Principle of Adult Education

DCE 5011

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ABOUT YOUR INSTRUCTORS

Dr. Raja Ahmad Tajudin Shah

Dr. Raja Ahmad Tajudin Shah is the Manager, Consultancy Unit, University Business Centre, Universiti Putra Malaysia. He obtained his B.S. in Horticulture Technology and M.S. in Extension Education from Louisiana State University, and his doctoral degree in Adult and Community College Education minoring in Crop Science, from North Carolina State University. Before joining UPM as a lecturer in 1981, he served in the Perak State Agriculture Department. He teaches both undergraduate and graduate courses in program development, personnel management, qualitative research methodology and extension practicum. He is currently conducting research in transfer of technology, social aspects of landscaping, concepts of success in Malaysian society, transformation and sustainability of rural business, and status of non formal education in Malaysia. He is involved in consultancy and evaluation studies with several agencies such as LTN, PORIM, LPPKN. He has published journal articles, chapters in books, training modules, conference and seminar papers.
Associate Professor Dr. Haji Azimi Haji Hamzah

Dr. Haji Azimi Hamzah is presently the Head of Youth Development Studies Unit, Department of Extension Education, Universiti Putra Malaysia. He completed his Bachelor of Science degree in Plant and Animal Protection and a Master’s degree in Extension Education from Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge, United States. He pursued a doctoral degree in Adult Education and Youth Development at North Carolina State University, Raleigh. Dr. Haji Azimi Hamzah has been the teaching staff of the Centre for more than 22 years. During this period he has taught diploma, undergraduate and graduate student in the disciplines of Youth Development, Extension Education, Programme Planning, Adult Education, and Qualitative Research Methodology. His publications include journal articles, monographs, modules and books within the realm of non-formal education and youth development. Dr. Haji Azimi Hamzah is actively involved in providing inputs to human resource development of agencies that have both adults and youth as clients.
Course Overview

This course will provide you with an overall view of the field of adult education. You will be exposed to the various situations in which adult education programmes are conducted, the aims and objectives of adult education, and the importance of adult education in the information age. The course will also provide you with the current theories and principles regarding the teaching of adults.

The adult learner is different from students in the schooling system in many ways and you will have the opportunity to view the various aspects of the adult learner in this course. What are the characteristics of the adult learner and what motivates the adult learner to participate in learning activities are examples of questions that the course will deal with. You will be provided with principles and pointers on how to develop and conduct adult education programmes.

Course Objectives

After going through this course you should be able to:

1. understand the nature, scope and importance of adult education;
2. identify social and psychological factors that affect adult learning and motivations;
3. understand and trace adult development and adult learning processes;

4. understand ideas, theories and principles that guide curriculum construction;

5. and identify and integrate methods and techniques for providing effective adult learning experiences.

Course Content

This course is divided into three sections and each section has two major topics. The main topics covered in the course are:

SECTION I. Overview and Foundation of Adult Education


2. Social and psychological factors that affect adult learning and motivations.

SECTION II. The Adult Learner

1. Adult development.

2. Adult learning process.

SECTION III. Facilitating Adult Learning

1. Curriculum theories and principles of curriculum construction
2. Methods and techniques for providing adult learning experiences.

Course Requirements

Each section of this course is developed and handled by a separate instructor. All the sections have similar requirements which are:

1. Required readings for each major topic.
2. A written response to the review questions given at the end of each section.
3. Section assignment.

At the end of the semester there will be a final exam with questions based on all three sections. The weightage for students performance will be based on the following:

1. Answers to review questions (10% × 3) 30%
2. Assignments for all three sections (10% × 3) 30%
3. Final exam 40%

Total 100%

The above set of requirements are designed in such a way that they will provide you not only an understanding of the related concepts, principles and theories but will also require you to reflect upon, relate, and apply them to
your own experience and situation. It is hoped that through your critical reflections you will develop your own working philosophies of adult education that will serve you in your own educational efforts or in activities to facilitate the education of other adults.

Submission of answers to review questions and assignments

The following are the due dates for submission of answers to review questions and assignments:

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Answers to review questions and assignments for each section are to be mailed to:

Assignment Section,
IDEAL,
Centre for Extension and Continuing Education,
University Pertanian Malaysia,
43400 UPM Serdang,
SELANGOR D.E.

Contacting your Instructor

You may contact your instructors by telephone or by e-mail at the following number and address:

Dr. Raja Ahmad Tajudin Shah
Tel: 03-9486101 ext.2903
E-mail: rats@pppl.upm.edu.my

Dr. Azimi Hamzah
Tel: 03-9486101 ext 2931
E-mail: azimi@pppl.upm.edu.my

Semester Schedule

As in the handout to be given during the first meeting.
SECTION 1

OVERVIEW AND FOUNDATION
OF ADULT EDUCATION
Topic 1
Nature, scope and importance of adult education.

Learning objectives:
At the end of topic 1, you should be able to:

1. Understand the concepts of adult education, learning, lifelong learning, continuing education, recurrent education, non-formal education, non-traditional education, community education, andragogy, general or university extension, training or human resource development, in-service training.
2. Discuss the scope of adult education
3. Explain the purpose of adult education
4. Discuss the differences in focus and programme areas between adult education in western countries and third world countries.
5. Explain the importance of adult education
6. Discuss the different learning styles

Required readings


Topic Summary: Nature, scope and importance of adult education

Nature of adult education

Learning does not end with the end of schooling. Even those who have completed their tertiary education go on to learn in order to update their knowledge regarding their profession. Changes in the characteristics of the population, technological advances and information explosion have increased the needs and demand for various forms of adult education. Rogers (1992, p.19) said that ‘the term adult education means many things in different context in different periods. Adult education today is not the same as in earlier years.’ He went on to say that adult education in the west has a different meaning from adult education in the third world.

Definition of adult education and other related terms.

Adult education comprises two concepts; adult and education. Each concept cannot be fully understood by mere definition. For example, when does one become an adult? Is it determined by chronological age, physical maturation, mental maturation or when one earns a living? Education is also difficult to define. Anyhow, the definition for adult education as given by Darkenwald and Merriam (1982, p.9) is:

Adult education is a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained
learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills.

To make matters worse the term adult education is not accepted universally. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) noted that the term continuing education is more widely accepted. Various other terms that are also used synonymously with adult education include: continuing education, lifelong education/learning, recurrent education, non-formal, non-traditional, community education, andragogy, general/university extension, training or human resource development, and in-service training/education.

Please read chapter 1 (Darkenwald and Merriam) and chapter 3 (Rogers) for a detail discussion and definitions of adult education and other related terms.

**Purposes, aims and objectives**

Depending on philosophical orientation, Darkenwald and Merriam presented a discussion on the purposes of adult education categorized into five different emphases. First, is cultivation of the intellect, second is individual self-actualization, third is personal and social improvement, fourth is social transformation and fifth is organizational effectiveness. Please read pages 41-69 (Darkenwald and Merriam) for the full discussion on the purposes, aims and objectives of adult education. Also refer to chapter 4 (Rogers) which
views the role and purposes of adult education from the relationship of adult education and formal education system. Rogers is also of the opinion that in the west the consensus about the nature and purpose of adult education were focused on two main points. First, it is for the individual and second it is for those who attend voluntarily. However, he noted that the consensus no longer exist. Furthermore, he stated that adult education in the west has been ‘increasingly marginalized - the last item on the education agenda, on the back pages of the educational journals’ (Rogers, 1992 p.41). In addition, he noted that adult education in the west has reached only a small audience and has failed to bring about social change inspite of being in existence for over a century.

Scope of Adult Education

The scope of adult education is wide and varied. It encompasses both formal and non-formal programmes. The organizations that provide these programmes include both public and private sectors. Darkenwald and Merriam noted that the corporate sector has often been overlooked for their role in providing educational programs to their customers. Darkenwald and Merriam have outlined four typologies of organizations providing learning opportunities for adults: 1) independent adult education organization such as community-based agencies, 2) educational institution, 3) quasi educational organization

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such as museum and library, 4) non-educational organization such as business and industry, the armed forces. Please read pages 11-12 (Darkenwald and Merriam), pages 22-23 (Merriam and Caffarella).

The settings and scope of adult education in western countries are different from those of the third world. Darkenwald and Merriam noted that the major programme areas in third world countries are usually along these areas: literacy, civil and political education, health and family life, agriculture and vocational education, respectively. These two chapters are not part of the required reading, but they are highly recommended reading as preparation for your assignment.

**Importance of Adult Education**

As stated earlier, an individual does not stop learning upon leaving the school system. Rogers (1992) has developed a matrix of learning based on a continuum of adult learning in relation to intention. At one extreme is the unplanned, haphazard learning, at the other end is the formal learning programme where both learner and provider of learning have clear intentions about engaging in learning activities. The importance of learning can be seen from the reasons why adults need to continuously learn. Rogers gives three reasons for continued learning. One is because of the individual's occupation, second is due to the new social role and relationship, for example adults
marry, become parents, become tax payers, and third is due to changing interests and attitudes towards the changing world around them. In short, adults need to learn throughout their lives for various reasons and as such the importance of adult education programmes is apparent. Please read chapter 2 of Rogers for discussion.

The importance of adult education may be viewed from the context and environment of adult learning. Merriam and Caffarella point out three factors of society that influence adult learning. One is demographics - population gets older, adults are better educated and there is more cultural and ethnic diversity. The second factor is economics and the third is technology. These two interrelated factors has produced the affluence society, global economy, shift to service and information society and fast pace of technological advances. The half-life of knowledge had been shortened. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) noted that the half-life of knowledge is about five years (ie. half of current knowledge becomes obsolete in five years' time). The half-life of knowledge in the 90's has probably been shortened to about three years. The implication here is that there is an increasing demand for continuing professional education. Please read chapter 1 (Merriam and Caffarella).
Review Questions

1. Rogers believe that the approach and focus of adult education programmes in the third world is "better" than that in the west. What is your opinion? Give explanations.

2. The factors of demographics, economics, and technology discussed by Merriam and Caffarella are based on situations in western countries. Do the same factors operate in Malaysia? How similar or different are the impacts in Malaysia?

