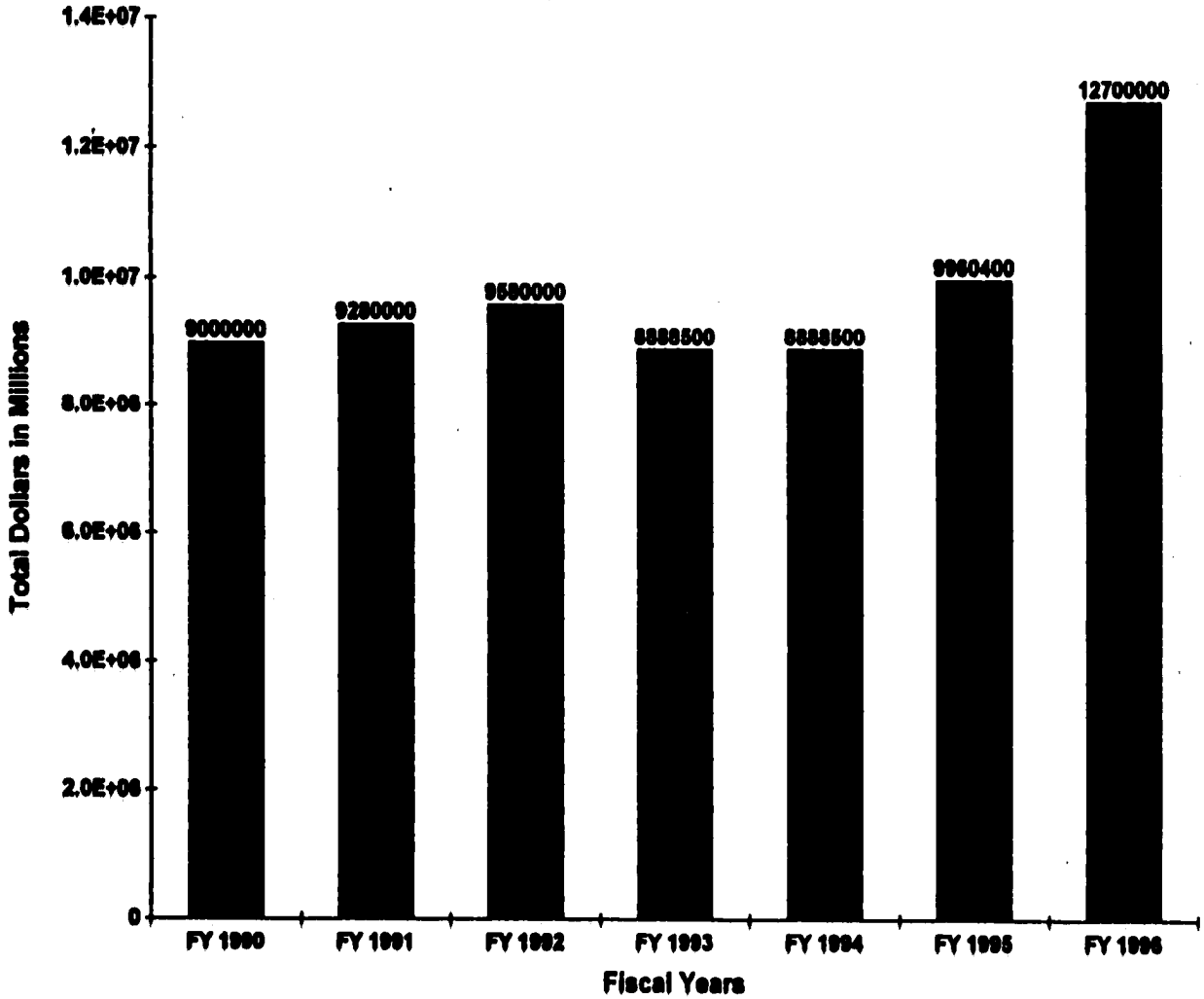

Figure B3. ICCB annual appropriations for Special Populations Grant for Illinois public community colleges FY 1990-1996. From *Illinois Detailed Annual Report of Revenue and Expenditures FY 1990-1996.*

