

Adult Learning Theory **&** **High School Students**

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How to Use THE LECTURE AS A LEARNING / TEACHING TECHNIQUE with ADULTS

by John A. Henschke

INTRODUCTION

The most spontaneous response one might give upon seeing the above title may be "DON'T! DON'T use lecture as a learning/teaching technique with adults!" However, that may be an easy "dodge," a bit presumptuous, and unrealistic since it almost goes without saying that the lecture remains and, for sometime to come, probably will remain a most important learning/teaching technique in adult education (in the church as well as in other adult education programs). In fact, the lecture is one of the oldest and most direct learning/teaching techniques. Thus time has made it so hallowed that many people have confused the lecture and learning/teaching as being synonymous.

In the midst of its long-standing history and acceptance, as well as the mystique and confusion which surround it, *the lecture can be used to great advantage if:* (1) one has some grasp of what the learning/teaching process is; (2) it is clearly understood what the lecture can accomplish and what it cannot accomplish in the learning/teaching process; (3) the same guidelines are applied to the choice and

use of the lecture as are applied in choosing and using the wide variety of learning/teaching techniques (old and new) in the learning situation; and (4) strong consideration is given to using other techniques like audience participation, discussion, and simulations to enhance the use of the lecture.

This article *is not devoted* to the how of developing and giving a lecture. The public libraries, as well as two sources^{1,2} listed here, abound with such discourses.

Most of these resources would agree with one writer³ that a good lecture must: (1) motivate group interest; (2) be well organized and clear; (3) be developed well; and (4) be presented well.

In lecture preparation, the following steps would be suggested by that same writer: (1) analyze the learning group; (2) determine the exact purpose to be accomplished; (3) determine the main points and do necessary research; (4) organize the points and materials; and (5) develop and support the points. Good lecture presentation would be natural, conversational, direct, animated, enthusiastic, with sufficient voice projection and emphasis to be heard,

¹Paul Bergman et al., *Adult Education Procedures* (Greenwich, Conn.: Seabury Press, 1963), pp. 137-164.

²Harold P. Zalta, "The Lecture," Lester R. Skitel and Robert L. Craig, eds., *Training and Development Handbook* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), pp. 161-182.

³Ibid., pp. 164-182.

supported by appropriate gestures and visual aids, and with constant awareness and concern for listener acceptance and understanding.

This article is devoted to considering in turn each of the four propositions mentioned above on how to improve the use of the lecture, with accompanying suggestions. Since volumes could be written elaborating on each proposition, it is obvious that only a "skimming of the surface" and not "coverage in depth" will be possible here. Thus, it is hoped that this article will help the reader *think through* and *answer some questions* in regard to improving his or her use of the lecture as a learning/teaching technique. It is further hoped that this article will also raise some questions and curiosities in the reader's mind that will stimulate further inquiry. It is not asked that the reader agree with what is said and defined in this article, but it is asked that the reader accept what is said and defined for purposes of understanding the author's line of thinking.

THE LEARNING/TEACHING PROCESS

This process is indeed complex. It is not for those who wish an easy "cut and dried" answer of one, two, three. Learning is a human process and accordingly does not attempt to explain that which is attributed to grace. It is an internal process with the person, controlled by the learner and engaging his whole being—intellectual, emotional, and physical. It is based on the growing body of research which suggests that *adults can learn*, contrary to the popular notion that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks."

Teaching formulates the other side of the learning/teaching process. Here is how one adult educator states the case:

The truly artistic teacher of adults perceives the locus of responsibility for learning to be in the learner; he conscientiously suppresses his own compulsion to teach what he knows his students ought to learn in favor of helping his students learn for themselves what they want to learn. I have described this faith in the ability of the individual to learn for himself as the "theological foundation" of adult education and I believe that without this faith, a teacher of adults is more likely to hinder than to facilitate learning.¹

DEFINITIONS

"Format" or "Method" is the organization of persons for purposes of a learning experience.

"Technique" involves the variety of ways that the learning experience is managed so as to facilitate learning.

¹ Malcolm S. Knowles, *The Modern Practice of Adult Education* (New York: Association Press, 1970), p. 31.

"Lecture" is referred to here as a technique, not a format or a method. The lecture is a carefully prepared oral presentation of a subject, theme, or problem by a qualified person. It may also be labeled as a *speech* or *sermon*.

ASSUMPTIONS

Assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners are also crucial components of the learning/teaching process. A growing body of knowledge indicates that adult learners are different from child learners. These are not so much real differences as they are differences in assumptions that are made in traditional education (Christian education as well as secular education).

The assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners are that, as a person matures: (1) his/her self-concept moves from being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directing human being; (2) he/she accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasingly valuable resource for learning; (3) his/her readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of one's social roles; (4) his/her time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application; and accordingly (5) his/her orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to problem/situation-centeredness.²

IMPLICATIONS

Since "participation," "ego-involvement," and "interaction" are boldfaced words in the lexicon of the adult educator, the assumption is often made that the more active the learner's role is in the process, the more he/she is probably learning. It is acknowledged and accepted that some persons may wish not to be involved actively in the learning process. Thus, use of the lecture as a learning/teaching technique needs to be designed and implemented to not only maximize the opportunity for interaction, ego-involvement, and participation to the extent the participants desire it, but also to increase the adult learner's competence in self-direction and the other characteristics of adult learners mentioned above.

WHAT THE LECTURE CAN AND CANNOT ACCOMPLISH

In any educational experience, objectives serve to indicate what that particular activity is seeking to accomplish, including content components as well as behavioral aspects.

The lecture is suggested as one of the most appropriate learning/teaching techniques for the behavioral outcomes of knowledge and values. Other more appropriate techniques may need to be chosen for the

² Ibid., p. 39.

behavioral outcomes of understanding, skill, attitude, and interest.

There is also some evidence in education that straight factual, descriptive, or explanatory material may be learned by direct absorption through the lecture, whereas principles and concepts may be best learned by group-participation learning/teaching techniques.

GUIDELINES FOR CHOOSING THE LECTURE AND OTHER LEARNING/TEACHING TECHNIQUES

QUESTIONS

Three guiding questions to be answered when choosing the lecture as a learning/teaching technique are: (1) How does your selection and use of the lecture fit into your understanding of the way people change and grow (learning theory)? (2) What position does this lecture hold in the context of the goals toward which you are working in the learning/teaching situation? (3) What immediate and observable needs, at this time, with these persons, does this lecture meet?

CRITERIA FOR DECIDING

Additional factors which influence the decision of whether or not to use the lecture include:

- (1) The more the instructor knows about the subject at hand and the less the participants know about it, the more appropriate the lecture would be.
- (2) The more knowledge and experience the group has with the subject, the more a group participation technique should be considered in place of the lecture.
- (3) If the size of the group is over twenty persons for any one activity and no smaller groupings can be used, the lecture should be considered.
- (4) The lecture can deal with more facts in a shorter time than any other technique.

PURPOSES

The lecture may include any or all of the following purposes:

- (1) presenting information in an organized way;
- (2) identifying or clarifying problems or issues;
- (3) motivating, stimulating, persuading, and influencing attitudes of the listeners;
- (4) analyzing a controversial issue;
- (5) inspiring the audience;
- (6) encouraging further study or inquiry.⁴

LECTURE ENHANCED BY OTHER TECHNIQUES

PROCESSING INFORMATION

One problem of today's world is that we have what University of Missouri Professor Daryl Hobbs called an "information overload." This means we have more information than we know how to handle and how to process. Some of the information overload comes from lectures.

One way to process some of our real concerns arising

⁴Paul Bergevin et al., op. cit., p. 112. (Adapted and expanded by this author.)

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out of the "overload" is to engage existing church and community groups in problem solving.⁷ Here is one way the lecture can be used in combination with and enhanced by another technique—problem solving.

LECTURER CALLED A SYMBOLIC HEALER

Most people are involved in some aspect of the competitive business community.

It is suggested that a speaker may also serve as a "symbolic healer to reduce the tensions, frustration, and possible feelings of guilt arising inevitably from the structure of a highly organized, highly specialized and competitive business community."⁸

The suggestion that use of the lecture can be enhanced by using it with other techniques is based squarely on the notion that quality in adult education is in direct proportion to the quality and extent of interaction, ego-involvement, and participation of the persons involved.

If this author were charged with the practical responsibility for a one-hour educational meeting on any theme, subject, or problem which required use of the lecture, here are three ways he would consider designing the program.

A lecturer who is knowledgeable on the theme, subject, or problem to be considered would be invited. He should also be willing to "roll with the punches" or "freewheel."

1. Before the speaker gave his lecture, the participants would be divided into pairs, threes, or groups of four to six. They would be asked to generate questions or identify problems they would like the lecturer to talk about, thus outlining his speech—an "inductive lecture."

2. Before a lecture, the audience could be divided into four sections to serve as "listening teams." One section could listen to the lecture for points requiring clarification, one for points of disagreement, another for points for elaboration, and another for problems of practical application. After the lecture, sections would "buzz" for a short time to pool their thinking about points they want raised and to select a spokesperson to present the issues to the speaker.

3. Following a lecture, the members of the audience could be asked to form buzz groups to discuss how they plan to apply the information to their own situations. Then a spokesperson would be asked to report from each group.⁹

CONCLUSION

If this article has offered one or more usable ideas and/or has stimulated the reader's curiosity to conduct a personal continuing inquiry on the use of the lecture as a learning/teaching technique with adults, it will have accomplished the author's avowed purpose.

⁷Daryl Hobbs, "Trends and Needed Changes in Voluntary Associations" (Association Training Conference, University of Missouri, Kansas City, April, 1972). (Speech delivered.)

⁸Leslie L. Felt, *The Small Meeting Planner* (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1972), p. 61.

⁹Malcolm S. Knowles, op. cit., pp. 114-114.

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LARGE GROUP **MEETINGS**

ENHANCING INTERACTION

WITH

LISTENING TEAMS

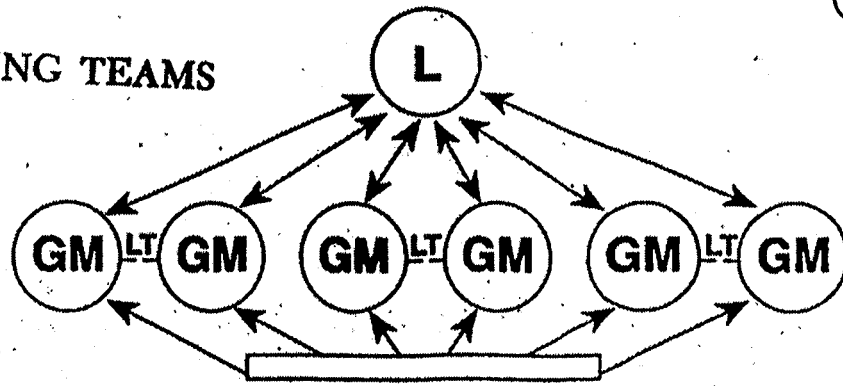
CLARIFICATION

REBUTTAL

ELABORATION

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

24. LISTENING TEAMS



(2) before a presentation the audience can be asked to serve as "listening teams" according to the section of the room they are sitting in—one section to listen to the presentation for points requiring clarification (the clarification team), another for points with which they disagree (the rebuttal team), another for points they wish to have elaborated on (the elaboration team), and a fourth for problems of practical application they wish the speaker to address (the application team).

After the presentation the teams are asked to "buzz" in groups of four or five to pool their thinking about the points they want raised, following which one member of each group gives a summary of its deliberations and the

speaker responds to each item in turn, until time runs out or all items are discussed;

I have a deep commitment to applying principles of adult learning in everything I do—even in one-hour keynote speeches. Indeed, one of the most frequent (and gratifying) comments I get on evaluation sheets of my sessions is, "Malcolm practices what he preaches!" This makes me both happy and sad—sad that it should be such a noteworthy behavior.

My foundational principle of adult learning in making presentations is that the learners be active participants in a process of inquiry, rather than passively receive transmitted content. A second principle is that the process should start with and build on the backgrounds, needs, interests, problems, and concerns of the participants. My experience is that when people have the opportunity to learn by taking some initiative and perceiving the learning in the context of their own life situations, they will internalize more quickly, retain more permanently, and apply more confidently. And I am convinced that every learning experience should result in both some acquisition of content and some enhancement of their self-directed learning competencies.

Theory of Large Meetings

These principles also provide the foundation of my special theory of large meetings, which are a prominent mode in conferences. The additional basic premise of this special theory is that the educative quality of a large meeting is directly a function of the quantity and quality of interaction in the meeting. This is to say that the more

and better the interaction within and among the various elements of a large meeting, the greater the learning is likely to be. A second premise of the theory is that there are three areas in which interaction can be influenced:

1) the platform itself, (2) the audience, and (3) the relationship between the platform and the audience. Let us examine the possibilities of each in turn.

Interaction on the platform is at its lowest point with a single speaker or film. The amount of interaction can be moved up a notch by adding a chalkboard, flip chart, filmstrip, or some other visual aid for the speaker to use. Interaction can be increased another notch by adding one other person, so that two people are interacting in debate, dialogue, or interview. Maximum interaction can be achieved by introducing two or more people to the platform for a symposium, panel discussion, group interview, dramatic skit, or demonstration.

Interaction between the platform and the audience is at its first level up from passive with an invitation to the audience to ask questions of the speaker following the presentation. A still-higher level of interaction can be achieved by bringing representatives of the audience on to the platform to serve as "reaction" or "watchdog" teams. A reaction team is asked simply to listen to the presentation and then to give its reactions in a series of statements or through a panel discussion. A watchdog team is asked to listen for terminology or concepts it thinks members of the audience may not fully comprehend and to interrupt the presentation at any time to ask for clarification. To the extent that the people selected to serve on the teams are truly representative of the main characteristics of the audience (in terms of age, gender, special interests, occupations, and geography), to that extent will the audience psychologically identify with the interaction on the platform.

Interaction among members of the audience can be promoted in several ways. The audience can be asked to meet in small groups of from two to five or six without moving from their seats and perform several functions: (1) Before a presentation, they can be asked to take a few minutes to pool the questions or issues they would like the speaker to address and have one member summarize the result—thus, in effect, outlining the speech for the presenter; (2) before a presentation the

audience can be asked to serve as "listening teams" according to the section of the room they are sitting in—one section to listen to the presentation for points requiring clarification (the clarification team), another for points with which they disagree (the rebuttal team), another for points they wish to have elaborated on (the elaboration team), and a fourth for problems of practical application they wish the speaker to address (the application team). After the presentation the teams are asked to "buzz" in groups of four or five to pool their thinking about the points they want raised, following which one member of each group gives a summary of its deliberations and the

speaker responds to each item in turn, until time runs out or all items are discussed; (3) following a presentation, the audience can be asked to form buzz groups to discuss for a few minutes how they plan to apply one or more of the ideas contained in the presentation, with the results being summarized by one member of each group.

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Occasionally ~~add a half-hour~~ component in the design, which I think of as "back-home application," but which in the literature is usually referred to as "transfer of training." I ask the participants to reflect for five minutes on their experience so far and to select one or two ideas they have picked up that they think they would like to try out in their back-home situations. After five minutes I ask them to form groups of four or five and take turns describing to other members of their group (1) the idea they would like to experiment with; (2) the steps they would take in applying it; and (3) any obstacles or resistances they anticipate encountering in putting it into effect. After a reasonable amount of time (depending upon the time available), I call them back to order and invite volunteers to present their plans to the total audience. After each presentation, I invite members of the audience to react to the plan and, particularly, to suggest strategies for dealing with the obstacle and resistances. During the last five minutes or so I add my own ideas about strategies for bringing about change.