3. Explain learning style preferences as discussed by Rogers. Using yourself as a case study, recall and describe the learning styles you have used. Do you have a preference for a particular style?

4. Based on your understanding of the differences and relationship between adult education and formal education (schooling), how should the two education systems complement each other in Malaysia?

5. You are a member of a consultant group contracted to develop a proposal to convince the Malaysian Cabinet to recognize the importance and potential of adult education in Malaysia so that a substantial increase in budget for RM 7 will be for adult education.
Outline how you and your team would go about to convince the Cabinet.

Instruction for answering Review Questions:

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions.

Length is not important, be concise and succinct in your response. Your analytical ability by applying what you have learned will be the main criteria in assessing your answers.

Please submit your answers together with your assignment.
Topic 2

Social and Psychological Factors that Affect Adult Learning and motivations

Learning Objectives

After going through this topic, you should be able to:

1. Discuss what motivates adults to participate in learning activities.
2. Explain some of the barriers to participation by adults in learning activities.
3. Explain why adults participate and not participate from the sociological perspective.
4. Identify scales in measuring participation or deterrents to participation in learning activities by adults.
5. Explain adult participation in learning activities from the view of adult as a self-directed learner.
Required Readings


Topic Summary

Survey studies by adult education scholars on participation did not look deep enough into the dispositional barriers. However, Houle's study in 1961 started a motivational orientation in studying why adults participate. Merriam and Caffarella trace this development in Chapter 5, moving from national studies to Houle's typology which consists of: 1) goal-oriented learners, 2) activity oriented learners, 3) learning oriented learners. Other scholars have extended Houle’s famous typology.

Next, Merriam and Caffarella review the studies on barriers to participation. Studies by Cross (1981) and Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) are discussed here. Cross has three categories of barriers to adult education, namely, situational barriers, institutional barriers, and dispositional barriers that come from individual’s attitude toward self. Darkenwald and Merriam’s barriers include beliefs, values, attitudes, and perceptions about education or about oneself as a learner. Later, scales were developed to measure deterrent, for example the Deterrent to Participation Scale (DPS).
Finally, participation is viewed from a sociological perspective. Participation is explained by the individual's social position and social experiences.

Please read Chapter 5 of Merriam and Caffarella for a full discussion of the above. Other factors such as characteristics of the adult learner, the relationship between adult development and learning will be dealt with in Section II.

Another explanation for adult participation is the notion of an adult as a self-directed learner. Merriam and Caffarella discuss the variables which include: the learner's own motivations, the circumstances, the learner's ability to learn, previous knowledge and experience with subject matter, and chance (happenstance). However, self-directed learning also means working with others. Read Chapter 3 of Merriam and Caffarella on the subject of self-directed learning.
Review Questions

1. Using your own learning experiences as a "case", explain instances of your participation or non participation, perspectives, i.e. motivational orientation, barriers perspective, and sociological perspective.

2. List down the learning activities that you have carried out as a self-directed learner. Why did you carry out those activities?

Assignment 1

Write a short paper of not more than ten pages, double spaced on the adult education activities found in your area. Include in your discussions the following aspects.

-- What agencies/organizations are offering adult education programmes?

-- Give brief descriptions of the adult education programmes at each agency.

-- Select one agency and analyse its adult education programmes according to the following:

  -- Aims/ purposes
--Target audience

--Areas/ Subject matters covered

--Achievements/ Success of the programmes

--Problems encountered

--Future plans
SECTION 2

ADULT LEARNER
Topic 1

Adult Development

Learning Objectives

At the completion of this topic, you should be able to:

1. identify the developmental characteristics of adults from several perspectives
2. discuss the changes that have effect on learning and those that do not have effect on learning
3. explain the implications of the understanding of adult development to teaching-learning process
4. identify further works on adult development as it relates to adult learning

Required Readings

Chapter 6: Adult Development and Learning Experience. pp.96-119
Chapter 8: Age and Intelligence. pp. 140-158

Chapter 2: Adult Students. pp. 36-41
Topic Summary

Adult development concerns with the changes that occur during adulthood. Adult changes have at least two perspectives: changes that occur within an adult as one goes through life and those changes from the outside world perspective. It is an accepted fact that the changes that occur in adults go beyond physical changes. It also encompasses psychological, personal, intellectual, cognitive, perceptual and social development. Subsequently, as adult come into age there are changes in role adaptations and in lifestyle. All these changes have effect on adult learning and self direction in achieving certain goals (Rogers, 1986).

The life span theories have dominated to some extend in viewing changes that occur during the adult phase of life. Havighurst (1961) suggests that the period from 30 to 40 years adults are collecting their energies to reach a level of stability. The decade from 40 to 50 is a period of self-exertion and assertion where civic and public activities become more prominent. The period within 50 to 60 sees an increasing evidence of physical deterioration. Also at this stage of their life the writer notes that adults seem to deal with short terms rather than long term achievement. Erickson (1960) on the other hand sees the changes of adult development in terms of different tensions. These tensions
develop as a result of certain degree of disagreement between identity and role confusion; intimacy versus isolation; dynamic versus stagnation; and tension between the integrity of the self versus despair. Erikson further indicates that adults tend to orientate their life toward social, community, philosophical and creative education.

Most of the works in adult development are centered around psychological tradition that focuses on the individual’s internal process of development. However, physical aging is equally important as it has effect on adult learning. The physical changes that have been shown to affect learning include changes in senses (deterioration in seeing and hearing), changes in the central nervous system, and changes as a result of disease process (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991; Knox, 1986).

The psychological development touches on a broad array of ideas on how adults develop over the life span. Generally, the scholars in adult development have categorised psychological development into personal development, intellectual development, and cognitive development. Specific to personal development, several authors regroup it under ego development, general personality development, moral development and spiritual development (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991).
There is no straightforward answer whether adults lose their intellectual abilities as they age. The most common response to this important issue is that adult intelligence appears relatively stable, at least until the sixth or seventh decade (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). Most adults have carried with them the ability to learn since their school days. They also note that due to the lack of consistent methodologies and tools, on going studies are yet to determine the intellectual development of adults.

It is recognized that the thinking pattern of adults changes over time. These changes or cognitive development is linked to the interaction of maturational and environmental variables (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). Recent literature has ventured in relating wisdom to the hallmark of adult thinking. Merriam and Caffarella have quoted Birren and Fisher (1990) that wisdom is an attribute of older persons and it involves a changing balance between acting and reflecting.

It should be noted at this juncture that the above discussions are mostly based on the analysis of whites males domiciling in the United States. It is thus likely that some differences exist when looking at the female counterpart, the different races, the different classes in the society and so forth (Rogers, 1988). In the context of the Malaysian scenario, further scrutiny is much needed to
understand the development of our adults and the implications to learning.

Review Questions:

1. What are the different characteristics of each perspective of adult development?

2. What are some of the major differences between adult development and the development of children and adolescents?

3. What are the implications of adult development to the teaching-learning of adults?

4. As the discussion on adult development is based on the analysis of white males domiciling in the west, what do you think of its applicability to the understanding of adult development and adult learning in Malaysia?

Instruction for answering Review Questions:

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions. Length is not important, be concise and succinct in your response. Please submit your answers together with your assignment.
Topic 2

Adult Learning Process

Adult Learning Process (Part One)

Learning Objectives

At the completion of this topic you should be able to:

1. identify the different learning theories that explain the general learning situations
2. describe the learning perspective of the different learning theories
3. explain the implications of the learning theories to teaching-learning process
4. relate the various learning theories to the understanding of adult learning process

Required Readings


Chapter 1: The Process of Helping Adults Learn. pp. 5-14
Chapter 2: Understanding Adults Learners. pp. 15-39


Chapter 7. Key Theories of Learning. pp. 123-139
Chapter 13. Toward Comprehensive Theories of Adult Learning. pp. 248-265


Topic Summary

Adult learning process deals with how the acquisition of knowledge, attitude and skills are brought about during adulthood (Rogers, 1986; Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). Basically the scholars in adult learning agree that the adult learning process may be affected by similar theories that explain other learner groups, for both children and adolescents, or concerning both formal and informal learning situations. It is also accepted that the learning process of adults is influenced by the course of everyday life as adults learn to develop their learning styles (Rogers, 1986). As the topic covers a wide spectrum, the following materials concentrate on examining the related learning theories that explain the general learning situations.

The different learning theories may be regrouped into three basic orientations: behaviorist theories -- recognize stimuli and response and other observable behaviours; cognitivist theories -- treat individuals as rule forming beings depending significantly on the active engagement of the mind in relation to a matter under consideration; and the humanist theories -- having
a central theme on analyzing the nature of personality and society (Rogers, 1986; Simpson, 1980). Earlier writers, however, had placed these theories into two major families: stimulus response theories and cognitive theories; while others regrouped them from the world view of mechanistic and organismic (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991).

Behaviorist or behaviorism orientations suggest that individuals learn by receiving stimulus from the environment, a stimulus that provokes a response. Behaviorists like Thorndike and Skinner provide the first comprehensive study of adult learning (Simpson, 1980). They held the assumptions that observable behaviour rather than internal thought process is the focus of a learning situation; environment shapes one's behaviour and not by individual learner; and the principles of contiguity and reinforcement are central to explain the learning process (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991). In other words, learning is brought about by association between the response and the reinforcement. Behaviorists emphasize the active role of the teacher/agent and student/learners are seen as passive.

The behaviorists were challenged by the cognitivists for being too simplified in explaining human behaviour basing on single events and actions. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) note that according to the cognitivists
learning involves the reorganization of experiences in order to make sense of
stimuli from the environment. The earlier groups of cognitivists were the
gestalties, a group of German psychologists. They studied the active
engagement of the mind in relation to the matter under consideration (Rogers,
1986). The views they set forth emphasise on the active involvement of the
learner whereby the process requires the learner to first digest the material
step by step before learning can take place. Rogers adds that the views of the
cognitivists also apply to learning of skills, attitudes and patterns of behaviour.

