

# Concurrent Enrollment Review

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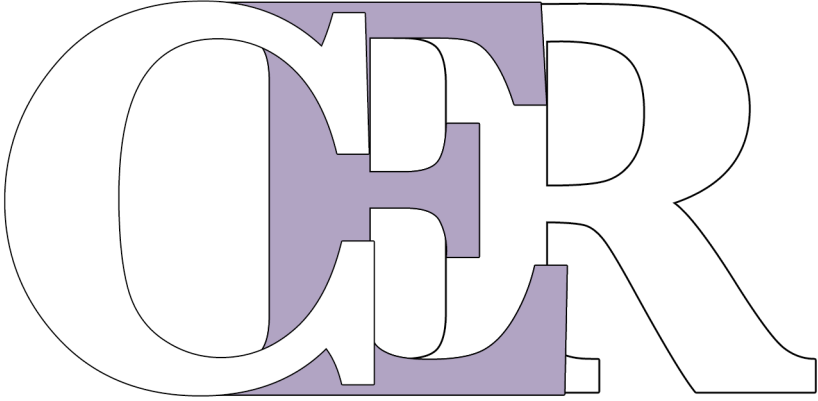
## Concurrent Enrollment Review

Volume One  
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Concurrent Enrollment Review

Volume 1

Fall 2023

Syracuse University Libraries  
Syracuse, New York

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# Concurrent Enrollment Review

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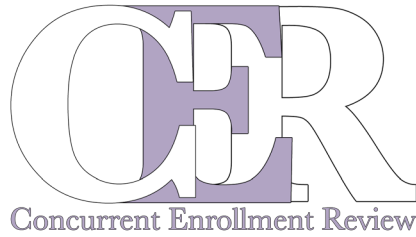
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## Editorial Procedure

In keeping with the interdisciplinary spirit, the journal peer review system in which reviewers are drawn from disciplines relevant to the article itself. These reviewers are encouraged to provide substantive, constructive feedback for each submission.



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## EDITORS' INTRODUCTION

Brian A. Boecherer  
Melanie Nappa Carroll  
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Christopher Todd

Welcome to the first volume of the *Concurrent Enrollment Review* (CER). To mark the occasion, the editorial board decided to contribute an introductory piece to give context to the journal and to clarify why we believe there is a need to establish a site for scholarly debate focused on dual and concurrent enrollment (DE/CE). Our mission with the CER and its supporting bibliography on DE/CE in Zotero is an attempt to establish a home of multidisciplinary research to answer the question, *What is Concurrent Enrollment?* In asking what it is, we are inherently asking what it does, how it is different and/or similar from other academic disciplines, how and whether it is successful, and what are its limitations or unrealized opportunities for growth. Indeed, in exploring the identity of dual and concurrent enrollment, we can start to clearly define its many faces, test its limits, question its ethics and assumptions, develop new hypotheses and knowledge, and improve better practices within it, both pedagogically and administratively. Our hope is that our collective efforts can clarify and thereby claim DE/CE, not only as a mode of education, but also as a tool for social justice, as an academic subdiscipline that interacts with other disciplines, as well as an area of standards, policy, and law. The goals of the CER are to invite scholars, practitioners, and policy experts to build the identity of DE/CE through research, analysis, and critical scrutiny. This introduction, then, is designed to welcome a diverse community to read and contribute to the CER, provide the context for the CER's origins, and to expose future areas of study to distinguish DE/CE. Please accept this as an invitation to read the articles, consider their impact,

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discuss them with your colleagues, use them in your work, and contribute your own ideas to future volumes.

## ORIGINS OF THE *CER*

An origin story is different from a history as it only shows the pivot points that help to create something. The *CER* finds its origins in the professional network and accreditation organization of the National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP). The editorial board started to form around individuals who regularly presented research that critically tested definitions, hypotheses, and implications of DE/CE. Some of the earliest presentations from this group go back to 2004 when NACEP hosted their national conference in Boise, Idaho. Indeed, while a diverse variety of NACEP presenters offered research throughout the years of annual presentations, the *CER* editorial board, in its current iteration, started to meet informally around 2015 to discuss theory and approaches to DE/CE and whether NACEP could ever serve as an academic home for DE/CE. Syracuse University (Melanie Nappa Carroll and Sean M. Conrey) served as the original center of gravity for the nascent editorial board, inviting conversations and co-presenting with the University of Connecticut (Brian Boecherer) and eventually Boise State University (Fabiola Juarez-Coca). Over time the editorial board presented at the annual NACEP meetings on the need for an academic journal, which garnered attention and by 2019, at the annual NACEP conference in Salt Lake City, Utah, the editorial board presented a strategic plan for the *CER* to a room where seats were filled and walls were lined. The interest and desire from the NACEP community was clear; the *CER* was something that the community wanted as a tool for advancing institutional programs, public policy, and social justice.

For the next two years the editorial board met to develop the organization, standards, and name of the journal. Boise State University, Syracuse University, and the University of Connecticut co-sponsored the creation of the journal. The University of Pittsburgh's Michael Giazzoni as well as Boise State University's Nicole Chodkowski were invited to the editorial board in 2022. Leadership at the University of Connecticut shifted, whereby the former director Brian Boecherer started a DE/CE consultancy to support the development of DE/CE especially for the benefit of underserved students, and the new director at the University of Connecticut, Christopher Todd, was invited to join the board. Over 80 years of direct experience in DE/CE are represented in the editorial board, including program leadership, secondary and postsecondary leadership and teaching, academic training, and policy work.

The widespread need for the *CER* also helped to develop the structure of the journal. That is, the *CER* is meant to inform those who engage with DE/CE and develop DE/CE to benefit students, teachers, and programs – indeed, a varied and diverse group. On the broadest level, we see three general populations who would benefit from reading, using, and publishing with the *CER* – academics, DE/CE program practitioners, and policymakers. These groups are broadly defined, and individuals in these groups overlap. They also have different objectives, backgrounds, training, and priorities. Editorial board members are also part of one, two, and/or all three of these broad groups. External reviewers for the journal also inhabit these different spaces so that the articles are reviewed appropriately. But because the audience is diverse, so must be the articles, as well as the resources to achieve our aforementioned goals. To that end, the *CER* has two complementing parts – the journal itself (which we have discussed thus far) and the bibliography of peer-reviewed articles that can benefit our audience. Utilizing a Zotero bibliographic site, the *CER* has and will continue to hire a staff librarian to catalog peer-reviewed articles on DE/CE in the hope that this growing repository will support the enterprise of answering the question, *What is Concurrent Enrollment?*

## **AREAS OF PUBLICATION**

With the first volume completed, the editorial board can say that we have already learned a thing or two through trial, error, and hours of discussion and deliberation. As we wish to attract a diverse array of scholarship, we needed to stake out areas of publication so that standards were set to match the area of contribution. Those areas match the broadly-identified groups above: academics, practitioners, and policymakers. The following is an outline of what those areas look like.

### *Program Evaluation, Research, and Development*

Program Evaluation, Research and Development papers engage with the details of program implementation, collegiate environments, and advancing the development of dual and concurrent enrollment. Articles in this domain utilize primary data and source materials from concurrent and dual enrollment programs. These manuscripts create a recursive loop of practice, research, and policy, whereby each of the three influence the others and, thereby, develop DE/CE – in practice, research, and policy.

Publishing Philosophy for Program Evaluation, Research, and Development: These manuscripts will present case studies and/or deliberative research grounded in qualitative and/or quantitative data to inform the community. Situating research

within the current literature is important for setting the foundation of such articles, as well as setting standards for how scholars contribute knowledge to the field. To that end, scholars should research precedent scholarship to embed themselves in, and converse with, other scholars and studies. They are invited to explore and contribute to the Zotero bibliography and cite relevant parallel or perpendicular studies.

### *Academic Scholarship/Systematic Review*

Academic scholarship engages primarily with extant literature, theorizing and developing new knowledge that may have implications for dual and concurrent enrollment practice and policy. These manuscripts are expected to be up-to-date with the literature and engage with it on a scholarly level. This area also crosses over into the policy and practitioner realms.

Publishing Philosophy for Academic Scholarship/Systematic Review: Academic studies situate themselves in academic literature reviews. These literature reviews may be DE/CE-focused, or discipline-focused (composition studies, equity literature, etc.).

### *Policy Studies/Policy Briefs*

Policy Studies/Policy Briefs focus on the policy and finance side of DE/CE. These manuscripts may often engage with issues of funding, accreditation, and secondary school and postsecondary (grades 9-16) state requirements. These manuscripts will inform and impact the work of DE/CE practitioners as well as other state educational stakeholders.

Publishing Philosophy for Policy Studies/Policy Briefs: These manuscripts are similar to those focused on *Program Evaluation, Research, and Development* and should use qualitative and/or quantitative research, primary documents, and first-hand accounts to frame their arguments. They are different from program research, however, as they can stand alone more easily, as they describe, explore, and challenge DE/CE policy, which may be hyper-focused on a singular program, policy, or legislative initiative within a localized context. Scholars submitting this kind of work may find it useful or necessary to compare and critically engage with other scholars, and if so, they are similarly invited to explore and contribute to the Zotero bibliography and cite their relevant exploration of parallel or perpendicular studies.

## CONCLUSION

The *CER* finds its strength in its diversity and its independence. While all editorial board members are associated with the National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships, the *CER* is wholly independent from NACEP. This is an important distinction for both the journal and NACEP itself. While many professional academic associations do have their own publications (e.g., American Political Science Association, the Conference on College Composition and Communication, etc.) the academic disciplines that these associations serve are not analyzing their own legitimacy as they are providing platforms for established fields, analyzing phenomena in their areas, employing accepted methodologies, and debating the results within their disciplines. The *CER* is multidisciplinary, and, as DE/CE is not yet an established field, it is part of many fields. Moreover, the *CER* is not only investigating the social, political, cultural, and educational impact of DE/CE, it is engaging with the legitimacy of programming, standards, laws, impacts, and what claims may be attributable to DE/CE. For that, a level of separation from the National Alliance is necessary and beneficial for both organizations.

The *CER* is a space for research to show the strengths, weaknesses, and new directions of DE/CE. We expect the journal to show the boundaries of the field as well as where DE/CE can interact with various educational disciplines and policy spaces. We hope that the *CER* will be a home for many new and established scholars, veteran practitioners, and policy specialists. We believe this first volume helps stake out directions for new inquiry and we look forward to seeing how it evolves with your contribution.



## FORMATIVE THREADS IN THE TAPESTRY OF COLLEGE CREDIT IN HIGH SCHOOL

An Early History of the Development of  
Concurrent Enrollment and a Case Study of the  
Country's Oldest Program

Carissa Rutkauskas and Kathrine Grant

### INTRODUCTION

New England, a region long known for its ingenuity and creativity, served as the nation's launching point for the industrial revolution and the innovations that followed. Throughout the century leading into the industrial revolution, and the subsequent centuries, communities across Connecticut were shaped in large part by the growth of the textile industry and mills that became foundational components of their community's infrastructure through World War One. While demand for materials began to drop by the 1920s, and Connecticut's abundant textile mills shrank considerably into the 1950s, other regional innovations were on the horizon. Created by independent threads of ideas spanning time, space, and disciplines, the state's flagship university was to become home to the oldest and longest running concurrent enrollment program in the country: the University of Connecticut's Early College Experience Program (UConn ECE, "About Us").

In tune with the verbiage of the time, UConn's "High School Cooperative Program for Superior Students" held its first classes in 1955-56 school year. University-certified high school instructors taught UConn classes at seven area high schools where 112 students took courses, with 76 earning a total of 126 credits

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in nine different courses (High School Co-Op Program Report, 1956). The new program model was created during a period of massive change in the United States and during a time of great innovation. Across the country, educational initiatives in response to wartime efforts, expanding attainment of terminal degrees, the need for an educated workforce, and attending to the needs of “superior students” were in full swing. There was a focus on how to best serve students on the cusp of graduating from high school and entering college, considering articulation between the two institutions, and when and how to accelerate the most advanced students.

Today, in many cases, dual and concurrent enrollment (DE/CE) has evolved to be an inclusive practice, offering high school students a breadth of technical and academic college courses, hosted by two-year community colleges and four-year colleges and universities. UConn’s program, along with its name change, now has the mission of “access to, and preparation for, higher education,” and has grown to a program that enrolls over 15,000 students in 186 high schools around the state (UConn ECE, “Data”). Access is not restricted to “superior” students who must achieve minimum acceptable scores on standardized tests, but rather the responsibility of student stewardship is placed on UConn ECE Site Representatives, high school counselors who act as liaisons between UConn ECE and the high school. Students have the opportunity to select from 87 unique courses, ranging from traditional Liberal Arts and Sciences courses such as First Year Writing, World History, or Chemistry, to specialized and contemporary courses such as Asian American Studies, Applied Mechanics, and Digital Media and Design (UConn ECE, “Courses”).