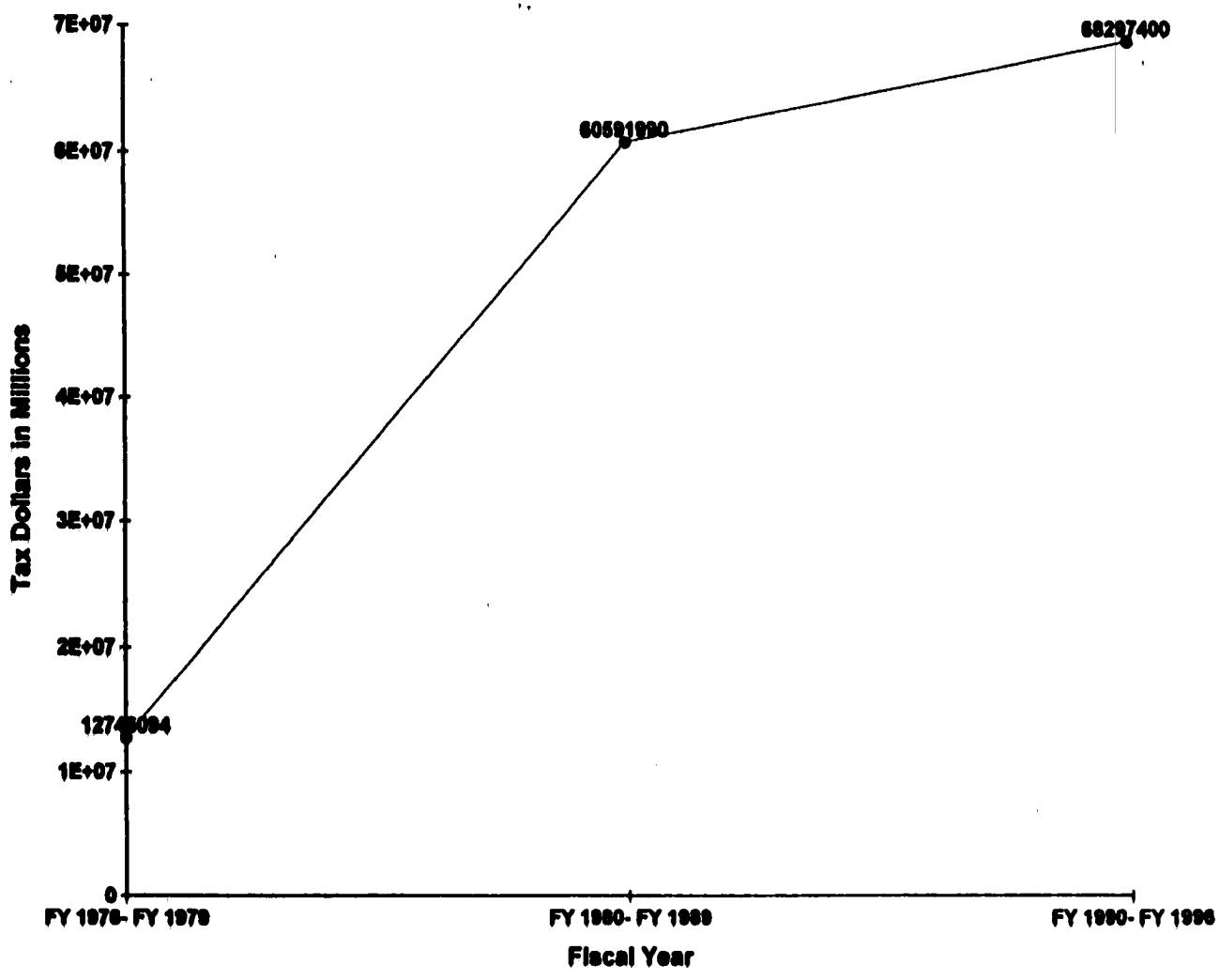

Figure B4. Total tax dollars allocated for disadvantaged students FY 1976-1989 and underrepresented students FY 1990-1996. From *Compilation of Disadvantaged and Underrepresented Student Grant Annual Reports.*

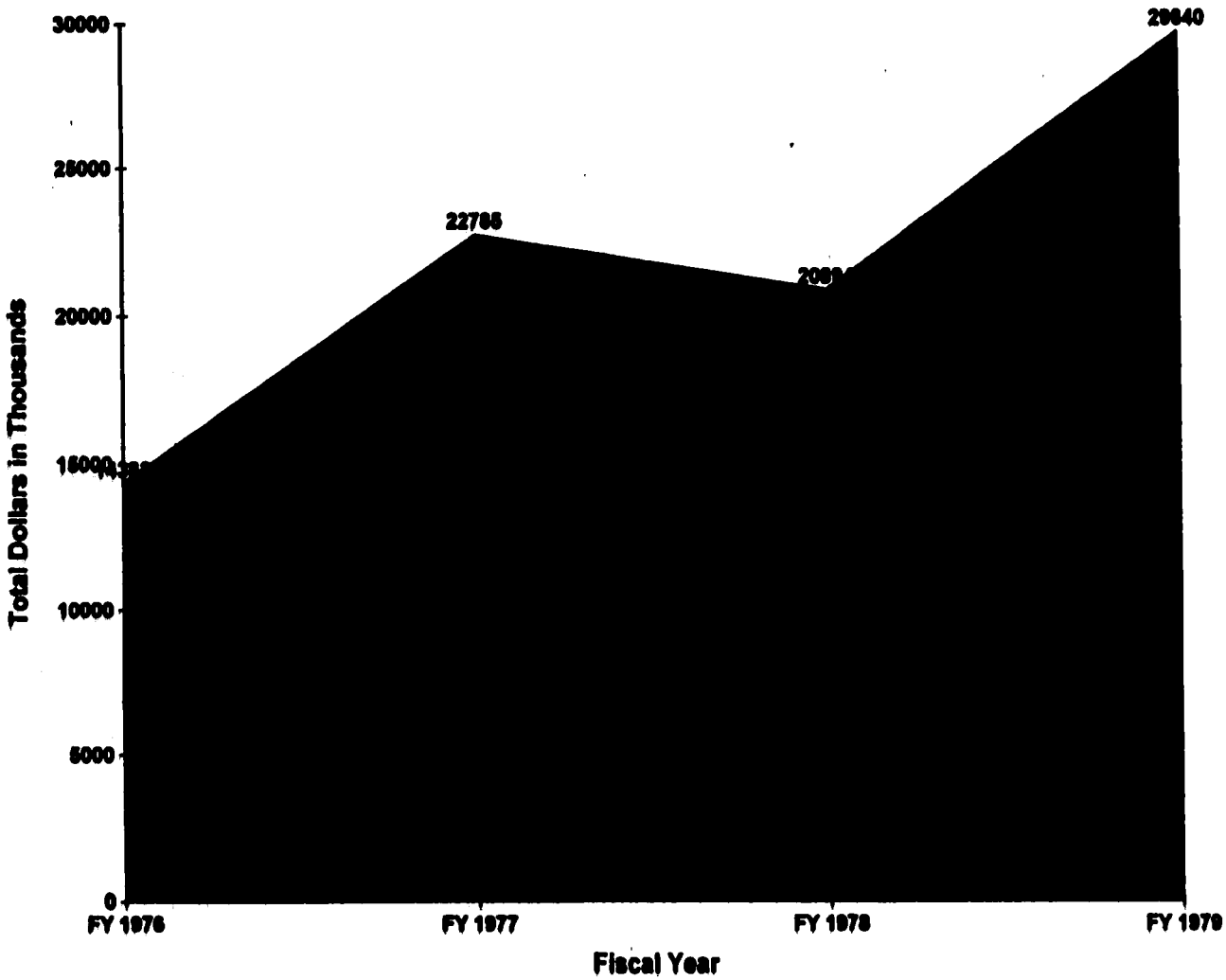

Figure B5. Tax dollars allocated to Parkland College to serve disadvantaged students FY 1976-1979. From *Illinois Community College Board Disadvantaged Student Grant Program for Illinois Public Community Colleges FY 1976-1979.*