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SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING:

THE MISSING INGREDIENT FOR SCHOOL REFORM

by Fredric G. Posner, Ph.D.

THE PROBLEM

In the simmering context of educational reform, many recipes have been offered. Most of these include a heavy dose of back-to-basics sprinkled with the spices of increased discipline and standardized testing. Few of the "cooks" have paused to consider a different type of cuisine. Improving on or adding to a conventional dish that is no longer satisfying a hungry public can only spell failure. The standard recipe remains, in the end, unchanged.



As an amateur cook and professional educator, I decided to look into new realms of cookery. Initially, I noticed that, slowly but surely, the ingredients of intrinsic motivation, self-image, and self-directed learning had crept into the educational philosophy and mission statements of some public school systems. These, of course, were still listed secondarily after the main staples of academic growth and performance. However, just the inclusion of self-directed kinds of goals indicated an emerging awareness and an increased focus of importance.

Meanwhile, some prominent educators (Combs, 1988;Sizer, 1984) were proposing that we examine the kind of learning that was being encouraged and developed in the public school system. Some researchers (Boyer, 1983; Goodlad, 1983) called for an emphasis to be placed on engaging students in the learning process through the development of self-directed skills and attitudes. Adding to the alarm, futurists were warning us that empowered, self-directed learning would be required for a future marked by accelerated change (Toffler, 1970). Some went so far as to imply that today's high school graduate might be incapable of handling life's tasks because of a lack of self-direction (Gibbons, 1976). In this light then, the charge to educational systems must include the preparation of students for lifelong learning.

As the emphasis on self-directed learning becomes a major issue for schools, so does the examination of educational programs, already in place, that promote and encourage its development. The history of open alternative schools indicates that these progressive programs have long advocated self-direction for learning as a primary goal (Nathan, 1981). Some of the research demonstrated that

(continued on page 2)

THE MISSING INGREDIENT FOR SCHOOL REFORM

(continued from page 1)

graduates of these self-directed schools were better able to succeed in college (Aiken, 1942) and other adult life pursuits (Willis, 1961). Additional studies revealed that these open school graduates generally appreciated their high school experience as a positive and useful foundation for a life of continuous learning (Hunter, 1985; Nathan, 1981). These findings seem quite contrary to those of other researchers who estimate that as many as two-thirds of the students who graduate from high school feel alienated and disengaged from their own education (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin & Cusik, 1986).

Consequently, as a researcher, I became interested in the phenomena of self-directed learning as a key ingredient in the recipe for school reform. But what was self-directed learning? What did self-directed learners look like and how did they feel about themselves? And what about these self-directed schools - how did they operate? The answers to these questions became part and parcel of a research study I conducted in 1989. The study was designed to investigate self-directed learning among students in an open alternative high school program (Posner, 1989).

PURPOSE

The intent of this study was to examine students in an educational environment that openly promotes self-direction for learning as its major goal. Also, the study involved a combination of the process (the actual skills involved in self-directed learning) and personality (the attitudes and characteristics of self-directed learners) approaches to self-directed learning en-

...futurists were warning us that empowered, self-directed learning would be required for a future marked by accelerated change.

compassing the research of Knowles (1975) and Tough (1971) with that of Gibbons (1984), Oddi (1987) and Guglielmino (1977). The study attempted to investigate students in different stages of progress in, or about to be in, a rigorous self-directed high school program.

Gibbons and Phillips (1978) proposed that students progress through different stages of development when they enter a self-directed program. Some of these transi-

tion stages were seen as being "crisis producing" in nature where students suddenly realized the intense personal responsibility of a true self-directed program. Other stages were viewed as turning points or "mobilization stages" wherein students began to deal effectively with the self-directed environment and develop self-directed skills and attitudes.

This framework, combined with Steele's (1988) concept of program phases extending from orientation through completion, helped to compose the stages used for this study. Some general questions emerged: Was there something special about the students in the advanced stages of a demanding self-directed program? What was the profile of the successful self-directed learner?

Specifically, then, the purpose of the study was to determine the skills, attitudes and characteristics of students which contribute to the completion of an open alternative high school program. A secondary purpose was to investigate the relationships among perceived competence, personal orientation (intrinsic versus extrinsic) and perceived readiness for self-directed learning. The investigation produced profiles of students in different stages of progress in a high school program designed to encourage and develop self-direction for learning.

The following questions were studied:

1. What are the demographic and background factors that influence levels of program completion?
2. Do students with high levels of perceived scholastic competence and global self-worth have higher levels of program completion?
3. Do students with high levels of intrinsic orientation have higher levels of program completion?
4. Do students with high levels of perceived readiness for self-directed learning have higher levels of program completion?
5. Are there significant relationships among perceived competence, personal orientation and perceived readiness for self-directed learning?

SAMPLE

The sample for this study included 149 students from five stages of development in a public, open alternative high school (total population=240). The school clearly stated that the development of self-directed learning was one of its central goals (Steele, 1988).

Steele (1988) noted that students at the high school must progress through three phases on their way to becoming self-directed

learners. Phase One was viewed as an other-directed stage in which students were gradually introduced to experiential and self-directed learning. Phase Two was described as a teacher advisor-influenced stage in which students formed support groups from among staff and peers. Students in this phase also learned to develop individualized educational programs in conjunction with their advisors.

Finally, in the third phase, students began to plan and implement personally challenging projects called Passages. These projects were, in fact, opportunities for students to demonstrate their abilities to use the self-directed skills they had developed. The school did not give grades. Therefore,

...the charge to educational systems must include the preparation of students for lifelong learning.

evaluation of performance was the responsibility of the learner and his or her support group.

In their final year, students would have completed six Passages ranging from a career exploration to a logical inquiry using the scientific method. Each student would then write a narrative summary of his or her growth in the personal, social and intellectual domains as a transcript of the open school experience. The Passage curriculum was based on a rites-of-passage or "Walkabout" developed by Gibbons in 1974. The intent of this process was to facilitate the transition from adolescence to adulthood.

It should also be noted that all of the self-directed skills outlined by Tough (1971) and Knowles (1975) were required to complete the rigorous open high school program. It was assumed then that students who had successfully completed the "Walkabout" were, in fact, self-directed from a process or skills perspective. The next step was to find out if these same students would exhibit different attitudes and preferences than those students at the less developed levels of the program.

The stages of development used for this study were formulated from the three-phase model (Steele, 1988) as well as Gibbons and Phillips' (1978) framework for the transitional stages in a self-directed program. The stages of development in the open high school used in this study were as follows:

Stage 0- Students who had made a choice to attend the high school in the following school year. These stu-

- dents came from conventional schools as well as the feeder open junior high school.
- stage 1- Students who had completed the orientation phase of the open school program but had not completed a Passage.
 - stage 2- Students who had completed only one Passage.
 - stage 3- Students who had completed two or more Passages but did not intend to graduate that school year.
 - stage 4- Students who had completed or were about to complete the six Passages and Transcripts and intended to graduate that school year.

METHODS

Data were collected from a demographic and background information sheet, the Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (Harter, 1988), a Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom (Harter, 1980), and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino, 1977).

Self-directed variables investigated included: preferences for challenging learning situations, independent mastery of learning materials and the utilization of one's interests and curiosities as motivation to learn. Independent judgment about what to do in order to learn and internal criteria for success or failure were also examined. Additionally, perceptions of scholastic competence and global self-worth were assessed in light of their relationship with self-directed learning in the literature. Finally, an overall measure of perceived readiness for self-directed learning was analyzed with an emphasis on responsibility for one's own learning and a general view of learning itself as a joyous, lifelong pursuit.

Data were analyzed by means of one-way analysis of variance followed by multiple comparisons in order to detect the differences in profiles across the stages. The relationships among the study variables were investigated using Pearson Product Moment correlational analysis.

RESULTS

The results of the study indicated some consistent patterns of comparisons among the five stages of development. Students in the two upper stages (stages 3 and 4) displayed significantly more positive self-directed characteristics and attitudes than those students in the first three groups. For example, students who had completed two or more Passages felt significantly more positive about their scholastic competence than those students in the lower stages (see Figure 1).

Comparisons of the means for the global self-worth, motivational self-valuation

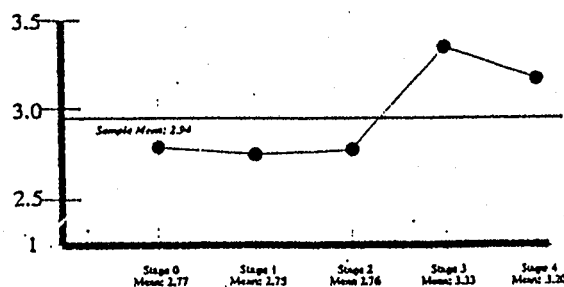


Figure 1. Perceived Scholastic Competence by Stages of Completion

Note: Although subscales scores from the Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (Harter, 1988) may fall below 2.5, none of the results from this study resulted in means below 2.5. Range = 1 to 4.

and self-directed readiness variables followed very similar patterns. The most dramatic differences among the stages appeared in the areas of preference for challenging learning and self-directed learning readiness (see Figures 2 and 3).

The investigation of background variables revealed that females from this sample appeared to be more intrinsically motivated and self-directed than males. Also, students with previous open school experience (for example, students who came to the high school from open junior high schools versus those from conventional settings) tended to be more intrinsic, better at self-evaluation and more positive about their scholastic competence than their conventional school counterparts. Even more emphatically, these open school students felt more self-directed.

Results of the correlational analysis of the study variables indicated that all of the coefficients, with the exception of global self-worth with preferences for independent mastery, were significantly different from zero at the $p < .001$ (see table 1). The relationships among perceived scholastic competence, preference for challenge and self-directed learning readiness were particularly robust.

CONCLUSIONS

The study concluded that:

1. The development of self-directed skills, attitudes and characteristics in an open educational setting appears to be gradual in the early stages of the program. The critical point of development occurs when students have completed more than one self-directed project.
2. Positive perceptions of scholastic competence contribute to the completion of a self-

directed high school program and are highly related to a more intrinsic motivational orientation.

3. Intrinsic motivational components that contribute to the completion of a self-directed program include: a preference for challenging learning situations, independent mastery of learning projects and a reliance on one's curiosity and interests for motivation.
4. Positive perceptions of one's global self-worth and a sense of internal control over outcomes also contribute to the completion of

an open high school program.

5. Positive perceptions of one's readiness for self-directed learning contribute to the completion of an open alternative high school program.
6. Educational settings that encourage the development of self-directed learning are characterized by strong support systems, student and teacher empowerment, individualized learning plans and an emphasis on a variety of domains.
7. Females who choose to enter or are enrolled in an open high school perceive themselves to be more intrinsically motivated than males from this sample. Also, students who have entered the open high school program from open educational settings perceive themselves as more self-directed than those students from conventional schools.

DISCUSSION

The focus on self-directed learning as a key ingredient in educational reform led to the investigation of related self-directed skills, attitudes and characteristics of students in an open alternative high school. It

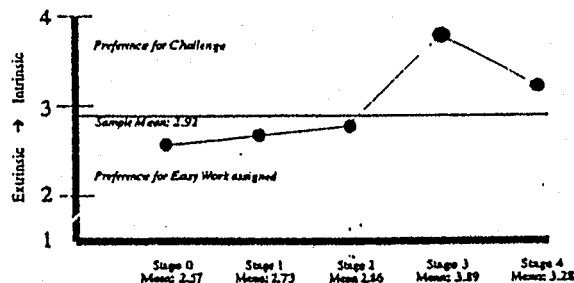


Figure 2. Preference for Challenge by Stages of Completion

Note: Although subscales scores from A Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom (Harter, 1980) may fall below 2.0, none of the results from this study resulted in means below 2.0. Range = 1 to 4.

(continued on page 4)

continued from page 3)

as assumed that students who had successfully progressed in a rigorous self-directed program were, indeed, competent self-directed learners. It was hoped that the development of a profile of the successful self-directed learner would help to delineate the particular kinds of attitudes and characteristics we need to develop and encourage among students to effectively engage them in their own education.

The results of this study indicate that the highly competent self-directed learner is one who has redefined scholastic competence in self-directed terms. The pursuit of grades and just "playing the game" are no longer important. The idea that being smart is being responsible for one's own learning appears to be a key factor in the redefinition process.

Self-directed learners also need to have developed their own kind of self-directed confidence through the successful completion of demanding personal projects. As they build this sense of effectiveness and competence they begin to desire meeting challenging learning situations head-on. They want to be tested and pushed to their limits. They also learn how to use their natural curiosities and interests as powerful motivators. Finally, they learn to master subjects interdependently while recognizing the inherent personal, social and intellectual aspects of learning itself.

Moreover, the competent self-directed learner has the confidence to use independent judgment and internal criteria to evaluate his or her progress. This appears to be a very sophisticated self-directed skill that requires much practice and guidance. Support systems are critical for supplying feedback and confirmation. The tests of self-direction, therefore, appear in the form of personal demonstrations of competence wherein one compares oneself, not to others, but to one's own standards

Table 1
Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients for the Five Orientation Factors, Perceptions of Scholastic Competence, Global Self-Worth, and Self-Directed Learning Readiness

	Independent Mastery	Perceived Global Self-worth	Perceived Scholastic Competence	Curiosity for Learning	Internal Criteria	Independent Judgment	SDLRS
Preference for Challenge	.67***	.51***	.57***	.76***	.68***	.29***	.81***
Independent Mastery		.47***	.54***	.59***	.61***	.17†	.56***
Independent Judgment			.57***	.51***	.39***	.28***	.54***
Internal Criteria				.62***	.54***	.34***	.64***
Curiosity for Learning					.61***	.34***	.79***
Perceived Scholastic Competence						.43***	.69***
Perceived Global Self-worth							.37***

SDLRS=Self-Directed Learning Readiness
*** p<.001.
† p<.05

of excellence. The non-graded, project-oriented curriculum tends to guide and strengthen this concept of self-evaluation.

Another attitude that seems to develop, related to successful self-directed learning, is a sense of global self-worth or what constitutes a global judgment of one's worth as a person. The competent self-directed learners in this study felt significantly more positive about their worth than those students in the less developed stages. This confirms that the relationship between self-actualization (which implies a positive view of one's worth) and self-direction proposed by Maslow (1954) and Rogers (1977) can be logically inferred. In fact, global self-worth can be viewed as an end-product of the development of the self-directed learner - a view of oneself as a competent, worthwhile person.

Another outcome of this development can be seen in the concept of a readiness for self-directed learning. Successful self-directed learners who have effectively dealt with challenging learning situations feel differently than their less developed counterparts about learning itself. The highly developed self-directed learner recognizes the natural joy in learning and views it as a lifelong pursuit. Graduation does not signal the end of learning as it might to the other-directed learner

who has mastered nothing more than the art of "getting through" school.

The results of this study indicate that these self-competence, motivational and attitudinal variables are positively related and therefore form an excellent composite of the self-directed learner. What educational programs can do to promote and encourage these characteristics is evident from the literature on environments conducive to the development of self-directed learning. Educational settings characterized by strong support systems (advising), ownership and empowerment of the learner regarding learning itself and a focus on a personalized, non-graded curriculum tend to produce self-directed learners.