This paper tells two stories: (1) that of the formative ideas leading to modern day DE/CE and (2) how one Connecticut program grew, adapted, and persisted through 68 years of changing political and social ebbs and flows to serve the students within its borders. It explores strands of related academic and educational efforts that were occurring in the early half of the twentieth century that led to direct and indirect influence on DE/CE models. The goal of exploring both the national and local context is to demonstrate the aligned, but siloed, evolution of accelerated and enriched learning for students that led to the development of modern day DE/CE. Through showing the broader context first, we are then able to demonstrate how one institution reflects these disparate threads coming together to create a CE program. These models started developing in the 1950s, experienced growth in the 1970s, and had renewed interest in the 1990s, with the formation of the National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP). Through evidence from journals and other primary sources leading to the development of the program, we offer an institutional history of the evolution of policies and procedures that have enabled

UConn ECE to endure and mature into the program it is today. The tapestry of DE/CE programs throughout the United States is one of a unique, multi-layered concept, woven into the notion of student success by recognizing the capabilities of individual students to succeed beyond traditional high school offerings.

## **BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION**

NACEP currently defines dual and concurrent enrollment partnerships as one which “provide(s) high school students the opportunity to take college credit-bearing courses,” further defining concurrent enrollment as the “subset of dual enrollment courses taught by college-approved high school teachers in a secondary environment” (National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships, n.d.). For the purposes of this paper, we will use the term DE/CE when referring to high school-college models, unless otherwise noted. We will use these terms when referring to programs that may not have historically used them and contexts where these terms were not used with any sense of frequency at this time for the sake of simplicity. Even today, there is much debate on terminology, with CE and DE being the most widely accepted, with dual credit a close third (An and Taylor, 2019). Similar models, such as non-credit university courses or exam-based credit opportunities, add to the confusion of identifying and categorizing programs with the aim of making higher education more accessible. The names of these types of programs have also changed and evolved over time, with the same term sometimes being used interchangeably for distinct models, or even new terms being created. Borden et al., (2013, as cited in An and Taylor (2019)), found that there were 97 terms used to outline state policies and names for DE/CE. Additionally, DE/CE was not always used to describe the programs of today, and the descriptors “concurrent enrollment” and “dual enrollment” had other meanings and uses throughout the evolution of education. There is also not a consistent or agreed upon chronicle or history of how these programs came to be. The development of DE/CE programs occurred along a similar timeline across the nation, but the creation of these programs often happened in a siloed manner, and some only had a short lifespan. Because of this, it has been difficult to determine and document the origins, model, and purpose across the many different contexts, versions, and durations of DE/CE programs.

## **TERMINOLOGY**

While “concurrent” and “dual” are the most popular terms used today, that was



not always the case. Programs were often uncategorized, under the umbrella of “advanced standing,” or described under a plethora of other terms, some of the most popular being “cooperative” or “co-operative.” Starting in the 1950s “concurrent” also referred to community college students who were taking courses in the classroom, as well as courses broadcast via television, while “dual enrollment” had several meanings in this time period. Students who were enrolled part time in both public and private schools were dually enrolled, as were postsecondary students who were attending two colleges.

Use of “concurrent enrollment,” “concurrently enrolled,” and “gave credit concurrently” for high school students in college courses is repeated, though not defined, in papers about California programs starting in the mid-1960s. Nicklin’s (1964) dissertation, *An Investigation of Selected Co-ordinate College-High School Honors Programs*, details two Los Angeles programs. The publication “College Programs for Able High School Students” in California profiles 87 institutions, 4 of which gave both high school and college credit (Twitchell, 1965). The use of “concurrent” in a descriptive way continued in California into the 1970s, (Kintzer, 1972; Greaves, 1974; and Bielen, 1978) and beyond.

Iowa also may have been an early adaptor to the use of the term concurrent enrollment in reference to a high school student enrollment in both secondary and postsecondary institutions at the same time. A 1968 publication mentions “programs for high school students who may benefit from concurrent enrollment” as an area in which community college/vocational colleges should offer services. It further states that in section 280a.1 of the 1967 code of Iowa, “Programs for all students of high school age who may best serve themselves by enrolling for vocational and technical training while also enrolled in a local high school, public or private” (Yeager, p. 4).

In the 1970s “concurrent” appeared more frequently. Local newspaper articles illustrate usage: Louisiana (“LSU to Open Special High School Program,” 1972), Florida (“Advanced Students In College,” 1973), and New Mexico (“Concurrent Enrolling Adopted,” 1974) were using the term by the early 1970s. A 1973 Carnegie Commission on Higher Education report defines the trend of concurrent enrollment as:

Increasing numbers of schools in colleges are permitting high school students to take one or more college courses while maintaining their enrollment at the high school for the bulk of their instruction. Credit is often given towards both the high school diploma and the college degree. Concurrent enrollment is restricted to schools within commuting distance of the colleges (p. 82).

By the end of the decade, “concurrent” was being used to describe programs in Texas (deBin, 1975), New York (Rossie, 1975; Chapman, 1977), Rhode Island (Vernon, 1979), and Vermont (Voorheis, 1979). The term dual enrollment was not as popular in the 1970s, likely because of other meanings within the educational realm. There are a few examples with respect to its current meaning: it was used in Utah in 1958, for a program that allowed selected high school students to take courses at Dixie College (“Experimental Program to Afford Gifted Students Opportunities at Dixie”, 1958). A 1970 article, with a focus on the Southern United States, uses “dual enrollment” in a rather contemporary context related to this paper:

Dual enrollment programs include two types of high school students: those taking some courses at the college and some at their own high school, and those taking all their academic work at the college. In the latter case the student’s high school will typically grant him full credit toward graduation for what-ever time he spends at the college (Ferrin & Willingham, p. 21).

The use of “co-operative” or “cooperative” fell out of fashion, only appearing twice (“Cooperative Academic Partnership Program” and “Cooperative Innovative High Schools”), and “advanced standing” only once in research done by Borden et al., in 2013. “Credit in escrow”, popularized in the 1970s, also saw a decline, with only Tennessee and Wisconsin making mention of it (Borden et al., 2013).

## **BLURRING THE LINE BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE**

The American education system has never been neatly structured or consistent. It has changed and evolved over time, varied by region, and at times has been inaccessible to specific groups within our country. The struggle of how to best serve academically talented students became more apparent within the framework of high school/ college articulation. As secondary education became more prevalent, and terminal degrees and the expectation of academic achievement shifted from elementary schools to high schools to college, the need for clear and distinct course content comparisons increased. Relevant research and records suggest that the idea of a continuum between high school and college was carried forth with Robert M. Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago, from 1929-1951. Contrary to the agenda of Dean Chauncey Boucher’s 1930 “New Plan,” of a four-year undergraduate experience and self-pacing, Hutchins caused ripples when in 1932 he persuaded the Senate to “authorize the idea of a four-year program that combined the last two years of the University High School and the first two years of the College for local

Laboratory School students” (Boyer, 1999, p. 19). Competing initiatives slowed the start of the program and lack of support from the faculty contributed to changes in the initial plan (Boyer, 1999), but this is an example of how the delineation between high school and college was evolving.

In “Integrating High School and College” (1933) by Edward Safford Jones, the issue of articulation between high schools and colleges is described, as well as the traditional American education as a “time-serving and place-serving process.” He questions what happens when the level of work a student accomplishes in high school is above what they are tasked with in their first years of college (p. 132). Jones’ article discusses the occurrences of college credit being granted to students for post-high school work. His questions most generally surrounded the use of examinations to determine credit, and he concludes that “colleges are making only meager gestures toward articulation... [and that] the field for co-operative experimentation is wide open” (p. 132). Also interested in these themes at the time were Little Rock Junior College and the University of Louisville, who admitted twelfth graders as college freshmen (Boardman, 1943).

## **WORLD WAR II AND ITS INFLUENCE**

Events around and as a result of World War II led to significant changes in US education. Overall, high school graduation rates were increasing. The last academic year before the start of the war saw a 50% high school graduation rate for the first time in the country’s history, which then dipped for a few years as young men left for war instead of school (Snyder, 1993). After the war, public school enrollment increased by 44% (Snyder, 1993). In 1937, two years before US involvement, nearly 21% of students entering college were seventeen years, five months old or less, with just over 8% of that group being less than seventeen, indicating that acceleration was quite common (Boardman, 1943, p. 461).

Three noteworthy events happened in 1942, affecting higher education. First, Congress lowered the draft age to from 21 to 18 as part of the Burke-Wadsworth Act. Instead of entering the workforce or matriculating into a college or university, young men were obligated to fulfill their time in service, resulting in fewer college enrollments. Secondly, the Educational Policies Commission (a unit of the National Education Association) formally recommended that select high school students who completed their junior year were accelerated to enter college a year early (Boardman, 1943), resulting in increased college enrollments. Finally, the General Education Development Tests (GED) was established. While it created an indicator of college placement for veterans who had not completed high school, it also subsequently

promoted testing for credit and weakened the Carnegie-unit method for high school completion (Quinn, 2002). By 1947 the GED was being marketed as an alternate high school credentialing device, as a high school equivalency certificate for high school dropouts (Quinn, 2002).

By the early 1940s, high school students who had completed at least some of a traditional high school education had several options. Students could complete the traditional high school path, or talented high school students could choose to formally enter college early. Some would enter military service through the draft or voluntarily enlist, never to earn their high school diploma, or later obtain a certificate of high school completion in the form of a GED. Prior to these 1942 changes and in the context of the war, a young man had the potential of completing three years of college before going off to war – that is, graduate high school at 18 and attend three years of college before being drafted at the age of 21. The opportunity to complete the trajectory was removed with the decrease in draft age, but the addition of acceleration in the junior year of high school shifted that possibility to a younger cohort of students. Additionally, the GED started to normalize testing for credit and was briefly controlled by a merger which included the College Entrance Exam Board, the same organization that offers the Advanced Placement tests.

Nationally, just a month and a half after the federal recommendation to let select students into college after completing their junior year, articles and editorials appeared in professional periodicals about these young students' experiences entering college. These evaluations (Boardman, 1943) were conducted over four months and resulted in four areas of interest. One of these areas inquired into if it would be better to maintain students in the high school, as high schools were better equipped to work with these students than the limited supports available to a freshman in college (Boardman, 1943). Students starting college at an age younger than 18 is not a new concept. Prior to the 1942 recommendations, Sarbaugh (1934), as cited in Boardman, suggests that students starting their higher education at an earlier age are more productive than their grade-level counterparts: in the late 1920s and early 1930s, it was found that students who were two years accelerated at the University of Buffalo performed as well as their older peers (1943).

World War II affected policy in junior colleges. In California, the 1943 session of the Legislature allowed high school seniors over 17 years of age to take junior college courses in conjunction with their high school courses (Nicklin, 1964), indicative of what was to become a more standard model of dual enrollment over the next several decades. Nationally, the President's Commission on Higher Education desired free public education to help with post-war demands for an educated public, and junior college became the terminal degree for one-sixth of all youth (Geiger,

2019, p. 13). In 1959, California legislation authorized junior colleges to admit up to 5% “superior twelfth-grade students” for part-time study, as recommended by the high school principal, while at the same time “attending high school classes for at least the minimum school day” (Price, 1960). Forty-nine of 62 public junior colleges enrolled 897 superior students from 128 different high schools in 365 different courses (Price, 1960).

In the years following WWII, US economic growth was unprecedented, ultimately permitting more students to continue with their educational aspirations and lessening the burden of poverty and the need to leave school and enter the workforce. Because of this, high school graduation rates were on the rise. The influx of veterans back to the civilian world also impacted education. Aside from the lasting influence of the new GED, The Servicemen’s Readjustment Act of 1944, commonly known as the G.I. Bill or the G.I. Bill of Rights, provided returning veterans educational benefits in the form of a monthly stipend for educational use. Though the program got off to a slow start, nearly 2.25 million veterans attended postsecondary institutions between 1945 and 1954, constituting nearly half of all registered students in universities in the first two years the program occurred (Geiger, 2019). Another 36% of these veterans received on-the-job training or vocational education under the educational provisions of the Act (Geiger, 2019).

Changes happening throughout the country led to experimental programs developing from coast to coast, through local and national initiatives—both private and public (Lazerson, 1998). In the early 1950s, the Ford Foundation sponsored innovative practices, adding to the body of knowledge regarding the transitional period between high school and college, as discussed in the “Fund for the Advancement of Education” section below. Segregation in schools was challenged with *Brown vs. Board of Education*; Sputnik 1957 was a benchmark in US education history as the space race began; and the National Defense Education Act of 1958 in response to the Cold War gave unprecedented fiscal support for the sciences, foreign language areas of studies, and campus growth. Independent colleges and universities were also partnering with local school districts, presenting new ideas on how to educate students who had exhausted their high school options, such as the University of Connecticut and Saint Louis University. In 1959, Saint Louis University began an experimental program allowing “superior high school students to accelerate their education by taking college credit courses in their high school classrooms” (Saint Louis University, 1999, p. 1). Both of these programs have adapted and persisted through time, reflecting the changes in context and purpose for DE/CE programs as the field has evolved.