The humanist orientation looks at learning from the potential within
a person to grow and develop. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were the
two psychologists who have contributed the most to the present
understanding of learning from the humanist perspective (Merriam and
Caffarella, 1991). The authors elaborate the integration of the work of both
Maslow and Rogers in much of adult learning in the process of determining
learning goals and identifying significant learning that contribute to personal
growth and development. Rogers (1986) points out that the humanists place
the goals the adult sets for themselves as in the learning situation is more
important than the material per se. Thus in this context he proposes that the
role of the adult educator is to increase the range of learning experience in a
manner that the learner will be able to attain their learning goals.
Of late there are other theories been formulated to explain the adult learning process. The question still remains, however, to what extend these theories can satisfactorily explain the process of learning in adults? In a similar vain, yet another relevant question is to what extend can these theories describe the learning that occurs in different settings or employing varieties of strategies? Works are ongoing to provide answers distinctive to adult learners. As students of adult education, keeping abreast with the latest findings will certainly contribute to the understanding of the learner—a must for the development of effective teach

Review questions:

1. Provide a summary of the characteristics of each learning theories discussed in the reading assignments.

2. To what extend the learning theories are able to explain the adult learning process?

3. What are the implications of the learning theories to the development of a curriculum for adult learning?
Instruction for answering Review Questions:

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions. Length is not important, be concise and succinct in your response. Please submit your answers together with your assignment.

Adult Learning Process (Part Two)

Learning Objectives

At the completion of this topic, you should be able to:

1. Explain the learning process distinctive to adult learner.
2. Describe the context in which natural learning process takes place.
3. Explain the implications of the understanding of self directed learning in organizing learning activities for adults.

Required Readings


Chapter 3: Learning. pp. 67-75

Chapter 2: Learning in Formal Settings. pp. 22-40
Chapter 3: Learning as a Self Directed Activity. pp. 41-60


Chapter 2: Understanding Adult Learner. pp. 15-39

**Topic Summary**

As mentioned in the earlier discussion on the learning process that the learning theories are intended to provide a comprehensive explanation for all groups of learners and covering both formal and non-formal learning situations. Adults, however, are also involved in another form of learning process - distinctive and unique to adult learner. This form of natural learning process is continuously being discovered (Houle, 1984). Such learning can take place in the context of self-fulfilment, social roles and assigned roles, and vocations. This learning process is also referred to as self-directed learning by most adult educators (Rogers, 1986; Knox 1986). Merriam and Caffarella (1991) contend that self-directed learning is not limited to non-formal situation but also occurs inside of institutionally based learning programmes.
Based on the ongoing works on self-directed learning, Knox (1986) identifies several characteristics of adult learners that can enable educators to organize learning activities around adults’ background and aspirations whether in the formal or non-formal situations. These characteristics may be grouped under four categories: enhancing proficiencies, development and learning, influences on participation, and the importance of active learner participation. Rogers (1986) delineates four characteristics of this natural learning process. Firstly, this form learning may not be continuous, i.e., episodic in nature depending sometime on whether the purpose is achieved. Secondly, the learning goal is usually concrete or to solve some immediate problem of importance. Thirdly, in pursuing self-directed learning, each adult adopts one own learning style and the range of strategies employed are typical of adults than by other group of learners. Fourthly, since self-directed learning is directed toward specific goals, adult learning tends to focus on how to cope with the particular situation rather than the general principles.

Merriam and Caffarella (1991) mention that Tough and Knowles were among the pioneers to describe how adults go about learning on their own and elaborate on the key decision making points about choosing what, where and how to learn. In addition Merriam and Caffarella bring together alternative description of the natural learning process from other researchers in the area.
and relating the findings to the role of the educator in the effort to accommodate the process of learning the natural way. Rogers (1986) builds on the process of natural learning and suggests that adult learning may be facilitated when adult educators attempt to move the learner from the concrete to the general; make the learning to be more permanent for later use; and provide conducive atmosphere for the process not to stop when the immediate task is completed but continue to further purposeful learning. Knox (1986) provides additional ideas on how through the understanding of the process of self-directed learning, educators can be more prepared to help adult learn. He suggests that educator need to aid the learners in search of meaning, clarification and mastery of their existing knowledge so that they become their own guide. According to him the educators need to facilitate the learning process by exposing the learners to the benefits that can be obtained in the form of higher level of understanding and problem solving and ensuring continuous learning through developing curiosity on the material under scrutiny.

The discussion on the learning process paints a picture that adult learning is a complex phenomenon. While adults share some commonalities with children and adolescents learning but at the same time, they have distinctive learning styles that warrant approaching adult learners
differently form the other two groups. As adults tend to be self directed learners adult educators should recognize this as an important consideration to the diversity and commonality that exist among adults in their acquisition of knowledge, attitudes and skills.

Review questions:

1. What are the characteristics of adult learners derived from the studies on self directed learning?

2. How does the understanding of the natural learning process help in enhancing the teaching-learning process of adults?

Instruction for Answering Review Questions:

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions. Length is not important, be concise and succinct in your response. Please submit your answers together with your assignment.
Assignment 2

1. Based on your readings, the review questions and your observations, please provide an overview of adult development and adult learning process (with a special focus given to adult learners in Malaysia).

2. As a programme coordinator, you are required to guide your trainers on how to apply the findings on adult development and adult learning in their assignments as adult educators. By using a specific subject area as an example, provide a summary of your presentation.
SECTION 3

FACILITATING ADULT LEARNING
Topic 1

Guiding Ideas and Principles in Curriculum Construction

Learning Objectives

At the completion of this topic, you should be able to:

1. identify ideas, theories, elements and principles in curriculum construction
2. describe the rationales underlying effective curriculum construction
3. explain the facets of curriculum construction in adult education
4. explain the interaction of all the elements of curriculum construction in an actual curriculum development process

Required Readings


Chapter 4: Assessing Learner Needs and Setting Program Objectives. pp. 14-76

Chapter 8: Providing Challenging Teaching-Learning Interactions. pp. 141-163


Chapter 7: Teaching: Content and Methods. Pp. 131-155


Topic Summary

The term curriculum refers to a planned set of experiences which a group of learners will have to undergo in order to realise the learning goals of a particular body of knowledge or subject. In other words, curriculum is not limited to the content of a particular subject but encompassing the framework of ideas, theories and principles that provide coherence direction towards achieving the set objectives (Rogers, 1986). Rogers (1986) adds that there are five elements that form the basis of curriculum construction. These elements include: a philosophical framework - includes those values that underlie the subject; context - the setting and the climate in which the learning is organized; content - the specific materials to be covered or the syllabus; events
- the planned activities related to the content; and the process of evaluation -
the activities to gather feedback and assessing the learners understanding of
the content and activities

There are several rationales and elements underlying effective
curriculum construction. One of the most widely accepted rationales is the
view developed by Ralph Tyler (1983). He begins with identifying answers
to four fundamental questions in developing any curriculum. These questions
include:

1. What educational purposes should the learning institution seek
to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to
attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can the attainment of these purposes be determined?

Ralph Tyler’s book entitled Basic Principles of Curriculum and
Instruction elaborates the answers to the above four questions. The last portion
of the book also describes approaches on how to revise existing curriculums
with the four basic questions as bases.
Alan Knox (1986) provides ideas, theories and principles specific to developing curriculums for adult educational programmes. His whole book, *Helping Adults Learn*, deals with all the facets of curriculum construction in adult education, i.e., looking at the several ways in assessing learner needs and setting program objectives, in choosing and implementing effective learning activities, selecting and preparing useful instructional materials, building supportive and active learning environments, providing challenging teaching-learning interactions, evaluating information effectively and helping the adults apply what they learn.

Several research projects have been formulated to examine the principles of curriculum design and development that are applicable across all types of adult education programmes. Dr. Alan Chadwick (1984) and his team of researchers from the University of Surrey have published a manual for adult educators called *Curriculum Development in the Education of Adults*. They offer a curriculum model of Education of Adults consisting of four main elements (see model on the next page). As indicated in the model, effective curriculum development must begin with the consideration of the principles and policies and their related aims and objectives. Subsequently, there is a need to examine the design of the courses, programmes and other educational activities to include content and methods. The third phase considers the implementation of the design. The fourth element emphasizes on the
importance of evaluation and how it affects the other three elements. The model also presents the overall interaction among all the three elements.

**Review Questions:**

1. Compare and contrast between the principles of curriculum development for adult education and the school system.

2. Based on the reading materials, what generalisations can be derived from the understanding of curriculum construction.

3. How does the understanding of the principles of curriculum construction help in facilitating adult learning?

**Instruction for answering review questions:**

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions. Length is not important, be concise and succinct in your response. Please submit your answers together with your assignment.

**Assignment 3**

Based on the reading materials, develop your model of curriculum construction for Adult Education. By using a specific example (subject matter) of an adult education programme, explain the application of your model and the interaction of its essential elements.
Topic 2
Methods and Techniques for Providing
Adult Learning Experiences

Learning Objectives
At the end of this topic, you should be able to:
1. Explain the meaning of learning experiences
2. Identify general principles in selecting learning experiences
3. Organize learning experiences
4. Explain the differences between methods and techniques of teaching adults
5. Identify and integrate appropriate methods and techniques for effective adult learning

Required Readings

Chapter 8: Teaching Tools for Providing Information and Skill Training

Chapter 9: Teaching Tools for Developing In-Depth Understanding pp. 57-75

Chapter 10: Teaching Tools for Creating a Good Learning Environment pp. 77-86
Chapter 11: Selecting the Right Tool  
Pp. 87-94

Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.  
(This book has been assigned to you in Topic 1)


Topic Summary: Methods and Techniques and Techniques for Providing Adult Learning Experiences

“Learning Experience” is the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react (Tyler, 1993). This definition notes that what the learner does is what he learns. This means that what the learner experiences matter the most, and not what the teacher does. Therefore, you as adult educators must ensure that in order to facilitate learning, learners must be given the right kind of experiences and that he must be actively involved in the learning-teaching transaction.

In selecting learning experiences, Tyler (1993) has outline five general principles:
1. For a given objective to be attained, the learner must have the experiences that provide him the opportunity to practice the type of behaviour stated in the objective.