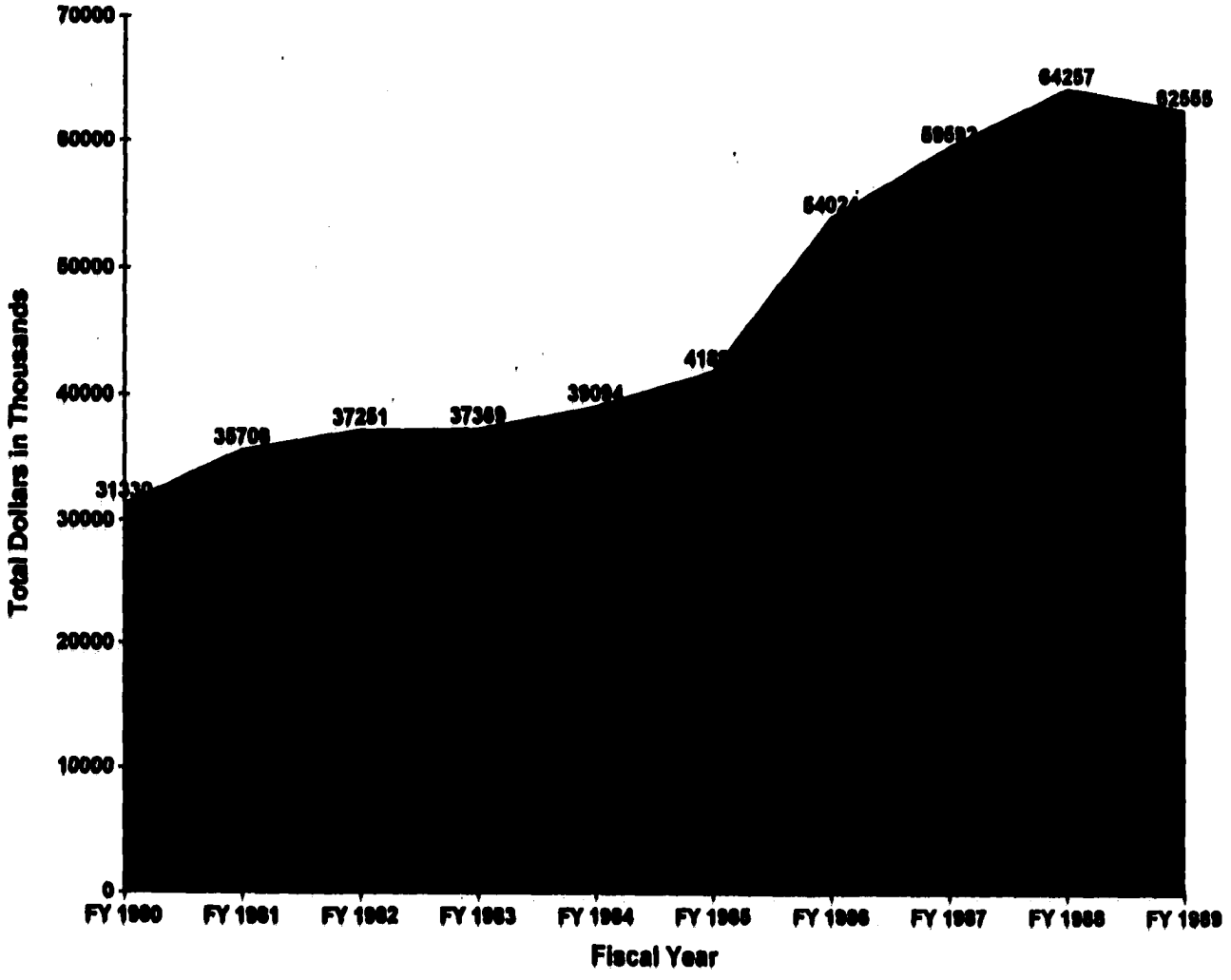

Figure B6. Tax dollars allocated to Parkland College to serve disadvantaged students FY 1980-1989. From *Disadvantaged Student Grant Report for Illinois Public Community Colleges FY 1980-1989.*