## RELATED EFFORTS FOR ARTICULATION, ENRICHMENT, AND ACCELERATION

### *Community and Junior Colleges*

The development, growth, and spread of junior colleges (later largely rebranded as community colleges, but also known as vocational, technical, or city colleges) has many parallels with the trajectory of DE/CE. In the early part of the twentieth century, the idea of continuing public education beyond the twelfth grade popped up in different parts of the country at different times, under a variety of names—which were to change over time. As with DE/CE, duplication, articulation, and age appropriateness are themes directly related to the development of the junior college. The concept of a junior college in the US is often associated with President Henry P. Tappan of the University of Michigan in the 1850s (McDowell, 1919) and 50 years later championed by the first president of the University of Chicago (1891-1906), William Rainey Harper, to address waste in higher education (Harper, 1905).

The first public junior college, Joliet Junior College opened in 1901 as an experimental postgraduate high school program, outside of Chicago. California introduced a state law in 1907 that permitted high schools to offer postsecondary education. The idea of junior colleges was considered a “county-wide movement toward a more adequate state system of education” in 1917 (Lange, p. 471), the same year that the states of Kansas and Michigan enacted their first laws regarding junior colleges. In 1920, U.S. Commissioner of Education, Philander Claxton, organized a meeting of junior college leaders in St. Louis, Missouri, which led to the development of the American Association of Junior Colleges (AAJC) (Whissemore, 2020). In the first two decades of the 20th century, 175 junior colleges developed or experienced growth (Koos, 1925). As these institutions became more of a mainstay in the American education system, they often underwent a name change to more accurately represent the work that was being done.

Throughout the country, school districts, universities, and state departments of education were starting to embrace the idea of the junior college, whether public or private, as an extension of the high school or part of an established university. Recognizing the need for better articulation and the waste of energy with duplication, some junior colleges also started allowing the dual enrollment of select high school students into junior college courses.

### *Honors Programs*

Honors programs in colleges and universities in the United States grew alongside, but relatively independently of, DE/CE programs. Even before advanced

or accelerated high school students were in formalized DE/CE programs, there was a need to provide appropriate accommodations to students as they graduated high school and entered institutions of higher education (IHEs). Many of these students had already completed some or all of their freshman year of college and would likely move through college as quickly as they had moved through their secondary education. Additionally, deeper, and more challenging content was needed for these students. As with DE/CE, many honors programs were experimental and short-lived, were associated only with a specific academic course or department, and went through various evolutions, but those that persisted developed into current honors programs offered by colleges and universities today.

Forerunners to honors programs can be traced back to the late nineteenth century at Harvard University, the University of Michigan, Princeton University, Columbia University, (Rinn, 2006) and Wesleyan College (Nicklin, 1964). In the post-World War I period, enrollment in higher education increased as did the interest in attending to the individualized needs of students. Frank Aydolotte, president of Swarthmore College, wrote the first edition of *Honors Courses in American Colleges and Universities* in 1924, which included approximately 50 examples of programs; the second edition was published the next year with nearly 100 examples (Rinn, 2006). Similarly, the post-Korean war era saw another jump in the development and growth of honors programs.

In 1964, Nicklin reviewed national developments of the 1950s that influenced high school-college honors programs. Many were funded by the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, and while it can be argued that all of these programs had a positive influence on the development of DE/CE and furthermore set the climate of the nation during the infancy of DE/CE, just four are touched upon in this paper. The National Defence Act was mentioned in the overview and the previous section described the development of junior colleges. Thirdly, the Inter-University Committee on the Superior Student (ICSS) and fourthly, the Fund for Advancement of Education will be discussed.

The ICSS was the first national attempt to unify honors programs in the United States by acting as a clearinghouse for information on the topic (Nicklin, 1964). It was developed by Joseph Cohen in 1956 at the University of Chicago, an institution with 30 years of experience in honors programming, and expanded in 1957 through a Rockefeller Foundation grant (Nicklin, 1964). Through correspondence with colleges and universities across the country, attendance and presentations at regional and national conferences, and a comprehensive monthly newsletter, *The Superior Student in American Higher Education*, the ISS disseminated information, best practices, and updates to university faculty and administrators. The publication was printed



from 1958 through 1964 and contributed greatly to the understanding, development, and expansion of honors programs across the United States.

Articles from *The Superior Student* capture collegiate honors program practices of the time period on a national-level, as well as other innovative and experimental programs for high school students, including high school-college partnerships, mostly described as acceleration or enrichment. The AP program, established nationally just a few years earlier, is recognized as a way to assist combating repetition between the high school senior year and college freshman year (Waggoner, 1958). The publication includes exemplars of high school students participating in college or collegiate-level courses, offering credit or advanced standing for college courses taken during the academic year. Though these courses do not necessarily grant both high school and college credit, nor are taught by university-certified high school instructors, cooperation and partnerships were formed between secondary schools and IHEs to combat duplication and repetition. While the focus was college honors programs, Cohan (1958), the ICSS, and the high school programs they included recognize that college honors students come from high school and that preparation and communication are essential for the success of students.

### *Gifted Education*

Gifted, or gifted and talented, education in United States secondary schools usually comes in the form of acceleration and enrichment, each of which can happen naturally or formally in or outside of a classroom setting. Historically, students are identified as being “gifted” learners and then are tracked into programs where they receive accelerated and/or enriched learning opportunities. Acceleration, as defined by Pressey in 1949, is “progress through an education program at rates faster or ages younger than convention” (p. 2, as cited in Daurio, 1979). This is sometimes a result of grade skipping, in which case the students would be younger than their peers (Daurio, 1979). It could also mean starting at a more advanced age, as was the case with World War II veterans, but completing the program in less time (Daurio, 1979). Meanwhile, enrichment can be divided into lateral and relevant. In 1955, Havighurst, Stivers, and De Hann defined lateral enrichment (non-accelerative) as “encouraging older children to broaden their experience by working in areas not explored by the average student” (p. 21, as cited in Daurio, 1979). This type of enrichment was not limited to academics, but also included language, art, music, and drama. In contrast, relevant academic enrichment (Stanley, 1976, p. 235, as cited in Daurio, 1979), “is appropriate solely for intellectually precocious youths because it acknowledges the inadequacy of conventional education, given the above-average special talents of a



small number of students” (Dario, 1979, p. 21), while maintaining their age assigned grade level.

The concepts of enrichment and acceleration led to the ideas constructing DE/CE, in particular acceleration outside of one’s age-assigned grade. Offerings for gifted high school students were frequently occurring in an isolated manner, so one geographic area may have had a stronger high school-based program, while in another area college-based programs were more developed. As with the change in terminology in the sphere of DE/CE, descriptive words have changed as gifted education evolved. Prior to 1970, “exceptional children” were included under the umbrella of “special education.” This term applies to pupils who need additional education services, because of their physical, intellectual, or personal-social differences from other children, including unusually bright or gifted children (Snyder, 1993, p. 100). Regardless of the language used or the method of granting stimulating and challenging work to secondary students, action was being taken in selected high schools across the nation to meet the needs of their gifted students. Small, independent, as well as large-scale initiatives paved the way for conversation in the secondary space, which soon expanded to IHEs. Partnerships, cooperation, and collaboration between high schools and colleges slowly started to take place in an effort to fulfill the educational path of gifted students, and over time benefitting all students.

### *Fund for the Advancement of Education*

Though not an educational program itself, the Fund for the Advancement of Education provided a means for experimental initiatives. The Fund was established by Robert Maynard Hutchins after completing his tenure at the University of Chicago and becoming head of the Ford Foundation in 1951 (Marks, 1971). The goal was to examine the quality of the state of education, specifically in teaching, in learning, and in administration “during a time of national affluence, population expansion, international tensions, growing social unrest, educational turmoil, rapid social change, and the adventure into space” (Marks, 1971, p. 3). Areas of interest included acceleration and duplication (Marks, 1971). The Fund found “evidence that in many cases early admission to college freed students of the boredom and frustration of an unchallenging high school environment, gave them new intellectual momentum, and enhanced their social and emotional maturation” (Marks, 1971, p. 154). The Fund’s 1957 Evaluation Report “They Went to College Early” describes two types of waste that occur at the college level, which had led to financial support of five projects (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957): A student “from a poor

high school frequently spend[s] most of freshman year closing the gaps in his prior preparation, while the well-prepared student often finds it necessary to repeat in college work that he has already done successfully in high school” (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p. 2). Between 1951 and 1954, the Fund sponsored several programs to save students time and create a more challenging environment, two having the long-lasting influence on present-day education and the direction of DE/CE.

The School and College Study of Admission with Advanced Standing, also known as the Kenyon Plan, originated through a discussion of the faculty of Kenyon College in 1951 when a group of 12 colleges formed a committee on Admission with Advanced Standing with 12 secondary schools to examine 11 classic subject areas (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p. 5). The project was to explore if students could complete the last two years of high school and first two years of college in a shorter period of time, in response to two assumptions: (1) “that our system does not provide sufficiently intensive instruction for our ablest youth” (Chalmers and Cornog, 1953, p. 5) and (2) “that the secondary school is the place where intensive instruction most needs to be done, and where it can be done with most significant benefit both to the student and to the education system” (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p.5). Subject matter committees were given the task of defining in their respective subjects the standard of achievement of intensive courses in secondary schools, which could be offered to the “ablest high-school students and for which the twelve colleges could give partial or full first-year credit toward their bachelor’s degree” (Cornog, 1955, pp. 381). In 1952, they launched a pilot program involving 7 of the 12 secondary schools and introducing advanced courses in those 11 initial subjects (Chalmers and Cornog, 1953). The program was considered successful from the lens of students, parents, and high school and college administrators, and the College Entrance Examination Board (now the College Board) took control in 1955 (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p. 4) and the program was to become the Advanced Placement program.

The Program for Early Admission to College was initiated by Chicago, Columbia, Wisconsin, and Yale as concerns for an educated workforce in response to the Korean conflict. A pre-induction program, it allowed talented students to forgo their senior year of high school and enroll in college a year earlier (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957). Students must have completed 10th grade or 11th grade, be under 16 and a half years old and in the top 10th of their class (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1953). Twelve institutions, the founding four and eight additional, admitted 420 students in 1951; 440 in 1952; 254 in 1953; and 236 in 1954 (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p. 6), with goals similar to the

Kenyon Plan, but it recognized that “many American high schools are not equipped to offer the ablest students college-level work, and that even in high schools that are so quipped, some students who have demonstrated a capacity for college work can profit more by entering college earlier” (Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957, p. 5). The program was so successful that many of the original colleges, along with a plethora of new ones, continue to admit students early.

The above illustrates just some of the experimental and progressive ideas in the history of US education. Innovative programs working to remedy duplication and articulation between high school and college have a long and complex history, covering a vast geography, and were often happening simultaneously, unbeknownst to each other. Common to many projects, especially those that have found long-standing success, is the spirit of partnership and cooperation between secondary and higher education.

### **A CONCURRENT ENROLLMENT CASE STUDY: THE UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT**

The preceding sections of this paper briefly mention some programs that influenced or evolved into current-day DE/CE, but this is not nearly an exhaustive list of programs and initiatives through the 1950s. A 1960s publication from the National Education Association included lists of colleges that would accept advanced coursework that students had completed in high school or grant advanced standing entitled “Administration: Procedures and School Practices for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School.” This phenomenon was outside of AP testing (National Education Association, 1960), indicating an established precedence for these types of programs. Additionally, in 1961, a report from the “New Dimensions in Higher Education” series from the federal Office of Education on Advanced Standing, included a lengthy section on the AP program (Radcliffe and Hatch, 1961). It also included a section on a form of advanced standing where “colleges and universities permit superior high school students to take regular freshman courses concurrently with their high school studies” (Radcliffe and Hatch, 1961, p. 19). This report included the University of Connecticut’s statewide Cooperative Program for Superior Students, which is outlined in the following institutional history of the development of UConn’s CE program, dating back to the 1950s, where topics of acceleration, articulation, and educational excellence converged during a time of national change.

### *Developmental Influences*

In early 1942, UConn's President Albert N. Jorgensen held a staff meeting named "The readjustment of the college to the war situation" (Waugh, January 9, 1942 as cited in Grant, 2019). Of many adjustments proposed, an acceleration timeline, "favoring summer sessions, shorter terms, [and the] acceptance of high standing high school juniors by colleges" (Waugh, January 9, 1942 as cited in Grant, 2019) was included. The goal was to allow students to join the armed forces or workforce earlier than they traditionally would have been by accelerating their academic careers. Through the advent of the war came the need to expedite education while still maintaining the integrity of the institution. Stakeholders were concerned with preparing individuals for military service earlier and at a higher skill level. At UConn, this became the origin for the idea of early engagement with, and enrollment at, the University for high school students.

The time period after the war still left educational institutions facing many concerns about education, and its role, integrity, scope, and value. There were questions about how to best serve both students who were entering college directly from high school, as well as those who were entering after serving in the war. At UConn, Provost Albert E. Waugh worked diligently on this issue. A few months after WWII ended, Waugh and other UConn officials and representatives from area colleges met with the Connecticut High School Principals Association to respond to the suggestion "that the colleges set up the freshman year of college work in high schools throughout the state...and the colleges would in turn promise to honor the credit so obtained" (Waugh, January 29, 1946 as cited in Grant, 2019). While the proposal was positively received by the colleges, they ultimately felt that it was not the right time to make this change as space was a pressing concern with veterans returning to campus via the GI bill (Waugh, January 29, 1946, as cited in Grant, 2019).