2. The learning experiences must be such that the learner attains satisfaction in going through the behaviour implied by the objective.

3. The reaction desired in the experiences are within the realm of possibility of the learner.

4. Many learning experiences can be used to attain the same educational objective.

5. The same learning experience can be used to attain a number of educational objectives and outcomes.

Organizing the learning experiences in an appropriate manner will help to produce learner’s desired cumulative effects. Tyler (1993) specifies these major criteria that must be taken into consideration for effective organization of the learning experiences. These are continuity, sequence and integration.

The terms ‘methods’ and technique have been used interchangeably by many. According to Verner (1962) method is the organization of the learner for purposes of education, while technique is the way learning tasks are managed to facilitate learning. Other definitive terms are later used to make
the distruction more clearer. For example Knowles (1980) uses the term format to mean method, while such terms as teaching strategies (Seaman and Fellenz, 1989) and teaching tools; (Apps, 1991) are to replace technique.

Despite a number of literature available on adult methods and techniques (especially Morgan, Holmes and Burdy 1976; and Moore and Waldron, 1981), their central purpose remains unchange, that is to facilitate learning by learners. The literature related to methods and techniques by Apps (1991) will be the major reference for the topic.

Review Questions

1. What is the importance of learning experience to a learner? Why is that the organization of learning experience ought to be given emphasis for effective learning?

2. What are the techniques or teaching tools that you use in your work? What parameters normally govern the selection of your teaching tool?

Instruction for answering review questions:

Note: You are required to submit written responses to the review questions. Length is not important; be concise and succinct in your response. Please submit your answers together with your assignment.
PP 504
Adult Education
Principle

Required Readings

Topic 1
Chapter 5
Agencies and Programs

This chapter is concerned with the environments of adult learning and education, particularly the institutions that provide educational opportunities for adults, their roles, distinctive features, and interrelationships. Although not all adult education takes place under organizational auspices, a point emphasized throughout this volume, what might be called the enterprise of adult education is institutionally based. It is principally this enterprise that concerns us here—the multiplicity of organizations that plan and conduct learning activities for adults.

Familiarity with the organizational dimension of adult education is important for several reasons. Most significant is that adult education as an enterprise, a profession, and a movement cannot be fully understood apart from the organizations that have nurtured it and given it definition and direction. Moreover, adult education’s organizational providers are exceedingly diverse—so much so that many people find the field bewildering or comprehend only a small part of the total endeavor. Finally, an understanding of the organizational dimension is important because the role of the adult educator is defined in part by the settings in which the work of adult education goes forward. As we shall see, there are many...
similarities in what adult educators do in various institutional settings, but there are also notable differences.

This chapter begins with a general overview of adult education settings, which is followed by a detailed discussion of the kinds of agencies that provide adult education and the similarities and differences among them. Following this review of specific agencies and programs, the discussion shifts to the larger context of adult education as a social enterprise. Emphasis is placed on the increasing involvement of government through an analysis of the impact of legislation on the field and the role of federal and state agencies in policymaking, planning, and coordination. Attempts at voluntary coordination at the national, state, and local levels are also reviewed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the dilemmas and limitations of planning and coordination in a field as diverse as adult education.

ADULT EDUCATION SETTINGS

The settings or contexts of adult education comprise a continuum, one end of which can be labelled “highly informal” and the other “highly formal.” We might consider as highly informal any purposeful, systematic, and sustained learning activity that is not sponsored, planned, or directed by an organization. Thus, highly informal adult education occurs in “natural” social settings. Not surprisingly, the activities and institutions toward the formal end of the continuum have received the most attention in the professional literature. Most adult educators, or at least those who identify themselves as such, are employed by organizations such as colleges and professional associations that sponsor classes, workshops, and other relatively formal educational activities. Informal adult education, on the other hand, is less visible and perhaps perceived by most adult educators as less urgent or serious. However, one manifestation of informal adult education, self-education, has received increasing attention from researchers and policymakers. The research in this area suggests that most adults in any given year engage in one or more highly deliberate efforts to learn—efforts that are usually self-initiated and self-directed. By the most conservative estimates, a large part of what adults learn purposefully and systematically is acquired on an individual basis without benefit of organizational sponsorship.

Informal adult education as conceived here goes beyond individual, self-directed learning. Private instruction, which is more widespread than most people realize, is provided by free-lance teachers, who give individual or group lessons in virtually every subject and skill. In some areas “learning exchanges” have been established to match up people who want to learn a particular subject or skill with others who want to teach it.
Private instruction has been a significant vehicle of adult education since the early eighteenth century. While private instruction is usually provided for a fee, adults sometimes learn from each other at no cost through groups that are independent of any organization and that exist principally for the purpose of mutual education. The original Junto founded by Benjamin Franklin is a well-known example. Similar clubs and informal groups can be found today in most communities. Some devote themselves to the discussion of books, poetry, or other forms of literature; others are concerned with political or religious subjects and still others with avocational interests, such as astronomy, gardening, or local history. An interesting variation is the phenomenon of "networking," in which people with common interests or problems, such as women executives, get together for purposes of mutual learning and support. Members of the network use each other as resources for learning, advice, and psychological support, often in pairs or small groups that form and re-form as needs and circumstances change.

Adult education, then, is not confined to the courses, workshops, lecture series, or other activities sponsored by organizations. Adults can and do learn on their own, through private instruction, and in loosely structured, informal groups. Unfortunately, scholars and researchers have devoted little attention to informal learning in natural social settings. A fuller understanding of informal adult learning activities might help professional adult educators to facilitate learning more effectively both in natural social settings and in more structured environments.

TYPES OF AGENCIES

Trying to discern or impose order on the multiplicity of agencies involved in adult education is a frustrating and probably futile task if the goal is a rigorous typology or classification scheme. As Knowles observed some time ago, "No simple symbol, such as the red brick schoolhouse or the stadium-dominated campus, stands for the institutional sponsorship of adult education. The institutional field in which adult education operates is so varied and complex as to defy neat classification." Before considering the organizational makeup of the field, it may be useful to ponder some of the reasons why rigorous classification is so difficult.

Problems of Classification

Organizational theorists have developed several general typologies, but most do not seem useful for categorizing adult education agencies. Blau and Scott's cui bono scheme does, however, appear relevant to our purposes since it is based on "who benefits" from an organization's
activities. Applying an adapted version of this typology to adult education illustrates some of the problems of classifying organizations in such a complex field. A modified version of the cui bono typology yields the following categories, which in effect constitute distinctive clientele for adult education programming:

1. The general public or some portion of it,
2. Employees (including volunteers),
3. Members, and
4. Clients, patients, or customers.

Although crude, these categories have some value because they correspond in a general way to major types of provider organizations (e.g., schools and colleges, business and industry, professional associations, hospitals). They are useful too because clientele characteristics strongly influence the goals and methods of adult education and therefore the professional functions of program development and instruction. The typology is deficient, however, because many adult education agencies would fall into more than one category. Consider, for example, the case of a large, university-affiliated hospital. Such an organization might have an educational unit that provides: (1) in-service training for professional and nonprofessional employees and volunteers; (2) patient education; (3) continuing professional education for health professionals not necessarily employed by the hospital (a segment of the general public); and (4) health education for the general public in the hospital’s service area. The cui bono typology, despite its logic, is of little use in classifying such an agency, for it would have to be included in three of the four categories. This kind of problem extends to most other adult education agencies. While it might seem that the educational units of business and industry, because of their emphasis on employee training, would fall only in the second category, the fact is that many corporations are heavily engaged in customer education to help purchasers make effective use of products and services and some (such as public utilities) even provide educational programs for the general public. Likewise, museums and libraries provide training for their personnel and educational programs for the public, labor unions are heavily engaged in education for both members and employees, and so on.

There are, of course, other conceivable ways of constructing a typology of adult education agencies. A distinction is sometimes made between the schooling of adults and adult education, the implication being that “schooling” is teacher-centered, more formal (involving classrooms, grades, credits, etc.), and based on a professionally dictated curriculum rather than learner needs and interests. While the distinction has some validity, it is apparent that many agencies, including schools and colleges, business and industry, or-
INDEPENDENT ADULT EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS

In the nineteenth century, institutions devoted primarily or exclusively to adult education, such as the lyceums or Chautauquas, probably played a larger role in the education of the adult public than such agencies do today. Nonetheless, independent adult education organizations are more numerous than one might think and certainly diverse. Their number has been growing in recent years and probably will continue to do so in the 1980s and 1990s. In terms of numbers of adults served, the proprietary and correspondence schools have long played a major role and will be described in some detail. Also worthy of note are the nontraditional, external degree organizations that developed rapidly in the 1970s and show every sign of continued vitality. First, however, we shall consider the smaller, often overlooked agencies, which in general are oriented to the needs of local communities.

Community-Based Agencies

Agencies in this category include nonprofit locally or regionally oriented adult schools, residential adult education centers, learning exchanges (or networks), free universities, and other grass-roots adult education enterprises. Private, nonprofit community adult schools are sometimes found in communities where the public schools are unable or unwilling to
support adult education. While few in number and often limited in scope
to avocational, recreational, and personal development offerings, they are
nonetheless an enduring part of the adult education scene. How many
such schools there are in the United States and Canada is not known, but
in New Jersey, for example, there are about six or seven.12
Nonprofit residential adult education centers, while prevalent in
Scandinavia (there called folk schools), are rare in North America. These
should not be confused with residential education centers operated by
large organizations such as industries, labor unions, government agen-
cies, and universities. One of the best-known independent residential
schools is the Highlander Research and Education Center in Tennessee.
Centered to education for social action, it played a major role in union
organizing efforts in the South in the 1930s and 1940s, in the civil rights
movement in the 1950s and 1960s, and more recently in community
development and environment improvement efforts in Appalachia.13
Learning exchanges, as noted previously, serve as a vehicle for
matching people who want to teach something with others who have
something they want to learn. Perhaps the largest is The Learning
Exchange in Evanston, Illinois, which serves approximately 20,000 adults
who receive instruction in some 2,000 subjects.14
So-called free universities, which offer no credits or credentials, are
often located near regular universities, although close to half the 200 or so
that have been identified have no such ties.15 Similar in some respects to
independent adult schools, free universities usually provide a wide range
of offerings in the arts and crafts and practical skills, along with courses in
a more sophisticated vein on such topics as energy, the environment,
women’s issues, and political and social ideology. To some degree, the
free universities constitute a national movement, with leadership pro-
vided by the Free University Network headquartered in Manhattan,
Kansas.
Finally, it is important to note the private literacy education
organizations that are organized nationally but operate at the local level
through state or regional branches. The two best-known are Literacy
Volunteers of America and the Laubach organization, both of which
recruit and train volunteers to work one-on-one with illiterate adults.
These organizations often cooperate with local libraries, prisons,
churches, and public school adult education agencies.