But do we really want self-directed learners? Sure we do! If we concentrate on the supposed outcomes of our educational system do we not want students who love to learn new things, who actually prefer to be challenged and who honestly believe that they will never stop learning? Do we need people who feel responsible for and have ownership of their own learning? Certainly! The quality of life depends on it.

Ask the citizens of certain eastern European countries if they feel that self-direction is required in a rapidly changing world of tumbling hierarchies. Obviously, their self-determination has led them from an other-directed to an inner-directed existence. The ability to take control of one's own life is no less important to the high school graduate who faces a world

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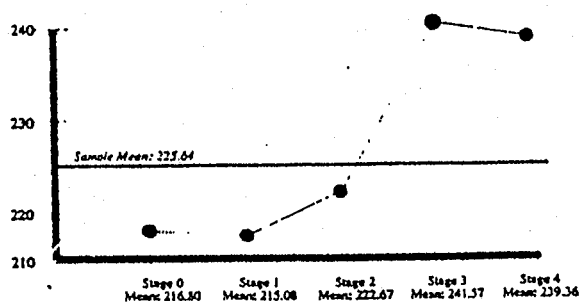


Figure 3. Self-Directed Learning Readiness by Stages of Completion

Note: Although subscale scores from the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino, 1977) may fall below 210, none of the results from this study resulted in means below 210. Range = 100 to 300.

(continued from page 7)

students and to do special projects (of which there is now about a score).

We established an Administrative Team with representatives from each team that meets weekly to work on school issues. We re-made our Steering Committee composed of five parents elected by parents, five staff elected by staff, our Parent Coordinator and me. We develop policy for the school. We have established various other committees to help do the work of the school and to have parents and staff involved together in doing this: Funding, Hiring, Curriculum, and Building and Grounds.

Democratic Community

To have a public school become a democratic community is difficult. We have a very diverse group in terms of race and social class; most parents work and have their separate home lives; over the years, staff also have developed their own families and home lives. We are living in a time of great selfishness (especially concerning the middle class) which makes working together difficult since demands are now so strident.

So, this is where I am now: living daily in one small school, trying to make this

And this is what building a democratic community is all about: it's about a daily, on-going, ever-evolving process of people working together.

place a great experience for the students and the staff. We try to keep changing and growing, avoiding the routinization of our jobs, our curricula and our structures. We constantly develop new curricula, programs and structures to meet the changing needs of our students, staff and society.

We try to do this within our original vision. How can we keep that vision alive for the "old" staff and make it live for new staff, parents and children? Dealing with this question is also part of our daily struggle.

And this is what building a democratic community is all about: it's about a daily, on-going, ever-evolving process of people working together. It's about having those who live and work here do the daily building together in an organized, comprehensive, democratic way; it's about a group of quite di-

verse people who have dedicated their lives to staying together and learning how to live well together in their work: it is about building community.

A Model

A final note: it is amazing to see that "whole language", "cooperative learning", heterogeneous grouping, "restructuring" and all that goes with these ideas have become the dominant ideas in education in the nineties. These are the ideas that have fired me for 25 years now.

But these ideas have mutated and have acquired a bland professionalism and discreteness that bothers me. For example, site-based management is a far cry from community control. Also, I see a school as holistic - not as discrete pieces that can or cannot be developed. I see schools or staffs that say that they are empowering teachers while others are creating cooperative learning groups. Few are looking at all of these pieces as necessary in creating a good school. Each "piece" - for example, learning in heterogeneous groups, students being actively involved in their learning through concrete materials and projects, parents and staff sharing decision making, etc. - is an organic part of a whole.

Missing Ingredient

(continued from page 4)

that requires more than a perfunctory understanding of algebraic formulas or the rote memorization of historical dates.

So we have examined the heretofore missing ingredient in the stew of educational reform. We need to use it deliberately and consistently if we want real change to take place. Obviously, the old conventional recipes are lacking. Today's taste is for self-direction and self-determination. What we really need is a heavy dose of the characteristics and attitudes of competent self-directed learners as outlined in this study. In fact, the future requires it!

Fredric Posner, Ph.D. completed his doctoral work in education at the University of Denver in 1989. He has been a teacher at Jefferson County Open School for the past seven years.

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Appendix B

SDLRS-A

(12)

Name _____ Sex _____ Birthdate _____
 Date of Testing _____ Location of Testing _____

QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: This is a questionnaire designed to gather data on learning preferences and attitudes towards learning. After reading each item, please indicate the degree to which you feel that statement is true of you. Please read each choice carefully and circle the number of the response which best expresses your feeling.

There is no time limit for the questionnaire. Try not to spend too much time on any one item, however. Your first reaction to the question will usually be the most accurate.

RESPONSES

ITEMS:

1. I'm looking forward to learning as long as I'm living.
2. I know what I want to learn.
3. When I see something that I don't understand, I stay away from it.
4. If there is something I want to learn, I can figure out a way to learn it.
5. I love to learn.
6. It takes me a while to get started on new projects.
7. In a classroom, I expect the teacher to tell all class members exactly what to do at all times.
8. I believe that thinking about who you are, where you are, and where you are going should be a major part of every person's education.
9. I don't work very well on my own.

	Almost never true of me; I hardly ever feel this way.	Not often true of me; I feel this way less than half the time.	Sometimes true of me; I feel this way about half the time.	Usually true of me; I feel this way more than half the time.	Almost always true of me; there are very few times when I don't feel this way.
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	1	2	3	4	5
5	1	2	3	4	5
6	1	2	3	4	5
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	1	2	3	4	5
9	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Almost never true of me; I hardly ever feel this way.</i>	<i>Not often true of me; I feel this way less than half the time.</i>	<i>Sometimes true of me; I feel this way about half the time.</i>	<i>Usually true of me; I feel this way more than half the time.</i>	<i>Almost always true of me; there are very few times when I don't feel this way</i>
10. If I discover a need for information that I don't have, I know where to go to get it.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can learn things on my own better than most people.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Even if I have a great idea, I can't seem to develop a plan for making it work.	1	2	3	4	5
13. In a learning experience, I prefer to take part in deciding what will be learned and how.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Difficult study doesn't bother me if I'm interested in something.	1	2	3	4	5
15. No one but me is truly responsible for what I learn.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I can tell whether I'm learning something well or not.	1	2	3	4	5
17. There are so many things I want to learn that I wish that there were more hours in a day.	1	2	3	4	5
18. If there is something I have decided to learn, I can find time for it, no matter how busy I am.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Understanding what I read is a problem for me.	1	2	3	4	5
20. If I don't learn, it's not my fault.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I know when I need to learn more about something.	1	2	3	4	5
22. If I can understand something well enough to get a good grade on a test, it doesn't bother me if I still have questions about it.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I think libraries are boring places.	1	2	3	4	5
24. The people I admire most are always learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5

25. I can think of many different ways to learn about a new topic.
26. I try to relate what I am learning to my long-term goals.
27. I am capable of learning for myself almost anything I might need to know.
28. I really enjoy tracking down the answer to a question.
29. I don't like dealing with questions where there is not one right answer.
30. I have a lot of curiosity about things.
31. I'll be glad when I'm finished learning.
32. I'm not as interested in learning as some other people seem to be.
33. I don't have any problem with basic study skills.
34. I like to try new things, even if I'm not sure how they will turn out.
35. I don't like it when people who really know what they're doing point out mistakes that I am making.
36. I'm good at thinking of unusual ways to do things.
37. I like to think about the future.
38. I'm better than most people are at trying to find out the things I need to know.
39. I think of problems as challenges, not stopsigns.
40. I can make myself do what I think I should.

[illegible]

41. I'm happy with the way I investigate problems.
42. I become a leader in group learning situations.
43. I enjoy discussing ideas.
44. I don't like challenging learning situations.
45. I have a strong desire to learn new things.
46. The more I learn, the more exciting the world becomes.
47. Learning is fun.
48. It's better to stick with the learning methods that we know will work instead of always trying new ones.
49. I want to learn more so that I can keep growing as a person.
50. I am responsible for my learning — no one else is.
51. Learning how to learn is important to me.
52. I will never be too old to learn new things.
53. Constant learning is a bore.
54. Learning is a tool for life.
55. I learn several new things on my own each year.
56. Learning doesn't make any difference in my life.
57. I am an effective learner in the classroom and on my own.
58. Learners are leaders.

	<i>Almost never true of me; I hardly ever feel this way.</i>	<i>Not often true of me; I feel this way less than half the time.</i>	<i>Sometimes true of me; I feel this way about half the time.</i>	<i>Usually true of me; I feel this way more than half the time.</i>	<i>Almost always true of me; there are very few times when I don't feel this way.</i>
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
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1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	
1	2	3	4	5	

Appendix C

Administration

The SDLRS (Form A) is self-paced and designed primarily for use with adults. The scale can be administered individually or in small or large groups. It is administered on an untimed basis. Allow the respondents as much time as they need to complete the scale. Administration usually requires about 40 minutes. In order to avoid possible response bias, the researcher did not inform respondents of the name or the exact purpose of the scale. The researcher read the instruction prior to administration. Item responses are recorded on a separate answer sheet which could be scored by computer.

Scoring System

The researcher calculated the new scores for each individual's item values in each response category. Stronger preferences were indicated by higher numeric scores. The strongest preference was represented by the highest numeric score, namely 5. The weakest preference was represented by the lowest numeric score, namely 1. The scoring system followed the following three steps.

- A. Items number 3, 6, 7, 9, 12, 19, 20, 22, 23, 29, 31, 32, 35, 44, 48, 53, and 56 will be scored in reverse: 1 = 5, 2 = 4, 3 = 3, 4 = 2, and 5 = 1.
- B. The remaining items will be scored positively: 1 = 1, 2 = 2, 3 = 3, 4 = 4, and 5 = 5.
- C. Added the total from A and B to obtain the SDLRS score (Guglielmino, 1978).

Interpretation

The average score for adults completing the scale is 214 with the standard deviation 25.59 in the USA sample. The SDLRS measures individual's readiness for self-directed learning. Research has suggested that individuals who have developed high self-directed learning skills tend to perform better in jobs requiring:

1. A high degree of problem solving ability,
2. A high degree of creativity, and
3. A high degree of change.

Guglielmino interpreted individual's SDLRS score as the following five levels.

SDLRS scores	Readiness level
58-176	Low
177-201	Below average
202-226	Average
227-251	Above average
252-290	High

Guglielmino maintained that persons with high SDLRS scores usually prefer to determine their learning needs and plan and implement their own learning. This does not mean that he will never choose to be in a structured learning situation. They may well choose traditional courses as a part of learning plan. Persons with average SDLRS scores are more likely to be successful in more independent situation, but are not fully comfortable with handling the entire process of identifying their learning needs and planning and implementing the learning. Persons with below average SDLRS scores usually prefer very structured learning options such as lecture and traditional classroom settings (Guglielmino, 1989).

About the Cover

To learn is to change. S-O-R, the crux of Dr. Knowles' theory, is a formula that explains how that change occurs in adult learning situations. **S** stands for stimulus to a response, **O** for the one stimulated and the one responding, and **R** stands for the response.

For a detailed explanation of the S-O-R formula, see Appendix B, pages 146-162.

The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species/Fourth Edition

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An Andragogical Theory of Adult Learning

For more than four decades I have been trying to formulate a theory of adult learning that takes into account what we know from experience and research about the unique characteristics of adult learners. Originally (in *Informal Adult Education*, 1950), I organized my ideas around the notion that adults learn best in informal, comfortable, flexible, nonthreatening settings. Then, in the mid-1960's I was exposed to the term *andragogy* by a Yugoslavian adult educator who was attending a summer session workshop at Boston University, and it seemed to me to be a more adequate organizing concept—for it meant, as I understood it then, the art and science of helping adults learn.

When I first started constructing an andragogical model of education I saw it as the antithesis of the pedagogical model. In fact, the subtitle of the 1970 edition of *The Modern Practice of Adult Education* was "Andragogy Versus Pedagogy." So, I need to explore the meaning of pedagogy a bit before elaborating on the meaning of andragogy.

First There Was Pedagogy

"Pedagogy" is derived from the Greek words *paid*, meaning "child" (the same stem from which "pediatrics" comes) and *agogus*, meaning "leader of." Thus, pedagogy literally means the art and science of teaching children. The pedagogical model of education is a set of beliefs—indeed, as viewed by many traditional teachers, an ideology—based on assumptions about teaching and learning that evolved between the seventh and twelfth centuries in the monastic and cathedral schools of Europe out of their experience in teaching basic skills to young boys. As secular schools started being organized in later centuries, and public schools in the nineteenth century, this was the only model in existence. And so our entire educational enterprise, including higher education, was frozen into the pedagogical model. When adult education began being organized systematically in this country after World War I, it was the only model teachers of adults had to go on. As a result, adults have by and large been taught as if they were children until fairly recently.

The pedagogical model assigns to the teacher full responsibility for making all decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, when it will be learned, and if it has been learned. It is teacher-directed education, leaving to the learner only the submissive

role of following a teacher's instructions. It is thus based on these assumptions about learners:

1. *The need to know.* Learners only need to know that they must learn what the teacher teaches if they want to pass and get promoted; they do not need to know how what they learn will apply to their lives.
2. *The learner's self-concept.* The teacher's concept of the learner is that of a dependent personality; therefore, the learner's self-concept eventually becomes that of a dependent personality.

Let me elaborate on this point a bit. I speculate, with growing support from research [see Bruner, 1961; Erikson, 1950, 1959, 1964; Getzels and Jackson, 1962; Bower and Hollister, 1967; Cross, 1981; Iscoe and Stevenson, 1960; Robinson, 1988; Smith, 1982; Stevenson-Long, 1979; White, 1959] that as individuals mature, their *need* and *capacity* to be self-directing, to utilize their experience in learning, to identify their own readinesses to learn, and to organize their learning around life problems, increases steadily from infancy to pre-adolescence, and then increases rapidly during adolescence.

In Figure 3-2 this rate of natural maturation is represented as a decrease in dependency, as represented by the solid line. Thus, pedagogical assumptions are realistic—and pedagogy is practiced appropriately—because of the high degree of dependency during the first year, but they become decreasingly appropriate in the second, third, fourth, and so on, years—as represented by the area with the vertical lines. But it is my observation that the American culture (home, school, religious institutions, youth agencies, governmental systems) assumes—and therefore permits—a growth rate that is much slower, as represented by the broken line. Accordingly, pedagogy is practiced increasingly inappropriately as represented by the shaded area between the solid and broken lines. The problem is that the culture does not nurture the development of the abilities required for self-direction, while the need to be increasingly self-directing continues to develop organically. The result is a growing gap between the need and the ability to be self-directing, and this produces tension, resistance, resentment, and often rebellion in the individual.