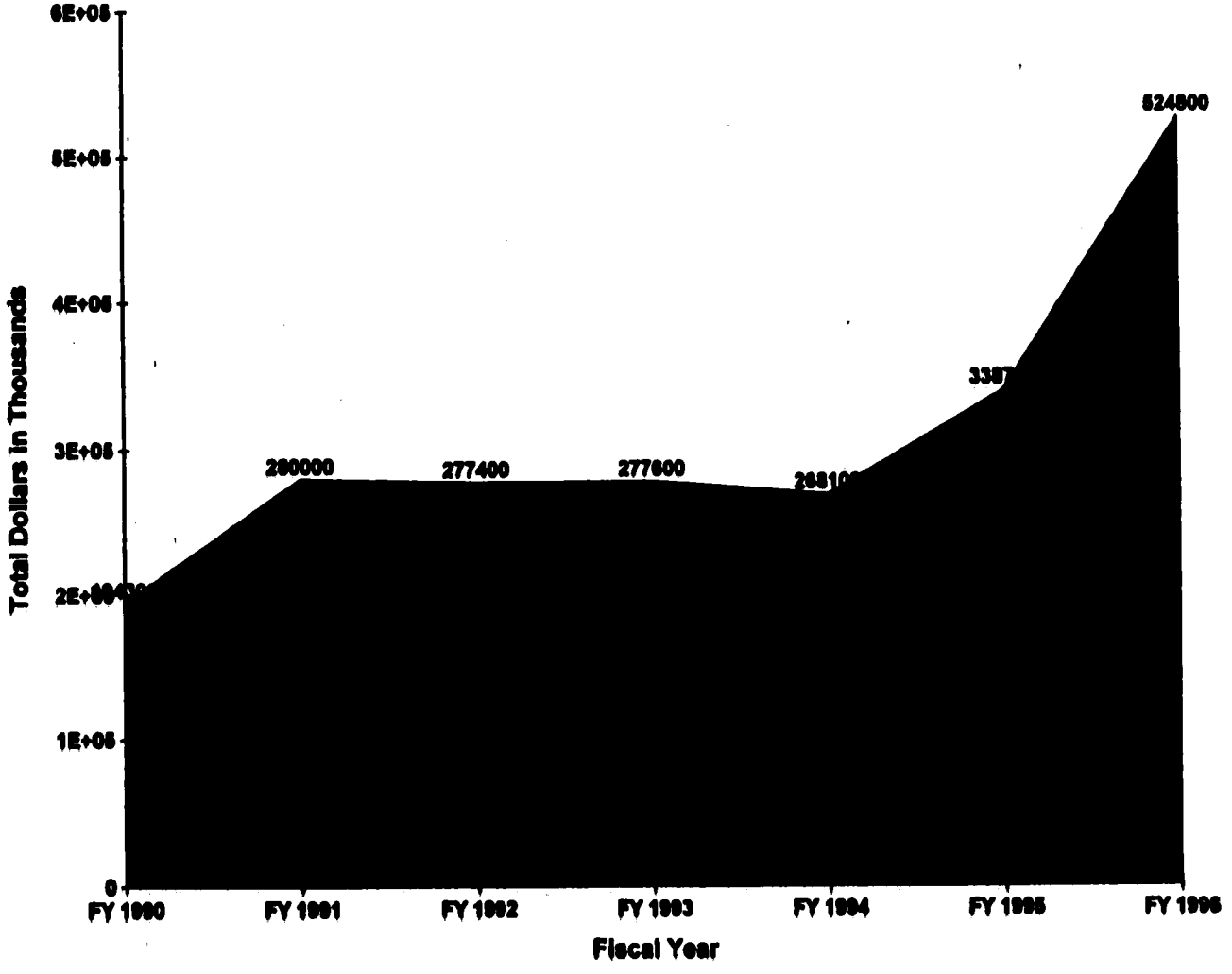

Figure B7. Tax dollars allocated to Parkland College to serve underrepresented students FY 1990-1996. From *Report to the Governor on Underrepresented Groups in Public Institutions of Higher Education in Illinois FY 1990-1996.*