**Proprietary Schools**

Privately owned profit-making schools have a long and controversial
history. They include business schools, technical schools, correspondence
schools, and others, like the Dale Carnegie Schools, that are difficult to
classify. A few are owned by large corporations such as Bell and Howell, and others are organized like chain stores with units in various cities (e.g., the better-known secretarial schools), but most are small, single-unit organizations that are highly specialized. The most recent statistics indicate that there are some 8,000 such schools in the United States, about three times the number of colleges and universities. Not all proprietary schools serve a primarily adult clientele. Many young people just out of high school enroll in these institutions on a full-time basis, particularly in the secretarial schools and those in the popular technical fields such as health and computer technology. In other fields, such as real estate and insurance, virtually all the students are adults. In the most recent year for which statistics are available, some 735,000 adults enrolled in private vocational, trade, or business schools, and another 457,000 enrolled in correspondence schools. Thus, in 1978 about 8 percent of all adults participating in organized educational activities were enrolled in proprietary and correspondence schools.

External Degree Agencies

Some external degree agencies, such as Empire State College in New York State, are autonomous adult education organizations, while others are units of universities, school systems, or state governments. Despite the fact that many such agencies are attached to traditional educational institutions, their distinctiveness and strong orientation to adult needs argue for their treatment as independent, or at least quasi-independent, adult education organizations.

The term external degree refers to a wide variety of institutions and practices that sometimes seem to have little in common other than being nontraditional. There are, however, some general characteristics of these agencies that differentiate them from more traditional educational forms. Perhaps the most fundamental, as Cross and Valley point out, is their "explicit recognition that education should be measured by what the student knows rather than how or where he learns it." In practice, as Houle has noted, this means separating out one or more of the five basic functions traditionally performed by colleges or universities (or, in modified form, by public schools). These functions, which are not normally separated, include "enforcement of admission (or matriculation) requirements, provision of instruction, evaluation of the individual's competence in the content taught, awarding of the certificate or degree, and licensure to practice a profession." Thus an external degree agency, such as the New York State Regents External Degree Program (an arm of the New York State Education Department), or Thomas A. Edison College in New Jersey, may offer no instruction whatever, but may certify
prior educational achievement (in college or even in industry or the military service); award credit for successful completion of examinations; and, when certain requirements related to the number of credits and their subject matter distribution are met, award a degree. Other external degree institutions, such as Empire State College, perform similar evaluative and certifying functions, but in addition offer instruction through nontraditional modes including individualized learning contracts, correspondence study, television courses, and so on. Highly motivated and able adults, particularly those with prior college attendance and significant work experience, can earn an external degree rapidly and inexpensively. In addition, adults who cannot attend regular college classes (or do not wish to) are able to study independently when, where, and at a pace they themselves determine.

A more recent, and equally significant, development has been the adoption of external degree practices at the adult secondary level. The nontraditional (or competency-based) adult high school movement, pioneered in the mid-1970s by the Regional Learning Service of Central New York, has spread rapidly to Texas, Michigan, Illinois, California, New Jersey, Maine, Oregon, and many other states. It offers adults who did not complete high school a flexible alternative to the GED (high school equivalency) test and the conventional, classroom-based, evening high school. In most cases, regular (not equivalency) diplomas are awarded not by state agencies (although this does occur), but by local school boards. Practices vary widely even within the same state, but the Adult High School of South Plainfield, New Jersey, is reasonably representative. In this program, one hundred Carnegie units are required for graduation, including two courses in American history, the only mandatory subject. Students must also perform satisfactorily on a test of basic skills. Credit can be earned for a year or more of successful work experience, basic military training, and completion of an approved apprenticeship program (worth 30 credits). Students also may earn credits through assessment of performance, for example, in typing or auto repair; through passing tests in a range of high school subjects; and for prior coursework and training sponsored by schools and colleges, including approved proprietary schools, and by employers and the armed forces. Regular classes are also offered in a variety of high school subjects, and independent study is an option in American history. If appropriate courses are not available in South Plainfield, a student may take them for diploma credit at other institutions, such as county vocational-technical schools or community colleges. The nontraditional adult high school, like its collegiate counterpart, is revolutionary in its implications. The credential is not awarded for mere "seat time," but principally on the basis of what a student knows or can do, regardless of when, where, and how it was learned.
EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In the United States and Canada, as well as in Great Britain and many other industrialized countries, the preparatory educational system of schools, colleges, and universities plays a major role in adult education. Table 5.1 shows just how significant this role is. It also illustrates the trend in recent years for public two-year colleges and technical institutes to serve an increasingly larger proportion of adult education participants.

From Table 5.1 it can be seen that nearly half of all participants in organized adult education in 1978 were enrolled in four-year colleges and universities, two-year colleges and technical institutes, and in programs sponsored by the public schools. The role of postsecondary institutions in providing education to adults is considerably larger than that of the public schools. There were more than ten million enrollments in two- or four-year colleges and universities compared with fewer than three million in programs sponsored by the public schools.

With some exceptions (notably among some community colleges), adult education is not a primary goal or function of traditional educational institutions. Schools and colleges are devoted not to lifelong learning for people of all ages, but rather to the preparatory education of children and young people in formal programs of instruction leading to diplomas and degrees. Since World War II, and particularly in the last decade, there has been some upgrading of adult education’s status, particularly at the postsecondary level, but in general adult education is a secondary or ancillary activity in schools and colleges and typically receives little financial support from the parent institution.

To say that adult education is still a secondary activity in most school and college settings is not to denigrate its achievements or vitality in the kindergarten-through-university system. On the contrary, many of the most comprehensive, innovative, and effective programs of adult education are sponsored by the public schools and by colleges and universities. Clearly, they are the two principal sources of comprehensive educational programming geared to the needs and interests of the general public. We shall consider first adult education in the public schools.

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Table 5.1 Trends in Adult Education Enrollments in Education Institutions as a Percentage of Total Enrollments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>1969</th>
<th>1975</th>
<th>1978</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary or Secondary School</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four-Year College or University</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Year College or Technical Institution</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Public School Adult Education

America's public schools have been a major source of adult education since the middle of the nineteenth century. According to Cranton, the earliest evening classes in elementary school subjects were offered by the public schools of Boston and Louisville in 1834. Initially, most of the students in these classes were working youths, although adults also enrolled. Evening high school instruction was introduced in Cincinnati in 1856 and in New York City ten years later. This emphasis on basic or remedial education continues to characterize much of public school adult education, especially in the cities. By the turn of the century, and particularly following World War I, instruction in the three Rs and high school subjects was supplemented by English-language and citizenship training for immigrants and by broad-based programs of vocational education. In the 1950s, and especially after World War II, the adult curricula were broadened considerably to include recreational, avocational, and personal development or "enrichment" courses of a liberal or humanistic vein.

In contrast to 1880 (or even 1930), it is impossible in the 1960s to characterize the "typical" public school adult education agency (hereafter called adult school). It can be said, however, that adult schools tend to reflect the needs of the local communities they serve. In the larger cities, as well as in economically depressed rural areas, programs emphasize vocational training (often supported by federal funds through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act), adult basic education, English as a second language, citizenship education, and high school completion. Avocational and general enrichment programming in such settings is usually minimal, if it exists at all. Remedial and vocational programming is heavily supported by federal and state funding. In suburban and small-town settings, adult schools often provide a mix of remedial/vocational and general interest programming, the latter financed mainly or totally by student fees. In the more affluent small towns and suburban communities, adult schools usually provide little or no remedial or vocational instruction, concentrating instead on avocational, personal development, and general enrichment offerings more suited to middle-class interests.

The importance of public adult schools as providers of adult education varies from state to state. Among the factors affecting the role of the public schools in adult education are history and tradition, state financial support for public school adult education, the presence of competing delivery systems (mainly community college systems), and the extent of professional leadership on the part of public school adult educators and state education department officials. In some states, such as North Carolina, Iowa, Washington, and Wisconsin, community colleges and
technical institutes have become the primary delivery system for community-based public sector adult education. In other states, such as Illinois, New York, Florida, Indiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Michigan, the public schools play a vital role in the adult education enterprise. Despite declining enrollments of elementary and secondary school students, adult education in the public schools does not appear to be expanding to the extent one might expect. This may be related in part to the financial problems of many school districts and to increased competition from the postsecondary sector, particularly the community colleges. Nonetheless, well-established programs with a broad range of offerings, adequate facilities, reasonably secure funding, and a nucleus of full-time, professional staff are likely to continue to flourish.

Community Colleges

The public two-year college is an American innovation that has spread rapidly, not only within the United States and Canada, but in recent years to other countries as well. More than any other institution, the community college exemplifies the ideal of lifelong learning. There is virtually no person, no subject, no educational method that falls outside the range of the community college endeavor. Because the community college is so all-encompassing in its purposes and programs, it can be best defined with a statement of what it does not do: It does not provide formal preparatory education for youngsters and it does not provide collegiate or professional education leading to credentials higher than the two-year associate degree. Within these limitations, community colleges in general offer virtually everything to everyone. In the adult education arena alone, community colleges may offer adult basic education, high school equivalency, noncredit personal development courses, English as a second language, vocational training, and continuing professional education for a variety of occupational groups, including in some cases lawyers, dentists, engineers, and other practitioners with advanced university degrees. They often provide as well programs for such special groups as senior citizens, reentry women, prisoners, civic leaders, single parents, and recovering alcoholics, to mention but a few. Instructional formats and delivery systems include workshops, seminars, conferences, symposia, television courses, correspondence courses, telephone courses, newspaper courses, and computer-assisted courses, many of which are offered in factories, office buildings, hospitals, churches, libraries, prisons, and other off-campus settings.