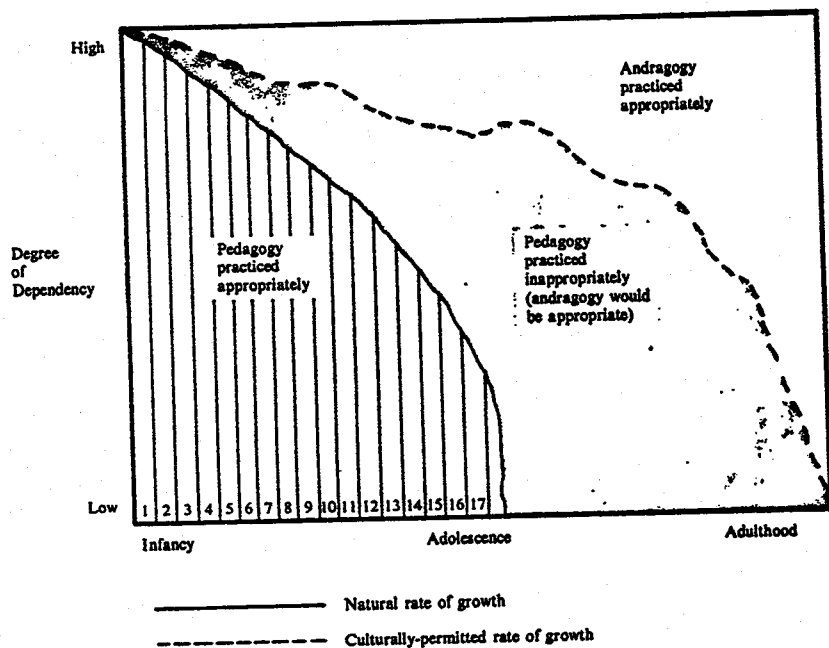


Figure 3-2. The natural maturation toward self-direction as compared with the culturally-permitted rate of growth of self-direction.

3. *The role of experience.* The learner's experience is of little worth as a resource for learning; the experience that counts is that of the teacher, the textbook writer, and the audio-visual aids producer. Therefore, transmittal techniques—lectures, assigned readings, etc., are the backbone of pedagogical methodology.
4. *Readiness to learn.* Learners become ready to learn what the teacher tells them they must learn if they want to pass and get promoted.
5. *Orientation to learning.* Learners have a subject-centered orientation to learning; they see learning as acquiring subject-matter content. Therefore, learning experiences are organized according to the logic of the subject-matter content.
6. *Motivation.* Learners are motivated to learn by external motivators—grades, the teachers' approval or disapproval, parental pressures.

And Then Came Andragogy

Before describing the andragogical assumptions about learners and learning, it is helpful to look at what we mean by "adult." As I see it, there are four definitions of "adult." First, the *biological* definition: we become adult biologically when we reach the age at which we can reproduce—which at our latitude is in early adolescence. Second, the *legal* definition: we become adult legally when we reach the age at which the law says we can vote, get a driver's license, marry without consent, and the like. Third, the *social* definition: we become adult socially when we start performing adult roles, such as the role of full-time worker, spouse, parent, voting citizen, and the like. Finally, the *psychological* definition: we become adult psychologically when we arrive at a self-concept of being responsible for our own lives, of being self-directing. From the viewpoint of learning, it is the psychological definition that is most crucial. But it seems to me that the process of gaining a self-concept of self-directedness starts early in life (I was almost completely self-directing in learning to use my leisure time by age five) and grows cumulatively as we become biologically mature, start performing adult-like roles (I was a magazine salesman and paper-route entrepreneur in high school), and take increasing responsibility for making our own decisions. So we become adult by degree as we move through childhood and adolescence, and the rate of increase by degree is probably accelerated if we live in homes, study in schools, and participate in youth organizations that foster our taking increasing responsibilities. But most of us probably do not have full-fledged self-concepts of self-directedness until we leave school or college, get a full-time job, marry, and start a family.

TEACHING ADULTS AND NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS
IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Dr. Mary K. Cooper; Dr. John A. Henschke; Dr. E. Paulette Isaac

Adult Vocational Education
Conceptual Framework

ANDRAGOGY: The Art and Science of Helping Adults Learn

Assumptions:

Concept of the learner – As adults, we have a deep psychological need to be self-directing—to be perceived by others and treated by others as able to take responsibility for ourselves. When we find ourselves in situations where we feel others imposing their wills on us without our participation in making decisions that affect us, we feel resentment and resistance. Educators of adult learners need to know and use the strategies that have been developed for helping adults to make a quick transition from seeing themselves as being dependent learners to becoming self-directed learners.

Role of the learner's experience – Adults enter into an educational activity with a greater volume and a different quality of experience than youths. The greater volume is obvious—the longer we live, the more experience we accumulate. The difference in quality of experience arises from the different roles adults and young people perform.

This difference in experience affects the planning and conducting of an educational activity. It means that adults are themselves the richest learning resource for one another for many kinds of learning. Hence, the greater emphasis in adult education is on such techniques as group discussion, simulation exercises, laboratory experiences, field experiences, problem-solving projects, and interactive media.

The differences in experience also assume greater heterogeneity in groups of adults. The range of experience in a group of adults of various ages will be greater than with a group of same-aged youths. Consequently, adult education emphasizes individualized learning plans, such as learning contracts.

Readiness to learn – Adults become ready to learn when they experience a need to know or be able to do something to perform more effectively in some aspect of their lives. Among the chief sources of readiness are the developmental tasks associated with moving from one stage of development to another. Any change—marriage, the birth of children, the loss of a job, divorce, the death of a friend or relative, or a change of residence—can trigger a readiness to learn. But we don't need to wait for readiness to develop naturally. We can induce readiness by exposing learners to more effective role models, engaging them in career planning, and providing them with diagnostic experiences to assess the gaps between where they are now and where they want and need to be in terms of their personal competencies.

Orientation to learning – Because adults are motivated to learn after they experience a need, they enter an educational activity with a life-, task-, or problem-centered orientation to learning. The chief implication of this assumption is the importance of organizing learning experiences (i.e., the curriculum) around life situations, rather than according to subject-matter units. For example, instead of calling courses Composition I, II, III, they might be labeled as Writing Better Business Letters, Writing for Pleasure and Profit, and Improving Your Professional Communications in an adult education program.

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Motivation to learn – Although the andragogical model acknowledges that adults will respond to some external motivators—for example, a chance for promotion, a change of jobs, or a change in technology—it proposes that the more potent motivators are internal—such benefits as self-esteem, recognition by peers, better quality of life, greater self-confidence, self-actualization, and so on. Adults may not be motivated to learn what we have to teach them. Consequently, educators of adults need to focus their efforts around how their subject matter relates to the internal motivators of adult learners that we just mentioned.

Why learn something – Adults have a need to know a reason that makes sense to them, as to why they should learn some particular thing—why they need to learn the subject matter the teacher has to teach them. Adults will expend considerable time and energy exploring what the benefits may be of their learning something, and what the costs may be of their not learning it before they are willing to invest time and energy in learning it. Therefore one of the first tasks of the educator of adults is to develop a “need to know” in the learners—to make a case for the value *in their life performance* of their learning what we have to offer. At the minimum, this case should be made through testimony from the experience of the teacher [who needs to become increasingly a facilitator of learning] or a successful practitioner; at the maximum, by providing real or simulated experiences through which the learners experience the benefits of knowing and the costs of not knowing. It is seldom convincing for them to be told by someone [like the professor] that it would be good for them.

There is a growing body of knowledge about how adults learn and a body of technology for facilitating learning, and this is changing the role of teacher/professor and requiring that he or she know things few professors/teachers know and probably none of his or her associates knows. In working with adult learners in educational contexts the professor must know, believe in and be skillful with *andragogy*—the art and science of helping adults learn—and how it differs from *pedagogy*—the art and science of teaching youth... This is the mark of a professional.

Teaching Technologies

Preparing the learners for the program/course – A most common introduction to the participants is sharing the purpose, objectives, meeting time and place, potential benefits, the participatory nature of the learning design so the adult learners develop some realistic expectations about how they will be involved, and things to think about such as what special needs, questions, topics, and problems they hope will be dealt with.

The first question an andragog asks in constructing a process design, therefore, is “What procedures should I use to help prepare the adult learners to become actively involved in this course and to meet their expectations?”

Setting the climate – A climate conducive to learning is a prerequisite for effective learning. Two aspects of climate are important: physical and psychological.

Physical climate – The typical classroom setup, with chairs in rows and a lectern in front, is probably the one least conducive to learning that the fertile human brain could invent. It announces to anyone entering the room that the name of the game here is one-way transmission—the proper role for the students is to sit and listen to the professor. The effective educator of adults makes a point of getting to the classroom well before the learners arrive. If it is set up like a traditional classroom, consider moving the lectern to a corner and rearrange the chairs in one large circle or several small circles. If tables are available, place five or six at a table. A bright and cheerful classroom is a must.

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Psychological climate – Important as physical climate is, psychological climate is even more important. The following characteristics create a psychological climate conducive to learning:

- **A climate of mutual respect.** Adults are more open to learning when they feel respected. If they feel that they are being talked down to, ignored, or regarded as incapable, or that their experience is not being valued, then their energy is spent dealing with these feelings at the expense of learning.
- **A climate of collaboration.** Because of their earlier school experiences where competition for grades and the professor's / teacher's favor was the norm, adults tend to enter into any educational activity with rivalry toward fellow learners. Because peers are often the richest resources for learning, this competitiveness makes these resources inaccessible. There are climate-setting exercises that can be used to open courses which put the learners in to a sharing relationship from the beginning for this reason.
- **A climate of mutual trust.** People learn more from those they trust than from those they aren't sure they can trust. And here educators of adults [ones who seek to help adults learn] put in a position of teacher of adults, are at a disadvantage. Students in schools learn at an early age to regard teachers [and professors] with suspicion until teachers / professors prove themselves to be trustworthy. Why? For one thing, they have power over students; they are authorized to give grades, to determine who passes or fails, and they hand out punishments and rewards. For another thing, the institutions in which they work present them as authority figures. Professors will do well to present themselves as a human being rather than as an authority figure, to trust the people they work with and to gain their trust.
- **A climate of support.** People learn better when they feel supported rather than judged or threatened. Teachers of adult learners try to convey their desire to be supportive by demonstrating their acceptance of them with an unqualified positive regard, empathizing with their problems or worries, and defining their role as that of helper. It will help for professors to organize the learners into peer-support groups and coach them on how to support one another.
- **A climate of openness and authenticity.** When people feel free to say what they really think and feel, they are more willing to examine new ideas and risk new behaviors than when they feel defensive. If professors demonstrate openness and authenticity in their own behavior, this will be a model that the adult learner will want to adopt.
- **A climate of pleasure / fun.** Learning should be one of the most pleasant and gratifying experiences in life; it is, after all, the way people can achieve their full potential. Learning should be an adventure, spiced with the excitement of discovery. It should be fun. Dullness is the unacceptable part of the adult learners' previous educational experience, and the professor will improve the learning climate by making a lot of use of spontaneous [not canned] humor.
- **A climate of humanness.** Learning is a very human activity. The more people feel they are being treated as human beings, the more they are likely to learn. This means providing for human comfort—good lighting and ventilation, comfortable chairs, availability of refreshments, frequent breaks, and the like. It also means providing a caring, accepting, respecting, and helping social atmosphere.

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The second question an andragog asks in constructing a process design is “What procedures should I use with this particular group to bring these climatic conditions into being?”

Involving learners in mutual planning – The andragogical process model emphasizes learners sharing the responsibility for planning learning activities with the facilitator. There is a basic law of human nature at work here: People tend to feel committed to any decision in proportion to the extent to which they have participated in making it. The reverse is even more true: People tend to feel uncommitted to the extent they feel that the decision or activity is being imposed on them without their having a chance to influence it.

The professor will increase learner commitment if they make clear they are coming in with a *process plan*—a set of procedures for involving them in determining the content of their study. Learners need the security of knowing that the professor has a plan, but even this process plan is open to their influence. It may be well to use teams of participants, with each team having responsibility for planning one unit of the course.

The third question the andragog answers in developing a process model, therefore, is “What procedures will I use to involve the learners in planning?”

Diagnosing their own learning needs – At the very simplest level, learners can share in small groups what they perceive their needs and interests to be regarding the acquisition of knowledge, understanding, skill, attitude, value and interest in a given content area of the course. One member of each group can volunteer to summarize the results of this discussion. This way, the learners will at least enter into the learning experience with some awareness of what they would like to get out of it. A learning need is not a need unless perceived so by the learner. It is possible to induce a deeper and more specific level of awareness by having learners engage in some of the new body of technology being developed for facilitating this process, with emphasis on such self-diagnostic procedures as in simulation exercises, assessment techniques, competency-based rating scales, and videotape feedback.

So the fourth set of questions the andragog asks in constructing a process design is “What procedures will I use in helping the participants diagnose their own learning needs?”

Translating the learning needs into objectives – Having diagnosed their learning needs, participants now face the task of translating them into learning objectives—positive statements of directions of growth. Some kinds of learning [such as identifying criteria for various steps in accomplishing a particular task] lend themselves to objectives stated as terminal behaviors that can be observed and measured. Others [such as decision-making ability] are so complex that they are better stated in terms of direction of improvement.

The fifth question the andragog asks is “What procedures can I use for helping involve the adult learner in translating their learning needs into learning objectives?”

Designing a pattern of learning experiences – Having formulated the learning objectives, the professor and the adult learner then have the mutual task of designing a plan for achieving them. This plan will include identifying the resources most relevant to each objective and the most effective strategies for utilizing these resources. Such a plan is likely to include a mix of total group experiences [including input by the professor], and subgroup [learning-teaching team] experiences, and individual learning projects. A key criterion for assessing the excellence of such a design is, “how deeply are the learners involved in the mutual process of designing a pattern of learning experiences?”

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So the sixth question the andragog asks is “What procedures can I use for involving the learners with me in designing a pattern of learning experiences?”

Helping adult learners manage and carry out their learning plans – Learning contracts are a most effective way to help learners structure and conduct their learning. Students [adult learners] contract with the professor to meet the requirements of the university courses in which they are enrolled. [Incidentally, even though there may be a number of nonnegotiable requirements in university courses, the means by which learners accomplish the required objectives can be highly individualized.] Students going out on a field experience, such as a practicum or internship, will contract with the professor and the field supervisor. Contracts may also be specify how the learner is going to continue to learn on their own. Learning contracts are also used for continuing personal and professional development.

The seventh question that andragog asks is “What procedures can I use to make certain the learners are full engaged and involved with me in managing and carrying out their learning plan?”

Evaluating the extent to which the learners have achieved their objectives – In many situations institutional policies require some sort of “objective” (quantitative) measure of learning outcomes. However, the recent trend in evaluation research has been to place increasing emphasis on “subjective” (qualitative) evaluation—finding out what is really happening inside the learners and how differently they are performing in life. In any case, the andragogical model requires that the learners be actively involved in the process of evaluating their learning outcomes.

The eighth question, therefore, that the androgog asks is “What procedures can I use to involve the learners responsibly in evaluating the accomplishment of their learning objectives and meeting the course requirements?”

By answering these eight sets of questions, the professor [the facilitator of adult vocational learning] emerges with a *process design*—a set of procedures for facilitating the acquisition of the course content by the adult learner.

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Teaching and Learning in the Eighties: The Paradigm Shifts

(28)

by Herman Niebuhr, Jr.

"Coherence" — a balanced way of life — is a species requirement, Mr. Niebuhr argues. But the agencies that once provided it have been disintegrating. It is time to reconceptualize the human learning system. Niebuhr identifies some promising strategies and ventures.

American education is in the throes of what Thomas Kuhn has called a "paradigm shift."¹ The old model of education that served us for a century is now inadequate, and a better model must be built. Despite the uncertainties, anxieties, and turbulence of this "paradigm shift," the necessary adjustments are modest and feasible, building on the present infrastructure.