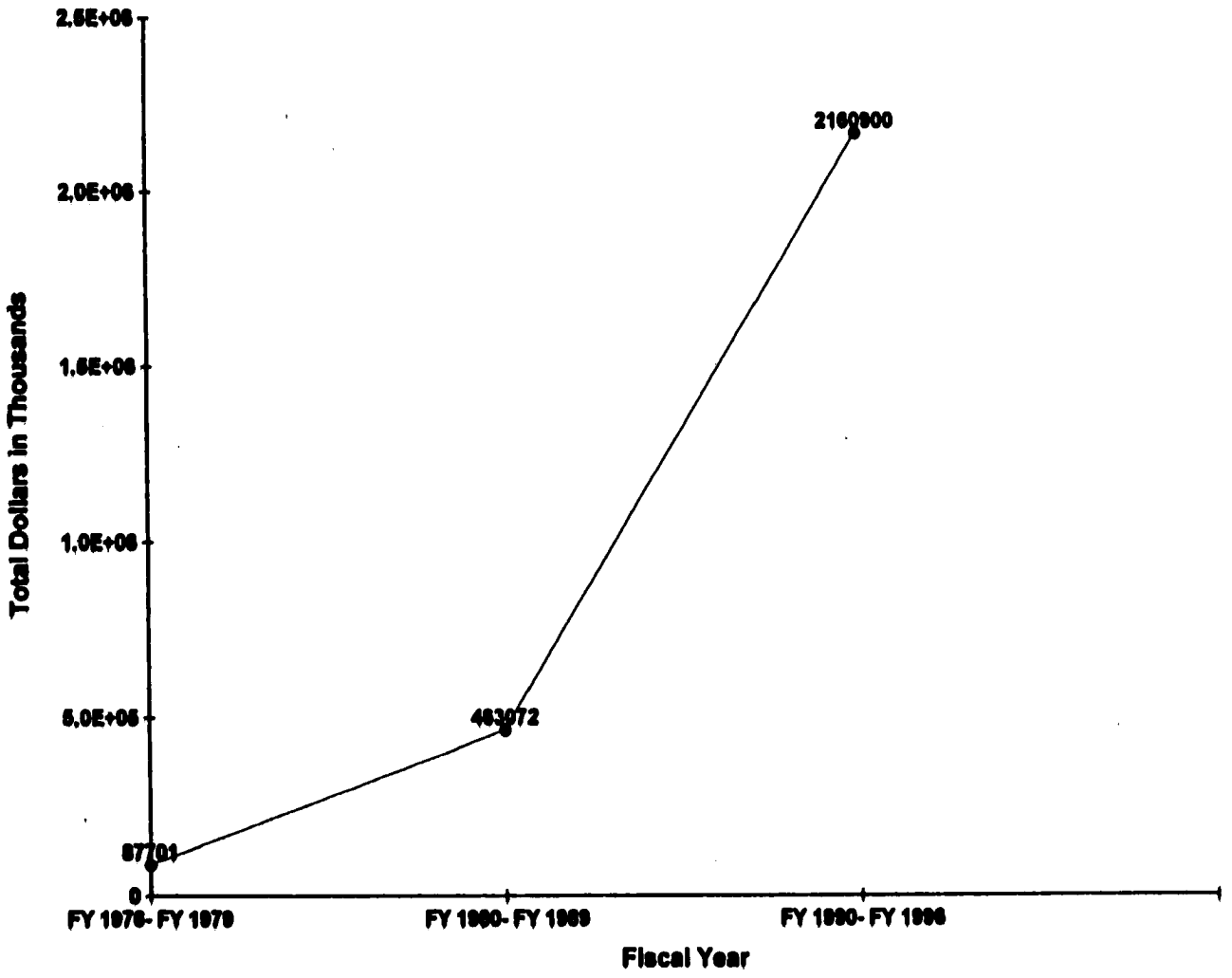

Figure B8. Tax dollars allocated to Parkland College to serve disadvantaged students and underrepresented students FY 1976-1996. From *Disadvantaged Student Grant Annual Reports FY 1976-1989 and Illinois Detailed Annual Report of Revenues and Expenditures FY 1990-1996.*

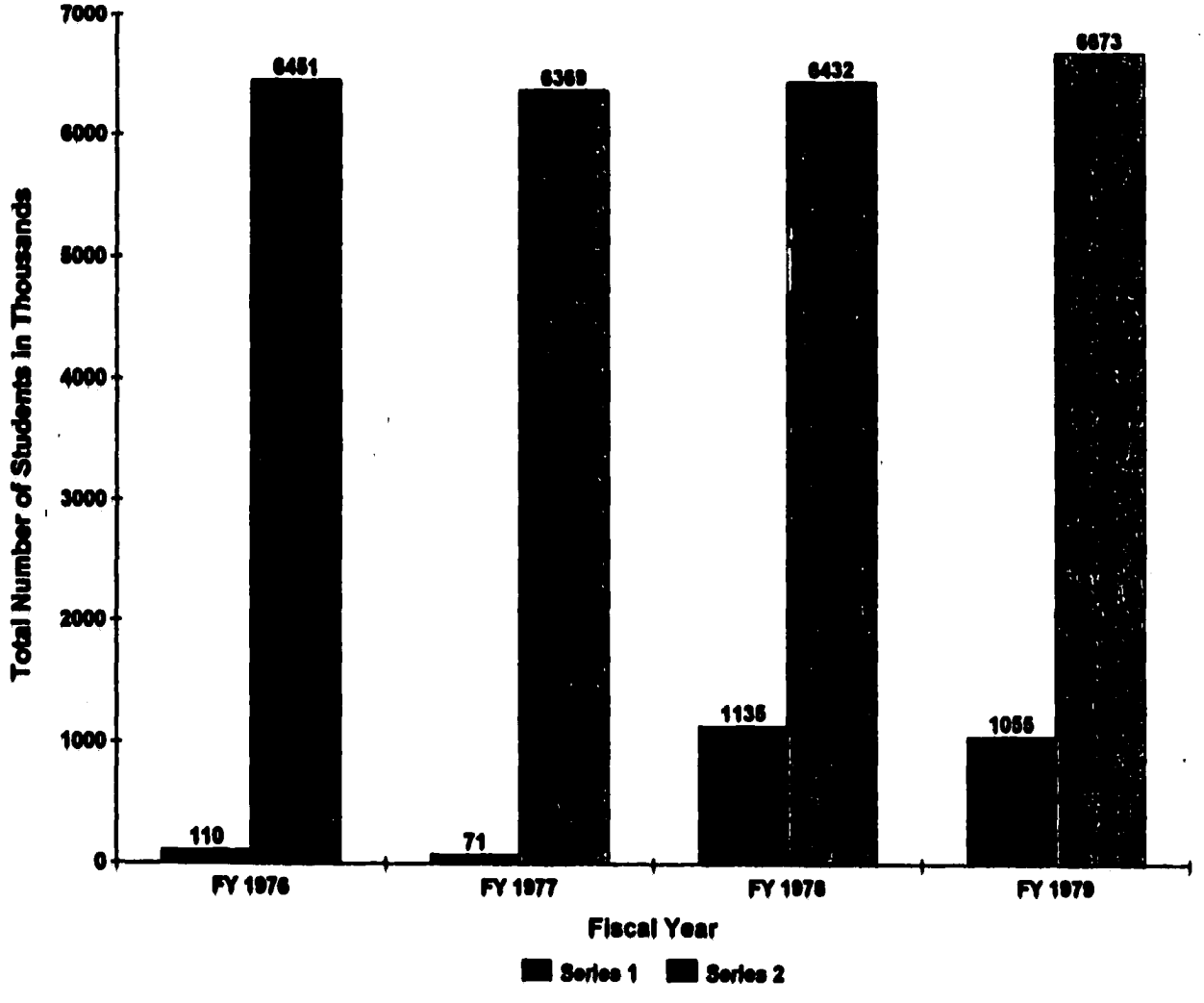

Figure B9. Total number of students served and enrolled through the Disadvantaged Student Grant at Parkland College FY 1976-1979. From *Office of Institutional Research and Evaluation, Series 1: Students Served; Series 2: Total Number of Students.*