The vitality of adult education in community colleges is due to several factors. First, service to the entire community has been a principal tenet of the community college movement since its beginning.
In most states, legislation establishing community colleges has specifically mandated, or at least legitimated, adult education (or community service) as a major institutional function. A second factor has been relatively generous funding, enabling community colleges to hire full-time adult education specialists to develop effective and needed programs. A third factor is the flexibility that community colleges enjoy, partly because of their broadly defined mission and partly because they are less encumbered by the academic traditionalism of universities and the web of political and legal constraints that can immobilize a public school system.

As might be expected, the community college's flexibility is reflected in a wide variety of organizational arrangements for the provision of adult education. In the degree-credit arena, some institutions operate on the "single college" model, making no administrative distinction between day and evening classes or between full-time and part-time students. On many campuses, particularly in urban areas, the majority of degree-credit students are adults enrolled on a part-time basis. In contrast to degree-credit studies, noncredit offerings are almost always offered through special adult education units usually referred to as continuing education or community services divisions. Community colleges are a major source of noncredit, postsecondary education for adults. A national survey conducted in 1975–1976 reported four million registrations in noncredit activities in community colleges, compared with roughly two-and-a-half million in universities and two million in four-year colleges.

As these statistics suggest, community colleges are reaching out to the general public in much the same way as the local adult schools. More than a decade ago, Harlacher identified several "major trends . . . apparent in community service programs" in community colleges. The experience of the 1970s has confirmed these trends and it is likely that they will continue to characterize community services programs in the 1980s. According to Harlacher, the community college will:

- develop aggressive multiservice outreach programs designed to extend its campus throughout the entire college district;
- place increased emphasis on community education for all age levels and groups;
- utilize a great diversification of media in meeting community needs and interests;
- increasingly utilize its catalytic capabilities to assist its community in the solution of basic educational, economic, and social problems;
- be increasingly concerned about the cultural growth of its community;
- place greater emphasis on interaction with its community;
- increasingly recognize the need for cooperation with other agencies.
Four-Year Colleges and Universities

Community colleges are in many respects more alike than different, but four-year colleges and universities often are more different than alike. One source of difference is that many four-year institutions are not publicly controlled. But even more important is the highly differentiated nature of colleges and universities in terms of mission, structure, program, and clientele. Even universities that seem similar, such as Princeton and Columbia, are in actuality very different in a number of important respects—including their involvement in continuing education for adults. To impose some kind of order on this diversity, we shall consider separately the degree-credit and noncredit adult education activities of colleges and universities.

Noncredit adult education activities in colleges and universities date back to 1816, when a professor at Rutgers University offered lectures in science to the public. Similar lectures in popular science were offered at Yale, Columbia, and Harvard in the 1830s and 1840s, but it was not until the 1890s that adult education began to be institutionalized in the form of “university extension.” By 1919, 32 universities (only 4 of them privately controlled) had established extension divisions. By 1976, 1,233 four-year institutions offered noncredit adult educational activities, a sharp increase from 680 institutions a decade earlier.

In many smaller colleges, noncredit adult education is organized on an informal, decentralized basis, often as a supplement to a department’s regular offerings. Most often, however, noncredit adult education is provided through a special administrative unit, usually designated “continuing education,” but sometimes referred to as a division or school of general studies, community services, evening studies, or extension. In terms of the type of programming offered, as well as instructional methods and delivery systems, noncredit activities in colleges and universities are generally similar to such activities in community colleges. One important difference, however, is that four-year institutions are seldom involved in adult basic education and nonprofessional vocational education and are much more involved in continuing professional education in such fields as social work, medicine, dentistry, law, pharmacy, and business management. In fact, at most larger universities, continuing professional education is regarded as the “bread and butter” of noncredit programming.

Degree-credit programming for part-time adult students is most clearly demarcated from noncredit programming at those institutions that sponsor what are generally referred to as evening colleges (also known as schools of continuing education or general studies, university colleges, and weekend colleges). A few evening colleges are formally organized, with their own special curricula and full-time faculties (for example,
Columbia's School of General Studies), but most are loosely structured, consisting basically of standard undergraduate courses which are taught in the evenings or weekends by part-time instructors. Historically, evening colleges have been associated mainly with urban colleges and universities, largely because such institutions are able to draw from a large pool of adult learners in the immediate locale. Early pioneers in this field were the municipal colleges and universities, such as the College of the City of New York and the University of Cincinnati, and the private urban universities such as Syracuse, Tulane, and Northwestern. While many of the more established evening colleges have changed little over the years, the nontraditional education movement of the 1970s resulted in many innovative programs and the widespread adoption of such practices as granting credit on the basis of examinations and life or work experience. While true external degree institutions, as discussed earlier, are few in number, what might be called quasi-external degree programs have multiplied rapidly in colleges and universities. A survey conducted in the mid-seventies identified approximately 300 "nontraditional" degree-credit programs among four-year colleges and universities. The trend is still toward greater flexibility in where and how adults can earn college and university degrees.

**Cooperative Extension Service**

According to Boone, "the Cooperative Extension Service . . . is the world's largest publicly supported informal adult education and development organization. . . . With over half a century of recognized achievement, it is America's first (and only) national system of adult education." The term "cooperative" comes from the fact that the Cooperative Extension Service (CES) is based on a system of joint funding and program planning involving federal, state, and local units of government. The basis of the system is a statutory relationship (Smith-Lever Act of 1914) between the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the state land grant universities. The principal operational role is assumed by the state universities, which develop annual program plans in consultation with county governments, farmers' groups, and other local constituencies. The U.S. Department of Agriculture provides general guidelines and approves and monitors the state plans. Although the CES is administered by land grant universities, its unique purpose and structure as well as its great significance in the development of adult education justify treating it as a special case of continuing education in colleges and universities.

At the heart of the CES is a commitment to the development and dissemination of practical knowledge. Research is undertaken by agricultural experiment stations and other units in the universities. University-based extension specialists in agriculture, home economics, youth de-
velopment, and community development utilize this research to prepare instructional and informational materials and to train county agents and other local personnel (such as volunteers and nutrition aides) on an ongoing basis. The county agents in turn provide direct service to the public, answering requests for information and providing instruction to groups and individuals on an informal, noncredit basis.

The CES is organized into four major program areas: agriculture and natural resources; home economics; 4-H youth development; and, more recently, community resource development. The first emphasizes crop and livestock production, business management and marketing, and pest management and environmental improvement. The home economics program is broadly concerned with improving family life. Educational activities focus on foods and nutrition, family economics, family life education, family health and safety, and textiles and clothing. The 4-H program is not of course aimed at adults, although the staff is responsible for organizing and training more than half a million volunteer leaders. The community resource development program is targeted on rural areas and towns of less than 50,000 population. Its major concern is improving the quality of life in rural communities through assistance to local government and other groups and agencies concerned with employment, housing, health, education, citizen participation, and governmental effectiveness. While this program is small and not well developed in many states, it is the only national effort aimed at broad community development, a process in which adult education often plays a central role.

While most people associate the CES with farmers and rural America, in recent years, especially through its home economics programs, it has become increasingly active in urban areas. The home economics program, staffed by some 4,000 extension home economists, 7,000 aides, and 700,000 volunteer extension homemakers, reaches approximately ten million families each year.

While much extension work involves information giving and technical assistance rather than education in the stricter sense of the term, there is little doubt that several million Americans each year participate in CES activities that are genuinely educational. The following list of distinguishing features of the Cooperative Extension Service is worth reflecting upon, for if the CES is as successful as it appears to be, every educator can benefit in some way from its experience.

Informal teaching that is designed to make knowledge relevant and help individuals, families, businesses, and communities to identify and solve their problems.

The extensive use of lay advisory committees or councils to assist with planning, executing, and evaluating the educational program.

The extension of its reach and effectiveness by working with (and through) new and existing organizations.
The training of local [volunteer] leaders.
The support by different levels of government which has encouraged responsiveness to national, state, and local problems.
The reciprocal relationship between services and research, which provides channels for new knowledge to flow to the people and allows human needs and problems to be transmitted to the scientists.  

QUASI-EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

In addition to the organizations that exist for educational purposes, there is a large and amorphous category of organizations termed "quasi-educational" in that education "is an allied function employed to fulfill only some of the needs which [these] agencies recognize as their responsibility." Within this broad category are: (1) cultural organizations, concerned at least in part with the general diffusion of knowledge and including libraries, museums, and certain of the mass media; (2) community organizations, such as churches, Y's, senior citizen centers, and other private, nonprofit agencies that exist "to offer services, or to serve as a vehicle for association, to members or to the general public"; and (3) occupational associations, which are voluntary membership organizations whose principal purpose is to advance the interests of a particular profession or occupational group.

Cultural Organizations

As noted above, the major commonality among cultural organizations is their concern for disseminating information or knowledge (including insight, understanding, and appreciation) to the general public. All these organizations are educative in that people can and do learn from them, often unintentionally, incidentally, or very informally. They are educational, in the sense of offering organized learning opportunities, to a lesser extent. Our focus here is on the role of cultural organizations in providing or facilitating purposeful and organized learning for adults. Their broader educative activities, while equally or perhaps more important, are beyond the scope of this chapter.

The public library's role in adult education is many-faceted, but the basic emphases appear to be: (1) providing individual assistance to independent adult learners; (2) organizing and conducting group learning activities for the general public and specific clienteles (such as the elderly), usually with an emphasis on informal group discussion coupled with readings, films, or lectures; and (3) facilitating the adult education activities of other agencies such as churches, colleges, adult schools, and various community organizations through the provision of facilities,
materials, or various professional library services. Monroe provides a brief overview of the history of adult library education that highlights the major trends:

The library adult education movement from the 1920s through the 1950s focused on the advisor guiding the reader in individual tutoring programs. During the 1960s and 1970s, library adult education—in the wake of World War II and growing internationalism—turned its attention to group discussion of human values and social problems through such programs as Great Books Discussion. Beginning in the 1960s and carrying through the 1980s, the adult education programs of public libraries refocused on the particular needs of special groups in the community.