Until modern times the primary agencies of instruction were the family, the local community, and the church or synagogue. These institutions tended to have a common agenda that dictated personal and social roles and behavior and gave life coherence. Since indoctrination was the learning mode, choices were limited. But with the advent of the school and university, indoctrination began to give way to intentional learning, laying the foundation for criticism, understanding, invention, and new dimensions of freedom and choice. The family, the community, and the church remained as primary sources of instruction on roles, attitudes, and values. But domination of the human learning system by these traditional institutions was waning.

This was due in part to the rise of new instructional agencies and sources of knowledge: popular literature, newspapers and magazines, popular theater, movies and radio, and expanded travel opportunities. Service professions also proliferated, providing instruction that duplicated or supplanted that provided previously by traditional institutions. With the recent advent of television, the peer group, and the workplace as active instructional agencies, change within the human learning system has accelerated. Clearly, the power of traditional institutions to educate has been substantially eroded.

If this kaleidoscopic view of the complex and dynamic character of the human learning system rings true, certain conclusions are inevitable:

- The long domination of the human learning system by traditional institutions has ended. No agency or cluster of agencies dominates the system today. Indeed,

it is fragmented and in disarray.

- While many of the modern instructional agencies mimic the traditional in their reliance on indoctrination, intentional and self-directed learning is clearly on the rise.

- With the decline of traditional institutions has come a *net loss* of instruction and learning, especially in the areas of roles and values. The significance of this loss is neither fully understood nor widely appreciated.

- The basis for personal coherence and balance is diminished. When young people in the Sixties began to talk about "getting it together," they were referring to a new human problem.

Walter Lippmann has written incisively about the need for personal and social coherence:

They [the American people] have found, I submit, that as they are emancipated from established authority they are not successfully equipped to deal with the problems of American society and of their private lives. They are left with the feeling that there is a vacuum within them, a vacuum where there were the signs and guideposts of an ancestral order, where there used to be ecclesiastical and civil authority, where there was certainty, custom, usage and social status, and a fixed way of life. One of the great phenomena of the human condition in the modern age is the dissolution of the ancestral order, the erosion of established authority; and, having lost the light and the leading, the guidance and the support, the discipline that the ancestral order provided, modern men are haunted by a feeling of being lost and adrift, without purpose and meaning in the conduct of their lives.²

In my view, the need for coherence is a species requirement. If the contemporary human learning system does not provide an adequate basis for the development of a coherent and balanced way of life for millions of people, we are facing a relatively unique situation in human history.

Viewed more positively, however, the

decline of traditional indoctrination means greater freedom and choice. We have always enjoyed considerable freedom and choice in the intellectual, political, and work-related aspects of living. New freedom in almost all other aspects of living is now a reality.

However, as Erich Fromm suggested almost 40 years ago, freedom and choice are burdens.³ Unless the individual is given the tools to exploit such opportunities, the burden may become onerous. Historically, the school and college, the teacher and professor, have provided the tools, guidance, and support for individuals to make the most of their intellectual and vocational choices. But *no mainstream institution* as yet provides the tools, guidance, and support that will help the individual capitalize on newer dimensions of choice or succeed at the comprehensive task of organizing a balanced and coherent strategy of living.

The human learning system paradigm of the past century implicitly assumed that the traditional agencies were still vital and effective, providing the basis for personal coherence through instruction in many aspects of living. Hence there was no need for educators (or anyone else) to understand, monitor, or seek to guide the human learning system at the level of the *system*. Innovation, creativity, and invention all took place at the level of the *institution*, be it school, college, media, or human service. However, this assumption is no longer sound, leaving us with two alternatives. If we do nothing, we face the likelihood of further personal and social fragmentation. If we accept the challenge of strengthening the present model, we can perhaps open a new range of human and societal possibilities.

Two Constructs, Three Tasks

Two constructs are necessary in order to improve the human learning system paradigm:

1. It is time to conceptualize, comprehend, and make the human learning system an object of policy and program.

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"I propose that *self-directed development* be used to describe the individual's learning tasks in achieving a coherent and balanced strategy or theory of living."

2. It is also time to conceptualize, comprehend, and specify in broader yet more explicit terms the individual's role and responsibility within the human learning system. I propose that *self-directed development* be used to describe the individual's learning tasks in achieving a coherent and balanced strategy or theory of living.

The construct of the human learning system is a useful reminder to all the institutions and professions in the system that they are part of a larger societal process. The construct of self-directed development is a useful reminder to individuals of their personal responsibility in the process of constructing and living their lives.

Three tasks flow from these constructs:

- *Educating the citizenry on self-directed development.* Most people understand neither the human and social conditions I have described nor the personal obligation to engage in a wider range of self-directed developmental tasks than they presently do. With the decline of tradition-based learnings, it is not surprising that many of us feel that something is missing in the society and in our lives. None of the institutions now included in the human learning system helps individuals learn the full array of tasks the social condition requires. Hence a substantial public awareness effort should be organized. It can begin almost anywhere — with a teacher, a school, a college, a television station, a book — and at any level: community, state, or national.

- *Adjusting institutional processes to support self-directed development.* At least three specific adjustments might occur in any of the institutions within the human learning system. The first is to continually reinforce the requirements of self-directed development, reminding the individual of both the frame and the components of lifelong development. Second, institutions must adjust their curricula and related activities to support the self-directed quest. Subject matter can no longer be presented in its own right; it must relate to the developmental process. Much of this already goes on at the pre-school or elementary level; it is generally missing, however, at the secondary or higher education level. New roles must be created for the new instructional sources, and the traditional institutions must undergo renewal as effective instructional agencies. Third, institutions must provide

a new kind of life guidance service; this might be modeled on *mentoring*, which has blossomed almost spontaneously. We are witnessing a resurgence of caring for the development of others without the professional paraphernalia of the human services. If we can sharpen and promote a nonprofessional, informal, and contextual guidance service between teacher and student, supervisor and employee, friend and friend, parent and child, we will be well on the way to the new paradigm.

- *Developing institutional coalitions to synergize the process at the local level.* The shared agendas of traditional institutions in the human learning system provided a social environment that fostered personal definition and coherence. If we are to move beyond the fragmentation and disarray of the present human learning system, the modern institutions that compose it must work together, develop common agendas, and synergize their efforts for the common objective of developing and supporting human beings. K-12 and higher educators could start by working together at the local level. But the contemporary human learning system also includes the media, especially television. All other human development agencies, traditional and modern, can and ought to take part in such local coalitions. The focus on school, college, and public television for early leadership is based on their power, organization, and susceptibility to organized change strategies. Moreover, each of these institutions is in deep trouble and must find new and vital tasks to halt what otherwise will be continuing and accelerating decline.

How to Begin

Thomas Kuhn's description of paradigm shift suggests that an old theory is never replaced by criticism alone. A better model must be proposed. My present formulation and other statements of new models in various stages of gestation (e.g., the Club of Rome report⁴) provide a beginning.

A dissemination strategy and process is the second requirement. This issue of the *Kappan* is part of such a strategy. A school principal or superintendent, a dean of a college of education, a university president, a public television station, or all the above, working cooperatively, can implement such a strategy at the local, regional, state, or national level. The third

step is to organize prototype projects to demonstrate the better paradigm. Several of us in Pennsylvania are developing such prototypes involving K-12 education, higher education, and public television as the initial cooperating institutions. The most advanced is the Coalition for Lifelong Educational Opportunities (CLEO) in metropolitan Philadelphia, a cooperative venture of 48 colleges and universities. The first stage of CLEO is operational: the cooperative marketing of new development-oriented services for adults. The second stage, just beginning, is coalition building with K-12 education, residential communities, business and industry, and regional public telecommunications institutions.

The American people and their educational and human development institutions are approaching a moment of discontinuity. But the simple notion that all such institutions are part of a larger system of human learning and development points the way to strengthening the learning/development process, renewing institutional vitality along the way. All the involved professions and institutions can begin to fill the leadership void. However, K-12 education, higher education, and public television and related telecommunications agencies have both a special opportunity and an obligation to take the initiative in bringing about a strengthened human learning system. Unless this challenge is met, educators can expect continuing decline and the probability that competitive institutions — largely business corporations — will assume a dominant role in the education and development of the citizenry by the year 2000.

1. Thomas S. Kuhn, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970).

2. Walter Lippmann, "The University," *New Republic*, 28 May 1966, pp. 17-20.

3. Erich Fromm, *Escape from Freedom* (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1941).

4. James Botkin, Mahdi Elmandjra, and Mircea Malița, *No Limits to Learning: Bridging the Human Gap* (London: Pergamon Press, 1979). □

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Fostering Self-Direction

Arthur W. Combs

Schools which do not produce self-directed citizens have failed everyone—the student, the profession, and the society they are designed to serve. The goals of modern education cannot be achieved without self-direction. We have created a world in which there is no longer a common body of information which everyone must have. The information explosion has blasted for all time the notion that we can feed all students the same diet. Instead, we have to adopt a cafeteria principle in which we help each student select what he most needs to fulfill his potentialities. This calls for student cooperation and acceptance of major responsibility for his own learning.

As Earl Kelley has suggested, the goal of education in the modern world must be the production of increasing uniqueness. This cannot be achieved in autocratic atmospheres where all decisions are made by the teachers and administration while students are reduced to passive followers of the established patterns. Authoritarian schools are as out of date in the world we live in as the horse and buggy. Such schools cannot hope to achieve our purposes. Worse yet, their existence will almost certainly defeat us.

The world we live in demands self-starting, self-directing citizens capable of independent action. The world is changing so fast we cannot hope to teach each person what he will need to know in twenty years. Our only hope to meet the demands of the future is the production of intelligent, independent people. Even our military establishment, historically the most authoritarian of all, has long since discovered that fact. For twenty years the armed forces have been steadily increasing the de-

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Arthur W. Combs

gree of responsibility and initiative it expects of even its lowest echelons. The modern war machine cannot be run by automatons. It must be run by *thinking* men.

Much of the curriculum of our current schools is predicated on a concept of learning conceived as the acquisition of right answers and many of our practices mirror this belief. Almost anyone can pick them out. Here are a few which occur to me:

Preoccupation with right answers; insistence upon conformity; cookbook approaches to learning; overconcern for rules and regulations; preoccupation with materials and things instead of people; the solitary approach to learning; the delusion that mistakes are sinful; emphasis on memory rather than learning; emphasis on grades rather than understanding and content details rather than principles.

Meanwhile, psychologists are telling us that learning is a *personal* matter; individual and unique. It is not controlled by the teacher. It can only be accomplished with the cooperation and involvement of the student in the process. Providing students with information is not enough. People rarely misbehave because they do not know any better. The effectiveness of learning must be measured in behavior change: whether students *behave differently* as a consequence of their learning experience. This requires active participation by the student. So learning itself is dependent upon the capacity for self-direction.

TOWARD SELF-DIRECTION

What is needed of us? How can we produce students who are more self-directed?

1. WE NEED TO BELIEVE THIS IS IMPORTANT

If we do not think self-direction is important, this will not get done. People are too pressed these days to pay much attention to things that are not important. Everyone does what seems to him to be crucial and urgent. It seems self-evident that independence and self-direction are necessary for our kind of world. Why then has self-direction been given such inadequate attention? It is strange we should have to convince ourselves of its importance.

Unfortunately, because a matter is self-evident is no guarantee that

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people will really put it into practice. It must somehow be brought into clear figure in the forefront of our striving if it is to affect behavior. Everyone knows it is important to vote, too, yet millions regularly fail to vote. To be effective as an objective, each of us must hold the goal of self-direction clear in our thinking and high in our values whenever we are engaged in planning or teaching of any kind.

This is often not easy to do because self-direction is one of those goals which *everyone* is supposed to be working for. As a result, almost no one regards it as urgent! For each person, his own special duties are so much clearer, so much more pressing and his derelictions so much more glaring if he fails to produce. The goals we hold in common do not redound so immediately to our credit or discredit. They are therefore set aside while we devote our energies to the things that *really* matter to us.

To begin doing something about self-direction we must, therefore, begin by declaring its importance; not as a lofty sentiment, but as an absolute essential. It must be given a place of greater concern than subject matter itself, for a very simple reason: It is far more important than subject matter. Without self-direction no content matters much. It is not enough that it be published in the handbook as a "Goal of Education." Each of us at every level must ask himself: Do I really think self-direction is important and what am I doing about it?

2. TRUST IN THE HUMAN ORGANISM

Many of us grew up in a tradition which conceived of man as basically evil and certain to revert to bestial ways if someone did not control him. Modern psychologists tell us this view is no longer tenable. From everything we can observe in humans and animals the basic striving of the organism is inexorably toward health both physical and mental. It is this growth principle on which doctors and psychotherapists depend to make the person well again. If an organism is free to do so—it can, will, it *must* move in positive ways. The organism is not our enemy. It wants the same things we do, the achievement of adequacy. Yet alas, how few believe this and how timid we are to trust our students with self-direction.

A recent best selling book, *Summerhill*, by A. S. Neill has fascinated many educators. In it Neill describes the absolute trust he placed in the children under his care. Many teachers are shocked by his unorthodox procedures and the extreme behavior of some of the children. But whether one approves of Neill's school or not, the thing which impressed me most was this: Here was a man who dared to trust children far be-

yond what most of us would be willing to risk. Yet, all the things we are so afraid might happen if we did give them such freedom, never happened! For forty years the school continued to turn out happy, effective citizens as well as, or better than, its competitors. It is time we give up fearing the human organism and learn to trust and use its built-in drives toward self-fulfillment. After all, the organism has had to be pretty tough to survive what we have done to it through the ages.

Responsibility and self-direction are learned. They must be acquired from experiences, from being given opportunities to be self-directing and responsible. You cannot learn to be self-directing if no one permits you to try. Human capacities are strengthened by use but atrophy with disuse. If young people are going to learn self-direction, then it must be through being *given* many opportunities to exercise such self-direction throughout the years they are in school. Someone has observed that our schools are operated on a directly contrary principle. Children are allowed more freedom of choice and self-direction in kindergarten (when they are presumably least able to handle it) and each year thereafter are given less and less, until, by the time they reach college, they are permitted practically no choice at all! This overdraws the case, to be sure, but there is enough truth in the statement to make one uncomfortable. If we are to produce independent, self-starting people we must do a great deal more to produce the kinds of experiences which will lead to these ends.

3. THE EXPERIMENTAL ATTITUDE

If we are going to provide young people with increased opportunity for self-direction, we must do it with our eyes open *expecting* them to make mistakes. This is not easy, for the importance of "being right" is in our blood. Education is built on right answers. Wrong ones are regarded as failures to be avoided like the plague. Unfortunately, such attitudes stand squarely in the way of progress toward self-direction and independence.

People too fearful of mistakes cannot risk trying. Without trying, self-direction, creativity and independence cannot be discovered. To be so afraid of mistakes that we kill the desire to try is a tragedy. Autonomy, independence and creativity are the products of being willing to look and eager to try. If we discourage these elements we do so at our peril. In the world we live in, victory is reserved only for the courageous and inventive. It is possible we may lose the game by making mistakes. We will not even get in the game if we are afraid to try.

Experimentation and innovation must be encouraged everywhere in our schools, in teachers as well as students. Each of us needs to be engaged in a continuous process of trying something new. The kind of experimentation which will make the difference to education in the long run is not that produced by the professional researcher with the aid of giant computers but by the everyday changes in goals and processes brought about by the individual teacher in the classroom.