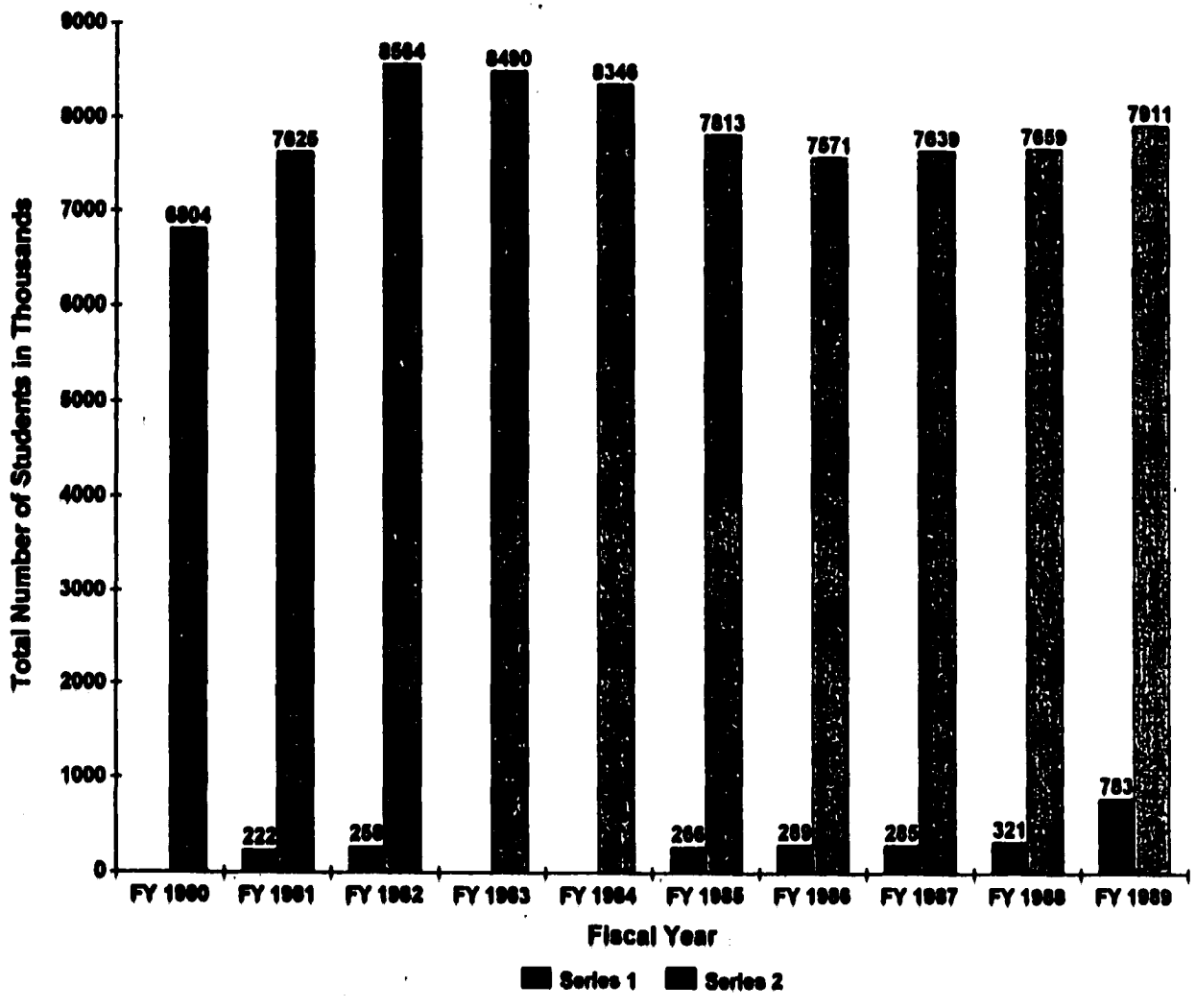

Figure B10., Total number of students served and enrolled through the Disadvantaged Student Grant at Parkland College FY 1980-1989. From *Office of Institutional Research and Evaluation, Series 1: Students Served; Series 2: Total Number of Students.*