Today, the adult education emphasis in public libraries, especially the larger ones, seems to have shifted away from informal group activities to more ambitious efforts to serve serious independent learners (many of whom are enrolled in independent study programs) and adults handicapped by functional illiteracy. Clearly, libraries have the potential to play an important role in adult education, and not only as a "resource" for highly motivated, independent learners. The best statistics available suggest, however, that only 2 percent of adult education participants, including those engaged in self-education projects, use libraries as locations for learning. Whether the deliberately educational, as opposed to broadly educative, role of the libraries will expand in the 1980s is unclear.

Like public libraries, museums are an enormous resource for serious adult learning but their potential has yet to be developed except at a few pacesetter institutions such as New York's Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia, and the Chicago Museum of Science and Industry. Museums are increasingly using a wide variety of educational methods such as exhibits (including mobile units and other outreach techniques), guided tours, lectures, classes, and various kinds of participatory activities (e.g., simulated space travel, descents into reconstructed coal mines, and interactive experiences with various technologi- cal devices such as computers and video systems). The potential for creating rich educative environments that engage adults (and children) in active learning is enormous and appears to be a growing trend, especially in historical and science museums. In 1965, museums provided organized classes and lectures for some 4.5 million adults, a figure that by 1980 may well have doubled.

The mass media—television, radio, and newspapers—are also more educative than educational in the sense that adults regularly acquire information from these sources but less often use them in deliberate and systematic efforts to learn. Unhappily, commercial television and radio, and to a lesser extent most newspapers, are only marginally educative and seldom produce anything that could reasonably be called educational.
With the possible exception of cable TV, this situation is unlikely to change.

Public television (and radio), however, presents a very different picture. Nearly 300 stations (compared with only 70 in the early 1960s) affiliated with the Public Broadcasting Service have the potential to reach two-thirds of the American population. While much of the programming is geared to news, public affairs, and entertainment, there seems to be an increase in strictly educational programming, including tele-courses (usually sponsored cooperatively with colleges and universities) and such quasi-instructional series as "The Ascent of Man" and "The Voyage of the Beagle." Stations licensed to universities and state broadcasting agencies (about two-thirds of the total) place more emphasis on instructional television, including training for government employees, than those licensed to nonprofit corporations such as Boston’s WGBH. While only one percent or so of adults currently utilize television for the purpose of deliberate and systematic learning, this figure should increase, unless federal appropriations are heavily cut, as the Public Broadcasting System continues to develop its educational potential through technological advances (e.g., involving satellite transmission), closer collaboration with other educational agencies, and increased production and sharing of educational programming.

Community Organizations

A staggering diversity of locally based, private nonprofit membership and service organizations provide learning opportunities of many kinds for adults in local communities. Included in this category are membership organizations such as service and fraternal clubs (Rotary, Jaycees), chapters of political and other national special interest groups (American Civil Liberties Union, League of Women Voters), and performing arts organizations, community centers, and anti-poverty or community action agencies. For most of the examples just mentioned, adult education is a minor concern, generally narrow in focus and informal. Other organizations in this general category, however, such as churches and other religious organizations, Y’s, and health associations (Red Cross, American Heart Association) often devote a considerable part of their energies to organized adult education. A national survey of organized adult education activities (excluding staff and volunteer training) in such private, nonprofit community organizations found the following:

1. Twenty-nine percent of America’s churches and synagogues offered organized adult education activities (more than a fourth in nonreligious subjects) to 3,604,000 adults.
2. Other religious organizations (national church groups, Salvation Army, etc.) served another 474,000 persons.
3. Y’s and Red Cross chapters provided adult education for 3,050,000 persons at some 3,360 sites.

4. Civic organizations, such as senior citizen groups, political groups, and neighborhood centers served a total of 1,175,000 adults in organized educational programs.

5. Social organizations, such as social and literary societies, theater and music groups, and other “miscellaneous” organizations provided adult education to 370,000 participants.

It might be noted that the total of nearly 11 million participants is more than five times that found in a national survey of individuals (rather than of the community organizations) in the same year. Yet the larger estimate seems plausible. Since many of the educational activities in question are of short duration (60 percent lasted between 3 and 19 hours) and informal, individuals may in many cases forget such participation or not consider it “educational.” In any event, community organizations—especially churches—are a major source of informal, but nonetheless organized, adult education.

Occupational Associations

Virtually every occupational group in our society is organized into one or more membership organizations that exist to advance the interests of their members. These organizations can be considered quasi-educational in that most of them are devoted, among other things, to their members’ professional or occupational development and therefore are concerned with continuing education. A large number of associations are organized nationally, usually with chapters or branches at the state and local levels. Others are local (usually county- or city-based) or state groups. Within the health professions alone there are thousands of such associations serving physicians, dentists, nurses, pharmacists, public health officers, respiratory therapists, physical therapists, dental hygienists, hospital administrators, and so on. But the established professions such as medicine, law, engineering, architecture, and education are merely the tip of the iceberg; all occupational groups are organized in some fashion and many encourage or even require their members to maintain or enhance their proficiencies through continuing education.

While numerous occupational associations rely to some degree on educational institutions to organize educational programs for their members, many operate their own educational programs and a few depend on the services of specialized educational organizations, such as the combined American Management Associations, the American Institutes of Banking, and the American College in Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, which is the sole source of continuing education for certain specialists in the
insurance industry. The role of occupational associations in adult education will almost certainly expand if only because more occupations are encouraging or requiring continuing education for maintaining licensure, certification, or membership. Whether this trend toward mandatory continuing education is desirable or not is a hotly debated issue, which will be examined closely in Chapter 7.

NONEDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Noneducational organizations utilize education to enhance the achievement of such goals as making money, curing the sick, rehabilitating prisoners, or advancing the economic interests of workers. In such settings, then, education is more a means than an end. It might be argued that this is true of some quasi-educational organizations, such as occupational associations, and that it is not true of at least some hospitals, prisons, and trade unions. Whether education in a particular setting is best viewed as a means or an end, a goal or a facilitating function, is a matter of opinion. However, most government agencies, prisons, unions, and hospitals are not primarily educational organizations nor, for the most part, do they fit our definition of quasi-educational organizations. Nevertheless, the boundaries are admittedly blurred.

Business and Industry

The educational activities of American industry have mushroomed in the decades since World War II. This growth has been so great that the business corporation has become one of the principal educational forces in contemporary society. This has occurred for a host of reasons, including rapid technical change, the increasing complexity of most jobs, a sharp increase in individual mobility both within and across occupational categories, the widespread recognition that "human resources" are a valuable asset that should be "developed" on a continuous basis, and a plethora of governmental regulations that require corporations to provide training in a multitude of areas related to occupational safety, quality assurance, and compliance with various legislative mandates related to environmental protection, consumer rights, affirmative action, and so on.

While these and other reasons account for the rapid growth of education in industry, the importance of the corporation as an educative institution stems from its impact on people. Some 32 million Americans work for mid- to large-sized corporations that employ 500 or more employees. They spend about half their waking hours for 30 to 50 years in such an environment and depend on the corporation not only for a livelihood, but also for the satisfaction of other vitally important needs. Moreover, the hidden curriculum of the corporation—the habits, values,
attitudes, and beliefs that it deliberately but informally teaches—is surely a powerful form of education. In the long run, it may be as potent in its educative effects as the curricula of schools and colleges.

The stereotype of education in industry as narrow, job-related training is far from accurate. While a great deal of training is job-specific and skills-oriented, the "corporate curriculum" encompasses much more than vocational education. Virtually every subject that is taught in schools and colleges is also taught by some businesses and industries. Programs for managers and supervisors include a range of subjects, for example, human relations, written and oral communication, business ethics, career planning, health and physical fitness, as well as various business topics related to marketing, finance, management theory, personnel supervision, law, accounting, and hundreds of other specialized concerns. Programs for scientists, engineers, architects, and other professionals employed in industry are likewise wide-ranging and sophisticated, sometimes even more advanced than Ph.D. training in the same fields at the nation's leading universities. Educational programming for lower-level employees, such as production workers, clerks, and secretaries, is generally less extensive and more narrowly job-related. Even so, many companies offer adult basic education to upgrade workers' reading, writing, and computation skills, along with on-site high school completion classes, usually in collaboration with a local school system or community college. In addition, most larger corporations provide tuition-assistance plans that enable employees to continue their education in a school or college with some or all expenses paid by the company.

While in most corporations education is highly decentralized, and classrooms can be found in virtually every plant or office building, there has been a trend in recent years for larger companies to conduct at least a portion of their programming in residential education centers that in some ways are like small universities. Xerox's International Center for Training and Management Development, described by its director, is one example:

The Center . . . has accommodations to handle 1,014 students in residence at one time. The actual square footage is 1,200,000. We have very complete audiovisual capabilities, and closed circuit TV in all the classrooms. . . . The center is pretty much self-contained. We have a barber and beauty shop, medical facilities, gift shop, newsstand, small resource center, library, cocktail lounge, snack bar, and dining room that will accommodate 750 people at one time.42

The Xerox Center, like most others, operates yearlong at full capacity and provides an extensive array of courses in managerial and technical subjects. At the heart of the center is its Education Services Group, which the center's director describes as "a small cadre of professional educators,
Ph.D.'s who have responsibility for making sure that everything we do... is educationally sound... in terms of design, content, and teaching methodology... The actual instructors are described as the company's best performers in sales and service. They are given intensive training in teaching methods in preparation for a three-year tour of duty at the center. The instructors are characterized as highly motivated, for if they perform well at the center they are guaranteed a promotion to a first-line management position. Xerox and similar corporations take education very seriously.