To achieve this, teachers need to be freed of pressures and details by the administration for the exercise of self-direction and creativity. In addition, each of us must accept the challenge and set about a systematic search for the barriers we place in the path of self-direction for ourselves, our colleagues and our students. This should suggest all kinds of places for experimentation where we can begin the encouragement of self-direction. One of the nice things about self-direction is that it does not have to be taught. It only needs to be encouraged and set free to operate.

4. THE PROVISION OF OPPORTUNITY

The basic principle is clear. To produce more self-directed people it is necessary to give more opportunity to practice self-direction. This means some of us must be willing to give up our traditional prerogatives to make all the decisions. Education must be seen, not as providing right answers, but as confrontation with problems; not imaginary play problems either, but *real* ones in which decisions count.

Experiences calling for decision, independence and self-direction must be the daily diet of children, including such little decisions as what kinds of headings and margins a paper should have and big ones like the courses to be taken next year. They must also include decisions about goals, techniques, time, people, money, meals, rules, and subject matter.

If we are to achieve the objective of greater self-direction, I see no alternative to the fuller acceptance of students into partnership in the educative endeavor. Our modern goal for education, "the optimal development of the individual," cannot be achieved without this. Such an aim requires participation of the student and his wholehearted cooperation in the process. This is not likely to be accomplished unless students have the feeling they matter and their decisions count. Few of us are deeply committed to tasks imposed upon us; and students are not much different. Self-direction is learned from experience. What better, more meaningful experience could be provided than participation in the decisions about one's own life and learning?

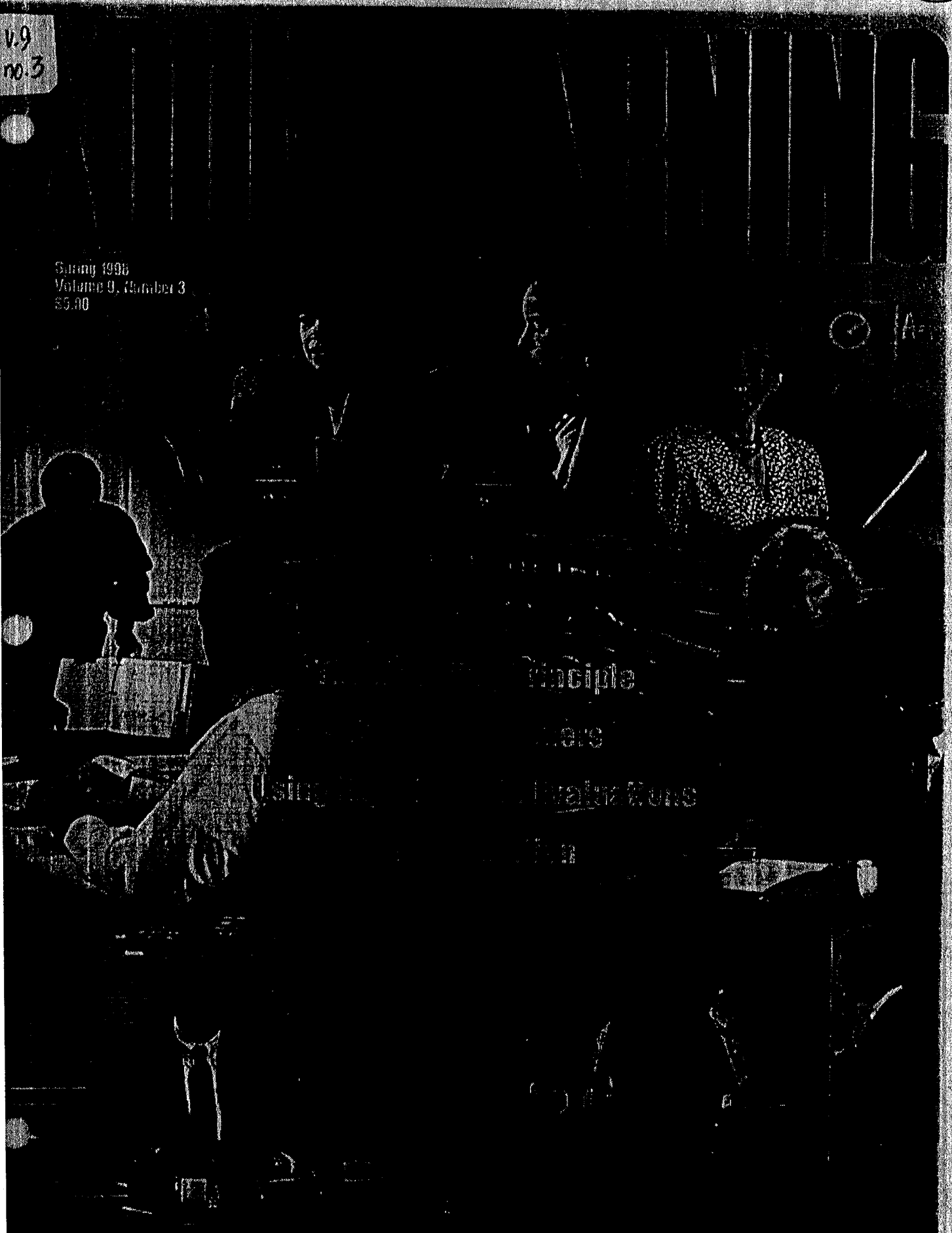
The basic belief of democracy is that when people are free they find their own best ways. Though all of us profess our acceptance of this credo, it is distressing how few of us dare to put it to work. Whatever limits the capacity of our young people to accept both the challenge and the responsibilities of that belief is destructive to all of us. It is time we put this belief to work and to expression in the education of our young as though we really meant it.

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ADULT LEARNING

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Modeling the Preparation of Adult Educators

By John A. Henschke

W

hen we say "adult educators," we may indicate a broader range of individuals than one would think upon first consid-

eration. If adult educators are people who "help adults learn," then their ranks must include: (1) leaders in voluntary associations; (2) executives, training officers, supervisors and foremen in corporations; (3) teachers, administrators and group leaders in various educational institutions; and (4) program directors, writers and editors in educational areas of mass media; as well as (5) professional adult educators who have been prepared specifically for this vocation and make it their permanent career.

Other than those in the last group, most of the "adult educators" mentioned above have had little or no formal instruction to prepare them to "help adults learn." Some may have attended a preparatory workshop designed to help them understand how to teach adults. Others may have studied a book such as Robinson's *Introduction to Helping Adults Learn and Change* or Renner's *Instructor's Survival Kit*, or any of a number of quick learn-as-you-go guides.

Available to all "adult educators" are graduate courses and formal master's and doctoral programs in adult education. There are also programs of preservice

training for adult educators: training for part-time instructional staff, paraprofessional instructors of adults and volunteers; and continuing education in the professions. There is training in organizations: training of consultants; training in business and industry; and training of human resources development specialists. All of these approaches feature one or more persons who conduct preparatory activities with emerging educators of adults.

The Modeling Principle

Each of the above mentioned approaches to adult education has a unique validity. Yet I have observed, in almost a quarter of a century of preparing adult educators to help adults learn, that the validity of teaching ultimately derives from a single element: modeling.

Modeling, according to the dictionary, means providing an example worthy of imitation, a standard by which a thing can be measured. For an educator, that means exemplifying the lessons being taught. It means walking what you talk, not "Do as I say, not as I do."

If we look to ancient times, we may find Moses as a model prophet and law giver, Confucius as a model thinker, Abraham as a model of faith, Socrates as a model questioner, Jesus Christ as a model of forgiving

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love, and Tullius Cicero as a model of eloquent oratory. Their personal influence is still pervasive in our time.

If we review the history of our nation, we may find George Washington to be a model of prudence, integrity and patriotism; Thomas Jefferson to be a model of learnedness; Teddy Roosevelt to be a model of courage, and Abraham Lincoln to be a model of honesty and justice. And we can see how their modeling of these virtues has helped shape the world we live in—as clearly as we can see their images carved into Mt. Rushmore.

As adult educators, we are models. Students learn more from our actions than our words. They want to see if our actions match our words. With this in mind, if we believe that adults learn in a certain way, then it follows that we take it upon ourselves to model the conduct and attitude that demonstrate and support what we're trying to teach them.

A guiding principle and statement in the University of Missouri-St. Louis, School of Education is: "If I am not modeling what I am teaching, I am teaching something else." One could also say: "If I am modeling what I am teaching, I am teaching what I am modeling." This principle is much like that of the Zaddik Rabbi, who says the personality of the teacher takes the place of the teaching—she or he is the teaching. For us, whose task is to help other adults learn, it means risking being ourselves, trusting our feelings and acting on them, thereby engaging a like commitment from our students.

An Outline for Modeling

There are certain ingredients that go into the making of a model. Understanding each of these ingredients can help us in our practice of modeling in the preparation of adult educators.

Andragogy. One ingredient is the theory of andragogy—the art and science of helping adults learn. Its primary principle is the desire, potential and ability for self-directedness on the part of the learner. Other principles include: perceiving the learner's

experience as a resource for learning, seeing developmental tasks of social roles as crucial in activating the need and readiness for learning, learners need a situation-centered or problem-centered orientation to learning, understanding that motivation of adult learners is internal rather than merely external, and learners need a valid reason why they need to learn something to appreciate its importance.

As adult educators, we are models.

Students learn more from our actions than our words. They want to see if our actions match our words.

I experienced these principles of andragogy in my studies at Boston University with Malcolm Knowles, who popularized the theory in the United States and has now passed the torch of leadership (modeling) in adult education to our generation. I've heard people say that Malcolm provided a set of injunctions from which we will gain benefit if we follow them, and that if a teacher has some notion of what Knowles is talking about, both learner and teacher will greatly benefit in a learning situation.

I have implemented these principles of andragogy in my own teaching of adult education and in working with master's and doctoral students at University of Missouri-St. Louis. Teaching the way I was taught has worked well for me, as I have seen many adult educators blossom and flourish in their research and practice.

Eduard Lindeman said that andragogy is the true method by which adults keep themselves intelligent about the modern world, and that its use would make a qualitative difference in the life of our time. He further

asserted the practical nature of andragogy: theory becomes fact, and words become responsible acts and accountable deeds.

Attitude. A second ingredient is attitude. Someone said that if andragogy is used only as a method for conducting learning activities, it may become mechanical and lose its dynamism. Andragogy is more than mere method; it is an attitude of mind and heart, and it becomes a transforming power and positive influence in modeling the preparation of adult educators. An attitude of caring for the learner as a valuable, unique person, and of helping the learner to accomplish his or her educational goals, is essential for an adult educator; it is like the warp and woof of an exquisitely beautiful cloth weaving.

Congruence. A third ingredient is congruence. In mathematics, if two numbers give the same remainder when divided by a given value, they are said to be congruent. In adult education, if we apply our andragogical principles consistently, we will achieve congruence with learners in the form of a mutual agreement of voluntary conformity. For that to happen, we must have congruence between theory and practice, even though we may think that's not very scholarly. Congruence of theory and practice need to be like two geometric figures exactly superimposed on one another, or like an architectural plan for a building and the actual building.

Trust. A fourth ingredient is trust. To be effective, an adult educator needs to have trust in the ability and potential of learners (emerging adult educators) to understand the learning process and make the right choices. Trust takes the form of:

- Purposefully communicating to learners that they are each uniquely important;
- Believing learners know what their goals, dreams and realities are like;
- Expressing confidence that learners will develop the skills they need;
- Prizing the learners to learn what is needed;
- Feeling learners' need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings;

- Enabling learners to evaluate their own progress in learning;
- Hearing learners indicate what their learning needs are;
- Engaging learners in clarifying their own aspirations;
- Developing a supportive relationship with learners;
- Experiencing unconditional positive regard for learners; and
- Respecting the dignity and integrity of learners.

The adult educator must initiate trust with learners. If he or she effectively models the principles of adult education, learners have a golden opportunity to become great adult educators themselves. If trusted, the learners may learn something, which otherwise, they would have learned less well, more slowly, or not at all. A lack of trust seriously hampers the learning process.

The adult educator must initiate trust with learners.

Building blocks

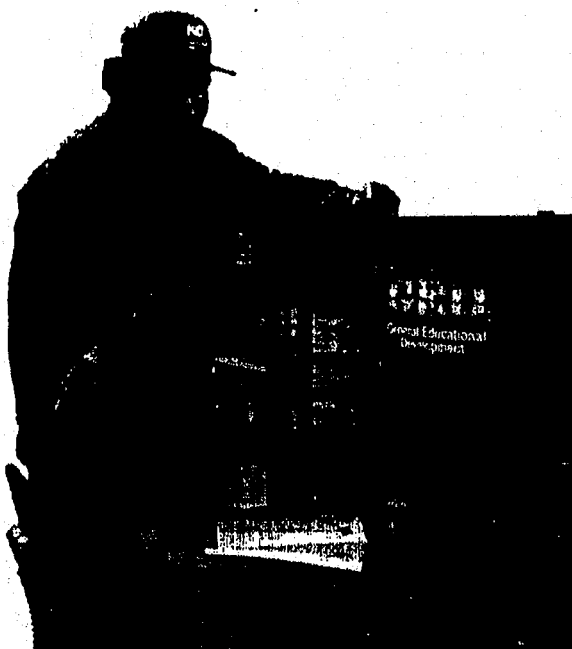
I like to encourage emerging adult educators to focus on five building blocks: (1) beliefs and notions about adults as learners; (2) perceptions concerning the qualities of effective teachers/facilitators; (3) phases and sequences of learning process (theory of how learning takes place); (4) teaching tips and learning techniques; and, (5) implementation of the prepared plan. Modeling—*andragogy, attitude, congruence, and trust*—while using these building blocks, helps to move the preparation of adult educators full circle from concept to reality.

Summary

You may wish to incorporate other ingredients as part of modeling the preparation of adult educators—based on your experience, someone else's experience, or an interesting theory you've heard. In any case, my observations tell me that the aforementioned ingredients—*andragogy, attitude, congruence, and trust*—are basic considerations. I have found that it is possible to be yourself and to be congruent in a university setting without sacrificing academic quality or rigor. I have found this to be true in varying time-frames within non-academic settings as well, meaning that all people who "help adults learn"—not just professional adult educators—can use the modeling principle in the preparation of adult educators.

I agree with an adult educator friend of mine who said that if we model this thing we are talking about, we are going to get it right yet.

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Components (Activity Units) of Learning-Design Models

A learning-design model is shaped by the arrangement of various types of activity units—the building blocks of educational architecture—in a pattern prescribed by the theme or process of the model. In keeping with the architectural analogy, this approach to the designing of learning is akin to the architectural doctrine that “form follows function.”