Waugh worked over the course of 3 years, from 1952 to 1955, to start what would become the University's Cooperative Program for Superior Students. After sharing information about acceleration options to the Scholastic Standards Committee and seeking more information from the Ford Foundation about their recommendations for the selection of students (Scholastic Standards Committee, 1952), Waugh was well on his way to creating UConn's CE program. That year, Waugh proposed to the University Senate's Committee on Curricula and Courses (SCCC) the idea to admit "a bright few youngsters who have not graduated from high school," which was received with significant interest (Waugh, April 30, 1952 as cited in Grant, 2019). In area colleges, there was also work being done to create collegiate-level academic

experiences for secondary students: Yale had a program to accept “pre-induction scholars” (as noted above as a part of the Fund for the Advancement of Education) to improve the chance that these students would return to college after fighting in the war (Waugh, April 30, 1952 as cited in Grant, 2019). Within both the context of the Korean War, as well as the work being done at nearby institutions, the need to facilitate academically challenging opportunities for high school students while still in their secondary careers was evident. In the beginning of 1953, UConn’s SCCC approved Waugh’s proposal (Waugh, February 9, 1953, as cited in Grant, 2019).

Later that year, Waugh met with the Executive Committee of the Secondary School Principals Association, which had intended to protest the early admittance program for students to enter collegiate study early. Following this meeting, the program was changed to allow “these outstanding students to stay on in the high school taking work under our supervision and getting college credit for the work” (Waugh, November 5, 1953 as cited in Grant, 2019). The November 6th edition of *The Hartford Courant* reports that:

The University of Connecticut has already begun an accelerated study program for superior high school students throughout the state, university officials announced today. Under the twin plan initiated in recent months, outstanding students may be admitted to the university after three years of high school, or, alternatively, stay in high school the full four years while taking university-level work in addition to their regular studies” (The Hartford Courant, 1955).

Students had two paths forward for engaging with accelerated academics: they were able to either (1) graduate early and enroll in college when they typically would have been in their senior year of high school or (2) continue their time in high school while taking UConn classes offered in their high schools (The Hartford Courant, 1955). These two accelerated paths were the strategic outcomes of the work that Waugh and others had done to consider the best possible options for supporting advanced study for students on the cusp of adulthood. The Courant article then goes on to highlight what is the true origination of the UConn’s ECE program: the *Cooperative Program for Superior High School Students*.

The alternative plan, which appears to meet with greater favor among high school administrators, makes it possible for the qualified student to parallel high school studies in his senior year with additional studies on the college level. Work, such as extra reading, or lab work, will be given under university supervision, through a university-approved teacher” (The Hartford Courant, 1955).

This program would become the foundation for the University's concurrent enrollment program.

### *The First Cohort*

A Special Committee to Study Admission with Advanced Standing was created to help guide the process, and meeting minutes note that the group “should take cognizance of the experience embodied in the ‘Kenyon Report’” when creating the program (Special Committee to Study Admission with Advanced Standing, 1954). Through bringing together a variety of invested, but disconnected, stakeholders—secondary educators, principals, parents, and university administrators and faculty—Waugh was able to establish the *Cooperative Program for Superior High School Students* in January of 1955, and the first cohort of students began taking classes under the program's purview during the 1955-1956 school year (Grant, 2019). At its outset:

the program [was] designed to enable outstanding high school students to receive credit for work at the college freshman level in several fields of study. The anticipated results are: (1) saving of time or broadening of training for such students; (2) attraction to the University of a greater number of top quality students; (3) a stimulating influence on high school students and teachers (Special Committee to Study Admission with Advanced Standing, 1955).

At the end of the 1955-1956 school year, a group of 112 students from seven Connecticut high schools (New Britain High School, Bristol High School [now Bristol Central High School and Bristol Eastern High School], Manchester High School, Norwich Free Academy, Rockville High School, Valley Regional High School, and Woodbury High School [now Nonnewaug High School]) were a part of the first year of the “Cooperative Program”, resulting in 76 students earning a total of 126 credits (Grant, 2019).

In the following academic year, Alexander J. Plante joined the UConn School of Education staff as an assistant professor—his duties included serving “as supervisor of the cooperative program for superior high school students” (The Hartford Courant, 1956). This one-year appointment helped to institutionalize the program within the greater University context, demonstrating the viability of the program just after its first year. The program was highlighted in *The Courant* in 1958 as an important factor in the acceleration of students' careers:

The University of Connecticut's plan for superior state high school students is paying dividends, the director of the program announced Friday. Under provisions

of the program, now entering its fourth year, qualified high school students have been taking university-level courses at their local schools, sometimes in addition to their regular academic load (*The Hartford Courant*, 1958).

The program was then led by Raymond W. Houghton, who noted that “Interest in the program has grown rapidly from the outset” (*The Hartford Courant*, 1958).

Over the first 10 years from its inception, UConn’s program is referenced in the state’s newspaper (*The Hartford Courant*, various between 1955-64), *University Bulletins* (University of Connecticut, 1955), *The New York Times* (The New York Times Company, 1956), in books (MacLean & Carlson, 1958), academic journals (Estes, 1959), reports (Radcliffe & Hatch, 1961), theses (Margarones, 1964), dissertations (Nicklin, 1964), and annotated bibliographies (Flaughner, et al., 1967), but is often not cited in early research papers, due to the siloed nature and the lack of easy accessibility to documents that we enjoy today.

### *Evolution of the Program (1960s-1980s)*

Throughout the remainder of the 1960s, the Cooperative Program continued to expand to provide more students with the opportunity to pursue cost-free university coursework in their high schools. Northwest Catholic High School admitted 12 students to their mathematics program in 1966 (*The Hartford Courant*, 1966); Valley Regional High School added a Zoology course as well as two math classes (*The Hartford Courant*, 1968); and East Windsor High School was accepted as a Co-Op partner school (*The Hartford Courant*, 1969). As teachers continued to become certified and as established schools increased their course offerings, more and more Connecticut students were receiving college credits. In 1974 news of instructor certification and student enrollment continued to make local and state papers; at the end of 1974, *The Hartford Courant* noted that fifty students at Bloomfield High School received a total of 841 credits, averaging out to over a semester’s worth of college credits per student.

The 1970s can be characterized by not only growth, but scrutiny of the Co-Op Program. In early 1974, the Standing Honors Committee at the University recommended that “the credits awarded to entering students for courses taken in high school under this program not carry with them grades which then become part of the student’s CQPR [Curriculum Quality Point Rating, which preceded the current GPA metric]. The recommendations pointed out that credits under the Connecticut Cooperative Program would then be treated the way transfer credits from other universities are” (Standing Honors Committee, 1974). This recommendation would undercut a core component of the CE program, preventing students from accessing—or transferring—their college credits. While not conclusive,



our archival research indicates that costs of the program, as well as budget cuts at the University, may have led to the recommendation. At that point, the program was cost-free to students and partner schools, with the University absorbing all of the cost of administering the program. As the program grew, so did the costs of running it. *Red Brick in the Land of Steady Habits*, which traces UConn's development over its first 125 years from an agricultural school to a nationally known R1 public university, cite a professor's testimony in front of the Connecticut Legislature in the mid 1970s, who argued that "reduction in budgets and cost of inflation mean that cuts are going through the bone and amputations are taking place" (Stave et al., 2006). No program was immune to the impacts of these cuts, including the Co-Op.

The recommendation led to a freeze in February of that year, pending a program evaluation, which was subsequently shared with Co-Op partners in April. The decision was vehemently opposed by some members of the community, including M.J. Walker, a longstanding member of the Advisory Council of the Cooperative Program for Superior High School Students, who wrote to UConn's Dean, Provost, and Senate Committees on Curriculum and Standards. Walker's letter entails an impassioned reasoning underscoring the need of the program, citing the Co-Op Program as part of the shift in UConn's perception to one that is much more favorable (Walker, 1974). As Walker writes, the program "has academic and public relations value...infinitely greater than the few dollars per student required to maintain it" (Walker, 1974).

Before the new year, Dean Albert C. Kind took over the program after the retirement of Edward Manchester in 1974; Kind worked over the next several years to revive, realign, and enrich the Co-Op Program. Even though the Standing Honors Committee reaffirmed their decision after Kind proposed a reversal of it (Kind, 1974; Standing Honors Committee, 1974b), he was not dissuaded from working to reinstate the credit-bearing aspect of the program, enhance student experience, and raise the profile of the program. Kind worked to establish better structures for ensuring course alignment across university and high school campuses, went on a "road-show" to meet with 46 schools across the state, and helped to build the infrastructure of the program so that it was able to ensure an enriching collegiate experience for its secondary students (Kind, 1976b). Kind's work to create a more positive review of the program contributed to the Committee's reversal of their decision in early 1975 (Kind, 1975; Committee on Scholastic Standards, 1975), and Co-Op students were back on their way to receiving credit—just in time for the program's recognition on the national scale in *College Courses: A Twelfth Grade Option* by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1975). The publication was a collection of programs that allowed high school students to gain college credit



in their secondary schools, highlighting the Cooperative Program as well as its implementation at William H. Hall High School in West Hartford, CT.

The latter half of the 1970s also represented an increase in correspondence between the Co-Op Program and other universities as more students were graduating with UConn Co-Op credits and attempting to transfer them to their colleges. In February 1976, Trinity College (CT) published a survey of the positions of each of the schools in the Twelve Colleges Exchange Program on transfer credits from cooperative programs (Trinity College, 1976). Some did not grant credit at all (e.g. Connecticut College), while others granted credit with no maximum limit to the amount of credits a student could transfer (e.g. Wheaton College). In July of 1976 St. John's University (NY) reached out to the Co-Op Program to request information about transfer policies as they worked to establish their own CE program (Brennan, 1976). On January 26, 1977, Allegheny College (PA) complimented UConn's Co-Op Program and their overall management and organization—and noted that they have awarded credit to two students who brought their UConn credits to the college (Palmiero, 1977). However, this sentiment was not universal across all receiving colleges; a memo dated August 27, 1979 from Christopher W. Gray, Associate Academic Dean at Tufts University, notes that Tufts would not accept Co-Op credit, with their reservations lying “in the fact that the class[es] are composed exclusively of high school students.” The memo additionally notes that students could attempt credit by examination or, “better still, to take the appropriate CEEB Advanced Placement examinations” (Gray, 1979).

Kind had previously identified this trend in his 1976 “Report of the Supervisor” for the Co-Op Program, writing that:

I foresee a decreased acceptability of work taken in the program by some colleges and universities. Since it is possible for a student to take the equivalent of between one and two semester's work, and an increasing number of students are doing just that, there appears to be a reluctance to accept all or even part of this work as recorded on the University of Connecticut transcript...The attached article from the Chronicle of Higher Education indicates what, in my view, is responsible for a change in attitude (Kind, 1976b).

That article, “Fast and Slow Students a Problem: Their deviation from a four year timetable can be costly for colleges” by Jack Magarrell reflects the impact of students who finish in less or more than the traditional four years. Magarrell (1975) writes that “fast-finishing students can be costly for private colleges that depend heavily on income from student tuition.”

The 1980s fostered a period of recalibration for the Co-Op Program as staff

looked at the implementation of courses as well as the processes and systems that were used for program management. At the start of the decade, Raymond E. Lemley, the Chairman of the School and College Relations Committee of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges, corresponded with presidents of regionally accredited universities requesting information about any school-college partnerships they hosted (Lemley, 1982). As this type of model of enrichment and acceleration was becoming more well-known, efforts were being made to share information among institutions that were often operating in silos. Kind responded to the request by disclosing policies, procedures, and statistics about UConn's Co-Op program (Kind, 1982).

As the program grew and expanded, it reached a point where the operations side needed to grow and expand in order to continue providing—and enriching—student experience. The idea of a student fee had been previously proposed, but never implemented. In late 1982, David G. Carter, the Associate Vice President, requested a recommendation on a reasonable fee for students participating in the Co-Op program (Carter, 1982). The University Registrar, Tom Burke, responded recommending a \$10 application fee for each student (Burke, 1982). He cites information from the “College Courses in the High School: A Four Year Followup of the Syracuse University Project Advance Class of 1977” that only 3% of participating students attend the college sponsoring the program (see Mercurio, 1982 for full text). In early 1983, Burke reached out to Kind recommending the \$10 fee. He also continued the conversation with Carter, providing a review of the program and recommendations moving forward, including:

- More university supervision of instructors
- An end to canceling registration of students who earn less than a C
- An end to expunging earned grades of students in the Honors, Engineering, and Pharmacy programs of students who participated in the Co-Op Program, citing that the policy for repeating courses should be the same as all other students at the University (Burke, 1983).