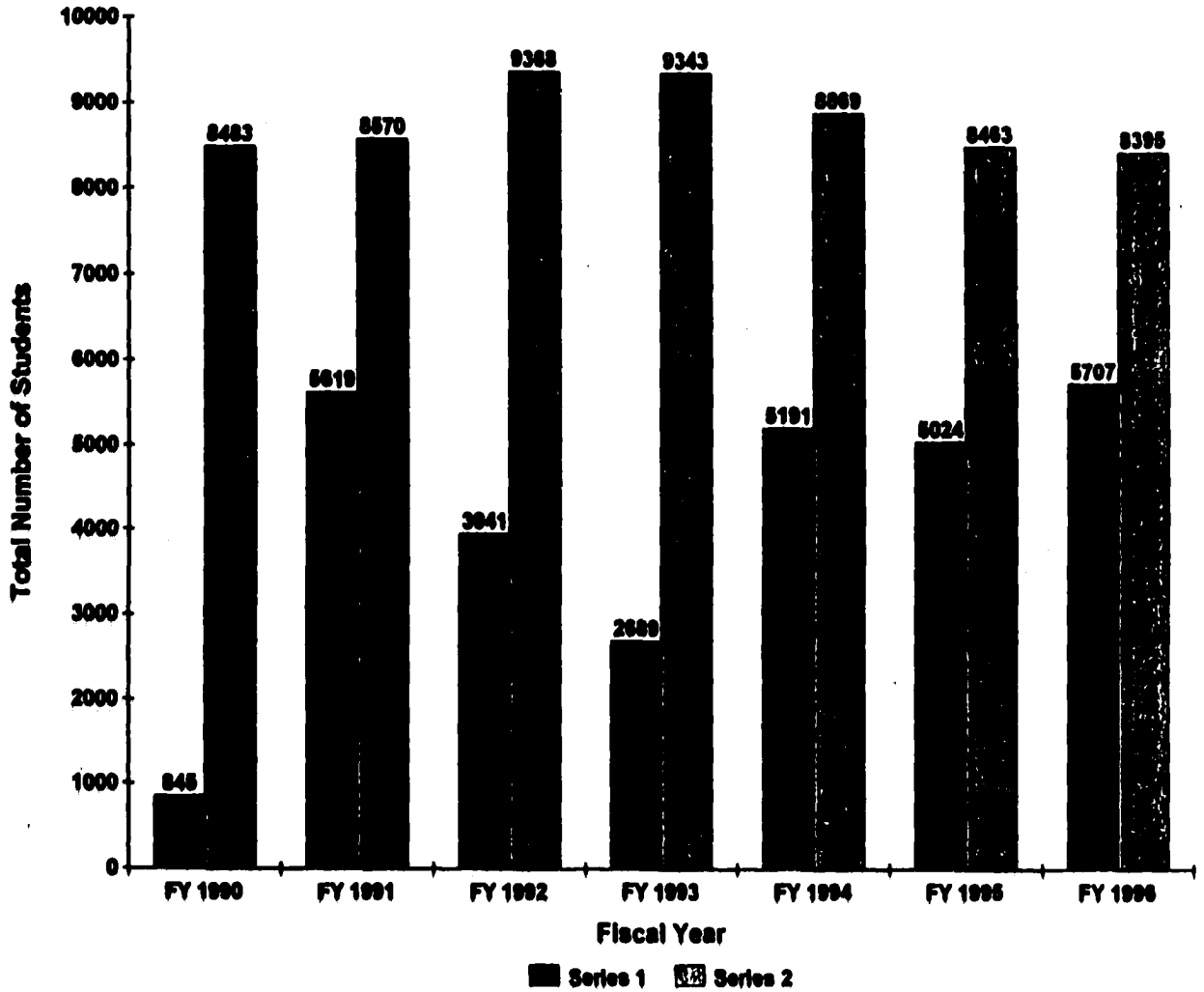

Figure B11. Total number of students served and enrolled through the Special Populations Grant at Parkland College FY 1990-1996. From *Office of Institutional Research, Series 1: Students serviced; Series 2: Total Number of Students.*

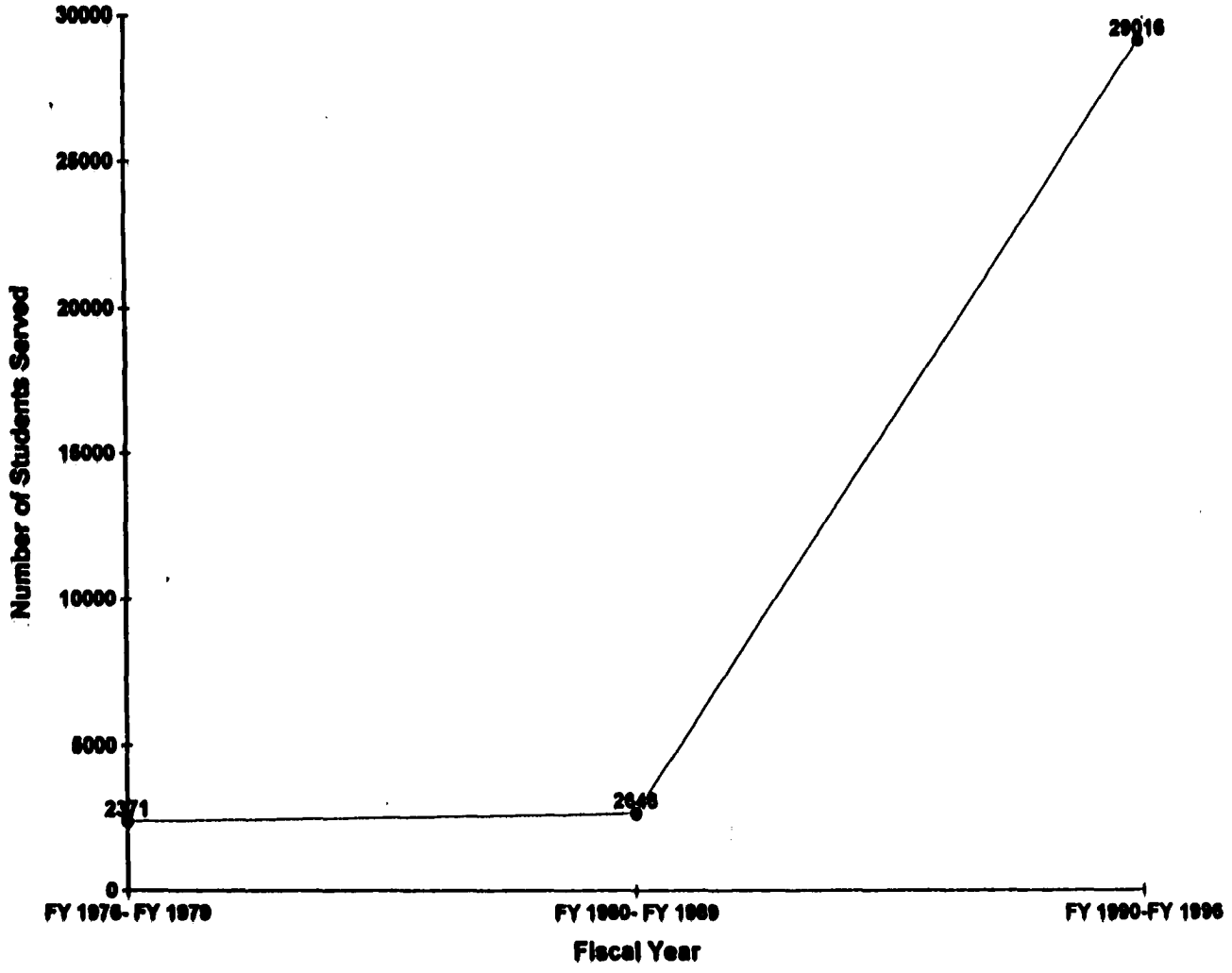

Figure B12. Total number of students served through the Disadvantaged Student Grant and Special Populations Grant at Parkland College for FY 1976-1996. From *Parkland College Office of Institutional Research and Evaluation.*