The following six types of activity units are available to model designers:

1. *General sessions.* Meetings of all participants as a whole, with a variety of patterns of platform presentation and audience participation as described under “Large Meetings” in Chapter 8.
2. *Small groups* of various sizes and for a variety of purposes, including:
 - Topical discussion groups:* groups organized for the purpose of reacting to, testing the meaning of, or sharing ideas about informational inputs from reading or speakers on given topics;
 - Laboratory groups:* groups organized for the purpose of analyzing group behavior, experimenting with new behavior, and sharing feedback regarding the effects of various behaviors;
 - Special-interest groups:* groups organized according to categories of interests of participants for the purpose of sharing experiences and exploring common concerns;
 - Problem-solving groups:* groups organized to develop solutions to procedural or substantive problems of concern to the total assembly;
 - Planning groups:* groups organized to develop plans for activities within the design or for back-home application;
 - Instructional groups:* groups organized to receive instruction through the services of resource experts in specialized areas of knowledge, understanding, or skill;
 - Inquiry groups:* groups organized to search out information and report their findings to the total assembly;
 - Evaluation groups:* groups organized for the purpose of developing proposals for evaluating the results of the activity for the approval of the total assembly and perhaps executing the approved plans;
 - Skill practice groups:* groups organized for the purpose of practicing specified categories of skills;
 - Consultative groups:* groups organized for the purpose of giving consultative help to one another;
 - Operational groups:* groups organized for the purpose of carrying responsibilities for the operation of the activity, such as room arrangements, refreshments, materials preparation, equipment operation, etc.;
 - Learning-teaching teams:* groups which take responsibility for learning all they can about a content unit and sharing what they have learned with the total assembly;
 - Dyads:* two-person groups organized to share experiences, coach each other, plan strategies, or help each other in any other way;
 - Triads:* three-person groups organized for mutually helpful purposes;
 - Buzz groups:* randomly organized groups of three or four persons that meet in a general assembly to pool problems, ideas, or reactions and report them through a spokesman to the assembly.
3. *Individual consultation, counseling, or directed study:* in which the services of resource persons are made available to individual participants for personalized help.
4. *Reading:* the scheduling of special times (between meetings) for reading handout materials or a selection of references.
5. *Recreation, worship, or meditation:* periods of time set aside for socialization, religious activity, or creative solitude.
6. *Preparatory activity:* things the participants are invited to do before the learning activity starts, such as reading, self-analysis, data collection, etc.

EXTENSION HANDBOOK

PROCESSES AND PRACTICES

Second Edition

Donald J. Blackburn, Editor

University of Guelph



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Figure 13-2: Appropriate Teaching Techniques for Defined Objectives

Teaching Techniques	Knowledge/ Awareness	Understanding	Skills/Behaviour	Values/Priorities	Attitudes
Assigned Reading	X	X			
Brainstorming	X				
Buzz Groups	X	X		X	
Case Studies		X		X	X
Circle Responses	X	X		X	X
Contracts			X		
Demonstration/Practice		X	X		
Discussion	X	X		X	X
Experiments	X	X	X		
Field Trips	X	X			
Field Projects	X	X	X		
Games/Simulations		X	X		
Learning Log		X	X		X
Lecture	X	X		X	
Media	X				
Panel	X	X			
Programed Instruction	X	X			
Role Play	X	X			X
Student Teaching	X	X	X	X	X
Values Clarification					X
Workshop	X	X	X	X	
Source: Renner, 1980a; McLagan, 1978a; Frewin, 1976a					

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Participants Should Be Actively Involved

The instructor of adults is a facilitator in the learning process and needs to create a learning environment that encourages interaction between the participants and the material to be learned. In order to do this, you should keep the following aspects in mind:

- (1) Actively involve participants in the learning by
 - (a) discussing the course objectives and content with the learners—make appropriate changes as required;
 - (b) including in each lesson an activity involving the learners;
 - (c) selecting teaching techniques that encourage participation, such as question-and-answer discussion, role playing, practice, etc.
- (2) Create a comfortable, informal environment by
 - (a) being on a first-name basis with participants;
 - (b) arranging seating to enhance interaction (e.g., a horseshoe arrangement);
 - (c) using materials, demonstrations, examples, etc., to which adults can identify and relate.
- (3) Provide positive reinforcement. Adults like to know they are doing well just as much as do children. Continually take opportunities to positively reinforce the participants as a group and individually.
- (4) Allow participants to demonstrate and/or exhibit what they have done. Use the learners as instructional resources, capitalizing on their unique skills and experiences.

Finalizing Your Choice of Teaching Techniques

Once you have a good profile of the learning event you can decide on the most effective teaching techniques to use. Guidelines to help you select the most appropriate teaching techniques are listed below:

- (1) Match the teaching technique to the learning outcome.
Example: A lecture may be a useful technique when the learning outcome (objective) involves the acquisition of new information. Your purpose, then, is to convey information quickly and efficiently. Facilitating a discussion, however, would be more appropriate where you want to bring out the participants' experiences in order to develop a novel solution to a given problem.
- (2) Match the teaching technique to the learning capabilities/needs of the group.
Example: Videotaped material may present a new concept more effectively than a lecture and a hand-out because of the "visual" impact, whereby the learners can actually see what is happening.
- (3) Select teaching techniques that you feel most comfortable in using. Attempt new techniques only as you become more confident in your role as the instructor.
- (4) Use a variety of teaching techniques in order to make the teaching/learning process more interesting for the participants.
- (5) Whenever possible, use teaching techniques that will actively involve the group members.

Evaluating the Different Techniques

Each of the techniques outlined in Figure 13-2 should be assessed for its advantages and disadvantages in light of what you know about the learners and the intent of the lesson.

Assigned Reading

Adult learners have a wide variety of educational backgrounds, experience, current situations and aspirations. One way of accommodating these variations is to suggest or assign reading to be completed on an individual basis to supplement what the instructor can cover with the group. This allows those with greater interest in a subject the opportunity to pursue further reading whereas others may choose to opt out of such outside work. Current news articles or research material interject topical issues into a subject, making the material more relevant to the group.

Reading material that sheds greater light on a concept must be at an appropriate reading level and must also be readily accessible to participants. The purpose of the reading assignment should be clearly outlined, then followed up with the group through discussion. Clarification of issues and implications is also essential.

A disadvantage of assigning reading outside of class is that many adults do not have, or are unwilling to commit, additional personal time to do extra reading. Consequently,

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as the instructor you cannot rely on this form of instruction when the information is a prerequisite to what will be covered with the total group.

Brainstorming

The goal of brainstorming is to generate as many ideas or solutions to a problem as possible within a given time frame (Leypoldt, 1976a). Generally, as the group offers ideas, they are recorded on a flipchart or blackboard, as one idea may spark another. Initially, no criticism of anyone's idea is allowed. Sometimes an idea may sound crazy but it could be the beginning of a practical solution. The emphasis is on creativity and quantity. Once several solutions or ideas have been put forward, they can be analyzed critically by the total group or a smaller committee, and a practical solution can be determined.

Another version of this activity is "idea charting" where group members individually record their ideas onto small cards or pieces of paper—with each thought on a separate card. The leader then categorizes the cards and places them on a wall or bulletin board for group review. This is a good technique for obtaining group input into planning course content as it is readily apparent when several participants are interested in similar subject matter. Whereas verbal brainstorming often inhibits less vocal group members, idea charting discourages a monopoly on the idea exchange and each individual has the opportunity to contribute. Both brainstorming and idea charting are excellent techniques for bringing out creativity in both large and small groups.

Buzz Groups

Buzz groups are useful in facilitating discussion in large groups. The main group is divided into subgroups consisting of three to six people for a brief period to discuss a topic or solve a problem. An individual may be selected to record the discussion and report back to the main group. People often participate more readily in small groups, allowing participants to relate their own experiences to classroom theory. In using this technique, the leader should make the purpose of the buzz group clear, preferably by writing down the problem or issue to be solved. As instructor, you are then free to float between groups to determine progress or assist if needed. This technique can be useful as a warm-up activity to get people acquainted with each other in smaller groups and to list expectations of a session. It can also be a valuable evaluation tool if buzz groups are asked to identify strengths and weaknesses of a presentation or course. While individuals may be reluctant to offer honest criticism directly to the instructor, a spokesperson for each group may be more at ease in reporting comments if he speaks on behalf of a group (Renner, 1980c).

The buzz group is most useful for situations which call for quick reaction to a simple assignment. It is also much better

at identifying problems than at solving them (Potter and Anderson, 1966a).

Case Studies

Through case studies, information regarding a real-life situation can be presented in written form to group members, who in turn can analyze various aspects of the problem and offer solutions. This approach is useful on an individual or group basis in that each group member can analyze the case study, followed by group discussion. The case can also be dealt with in small groups, with the solutions recorded and reported back to the main group.

Case studies help participants develop critical thinking skills. The participants learn how to analyze a situation, prescribe a sound and workable solution, and understand the basic problems involved. This is also a useful evaluation technique for the instructor to assess how well students can apply new information. However, a drawback to the approach is that people often have difficulty transferring this approach to their own real-life situation because such decision-making is not usually based on a carefully designed case nor is the input of other "critical minds" available to assist in the solution (Potter and Anderson, 1965b).

Circle Response (or Small Circles of Knowledge)

This technique is useful with a group of twelve or fewer participants, giving all people in the group an opportunity to contribute thoughts and ideas to a subject that has been previously presented, or to obtain input on a new issue (Renner, 1980d). Participants should sit in a circle facing each other so that all can be heard. The leader should state a question or issue to the group, and pose it in such a way that it cannot be answered "Yes" or "No." Each person then briefly states his or her position, feelings, or opinions. With larger groups, this same technique can be used by dividing the main group into subgroups. A recorder should be appointed in the latter case and should report back to the main group. With this technique, participants may not skip their turn or contribute until it is their turn. No one is allowed to criticize anyone's contribution.

For this technique to be successful, all group members must feel comfortable contributing.

Contracts

A learning contract is a simple but explicit agreement specifying and ratifying mutual expectations between two people (or one person and a group of learners) (Renner, 1980c). Its value lies in its formality, in that contracted learning or behaviour is then considered important, fair, and possible. Behaviour change required in weight loss programs or money management are areas where contracts can be particularly useful. The contract must specify:

- (1) The goals to be accomplished.
- (2) Agreed-upon steps to reach the goals.
- (3) The time frame in which the goal will be achieved.
- (4) Mutually agreed-upon consequences or penalty of not achieving the goal.

Both parties between whom the contract is made must sign and date the contract.

A contract places a great deal of responsibility on the learner but has the advantage of clearly defined expectations.

Demonstration/Practice

For learning that involves skill development, demonstration and practice are essential. A step-by-step demonstration allows participants to directly observe how to carry out a new skill. Demonstrations can enhance learning since two senses are involved as observers watch and listen.

To enhance the effectiveness of a demonstration, careful planning will ensure that all needed materials are on hand, that sufficient time, space, and equipment are available, and that physical arrangements permit all group members to see and hear well.

For the demonstration to be effective, participants must have the opportunity to practice the new skill and receive feedback on their performance very soon after a demonstration. Key steps should also be provided in written form to aid the learners in following the new procedure on their own.

Discussion

Discussion is a technique to cooperatively pool knowledge, ideas, and opinions about a subject in order to learn new information or to solve a problem (Stephens and Roderick, 1971a). For best results, discussion groups should be limited to no more than six people. This allows for maximum participation—in groups larger than this some people will not participate (Reeder, 1963). Similar to the buzz group, discussion groups need a leader, a recorder, a well-phrased question or problem to tackle, and a report back to the main group. Unlike the buzz group, more in-depth response is expected; consequently a longer period of time is generally required.

In deciding whether to use discussion as a teaching strategy, consider these points (Potter and Anderson, 1966c):

- (1) Is the problem or issue of real significance to the group and is it controversial? Problems that relate to health, interpersonal relationships, farming practices, and social issues materially affect people's lives and are therefore meaningful subjects for discussion.
- (2) Is the problem suited to the group? Age, sex, educational level, experience, and training are a few factors to consider here.

- (3) Is the problem adaptive to reflective thinking? If there is no need to explore possible solutions or if everyone agrees on the information, there is little need to discuss it. Likewise, if participants possess no previous knowledge of the subject matter, it is pointless to expect them to learn from each other by pooling their knowledge and ideas.

- (4) Is there sufficient time to effectively handle the issue? If inadequate time is available, no real solutions can be put forward and the group will develop a sense of frustration at not accomplishing anything.

Effective discussion requires adequate preparation, perhaps even more than other teaching strategies. The physical set-up in the room must be considered as well as the group interaction and its effect on learning (Stephens and Roderick, 1971b). By considering the possible points of view that might be raised during discussion, the effective leader can decide in advance how to best encourage fair consideration of each point, perhaps by posing appropriate questions.

Experiments

Experimentation is useful as a follow-up for demonstrations or as a method to discover a solution to a problem (Spitze, 1970a).

Depending on the nature of the experiment, a wide variety of equipment may be necessary and a great deal of time needed in order to obtain results. Experimentation should always be followed by discussion, interpretation of results and correction of any misconceptions developed.

Field Trips

A useful technique to enable learners to observe first hand a process, procedure, or event is the field trip.

In making advance preparation for the field trip, the leader should clearly describe the purpose to the tour guide to ensure that observations provided are appropriate.

The group should be given a clear understanding in advance of what they are to observe. Advance reading may be appropriate and aid in preparation of potential questions. Each participant should be encouraged to jot down pertinent facts about the trip for later discussion and interpretation. Use of cameras and tape recorders should be encouraged too.

The limitation of field trips is often group size; too many people in a group make observations difficult, and explanations unwieldy. The additional time and expense incurred for field trips may also make it an impractical teaching strategy.

Field Project

When a class is too large to participate in a field trip or when time is a constraint, field projects may be more appropriate. This allows for a number of places to be visited by

various class members who report back on their experiences, thus increasing the opportunity to learn from others in the class. Group members may also choose their own site to visit, providing more flexibility in the learning experience. They can also visit the site at their own leisure, thus saving class time.

Games and Simulations

One of the most successful, action-oriented teaching techniques is the use of simulations and games (NAPCAE, 1972a). Simulations and games are experiential exercises—their use is based on the theory that we learn differently (and perhaps more) from doing than from being told (Zilmer and Zilmer, 1982a). When participants also have fun in an educational setting, learning is enhanced even more. Depending on the way the games are structured, they can be used to stimulate interest, to apply knowledge, to gain information, to analyze situations and to make judgments. (Spitze, 1969). Games are self-judging; players can gauge their own success and the teacher is no longer the critic (NAPCAE, 1972b).

Some adults, however, have difficulty seeing the educational usefulness of simulations or games. The success of simulations and games depends on the educational goals, the introduction to the activity, the experience of the activity, and the subsequent discussion of the experience and its application to real life (Zilmer and Zilmer, 1982b; Boocock and Schild, 1968). In judging games as a teaching technique, one might consider the following questions (Spitze, 1970b):

- (1) How will the adult learners respond to learning through games? Will they perceive this as a valid way to learn? Introduction of the game objectives must be very clearly outlined.
- (2) How much time is available to play the game? Is a detailed explanation of rules and procedures required or can players get into the game quickly? Is the amount of time needed to play reasonable, given the amount of learning that will take place?
- (3) Is the subject matter preserved? In other words, is there any misinformation portrayed?
- (4) Is the game flexible enough to be adaptable to different learning abilities and situations?
- (5) Does winning require knowledge rather than luck?
- (6) Is competition friendly and does it foster good relationships among learners?
- (7) Does the game help develop skills and knowledge, improve attitudes to learning; and clarify values? In other words, does it fit in with your objectives?

Computer-assisted learning, is actually a form of simulation that has proved to be both fascinating to the public and effective. Computers are useful as a teaching strategy in three main areas. First, they can help people make deci-

sions by providing a wide variety of possible alternatives for productive planning in agriculture or family living. Second, they are extremely useful in information storage and retrieval, and third, if properly used they can help people learn new things at their own pace in a classroom setting, at home or in the regional Extension Office (Douce, 1979). Disadvantages sometimes exist in the equipment needed, its cost, or the compatibility between equipment and software. Depending on the program, Canadian-oriented software may not be available and personnel may not be adequately trained.