Burke also suggested a series of mailings to make Co-Op communication clear and efficient (Burke, 1983). The four letters recommended were: a cover letter to the high schools announcing the fee; a letter of acceptance to parents of students; a letter of rejection to parents of students; and a letter to parents of applicants announcing the fee (Burke, 1983). The streamlining of communications as well as the addition of student fees for the program would help to establish an infrastructure to provide a more robust student experience. While better communications were adapted, the

fee policy did not materialize until 2000 (Menard, 2000).

### *Modernizing the Program*

The University of Connecticut's concurrent enrollment program continues today, having made improvements over time, including a change in focus from combating "senioritis" for superior students to "providing access to, and preparation for, higher education" (UConn ECE, "About Us"). While some of the original structure remains, such as oversight by the academic department, professional development for instructors, and UConn transcripts for participants, UConn ECE is no longer a program in which "students... [are] screened by standard intelligence and reading tests and by previous honors grades" (Estes, 1959, p. 332). The shift from "superiority" to accessibility and inclusivity was supported by providing aid to students who would otherwise not be able to participate by waiving the fee for all Title I schools and students on Free and Reduced Lunch. A name change from the "Cooperative Program for Superior High School Students" to "Early College Experience" in 2005 emphasized this change in mission. This updated moniker is also symbolic of broader changes within the field, from focusing on "gifted" and "superior" students (language that underscores the exclusionary and elitist practices of these programs) to one that is centered on access for all students to explore and determine their academic path. Currently, there are no testing requirements for enrollment in a UConn ECE class; instead, student eligibility is guided by prerequisite courses, instructor consent, and other related eligibility guidelines (such as being enrolled at a vocational high school or having access to specific software) (UConn ECE, "Student Eligibility Guidelines"). The rationale of these guidelines is to support student success and preparation for their UConn ECE course—and not to ensure that only specific students enroll in the course.

UConn ECE further intensified its commitment to providing excellence in the area of CE by applying for and being awarded NACEP accreditation in 2007 and maintaining that endorsement to the present day. In 2022-23, ECE offered UConn credit to 15,047 students in the state of Connecticut (UConn ECE "Data, 2022-23"). Program enrollment has grown steadily over the past decade, boasting a 53% increase and now hosting 1,608 certified instructors that are certified in at least one of 87 courses (UConn ECE, "Data, 2022-2023"). Across the state, 186 different high schools partner with ECE, which allowed for 85,495 credits to be attempted by students in the 2022-2023 school year (UConn ECE, "Data, 2022-2023"). During that academic year, 90.6% of students completed their course with a C or higher. In the same year, nearly one-third of the incoming class of first-year students at

UConn's Storrs campus was a UConn ECE alumni (UConn ECE, "Data, 2022-2023").

## CONCLUSION

Work has been done across the country since the start of formalized education to respond to both the needs of the individual student as well as the needs of the country. Education is a continually evolving field as it changes and adapts, and the field of DE/CE is no different. Through this paper, we have sought to provide a part of the story of the origins and evolution of the field, in hopes that we have provided a foundation for future research.

We have several goals in writing this paper. We hope that both the institutional and national history documented here inspires additional research into this field and the origination of DE/CE within the United States. We offer this work not as an exhaustive or fully comprehensive documentation of all of the factors, players, and sociopolitical factors that influenced the development of DE/CE in the US—instead we offer this as a starting point to inspire other research. We hope that other institutions and researchers will turn to their own archives, documents, and histories to understand why, when, and how their programs were created—as well as the changes and evolutions that they went through. From our own archival research and history, we have been able to understand the various sociopolitical and institutional influences on the development of our program; we hope that other programs are able to learn the same and more. Through additional future research across different institutions, we will have a more comprehensive understanding of how the DE/CE field developed.

We also hope that there are several lessons and points of new information that researchers and other institutions can gain from this paper. The impact of sociopolitical factors on the development of education have been underscored throughout this narrative at multiple inflection points. Education changes and responds to the needs of the nation and of the globe—from wars to the economy, how students are schooled in this country has changed to best fit the needs of the country and of its constituents. Large scale social upheavals create changes and innovations in educational practices that then become the norm—the admission of students with advanced standing, the offering of high school credit in the classroom, and the proliferation of online- and distance-learning (as an outcome of the COVID-19 pandemic).

This paper also underscores the importance of one individual in changing education—we know that Albert Waugh was the architect of concurrent enrollment at

UConn, and we are confident that there were other stakeholders and changemakers at sister institutions that have yet to be researched. We hope that the history we have shared here helps to inspire other research that will illuminate the impact of other individuals. The work of Waugh (and others yet to be discovered) also demonstrates how often this work occurred in siloes; mostly because of the lack of technology, many researchers and leaders were unable to maintain the kind of consistent, deep, and nearly instantaneous communication that is available now. We hope that this point serves as both advice for now—to underscore the importance of collaboration and communication within the field—as well as the hope for uncovering more rich institutional histories about the development of other CE programs.

### *Recommendations for Future Research*

As additional institutions go about their own research, we would like to offer a few recommendations that aided in our own research. We recommend first that researchers employ a variety of search terms beyond “concurrent enrollment” and “dual enrollment” when conducting archival, institutional, and database research. Our current usage of these terms is different from that of when many DE/CE programs originated, and so an expanded set of search terms will yield the best results for future research. For example, the University of Connecticut’s program started as “The University Cooperative Program for Superior High School Students”—with no mention of “concurrent,” “dual,” or “enrollment.” To guide their research endeavors, we recommend that researchers employ terms such as: concurrent, dual, honors, gifted, superior, accelerated, advanced standing, high school, secondary, military, veteran, and age. We also recommend that researchers conduct their studies by being responsive to what they uncover and employ the terms and new learning that they gain as they research.

We also recommend that researchers look both horizontally as well as chronologically in their research. While we set out originally to understand how our own program started, our findings led us down a path of understanding how wars, economics, and organizations impacted all sorts of institutions and programs in the goal of ensuring a rigorous, calibrated, and productive education for students. Researchers should not only look at their own programs but also those that were occurring on their campuses at a similar time that may have impacted the development of their programs.

As research and the field continues to develop, we hope that many more voices and stories are added to the conversation about how DE/CE began and how it has evolved into the current landscape of the field. Our research has brought us great

insight into how our program developed, and we hope that other programs that this paper is just the starting point of rich documentation about the origins and evolution of DE/CE.

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## TESTED EXPERIENCE AS A MODEL FOR DUAL ENROLLMENT CERTIFICATION

Jerry Appell

I was working as a high school teacher several years ago when our district formed a dual enrollment partnership with a nearby community college. Our school had a disproportionate number of households living below the poverty level and dual enrollment was embraced by our administration as a way for our students to view college as a realistic pathway. The college we were partnering with for dual enrollment courses required instructors to hold content-related graduate degrees; on that basis I was assigned to teach a general psychology course. I replaced a veteran instructor who not only wrote the curriculum for this course, but also received numerous accolades over the years including a national teacher of the year nomination. Despite this record of teaching excellence, their MEd in educational leadership did not meet the college credentialing requirements to teach a freshmen-level social science course and our administration changed instructors. Subsequently, the college syllabus was less comprehensive than the one designed by the high school instructor so, as one might expect, this instructor felt undervalued for all they had done creating this course. I spent the semester borrowing lesson plans that the former teacher had previously developed, while also being in the awkward position of requesting their mentorship on providing the curriculum to a high school population. There were other experienced teachers at our school who faced similar challenges with dual

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enrollment certification. One was a retired surgeon who was only certified by the college after repeated explanations of why their medical school training might qualify them to teach freshman-level chemistry as much as a content-specific graduate degree would. Other instructors at our school without standard credentials did not fare as well and had their dual enrollment applications rejected. This included a business teacher who ran a successful tax service, as well as a published author who taught college composition courses for our English department. As a result of the rigid certification standards for DE instructors, students lost multiple dual enrollment opportunities due to lack of “qualified” instructors. This experience served as my first lesson in both the inequity and irregularity of dual enrollment certification.

In something of a role reversal I eventually left my teaching position to manage the aforementioned dual enrollment program at the community college. Today, I am fortunate to be working with a leadership team that understands the need for a flexible approach to partnering with our area high schools. Yet despite this support, we are part of a multi-college system that requires a degree of consistency in implementation of dual enrollment initiatives. A major challenge we face is securing qualified instructors for our high school-based courses. Credentialing standards for most of our courses requires a graduate degree and until recently there was a strong preference toward a content-area specialization. This is particularly problematic for underfunded school districts unable to provide opportunities for faculty to obtain graduate degrees as part of their professional development pathway. Yet all school districts and dual enrollment programs stand to gain if skilled and knowledgeable instructors are provided the opportunity to teach dual enrollment courses to their students. Extending those opportunities to underserved students in underfunded districts will require applying some innovative strategies to instructor credentialing.

Reforming dual enrollment credentialing standards first requires that we navigate our way through the variety of differences between high school and college learning environments. From my experience administering dual enrollment observations these differences include, assessment, pedagogy, time management, and the accommodation of diverse learning styles. Most importantly, for our purposes, is the relative value placed on professional development and the types of graduate degrees held by instructors. Colleges tend to place higher value on content-area graduate degrees, while high schools have increasingly placed more value on graduate degrees in curriculum design, instructional technology, and administration. A National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) report from 2021 found that 51% of teachers had some type of graduate degree. A complementing study from NCES found that only 30% of high school teachers held a graduate degree in a specific content area and the remainder were in a range of educational specializations such

as secondary education, counseling, and administration (Horn & Jang, 2017; NCES, 2023). These percentages were also reflected when I reviewed the files of the 150 dual enrollment instructors I currently work with in New Hampshire and Vermont, neither of which require teachers to hold a graduate degree (Sartore, 2023). Of these, roughly two thirds of the graduate degrees are in some area of education. As part of their certification process I was required to ask each of them to provide additional documentation of content expertise.

If a graduate degree with content specialization is required (or strongly preferred) to teach dual enrollment courses, there is evidence indicating that students in underfunded school districts will be most affected by these lost opportunities (Connolly & Swisher, 2015). In the State of New Hampshire the equity gap between school districts in this regard is striking. There is a 40% differential between professional development funding in relation to districts with higher number of instructors who hold graduate degrees versus those districts with lower graduate degree attainment (New Hampshire Department of Education, 2023; US Census Bureau, 2023). Some troubling anecdotal evidence also suggests school districts with relatively low levels of professional development require a more targeted approach that would steer their staff to enroll in graduate programs with teaching-related applications. If that is the case, an instructor in that district would be encouraged to use those limited funds toward an English Master's of Arts in Teaching (MAT), for example, as opposed to a Master's of Fine Arts (MFA) in fiction writing, despite the fact that the latter degree would more readily be approved for dual enrollment by an academic affairs office.

A growing number of colleges are addressing the challenge of securing qualified dual enrollment instructors by providing their own faculty with a stipend to teach dual enrollment courses in high school classrooms in what the National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP) refers to as the “college provided faculty” model (CPF). This is offered as a solution to the lack of “qualified” instructors in underfunded school districts, as well as an enrollment-driven initiative for student matriculation that has increasingly been a focus of dual enrollment programs (NACEP, 2020). There are obvious complications with this model. A large degree of high school staff development is in pedagogy, assessment, and the use of educational technology. High school faculty are evaluated in these areas to a greater degree than content expertise. Student test scores are used in some states as “value added measures” (VAM's) that comprise a large portion of a teacher's evaluation (NASSP, 2019). From my own experience as a high school instructor I noticed a sharp increase in professional development offerings around assessment and test taking strategies that coincided with the increased use of standardized testing as a

primary measure of student achievement.

College faculty are generally not required to have any professional development around pedagogy and educational methods. As a result, high school administrators may be justifiably concerned about their courses being taught by unlicensed college faculty with little or no teacher training. In addition, most college instructors do not have a license to teach high school, nor do they have the skills necessary to teach that population (Hope & Robinson, 2013). Repurposing the term “academic integrity” (so often deployed by colleges to challenge the rigor of high school instruction) high school educators may push back on the notion that untrained college faculty can meet the learning needs of dual enrollment students more effectively than a certified high school instructor.

Of all the solutions offered for this dilemma the one most underutilized is the application of “tested experience” as a means to verify content area expertise for dual enrollment instructors. The term is not new and has been included in the dual enrollment guidelines of multiple accreditation organizations including the Higher Learning Commission:

[T]ested experience may substitute for an earned credential or portions thereof and allows an institution to determine that a faculty member is qualified based on experience that the institution determines is equivalent to the degree it would otherwise require for a faculty position. This experience should be tested experience in that it includes a breadth and depth of experience outside of the classroom in real-world situations relevant to the discipline in which the faculty member would be teaching. (HLC, 2020)

The University of Detroit-Mercy is one example of a college that explicitly incorporates tested experience as part of their standard faculty hiring practice, as well as for dual enrollment certification for instructors working in the Detroit Public School System (University of Detroit–Mercy, 2020; Detroit Public Schools, n.d.).

I would suggest an expanded view of this model that places greater emphasis on teaching experience and other concrete experiential factors and applying this model to the formulation of what defines a qualified dual enrollment instructor. Many classroom instructors have the lived experience of teaching a course for several years that is accompanied by the annual acquisition of increased content knowledge. One might even argue this type of lived experience is equivalent to the preparation graduate students undergo for comprehensive exams that are a standard component of graduate degree programs.