APPENDIX C

ICCB DISADVANTAGED STUDENT GRANT PROGRAM EVALUATION FOR YEAR 1980

Addendum

Illinois Community College Board
Table IV

DISADVANTAGED STUDENT GRANT PROGRAM
EVALUATION

Dist. No.	Dist./Campus Name	Did your educational program conduct a needs assessment?	Did you document why there is a need of Disadvantaged Student Grant Program services at the institution?	Did your educational program include a component for counseling, pre-service, in-service training and other staff development activities?	Did your educational program serve institutionalized adults?	Did your educational program serve older citizens? (Age 55 and above)	Did your educational program serve immigrants?	Did your educational program serve handicapped adults?
501	Kaskaskia	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
502	DuPage	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Main	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
	Open	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
503	Black Hawk	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Quad	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no
	East	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no	no
504	Triton	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
505	Parkland	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
506	Sauk Valley	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
507	Danville	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	no
508	Chicago	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Kennedy-King	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Loop	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Malcolm X	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Truman	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Olive-Harvey	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Daley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Wilbur Wright	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Urban Skills	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	City-wide	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
509	Elgin	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	no
510	Thornton	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
511	Rock Valley	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
512	Harper	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
513	Ill. Valley	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
514	Ill. Central	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
515	Prairie State	yes	yes	yes	N/A	yes	yes	yes
516	Waubonsee	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
517	Lake Land	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
518	Sandburg	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
519	Highland	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
520	Kankakee	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
521	Rend Lake	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
522	Belleville	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
523	Kishwaukee	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
524	Moraine Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
525	Joliet	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
526	Lincoln Land	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
527	Morton	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
528	McHenry	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
529	Ill. Eastern	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Lincoln Trail	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Olney Central	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Wabash Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Frontier	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
530	Logan	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
531	Shawnee	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
532	Lake County	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
533	Southeastern	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
534	Spoon River	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes
535	Oakton	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
536	Lewis & Clark	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
537	Richland	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
539	John Wood	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes

Illinois Community College Board
Table IV
(Continued)

DISADVANTAGED STUDENT GRANT PROGRAM EVALUATION

Dist. No.	Dist./Campus Name	Did your educational program offer vocational and technical training?	Did your educational program provide remedial?	Did your educational program provide tutoring?	Did your educational program provide child care and/or early childhood development services?	Did your educational program provide transportation services?	Did your educational program offer information and referral services?	Did your educational program provide placement/program testing procedures?
501	Kaskaskia	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
502	Lake	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Main	no	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes
	Joen	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
503	Black Hawk	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Quad	no	no	no	no	yes	no	no
	East	N/A	no	no	no	yes	no	yes
504	Triton	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
505	Parkland	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
506	Sauk Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
507	Danville	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
508	Chicago	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Harvey-King	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	Loop	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
	Malcolm X	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	Truman	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	Olive-Harvey	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
	Daley	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
	Wilbur Wright	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
	Urban Skills	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	City-Wide	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
509	Elgin	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
510	Thornton	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
511	Rock Valley	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
512	Wamac	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes
513	Ill. Valley	no	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes
514	Ill. Central	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
515	Prairie State	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
516	Wisconsin	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
517	Lake Land	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
518	Sandburg	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
519	Highland	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
520	Kankakee	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
521	Kaskaskia	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
522	Belleville	no	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes
523	Kishwaukee	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
524	Moraine Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
525	Joliet	no	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes
526	Lincoln Land	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
527	Morton	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
528	Wheaty	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no
529	Ill. Eastern	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Lincoln Trail	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
	Olney Central	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	Wabash Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	Frontier	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
530	Logan	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
531	Shawnee	no	yes	no	no	no	no	no
532	Lake County	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
533	Southeastern	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes
534	Spoon River	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
535	Jackson	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes
536	Lewis & Clark	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
537	Richland	no	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes
539	John Wood	no	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes

Illinois Community College Board
Table IV
(Continued)

DISADVANTAGED STUDENT GRANT PROGRAM
EVALUATION

Dist. No.	Dist./Campus Name	Did your educational program serve minority groups?	Did your educational program serve adults with limited English speaking ability?	Did your educational program offer Adult Basic Education instruction? (Basic skills 8th grade level or below)	Did your educational program offer General Education Development? (Grades 9-12 secondary diploma or equiv.)	Did your educational program offer instruction in life skills? (Other than employability skills)	Did your educational program offer instruction in remedial/developmental instruction?	Did your educational program provide employability skills instruction?
301	Kaskaskia	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
302	DuPage	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Main	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Open	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
303	Black Hawk	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Quad	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
	East	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes	no
304	Triton	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes
305	Parkland	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
306	Sauk Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
307	Danville	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes
308	Chicago	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Kennedy-King	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Loop	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Malcolm X	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Truman	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Olive-Harvey	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Daley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Wilbur Wright	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Urban Skills	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	City-Wide	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
309	Elgin	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
310	Thornton	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
311	Rock Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
312	Harper	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
313	Ill. Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes
314	Ill. Central	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
315	Prairie State	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
316	Waubonsee	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
317	Lake Land	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
318	Sandburg	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
319	Highland	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
320	Kankakee	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
321	Rend Lake	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
322	Belleville	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
323	Kishwaukee	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
324	Moraine Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
325	Joliet	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
326	Lincoln Land	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	no
327	Morton	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
328	McHenry	no	yes	no	no	yes	no	no
329	Ill. Eastern	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Lincoln Trail	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Olney Central	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Wabash Valley	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	Frontier	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
330	Logan	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
331	Shawnee	no	no	no	yes	no	yes	no
332	Lake County	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
333	Southeastern	yes	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes
334	Spoon River	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
335	Oakton	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes	no
336	Lewis & Clark	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
337	Richland	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
339	John Wood	yes	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes

VITA

Eric Vaughn Blacknall was born in the South Bronx in New York City, where he attended public schools. He received his Bachelor of Science degree in 1989 and Master of Art degree in 1994 from State University of New York at Binghamton. While pursuing his doctorate at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, he worked as a full-time faculty member in the Adult and Continuing Education Department at Parkland College. Eric now resides in California where he works as an Administrator for the Los Angeles Community College District.