Three simulation packages, FutureSim, StrainSim and CattleSim, have been developed by Alberta Agriculture to teach marketing options. Other computer software programs in financial management and production management, while not designed strictly as simulation exercises, provide opportunities for business analysis of "what if" scenarios. These can be used very effectively by Extension in one-to-one teaching situations.

Learning Log

A learning log can help learners keep track of their experiences in the course or workshop and perhaps apply these experiences to their personal lives (Renner, 1980f). Material recorded in the log can be kept private or individuals may be encouraged to share their comments with the entire group. Entries may include impressions, experiences, discoveries, and questions that arise as the course progresses.

Lecture

The lecture is likely the teaching technique with which adults are most familiar. Unfortunately, it can be one of the least effective ways of providing information. Material may lend itself to a lecture format if your main concern is to provide information that is short retention only or where the group is too large to use other techniques.

Fortunately, there are ways of making lecture material more meaningful and interactive, so that the learners are not simply passive note-takers (Renner, 1980g).

Provide a road map or outline to indicate to your listeners where you are going, how you are going to get there, and how long it will take. The listener can then anticipate events and prepare for a change in pace or techniques.

Follow a logical sequence, relating familiar information to new material. Include examples from the audience's personal experiences, readings, or previous discussion.

Provide well-organized handouts or written outlines consisting of the key points you will cover. Leave space on these handouts for participants to add their own details.

Use other techniques along with the lecture to maintain interest and attention: change pace, move about the room, use gestures to emphasize important points, change your style from questioning to problem solving tasks, from discussions in buzz groups to demonstrations.

Use appropriate visual aids such as overhead transparencies, slides, and films.

Train yourself to speak from key points rather than reading verbatim from a prepared text. If you are simply going to read to the class what you have written in front of you, perhaps it would be just as well to hand out your lecture notes and cancel the class!

Media

News articles, radio spots, television programs and quarterly magazines are often not viewed as teaching strategies in the same way as lectures, discussions and so on. Yet they are techniques for reaching a large number of people in their homes so that they can learn on their own time. Their use often means reaching people who never attend Extension courses or meetings, such as young homemakers with children who cannot make babysitting arrangements, the elderly or handicapped who may be homebound, or individuals with lack of transportation.

Two evaluation studies conducted in Manitoba illustrated the effectiveness of a weekly television program and of a quarterly news bulletin at providing new knowledge to homemakers (Manitoba Department of Agriculture evaluations, unpublished, 1982).

In a telephone survey, of the 294 respondents who had seen the television program "Take Time," 192 (65%) said they had learned from the program. Of the 192 people who felt they had learned something, 134 (70%) were able to state 1-4 examples of what they had learned. Forty-four people (23%) who said they learned from the program were able to cite 1-3 examples of practice change.

Surveyed readers of the quarterly news bulletin "Around Home In Ten" are learning new information. Ninety-five percent (211) stated that they learned new information from reading the quarterly. Seventy-three percent (154) of those who learned new information gave 1-4 examples of what they had learned. Eighty-one percent (159) of those who learned new information stated they had changed some of their homemaking practices. Sixty-one percent (102) of those were able to cite 1-3 examples of practice change.

When television or radio media are used as an Extension teaching technique, adequate publicity is important to ensure that the intended viewing or listening audience is informed of the timing. Often the educator does not have any influence on the playing time which is one of the disadvantages of this technique.

Combining home study courses with television media is a practical adaptation of this teaching approach.

Panel

Panel discussions have the advantage of bringing several "experts" to a group to present a variety of viewpoints on a selected issue. It is necessary to meet with panel members in advance to discuss the topic and the types of

information that you want discussed. Audience involvement can also be achieved by providing for buzz groups to generate questions of the panelists or to direct audience-to-panel interaction. If this latter step is not taken, panels can be very dry events.

Programmed Instruction

The idea of programmed instruction may summon up in one's mind a picture of salivating dogs or pecking pigeons responding to repetitive learning tasks stimulated by a ringing bell or flashing light. However, programmed instruction does have many benefits in the adult teaching environment.

Material designed in programmed format is organized into short progressive steps graded in difficulty so that the learner is motivated to continue because of success gained in each step. Confidence is a most important aspect of learning. The reinforcement and encouragement provided through programmed learning motivate the learner to continue (Stephens and Roderick, 1971c).

Because learners work at the material on their own, they can begin at a place suited to their knowledge and skills and proceed at their own pace. The individual not only determines the speed of progression but is also actively involved in recording answers or checking from a group of possible answers. Ample evidence confirms the value of such active involvement in learning.

Immediate feedback afforded by this technique has the benefit of correcting wrong concepts and reinforcing accuracy.

On the negative side, some learners find this technique boring. There are also limited materials available in programmed instruction format and these may be designed at an inappropriate reading level.

Role Playing

Role playing is a variation on simulation. It is a dramatization of a situation to show reactions and behaviour. Generally there is no rehearsing and all lines are composed on the spot. It is especially useful in examining attitudes and interpersonal relationships. It encourages active involvement of participants and its novelty often draws comments from those who are less vocal in the group. It is best used in situations where a problem is clear-cut rather than complex.

The major steps involved in staging a role-play situation are defining the problem and establishing the situation, determining the roles to be played, casting the characters, briefing participants, acting out the scene, and discussing and analyzing the outcome (Stephens and Roderick, 1971d).

Poor role playing and unsuitable players can actually destroy the learning intent. Role playing should never be used where anxiety or fear would develop in the group.

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Peer Teaching

As mentioned previously, adult learners bring a wide range of knowledge and expertise to the classroom which can be used to teach others in the group. This is particularly useful in a skill development program where more advanced learners can be teamed with the less experienced, on a one-to-one or small group basis. This technique also strengthens the participants' esteem by publicly recognizing their skills and knowledge.

Values Clarification

The technique of values clarification deals with making choices, weighing the consequences, experimenting, and perhaps making new choices (Engs and Wantz, 1978). For example, a couple with a joint bank account must be able to discuss and agree upon how their money should be spent. This means making choices and identifying goals, together. Otherwise, little satisfaction will be obtained from their money. An educator can facilitate this identification of values and goals and can also provide the factual information from which sound decisions can be made. Critical to the success of a values clarification exercise is a non-judgmental, "psychologically safe" environment.

Workshop

The goal of a workshop approach to learning is to gain information through experience and sharing. It usually consists of common interest groups who, under direction of a leader, participate in learning activities such as demonstration, problem-solving, discussion, and experimentation. In short, it combines many of the previously discussed teaching strategies to meet the needs of the interest group.

40 WAYS TO TEACH IN GROUPS
By Martha M. Leypoldt
Judson Press, Valley Forge, Pa. (1967)

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Ways to Teach	Definition	Goals
1. Book Report	One person summarizes and interprets the thoughts of an author.	To gain information
2. Brainstorming	The leader presents problems to the members of the group, who in reply suggest solutions to the problem. The suggestions are recorded on a chalkboard or newsprint as the group members offer them in rapid succession, allowing no comments of criticisms. After the list is completed, the suggested solutions are evaluated by the group or a committee.	To secure many possible solutions to a problem
3. Buzz Groups	A group is divided up into subgroups of from three to six persons each for a brief period of time, to discuss an assigned topic or to solve a problem. A representative is sometimes selected from each subgroup to report its findings to the group.	To gain information; to solve a problem or discuss an issue.
4. Case Study	Information regarding a real life situation is presented to the group members, who analyze all the aspects of the problem and offer a solution.	To analyze and solve a problem.
5. Chain-Reaction Forum	A group is divided into subgroups which are assigned aspects of a major controversial problem to be discussed. Each subgroup appoints a quizzer, a heckler, and a summarizer. Questions formulated by each subgroup are then presented to panel members by the hecklers and quizzers. At the conclusion of the session, the summarizers give a brief summary of the findings of their group's assigned areas.	To consider a systematic presentation of a controversial issue; to seek a solution for the issue.
6. Circle-Response	The leaders propose a question to members of a group seated in a circle. Each person, in turn, expresses his response. No one is allowed to speak a second time until all have had a turn.	To contribute opinions on a problem or issue facing a group; to consider the opinions expressed by others.
7. Colloquy	Three or four persons from a group present various aspects of a problem to three or four resource persons who respond to them.	To secure information from experts on the problem or issue under consideration, through questioning by representatives of the larger group.

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Ways to Teach	Definition	Goals
8. Couple Buzzers	A group is divided into couples for a short period of time to discuss an assigned topic or to solve a problem. One member of each couple is chosen to be its spokesman and present the findings to the entire group. When the group is large, only those who desire to report are asked to do so.	To discuss a topic or to solve a problem.
9. Debate Forum	Speakers who have opposing views on a controversial subject are given equal time to present the reasons for their beliefs. followed by a free and open discussion of the issue by the entire group.	To secure opposing views of a controversial issue; to take part in group reaction to the presentation.
10. Demonstration-Work Group	One or more persons show a group how to carry on certain operations to demonstrate the results of specific procedures or conduct. Opportunity is given to the group members to practice the operations or procedures.	To watch or listen to an operation or procedures and to have opportunity to practice it.
11. Depth Bible Encounter	Each individual writes a Bible verse or passage in his own words, not using any of the words in the Bible text. He shares it with other members of the entire group, or of a subgroup, and they question him about its meaning. Each individual then answers the question, "If I took this passage seriously what would I have to do?" The answers are shared with the other group members.	To search one's own life in relation to the teachings of the Bible.
12. Expanding Panel	An exploratory discussion of a topic is given by a panel. Then the entire group forms a circle and continues the discussion.	To explore an area of interest by gaining the ideas of experts and making these meaningful to one's own experience.
13. Field Trip	The group visits places to observe firsthand sources of information.	To gain firsthand experiences with a place of interest or object.
14. Film Talk Back	A film (motion picture or filmstrips) is followed by a time of free, open discussion by the group members.	To secure information about a subject of interest to the group; to discuss reactions to the information.

Ways to Teach	Definition	Goals
15. Gallery Conversation	An art gallery atmosphere is created by displaying one or more paintings or sculptures about a particular theme, to which a group responds by discussing the meanings which various members find in these.	To understand what the artists or sculptors are trying to say through the medium of art.
16. Group Discussion	A group of persons meet together with a trained leader to discuss and deliberate cooperatively on a topic of mutual interest.	To express opinions and gain information on a topic of interest; to learn from other group members.
17. Group Drawing	A group is divided into subgroups, each of which determines some common ideas about the assigned topic; these are expressed through a drawing by one of the members of the subgroup. Later the drawings are shared with the entire group. In a very small group, the entire membership can work together on the project.	To express ideas creatively through art.
18. Group Response Team	Several group representatives interrupt a speaker or resource person at appropriate times for immediate clarification of issues.	To gain information and to clarify issues.
19. Group Writing	A group is divided into subgroups, each of which determines some common ideas about an assigned topic; these are then expressed through a poem, litany, or other creative writing. Each subgroup works as a team in preparing their contributions which are later shared with other groups. In a very small group, the entire group can work together on the project.	To express ideas through creative writing.
20. Inductive Bible Study	A direct discovery of the meaning of a biblical passage is accomplished by discussing the questions, "What is the author saying?" "Why is the author saying it?" "When is the author saying it?" "Where is the author saying it?" "To whom is the author saying it?" "How is the author saying it?" Conclusions are drawn from these findings and an answer found to the question, "What does this mean to me?"	To determine what the Bible passage means through a study of resources, and to determine how this will affect our lives.
21. Interview Forum	Opinions and facts are given spontaneously by an expert in response to questions from the leader; this is followed by free, open discussion among the entire group.	To gain information from an expert about a specific topic and to respond to this information.

Ways to Teach	Definition	Goals
22. Lecture	A prepared oral presentation is given by a qualified person.	To gain information.
23. Lecture Forum	A speech is followed immediately by active participation in a free, open discussion involving group members.	To gain information and to clarify issues.
24. Listening Teams	A group is divided into several subgroups, each of which listens to something or somebody with a different question in mind. Later the ideas are shared with the entire group.	To secure information or new ideas through participation that is directed to specific purposes.
25. Music Forum	A group listens to instrumental music and then responds to it by discussing the meanings of the moods and atmospheres that it creates. Or a group listens to choral music and follows this experience by discussing the meaning of the moods and their significance to each individual.	To respond to music through group participation and discussion.
26. Panel	Several persons with specific knowledge informally discuss an assigned topic before a group.	To gain information from a group of experts.
27. Panel Forum	A panel is followed immediately by free and open discussion among the entire group.	To gain information from a group of experts, and to react to their contributions.
28. Play-Reading Talk-Back	A play which presents a relevant problem is read to the group. Active audience participation in free, open discussion follows.	To discuss a problem or issue.
29. Questions and Answers	Members of a group and the leader ask questions of each other. Or a group is presented with a list of questions on a given topic, from which they can ask those in which they have interest.	To gain information and clarify issues.
30. Reaction Panel	Resource persons or representative members of a group hold a panel discussion before the group members, reacting to a speech, symposium, or film.	To gain information and clarify issues.
31. Research and Report	A problem or issue is presented to the group. Research assignments are made and the researchers report their findings at a subsequent meeting (or at the close of the meeting).	To gain information through research.

Ways to Teach	Definition	Goals
32. Role-playing	A problem situation is briefly acted out, with emphasis placed on individuals identifying with the characters. This is followed by a discussion of the problem presented. The following steps are necessary: Determine the exact circumstances of the problem situation; cast the players who in turn plan the method of presentation; act out the situation; stop the action at a climatic moment; analyze and discuss the role-play; and evaluate the results.	To solve a problem and to have opportunity to enter into the feelings of others.
33. Screened Speech	The group is divided into subgroups which select special areas of concern. They present these to the speaker, who addresses himself to their questions through a speech.	To gain information according to the interest of a group.
34. Seminar	A group of persons convenes for research study under the leadership of an expert.	To gain information through study and discussion.
35. Sermon Forum	A sermon is followed by discussion in small groups. These small groups then join together for further discussion of the topic.	To respond to a pastor's sermon in order to clarify issues and expand knowledge.
36. Symposium	A series of speeches is given by as many speakers as there are aspects of a problem or issue.	To gain information from a group of experts.
37. Symposium Dialog	An expert or resource person reacts to a series of speeches given by as many speakers as there are aspects of a problem or issue.	To gain information from a group of experts.
38. Symposium Forum	A symposium is held, followed by informal discussion by the entire group.	To gain information from a group of experts and to have opportunity to clarify the issues.
39. Work Groups	A group is divided into subgroups to accomplish a given task or tasks.	To accomplish a task or tasks through working together as a group.
40. Workshop	A group of persons with with common interest gather together, under the leadership of several experts, to explore one or more specific aspects of a topic. Subgroups are formed for the purpose of hearing speeches, seeing demonstrations, discussing various aspects of the topic, studying, working, practicing, and evaluating.	To gain information through experience and sharing information.

Build a Notebook



- **How would you remember this item best?**
- **During the learning session:**
 - **Enter the item into a notebook [or folder]**
 - **In a way that makes most sense to you**

**As a Result of This Session,
I Will** _____