What are some approaches/metrics that colleges can use to form a consistent set of criteria for implementing teaching experience as a basis for dual enrollment

certification? Below are some criteria colleges might add to their credentialing policies. These pathways can be used in tandem when reviewing the qualifications of dual enrollment instructors or added as an addendum to existing policies that require the instructors to meet multiple measures:

- **Professional Development Hours:** colleges and universities can set a minimum number of content area professional development hours an instructor needs to qualify as a dual enrollment instructor. Most school districts require a specific number of these hours in the content area on a three-year cycle. A dual enrollment instructor could make content-focused activities a regular feature of their three-year plan that would meet the needs of both state and dual enrollment certification.
- **Post-Graduate Teacher Certification Programs:** these are designed as one-year post-graduate programs to provide teacher certification for students who already hold a BA in the content area. These are particularly helpful to candidates who have experience working in a content-related field but do not have a graduate degree. These programs include methods courses that are content-area specific, as well as a student teaching component.
- **State Teacher Exams /Praxis II Scores:** Praxis is a series of teacher certification exams administered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). Most states require these tests for teacher certification, but even those that do not require the test for state certification will sometimes use them as a metric in the hiring process. Praxis I exams measure basic skills in reading, writing, and math. Praxis II is a content-specific exam and most states that utilize them require the student to take multiple Praxis II exams, which cover many different subject areas. Each state requires a different combination of Praxis II exams for certification. For example, a student who plans to teach US History might be required to take separate exams in pedagogy and content. In many states, these include a content knowledge and a pedagogy exam (ETS, 2023). As a tool for dual enrollment credentialing, a benchmark can be set for the instructor to have received an above average score on a range of these tests.
- **Graduate Comprehensive Exams:** A college academic department might require that dual enrollment faculty without an MA take a comprehensive content exam similar to the one a graduate student might take. This can be codified into policy with a specific score

required to certify the dual enrollment instructor.

- Graduate Teaching Assistant Status: Colleges can certify dual enrollment instructors that have been accepted into a graduate program and are actively working towards a degree. They will be assigned a college-based faculty partner and the dual enrollment instructor could teach the course at their high school under the same governance that a graduate teaching assistant would. This approach is consistent with graduate students teaching entry-level courses at a university while pursuing a degree.
- GRE Scores: Although most subject area GRE exams have been discontinued, they are still offered in math, physics, and psychology. There also appears to be a decreasing number of colleges that require these scores for graduate programs (Langin, 2019). In any case, a college may choose to look at subject area GRE performance as a means for determining graduate-level content knowledge. The verbal and quantitative reasoning sections of the general test might be utilized by the college department as a qualifier as well. These tests have been widely criticized for cultural bias over the years, so it may not be advisable to use them as a sole determinant in certifying dual enrollment instructors (Langin, 2019).
- Highly Qualified Teacher (HQT) Certificate: Although requirements for HQT status have been scaled back after passage of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), instructors who received this status prior to 2015 were required to meet the following criteria: 1) hold at least a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution; 2) hold full state certification; and 3) demonstrate competence in each core academic subject in which a teacher teaches (Professional Learning Exchange, 2016).
- Adjunct Credentialing Programs: some colleges offer adjunct faculty teaching programs that provide a certificate validating the development of skills necessary for teaching excellence in a college classroom. These programs come in the form of an asynchronous online course that high school dual enrollment instructors can enroll in prior (or in conjunction with) their dual enrollment teaching assignment. The University of Denver launched an adjunct teaching program in academic year 2022-2023, but there are also outside organizations that provide this training as well (University of Denver, 2023).

The above pathways, which can be used separately or paired together, are all examples of how we might utilize the professional experience of high school instructors for the purpose of dual enrollment certification. Separately, we should also consider lived experience outside of teaching to meet this same goal. Below are examples in specific academic disciplines of how we might apply this to dual enrollment certification under the tested experience model we are exploring.

- English: publication of poetry, journal articles, business writing, novels, journalism experience.
- Humanities: music production, art exhibits, arts management, sign language training, world language proficiency.
- Science: lab work, inventions, published research, patents.
- Math: use of math in workplace settings, engineering, production.
- Social Sciences: publication, social and human services related work.
- Advanced Manufacturing: industry certification, entrepreneurship, work experience.
- Computer Technology: industry certifications, entrepreneurship, work experience
- Health Sciences: healthcare experience, EMS, healthcare administration.

It is important to emphasize that high school communities have as much at stake in securing quality instructors as do partnering colleges. This is often overlooked as colleges sometimes view dual enrollment in adversarial terms, as “academic integrity” is weaponized to raise concern that high school dual enrollment courses are “watered down” or otherwise compromised. Remembering that high schools benefit from rigorous dual enrollment programs as much as their college partners will go a long way in enacting mutually beneficial reforms that will provide opportunities to a larger number of students. As dual enrollment programs are growing exponentially and are currently being offered as a gateway for first generation students (as well as a partial solution to the student debt crisis) it is time to reconceptualize the qualifications required of dual enrollment instructors. This requires that colleges enact certification policies that embrace the broad array of untapped skills and lived experiences held by high school educators. This will allow colleges to design intentional certification policies that substitute for content-based graduate degrees and thereby increase dual enrollment opportunities for a more diverse range of students. The tested experience model presented here offers one pathway to reaching that goal.

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# A VENN DIAGRAM OF SECONDARY- POSTSECONDARY TEACHING AND LEARNING

The Transformative Power of Concurrent  
Enrollment Partnerships

Christine Denecker

## INTRODUCTION

In 2002, I stepped away from a comfortable and successful decade-long career teaching high school English to follow an undeniable inner pull: I needed a new professional challenge. My master's degree in English opened doors to adjunct positions at two local universities, and over the course of a summer, I moved from teaching writing to high school seniors to teaching writing to college freshmen. The work did not feel like much of a stretch. And while I was not considered a candidate for any full-time positions (because I lacked a terminal degree), I held tightly to the thought: "if I can only get my foot in the door, I will be able to prove myself." That thought held true in spring 2003, when the University of Findlay (UF) welcomed me into their English department as a full-time instructor. The catch? I would have to work *and* pursue a doctorate simultaneously. I accepted that challenge.

Twenty years later, as I reflect on my professional entry into higher education, two points stand out to me: first, I landed that full-time position because my pedagogical training and teaching experience resulted in course evaluations that described my classroom as a place of rigor and support. Second, even though my students seemed happy and met course learning outcomes, I still had room to grow

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in my craft. During those late nights of doctoral coursework, I came to find names and theories that explained, clarified, and even justified my approaches to writing instruction. This new-found knowledge fed and humbled me. Eventually, I was meshing readings and concepts from graduate school with active learning strategies from my high school teaching days in order to meet my students where they were as learners. It felt good.

I share this short introductory narrative as it reveals important “a-ha” moments in my shift from secondary to postsecondary sites of education. To acknowledge the significance in the complexity of my movement (and anyone’s movement, for that matter) from one educational space to the other is to acknowledge the intricacies and unspoken rules inherent to both. A certain irony dwells in the similarities found within the differences of these spaces. Instructors are “teachers” in one setting, “professors” in another, yet they share a goal of student learning. Both educational spaces structure learning by objectives and content, but the academic calendar, class length, meeting frequency, and delivery modes may vary. Secondary and postsecondary instructors participate in professional development; however, the forms of PD range from in-service meetings and professional learning communities to scholarly research and academic conferences. And while social interaction among instructors might occur in high school teachers’ lounges in one instance and in college department meetings in another, the exchange of ideas and gossip remain inherent. Undoubtedly, others have experienced a similar contradiction of disjointedness and familiarity upon segueing between secondary and postsecondary teaching.

My understanding of the distinctiveness as well as the overlaps that characterize PK-12 and higher education has deepened over the years thanks to the collaborative relationships I have enjoyed with a talented and dedicated team of secondary English instructors who teach UF college writing courses at their respective high schools. None of us grew up dreaming of a career that included CE, and we entered into this journey with varied purposes and experiences. Our shared work on behalf of CE students has been messy, wonderful, illuminating, and professionally rewarding. In simplest terms, we have found that something transformative happens when high school and college instructors interact with a shared goal of meeting student-learner needs. Miller and Rose (2022) ask: “how can we foster greater cross-pollination of ideas between these two sets of teachers, cross-pollination that would enhance the strengths of both groups? Is it conceivable to transform those who are geographically close into a single set of colleagues who are aware of the ‘steps’ of education from one grade level to the next?” (p. 263). The answer to that second question is “yes.” The “how” requires humility, intentionality, and respect from both groups. It also demands equity and care as evidenced in the “mutual exchange of ideas and expertise

among all participants” (Gilfus, Conrey, & Nappa-Carroll, 2021, p. 247).

This essay explores CE as a site where secondary and postsecondary instructors can collaboratively investigate convergences in their approaches to teaching so they are better poised to glean the best from each. The essay begins with a brief overview of three “gaps” that affect alignment and cohesion in the educational continuum: 1) student preparedness; 2) secondary and postsecondary structures, functions, and cultures; and 3) instructor preparation. The gap metaphor is then examined in order to reframe the discussion from a deficit model to that of a Venn Diagram where cogent relationships between secondary and postsecondary learning come into view. Here CE enters the conversation with its “complicated intersections of people, places, and curriculum” (Gilfus, Conrey, & Nappa-Carroll, 2021, p. 62) and its potential for “improv[ing] the transition from high school to college by uniting secondary and postsecondary education” (Mokher & McLendon, 2009). What follows is an emphasis on instructor collaboration with respect and reciprocity of best practices across educational contexts. This premise of shared professional growth among high school and college instructors situates CE as a site of learning for students and their teachers. Evidence is shared from current literature on CE, Dual Enrollment (DE), Dual Credit, Career Tech Prep, and Early College High Schools (ECHS) to demonstrate the challenges and rewards of this approach. The essay ends with recommendations for reassessing what constitutes “readiness” to teach college courses, redesigning secondary and postsecondary approaches to better support students, and renewing our commitment to teaching and learning through a focus on non-hierarchical educational collaboration.

## **EDUCATIONAL “GAPS”**

### *Gap One: Student Preparedness*

“Gaps” in student preparedness, like those I have witnessed from the time I first began helping students navigate the shift from high school to college writing expectations, are well documented (Denecker, 2013; McCrimmon, 2014; Dennihy, 2015; McWain, 2018), and are prevalent in the scholarship on secondary/postsecondary education, in general. For decades, researchers have explored gaps in student preparedness for college (Stanford, 2022; Springer, Wilson, & Dole, 2015; Appleby, 2014; Hughes & Edwards, 2012; Zeidenberg, Jenkins, & Calcagno, 2007; Johnston & Viadero, 2000). Dependent upon the report, students demonstrate deficiencies in reading proficiency (Springer, Wilson, & Dole, 2015); mathematic abilities (Stanford, 2022); knowledge of college resources, critical thinking skills,

and/or the ability to take responsibility for their own learning (Appleby, 2014), among others. Root causes cited for contributing to these learning gaps include but are not limited to “inequities in family income and wealth, parental resources, [and] early childhood education” (Mintz, 2022). Most recently the discussion of gaps has turned to that of additional learning losses resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic with larger losses evidenced among those with low socioeconomic status (Enzghell, Frey, & Verhagen, 2021; Hammerstein, et al., 2021; Zeirer, 2021; Maldonado & De Witte, 2022). Researchers predict widening gaps in learner preparation in the coming years (Hammerstein, et al. 2021). To that point, the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities in Ohio (AICUO) (2023) reported that just one-third of high school graduates met math and science benchmarks in 2022. Beyond academics, the National Center for Education Statistics (2022) noted the pandemic’s negative impact on students’ socio-emotional and behavioral development and cited an increase in disrespectful actions and absenteeism among students.

### *Gap Two: Secondary and Postsecondary Structures, Cultures, and Functions*

Layered beneath the concept of student preparedness gaps lies another, larger “gap,” which consists of “structural, cultural, and functional differences between high school and college institutions” (Hughes & Edwards, p. 31). These include distinctions in schedules, contact time, curriculum, and pedagogical strategies, as well as procedures, responsibilities, requirements, grading practices, rigor, expectations for student behavior, and norms (Mollet et al., 2020; Duncheon & Relles, 2020; Howley et al., 2013; Ferguson, Baker, & Burnett, 2015). Additionally, college grades traditionally hinge on fewer assignments, and learners must be more proactive in exercising self-discipline, managing time, and seeking support (Cassidy, Keating, & Young, 2011). In sum, incongruities across the two educational planes have led to a perception that “work in college is harder, there is more of it, it must be completed in a shorter time period, and most of it must be done outside the school environment” (Appleby, 2014, p. 1). And while it is not the aim of this essay to provide an historical review of how the structural, cultural, and functional differences of secondary and postsecondary education came to be, the point remains that anomalies between the two exist and learners get caught in the middle.

### *Gap Three: Instructor Preparation*

Teaching methods cannot be uncoupled from that perception that “work in college is harder”—which it certainly is to some extent as more complex concepts

and skills are broached and developed. However, especially at the freshman level, is college work really that much “harder”? Or is it just different since the classroom cultures and pedagogical approaches of PK-12 and higher education instruction vary? Specific to ECHS, DE, and CE scholarship, discrepancies in teaching methods are sources of tension (and potential growth) for secondary and postsecondary instructors (Conrey & Nappa-Carroll, 2021; Mollet, et al., 2020; Elias, 2015; McCrimmon, 2010). For example, conventional wisdom sets up college instructors in “sage on the stage” roles where they teach as they were taught with a goal of transmitting content, while PK-12 instructors are better known for active learning strategies and student-centered approaches. To borrow from McCrimmon (2010), a common perception then is that college faculty understand content better and high school faculty understand students better. Certainly, some truth lies behind this claim. As explained by Jensen (2011), prospective high school teachers must develop content knowledge and study how learners process information. They must also develop efficacious instructional strategies, which include but are not limited to taking “courses in child and adolescent development, multicultural and special needs education, cognitive psychology, behavioral theories, classroom management, the use of technology in the classroom, and curriculum design” (ibid, p. 30). In contrast, their higher education counterparts who have intentions of teaching must earn a graduate degree in content. Some, but not all, may have opportunities to serve as Teaching Assistants and/or receive training in pedagogical strategies; however, this supplemental professional development is not mandated.

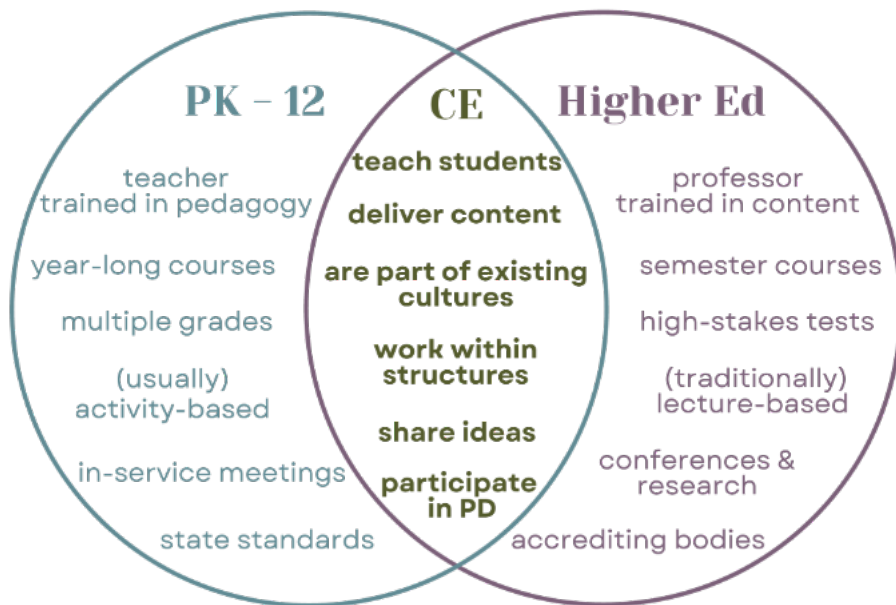
### *Concurrent Enrollment and the “Gap” Metaphor*

As this brief overview demonstrates, ongoing conversations of secondary and postsecondary education have gravitated toward “gap” metaphors to explain the current variabilities in PK-16 education. “Gaps” exist in student readiness; in educational structures, functions, and culture; and in instructor preparation. Despite (and perhaps because of) the prevalence of educational “gaps,” Lueck and Nordquist (2022) caution that this metaphor “communicate[s] an enduring confidence in the stability of institutions and stages of education and thereby reduce[s] complex, co-constitutive relationships to questions of bridge building . . .” (p. 44). As a result, the gap metaphor obstructs all the personal, societal, and cultural influences on systems of education as well as the potential for positive symbiotic secondary-postsecondary relationships. To rely, then, too heavily on the gap metaphor is to situate secondary and postsecondary education as static, monolithic entities. The logic that follows suggests that gaps are inevitable since these entrenched spaces are not subject to

any real change or alignment. Consequently, the “discourse of bridging reinscribes bounded places and gaps between them” (Lueck & Nordquist, 2022, p. 44). Such a stance leaves no room for the dynamic nature of learning which—above all else—should and can resist rigid boundaries. A gap mentality, then, discourages a mindset that might search for answers in the complex congruities of the educational structures, themselves, and instead positions the problem simply as a learner issue.

I offer in response to the gap metaphor the image of a Venn Diagram of secondary-postsecondary teaching and learning:

Figure 1: *Venn Diagram of Secondary-Postsecondary Teaching and Learning*



*Note:* The center of the diagram denotes some, but not all, elements in common between PK-12 and higher educational structures. Please read the list of center elements with a “We all” sentence stem starter. The outer bands of the diagram represent what might be considered traditional characteristics of each unique learning environment. Again, this list is not exhaustive.

At its center is the Concurrent Enrollment classroom where high school and college are superimposed—not neatly and not without challenge or tension. Herein exists a place for exploring cogent secondary and postsecondary relationships while

simultaneously reimagining education. McCrimmon (2010), in his discussion of DE composition, considers how instructors might “take full advantage of the merging contexts” of Concurrent Enrollment spaces in order to “draw from the best practices and features of both settings” (p. 222). Similarly, Conrey and Nappa-Carroll (2021) argue that high school and college instructors *and their students* can benefit from reciprocal CE partnerships when innovative pedagogies are shared and research opportunities are mutually explored. Through these collaborations, “the discovery and implementation of locally-developed college readiness practices are far more likely to happen . . .” (ibid, 259). The success of this approach, and its probability to positively impact student learning across the PK-16 continuum relies on the willingness of high school and college instructors to recognize and champion each other as collaborators in a shared enterprise.

### **WHEN INSTRUCTORS COLLABORATE**

As mentioned earlier, I have spent well over a decade working as a Faculty Liaison (FL) with a cadre of high school English teachers (known as Concurrent Enrollment Instructors or CEIs) to deliver the University of Findlay’s College Writing I courses to high school students. Our relationship has grown through a variety of means including the multiple-day, course-specific orientation every CEI participates in prior to teaching the course for the first time. As a group, we participate in annual professional development each summer and fall, check in periodically and share ideas through email or Zoom, and collectively muster up energy to review portfolios of student writing at the end of each semester. We reflect on teaching and learning during site visits, calibrate our grading, and contemplate how to create inviting educational spaces that balance support and rigor. We vent, mull, and dream over changes needed in our respective systems and in education, in general. We also break bread, laugh, and share stories of our families, our pets, and our losses. We disagree at times, and we tease, cajole, and nurture one another. We welcome new folks into our fold and stay in touch with those who have moved on to new adventures. We are colleagues, co-researchers, and even friends. In my estimation, we collaborate in meaningful and productive ways.

The secondary-postsecondary instructor relationships I have been privileged to enjoy are not unique. Syracuse University and Indiana University (among others) have developed programs that resist “traditional, top-down models of mentorship” (Conrey & Nappa-Carroll, 2021, p. 249) and, instead, place emphasis on “shar[ing] successful classroom strategies and innovative approaches” (Farris, 2022, xi). In these instances, secondary-postsecondary instructor relationships are driven by



two guiding principles: mutual respect and the desire to meet learner needs. The second cannot happen without the first. Unfortunately, not all CE partnerships are predicated on mutual respect, and sometimes they are not even “partnerships,” in the true sense of the word, at all. For example, numerous studies cite concerns of various stakeholders (college instructors, researchers, administrators, the general public) regarding high school instructors’ abilities to teach college courses appropriately in terms of content and/or rigor (Bishop-Clark, Hurn, & Perry, 2010; Speroni, 2011; Duncheon & Relles, 2020; Howley, et al., 2013). Various assumptions are embedded in those concerns—from “high school courses lack challenge” to “secondary instructors do not have the content knowledge to teach at the college level.” As a result, much time and effort has been put toward the credentialing of high school teachers so that their qualifications “mirror” those of their postsecondary colleagues (Dounay-Zinth, 2015, p. 5). Specifically, accrediting bodies such as the Higher Learning Commission require CE instructors to hold a master’s degree in content or a master’s degree (or higher) in another discipline plus “a minimum of 18 graduate credit hours in the discipline in which he or she is teaching” (HLC, 2020, p. 3). To possess the appropriate credentials, then, is to be “ready” to teach college courses, and as a result, to be worthy of respect in CE spaces.

Other challenges to building relationships in CE spaces derive from a number of factors including a lack of investment in time, planning, or resources devoted to bringing the two groups together under the umbrella of common work. Several studies cite situations where Concurrent Enrollment Instructors and college faculty have limited interaction or lack communication (Elias, 2015; Howley, et al., 2013); encounter discord when trying to understand the norms of the other group (Mollet, et al., 2020); navigate contradictory instructions from PK-12 and higher education administrators (Duncheon & Relles, 2020); or feel like they “serve two masters” due to competing agendas or requirements (Duncheon & Relles, 2020, p. 1000). Just as troubling are instances where institutions impose their cultural norms (Mollet, et al., 2020) or actively work against the other (Malek & Micchiche, 2017). Each of these examples suggests a lack of willingness to change or to see value in the other sides’ approach to education. The result? Lost opportunities to build congruity in teaching and learning.

Just a little additional digging reveals an even deeper root that can prohibit true partnership building: educational hierarchies. Evidence of this is embedded in the notion that teaching CE courses is “prestigious” for high school instructors, while college instructors are “stuck” with that role (Hebert, 2001, p. 34; Mollet et al., 2020). Likewise, Wilkinson (2019) points out, “a unidirectional relationship between high school teachers and college administrators” is common among CE programs (p. 89),

and Conrey and Nappa-Carroll (2021) caution programs about positioning “faculty liaisons as lightbringers in matters of college preparation” (p. 259). In other words, Faculty Liaison and Concurrent Enrollment Instructor relationships, like the one in which I participate, can be solely top-down if not approached with an openness on the part of the FL to *learn from and alongside* the CEIs. In Howley et al.’s (2013) study, college faculty “often reported situations in which they assumed the prerogatives of leadership—and in the process marginalized their high school teacher colleagues” (p. 95). Credentialing mandates also serve to re-inscribe the hierarchy in that they set graduate coursework alone as the marker of readiness to teach college classes—and as a result, undervalue the pedagogical training and experience of high school instructors.

The rootedness of PK-16 hierarchies has even led some high school instructors to second guess the value of their own pedagogical approaches. In one Texas study, ECHS instructors “worried that student-centered approaches would leave their early college students ill-prepared . . . They assumed students needed exposure to college teaching styles to become [college] ready” (Duncheon & Relles, 2019). This response is worth unpacking as it assumes: 1) college teaching is lecture-based; 2) students need to be ready for lecture-style instruction if they are going to college; and, most importantly, 3) student-centered/active learning strategies are not “college teaching.” Assumptions such as these (and the hierarchies that drive them) fail to recognize the grounding of high school instructor preparation in “learning styles, teaching techniques, developmental stages, and assessment and evaluation”—training that “may prove extremely beneficial in teaching high school students’ college-level coursework” (Hebert, 2001, p. 34). Strategies gleaned from that training could also help college instructors consider what practices *they* might incorporate to better promote student success and retention—especially in entry-level math, science, and English courses. Granted, colleges and universities “own” the courses being taught in CE programs and must account for the content and parity of those courses; however, the high school has a stake and a voice in assuring quality instruction as well.

When secondary and postsecondary instructors push aside hierarchies and work together in CE spaces to meet the needs of learners, the reality of what constitutes teacher-readiness for college instruction becomes clearer. Bishop-Clark, Hurn, & Perry (2010) explain in their study of secondary and postsecondary math and science teachers that: “As university faculty and high school faculty got to know one another, the university instructors were increasingly convinced that the courses were being taught at the college level” (p. 88). Likewise, Burdick & Greer’s (2017) work with Concurrent Enrollment writing instructors has led them to advocate for a

“more contextualized lens” for determining college teaching readiness that includes “knowledge of students, knowledge of content, and the flexibility to adapt within particular contexts” (p. 87). Similarly, Wilkinson (2019) argues that “Dual-credit programs should acknowledge that high school teachers are experts in their own right often coming in with many years of classroom experience . . .” (p. 91). To put it simply, a Venn diagram of CE can resituate “readiness to teach college” from credentialing alone to a more nuanced awareness of effective instruction as tied to an intentional mix of content knowledge *and* pedagogy.

Obviously, Venn Diagrams reveal places of overlap. Their contours resist gaps, and their intertwined natures suggest reciprocity, not hierarchy, as a place from which to cultivate best practices in teaching and learning. Respect and reciprocity underscore work done in Portland State University’s Spanish Challenge Program where: “. . . exposure to the continually renewed pedagogical experience of the high school teachers challenges university faculty to keep their teaching and research fresh and responsive” (Sloan, 2019, p. 267). Furthermore, “The wisdom and practices of high school instructors and the insights of high school students are carried back to the university and disseminated . . . to faculty members who are not participating in the program” (Sloan, 2019, p. 267). Burdick & Greer (2017) note, too, that college Writing Program Administrators “might find that creating dialogic relationships with their counterparts in secondary schools improves the teaching of writing in both high school classrooms and on campus” (p. 93). Similarly, high school instructors and college faculty co-teaching in an Ohio CE chemistry course adjusted curriculum to increase depth with a goal of improving students’ scientific literacy; a suggestion followed “that college chemistry faculty should also consider adopting such curricular revisions” (White, Hopkins, & Shockley, 2014, p. 36). Bishop-Clark, Hurn, & Perry (2010), in their study of an Ohio career tech prep program, found “the relationship between the college faculty and the high school faculty” as integral to success (p. 88). High school and college colleagues in the program met regularly, stayed in touch through email, and participated in bi-directional classroom visits (*ibid*). According to the authors, “As with many mentoring relationships, the mentors learned much from their mentees” and grew to see each other as “colleagues sharing information” (*ibid*, p. 89). In other words, they have cultivated what Conrey and Nappa-Carroll (2021) call an “equitable mentorship” where participants interact critically and generously (p. 250).

To borrow from Dennihy (2015), “Lack of knowledge about—and, worse, unwillingness to understand—what is happening in classrooms and institutions beyond our own not only weakens the quality of our teaching but also hinders the success of our students” (p. 167). A Venn Diagram of instructional possibilities

emerges when secondary and postsecondary instructors in CE spaces work together with respect and intention. They might even find, as those in Howley, et al.'s (2013) study did, “significant overlap in content between the high school and the college” (p. 93). The next step is for instructors to utilize that knowledge of content, pedagogy, and more—as derived from CE collaborations—to better meet student learners, no matter the educational context.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

### *Reassess Readiness to Teach College*

Readiness to teach college courses should imply an ability on the part of instructors to appropriately challenge and facilitate students’ knowledge, skills, and attitudes for particular discipline-specific coursework. To be best equipped for this work, instructors need a mix of content knowledge, pedagogical strategies, and insight into how students learn. With that said, a high school teacher’s degree in education should be considered an advantage (Hebert, 2001, p. 34) in any conversation of college teaching readiness. At the same time, CEIs “have unique needs associated with transitioning from high school to college-level expectations and benefit from the cultivation of a relationship with the full-time faculty in the discipline . . .” (Charlier & Duggan, 2009, p. 108). Here guidance from the National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP) in the form of the Faculty Liaison/ Concurrent Enrollment Instructor relationship serves as a good model. FLs help approve instructors and provide CEIs with training that orients them to the course(s) they will teach. They also support CEIs in crafting syllabi and assessments that align with course learning outcomes, facilitate annual discipline-specific professional development, and utilize site visits to ensure course parity (NACEP Accreditation Guide, 2020). While these relationships could be top-down, NACEP advocates professional development that is “reciprocal in nature” (Allen, et al., 2015, p. 8). With this guidance in mind, I urge that we move the current conversation of what constitutes readiness to teach college courses from one narrowly focused on credentialing to one that explores “readiness” as more holistically determined through an intersection of credentials, experience, and high-quality partnerships.

### *Redesign Secondary and Postsecondary Approaches to Better Support Students*

Along with insight into college teaching readiness, the Venn Diagram of CE

reveals other places where reciprocal relationships between PK-12 and higher education can inform how each does business—most specifically in overall approaches to the structure and delivery of content. For example, CE partnerships through the University of Findlay have resulted in the alteration of schedules at several high schools in an attempt to better mirror college contact time with at least one day per week serving as instructor “office hours.” Also, in response to high school partners’ requests, study skills and career planning courses are now available through UF’s CE program to help acquaint students with differences they might encounter if they choose to pursue a two or four-year degree upon high school graduation. Just as importantly, knowledge gleaned from CE partnerships is helping guide college efforts to ameliorate learning losses associated with the pandemic. To that point, chemistry instructors have turned to more frequent, low-stakes assignments to hold students accountable for their learning and pinpoint specific areas of misunderstanding or need. They have also moved to an “open office hours” approach in a study-hall-like space that allows for students to collaborate on practice problems with the guidance of their instructors. Likewise writing faculty and TAs now hold “office hours” in the Writing Center—a communal, student-friendly space. Finally, instructors in English and communication share teaching materials through Canvas (UF’s learning management system), while joint research projects among English FLs and CEIs have led to collaborative state and national presentations and workshops. Such opportunities serve to reinforce the ongoing professional development and career satisfaction of both. Work like this is happening elsewhere. However, further reporting and research of these and similar efforts is needed to gauge impact and success if we are to capitalize on a “the best of both” approach. In addition, future studies should look to capture CE’s two-way ripple effect—as participating instructors share strategies with middle school colleagues or those who teach upper division college courses.

### *Renew Our Commitment to Teaching and Learning Through Educational Collaboration*

Elsewhere I argue that transitioning high school writers to college writing expectations “is not so much about what the students do as it is about what the *instructors* know or understand about composition practices on both sides of the divide” (Denecker, 2013, p. 31, original emphasis). I contend the same is true for education in general. However, if the CE space is to be used effectively to renew efforts that support student learning, then PK-12 and higher education leaders must demonstrate their commitment by providing adequate time and resources

for instructors to learn with and from one another. According to Olwell (2021), successful college in high school programs “require visionary leadership at the top” (p. 15) as well as adequate infrastructure, and “It often takes a full planning year for these K-12 and higher education institutions to see one another’s perspectives” (ibid, p. 14). Specifically, leadership must prioritize instructor interaction and provide travel reimbursement, meals, resources, and substitute teacher support, as necessary. Beyond that, secondary and postsecondary leaders must also assure equitable and appropriate compensation and labor conditions (such as course caps) in order to sustain and further professionalize CE work.

Support of instructors as described above directly indicates a commitment to student learning. Zeek’s research (2007) notes that investment in collaborative efforts “opened up communications between the public school system and the college and paved the way for more dual offerings” (n.p.). In Iowa, CE and community college instructors have the means to network and “exchange teaching strategies” and resources (Hanson, Prusha, & Iverson, 2015). Similarly, in Portland State University’s Spanish Challenge Program high school and college faculty participate in workshops that “focus on strategies to enhance student performance, heighten teacher effectiveness, and improve content-based instruction” (Sloan, 2019, p. 265). In their study of a North Carolina ECHS, Ari, et al.’s (2017) findings reiterate the importance of “policies promoting teacher development, wellness, and retention” (p. 29). Furthermore, they note that dedicated instructors who engage students and care about their learning are integral to combatting “a host of setbacks to succeeding in higher education settings” (ibid, p. 28). Finally, Duncheon and Relles (2020) describe the benefits of making time for instructors to have discussions “that go beyond simply identifying skills or terms, such as ‘rigor’ or ‘maturity,’ to actually making sense collectively of what those terms mean what they should look like in practice” (p. 474). Simply put, an investment in instructor professional development equals an investment in students.

Yet another way educational leaders can promote the transformative power of cross-institutional partnerships is to seek out and position “border crossers” to help facilitate this work (Howley et al., 2013). A unique subset of instructors and administrators, border crossers as described by Howley et al. (2013), possess both PK-12 and higher education experience, which results in more egalitarian approaches within CE spaces. Since they possess “practical” and “ideological” knowledge of both educational landscapes (ibid, p. 92), these individuals can more deftly navigate each system and unite stakeholders in productive conversations that can lead to positive educational change. As Mollet et al. (2020) note, “participants who had experience in both K-12 and higher education contexts demonstrated the greatest

flexibility in identifying solutions” that reinforced student learning (p. 238). In other words, border crossers can help the Venn Diagram of secondary and postsecondary teaching and learning come more clearly into focus.

### **CONCLUSION: TOWARDS A VENN DIAGRAM OF LEARNING**

I will end this essay where it began, with a story. Long before I became a high school and then college writing instructor, I entered my undergraduate degree believing I would one day teach classrooms of kindergartners like my mother before me. While that goal changed, something important from that time in my life stuck: inside every learner is a kindergartner—one who needs engagement, direction, boundaries, chances to succeed and fail, and a safe place to grow and be stretched. No matter the space, the age of the students, or the content—teaching, when done well, consists of engaging, challenging, and nurturing learners: those who come to us ready to learn, those who do not, and even those who resist our attempts to help them learn.

PK-12 and higher education structures do not lend themselves easily to cross-institutional collaboration for the greater good. Gap metaphors underscore that complexity. However, through CE, a Venn diagram of secondary and postsecondary learning emerges . . . if we are thoughtful and open enough to look for it. And while the depth of overlaps in Venn diagrams can wax and wane, the point is to discern places of congruity. In doing so, we find the potential to increase alignment and continuity of instruction and thus, better position ourselves as instructors to support and transform student learning—regardless of where that learning takes place.



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## BOOK REVIEW

Denecker, C. & Moreland, C. (Eds.).(2022). *The Dual Enrollment Kaleidoscope: Reconfiguring Perceptions of First-Year Writing and Composition Studies*. Utah State University Press.

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Do not make the same mistake that I did in assuming that *The Dual Enrollment Kaleidoscope* is only for professionals involved in first year composition (FYC) courses. In hindsight, grounding this important discussion in FYC makes sense because it is the most popular dual enrollment (DE) course nationally. As a gateway course, composition studies may have greater stakes than other content areas.

While the focus is on FYC, this carefully curated collection of evidence-based research and scholarship is relevant to all who research, who work in, are critical of, and who are champions of what is often referred to as the liminal space between high school and college.

The metaphor of a kaleidoscope is apt, as the chapters encourage readers to reflect on their own biases while presenting familiar DE themes in a new way through the lens of FYC. For example, as a leader and advocate of a DE program, my skepticism was heightened in the first few pages as editors Denecker and Moreland begin with the provocative claim, “To be honest, we are not entirely sure how we feel about dual enrollment” (2022, p. 4). But I soon realized that my own fears were unfounded, as each chapter offered a fresh perspective on equity, access, rigor, and partnerships

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between secondary and postsecondary institutions.

The book is divided into four sections that emphasize a different perspective including the gap, alignment, legitimacy, and student success. For the most part, each chapter includes highlights from a research study. The variety and diversity of research methodologies adds value to the conversation, particularly because many feature the voices of students and high school teachers who are often underrepresented in DE research. The research studies in this book include complex data grounded in theory, in a format that is accessible and relevant to a wide range of audiences. The summaries below are not intended to be a complete synthesis, but are merely highlights that will hopefully entice readers to take a deeper dive by reading the book in its entirety.

Section One: Perspectives of the “Gap”: Theorizing the Divide includes thought-provoking critiques of DE that offer the opportunity for DE practitioners to critically reflect on their programs. Authors accurately identify unintended consequences that may occur when students do not have adequate support such as advising and academic monitoring, or if high school teachers do not have proper training about university-level expectations in FYC. These criticisms, while fair, are tempered with practical, thoughtful suggestions about how programs can be redesigned to avoid these pitfalls. Readers are reminded that DE offers new opportunities for collaboration that have the potential to blur the historical separation between secondary and postsecondary institutions.

Section Two: Perspectives of Alignment: Building High School-College Partnerships takes a deeper dive into the concept of liminality that high school teachers face as they navigate disparate expectations from high schools and colleges at the same time. Here, the constraints of the high school teacher are recognized as well as the importance of active two-way collaboration that gives teachers a voice and recognizes their experience and expertise. At the same time, authors suggest providing resources such as professional development in FYC that includes relationship-building and communities of practice.

In Section Three: Perspectives of Legitimacy: Is DE FYC really FYC?, the authors warn against the perspective of high schools as a deficit model. Authors explore reasons why students take FYC courses, including bending and shaping programs to fit their own needs. Faculty are challenged to consider what might be possible when DE students begin their college careers with higher-level writing skills. Gatekeeping, as a form of excluding those who are perceived to not belong, is admonished as educators at all levels are challenged to consider social justice work to mend the disparities in DE programming.

Section Four: Perspectives of Student Success: DE FYC for All? presents data

based on studies that include assessments of student writing, student self-efficacy in writing, and classroom observations and reflections. These approaches augment traditional studies that use longitudinal data to determine student success rates. Authors suggest that there is inconsistency in rigor and content of DE FYC courses, and remind readers that these issues are complex and cannot be attributed solely to the high school teacher.

Throughout the book, the notion of DE FYC as viewed through a kaleidoscope does, indeed, work well. Despite these multi-faceted lenses, several themes were pervasive and persistent. Authors repeatedly underscore the importance of rigor, program evaluation, assessment of student work, partnership, and collaboration. It is not surprising, then, that the accreditation standards developed by The National Alliance of Concurrent Enrollment Partnerships (NACEP) were mentioned throughout all four sections. As a former dual enrollment high school teacher and current higher education researcher and administrator, this book prompted me to critically reflect on issues my team is currently grappling with. I highly recommend this book to all dual enrollment professionals, faculty, and administrators involved in and affected by DE. As a simple turn changes the view through a kaleidoscope, it just might change your own perspective.







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