Not only do many companies operate their own educational programs and facilities, but they collaborate with colleges, universities, and other educational institutions to provide certain kinds of educational experiences for their employees. Courses, and even entire degree programs, are offered by colleges and universities on-site for employees of hundreds of companies in the United States and Canada. Other institutions, such as school systems, provide basic education, high school completion, and vocational training programs for business and industry personnel. Corporations also utilize the services of private consulting and training companies and organizations such as the combined American Management Associations. In a study of education/industry cooperation in New Jersey, Beder and Darkenwald found that approximately half the companies surveyed had collaborated with at least one educational institution in some kind of joint program between 1972 and 1979.

The educational role of the business corporation is not confined to employee education and development. Many companies, for example, are heavily engaged in customer or consumer education for "good will" or product promotion purposes or to assist customers to make more effective use of the products or services they have purchased. Purchasers of industrial, scientific, or office equipment usually must be trained to operate and maintain such products. Sales personnel often perform this training, but many companies maintain special customer education departments for this purpose and others operate residential training centers where courses range in duration from a few days to several weeks. Digital Equipment Corporation, for example, offers about 100 different courses each year at its residential education center. A recent customer education course catalog ran to 239 pages. Many retail establishments such as supermarket chains and companies that sell sewing machines, home computers, building supplies, and the like also offer short courses for customers or potential customers. Various businesses also provide educational activities for the general public. Utility companies offer short courses on energy conservation, banks and brokerage firms on how to invest money, insurance companies on health and physical fitness, and so on.

The number of adults who participate in educational activities
sponsored by business and industry can be only roughly estimated. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, approximately 3.2 million adults participated in 1978 in educational activities sponsored by business and industry. \(^45\) A 1975 survey of mid- to large-size companies estimated participation in company sponsored courses at 4.4 million, with an additional 1.3 million participating in tuition aid programs. \(^46\) A particularly significant statistic is that one-fourth of all adult education participants in 1978 reported that the cost of their education was paid by their employers. \(^47\) Finally, it should be noted that educational opportunities and participation rates vary greatly from company to company. Where one works can be more important than where one lives in regard to resources for adult learning. At many high-technology corporations, such as AT&T, Xerox, and IBM, a large portion of the work force is continually engaged in both formal and informal learning. At one such company, Oregon's Tektronix Corporation, approximately 86 percent of the firm's 15,000 employees have participated in educational programs. In 1978 alone 6,872 employees completed 13,702 courses, most of them at the company's facilities in suburban Portland. \(^48\)

The modern corporation exerts an enormous influence on the education of the public, and the extent of this influence is generally not recognized even within the business community. It should be added, however, that industry's educational activities may not in every case serve the best interests of its employees or the public. In some instances what business may consider education or training others may view as propaganda or indoctrination.

**Government Agencies**

The second largest employer in the United States is the government. According to the Census Bureau, approximately 15 million people are employed in government service, not including the approximately two million men and women in the armed forces. \(^49\) Of these 15 million, roughly two-thirds are employed at the state and federal levels and three-fifths at the local level. Education and training activities at all levels of government are extensive. In fact, the rate of participation in organized educational activities appears to be higher among government workers than employees in private business and industry. Until recently, information about the general scope of education and training at various levels of government was difficult to obtain, but Peterson has produced an excellent review of the scattered literature on this subject from which most of the following data were obtained. \(^50\)

A Civil Service Commission study found that in 1978 roughly one-fifth of the nation's 2.8 million federal employees participated in one or more organized learning activities of at least 8 hours duration. While
most of the training was sponsored by a particular department or agency for its own employees, about one-third was provided by other government units and by nongovernment organizations such as consulting firms, professional associations, and universities. The bulk of the training was geared to employees' specific job requirements (29 percent) and to various topics classified under the broad category of management and supervision (30 percent).  

Education for state-level employees tends to parallel that at the federal level. Federal agencies concerned with commerce, labor, housing, education, health, and so on have their counterparts in each of the 50 states and these state agencies generally maintain their own training departments. While data on state-level training activities are scarce, the numbers involved and the expenditures are enormous. One study reported that in California in 1975, "just over 191,000 state employees were involved in in-house training, and the state contributed slightly over $1 million for outside (career-related) education."  

Training for employees of local government is often conducted in cooperation with educational institutions, particularly state universities and community colleges. "In-house" training, however, is widespread. A 1975 survey of cities of over 10,000 population found that two-thirds sponsored their own training programs for municipal employees. Agencies of state government also are a major provider of training for local government employees, as are private consulting firms, the International City Management Association, the American Management Associations, and the National Training and Development Service.  

**Armed Forces**  

Education in the military, which today employs about two million men and women, is an immense and exceedingly varied enterprise. In peacetime the major activity of most military personnel, aside from their work assignments, is learning. While much of this learning is job-related, it has wider significance in that some 90 percent of all military occupational specialties are transferable to civilian jobs. According to Carr and Ripley, "each year the military graduates more than one million individuals from about 5,000 separate training courses produced within the Department of Defense. At the same time, about a half million service men and women are involved in educational programs conducted by more than 1,000 civilian institutions." When one considers that the great majority of armed services personnel return sooner or later to civilian life, the enormous importance of military education programs—both to the millions of individuals involved and the larger society that benefits from their skills—is readily apparent.  

Each branch of the military operates both its own voluntary educa-
tion program and specialized training programs (which are not voluntary) for various military occupational specialties. The voluntary education programs—General Educational Development (Army), Navy Campus for Achievement, Education Services Program (Air Force), and the Marine Corps' Voluntary Education Program—are "the military version of an adult education program in which the individual participates during off-duty time and for which he pays a portion, usually 25 percent, of the tuition." The Air Force also maintains a Community College of the Air Force, which consists of an administrative headquarters and seven Air Force technical training institutes, each of which is regionally accredited as a two-year college.

Two major programs that serve military personnel in all branches of the armed forces are DANTES (Defense Activity for Non-Traditional Education Support) and the Serviceman's Opportunity College. DANTES offers a high school completion program at overseas locations, administers a worldwide credit-by-examination program, and publishes a catalog of correspondence study courses offered by accredited civilian institutions. The Serviceman's Opportunity College, jointly funded by the Department of Defense and the Carnegie Corporation, is not a single institution but rather a "network of more than 360 civilian institutions [that] supports military education through adaptable residency requirements and a generous transfer policy." This kind of flexibility is particularly important for geographically mobile military personnel who wish to earn a college degree.

In addition to the programs sketched above, the military provides counseling and testing services, adult literacy instruction, human relations training, and many other educational services to its uniformed personnel. It is also heavily engaged in educational research and development. All told, it is one of the world's largest producers and users of adult education and a major force in the education of the American public. This is particularly true for millions of less advantaged men and women, who, were it not for their military service, would have encountered great obstacles to continuing their education.

Unions

In Western European countries, such as Britain and Sweden, organized labor has long been a major force in adult education. For a number of reasons, this has not been true of the labor movement in North America. Nonetheless, many individual unions are active in providing educational opportunities to their employees and members.

There are basically three dimensions to union-related education: apprenticeship training, labor or worker's education, and labor studies. Apprenticeship training, which is required before one can practice certain
crafts and trades, such as plumbing and carpentry, involves some 2,000 hours of classroom and on-the-job training. The formal instruction is often provided by community colleges or vocational-technical institutions rather than by the unions themselves. Approximately half a million workers participate in apprenticeship programs each year.

Labor education refers to nonvocational training designed "to enable workers to function more effectively as unionists, to help them understand society and fulfill their obligations as citizens, and to promote individual development." While churches, Ys, adult schools, and political action groups were once major providers of labor education, today, according to a recent report by MacKenzie, unions and land grant universities are the only significant providers, together accounting for some 95 percent of all labor education in the United States. Of the approximately 250 national and international unions, about 25 percent maintain education departments that are active in labor education programming, most of it geared to union leadership development (typical courses include union administration, labor law, collective bargaining, and steward training). Other unions rely heavily on labor education centers at land grant universities such as Penn State, Rutgers, and West Virginia for similar leadership development programming. The AFL-CIO maintains a large residential education center—the George Meany Center for Labor Studies—which provides one- to three-week training programs for union officials from all parts of the country.

The term labor studies refers to an emerging field of interdisciplinary study that has grown rapidly in the last decade. Labor studies degree programs have been established at approximately 40 institutions. In a sense labor studies is the formal, degree-credit counterpart to noncredit labor education programs. Most labor studies students are union employees or members.

With its 21.5 million members, organized labor could play a vastly expanded role in adult education. A few prominent labor leaders have advocated federal labor education legislation modeled after the Cooperative Extension Service. Legislation of this kind could have a major impact on promoting access to continuing education for American workers, but it is unlikely to be adopted without the vigorous backing of the AFL-CIO leadership—which so far has been lacking.

Correctional Institutions

The prison population in the United States is something on the order of 425,000. More than half of these individuals are incarcerated in state institutions, 150,000 are in local jails, and about 25,000 are in federal facilities. The majority of inmates are poor, undereducated, and lacking in the skills necessary to get a job. Education and job training programs
are extensive in the federal facilities, somewhat less adequate in most state prisons, and generally inadequate or nonexistent in local jails. While there are many innovative and apparently successful educational and job training programs in prisons, the general picture, as McCollum paints it, is unsurprising:

The current range and quality of educational and vocational programs offered and the rate of prisoner participation vary widely. . . . Some institutions provide adult basic education (ABE) as well as classes at all elementary and secondary levels, including the opportunity to complete high school equivalency (GED) courses. In addition, most prisons offer some vocational training. . . . Postsecondary programs also are generally available. . . . "Study release" for college courses is a new concept that is just beginning to receive significant support in a few prison systems. 62

Most larger prisons employ their own educational personnel, particularly for vocational, ABE, and high school completion programs. Turnover seems to be high, probably because prisons are frustrating environments for teaching and learning.

Other Agencies

Many other kinds of noneducational organizations are actively involved in adult education. Hospitals and other health care agencies, as noted earlier in this chapter, offer in-service training programs for their employees, patient education, community health education, and continuing professional education for health care professionals in their service areas. Learning and education are important aspects of the day-to-day functioning of most hospitals and health centers. In the economic sector, several hundred trade associations, such as the American Iron and Steel Institute, provide a variety of educational programs for employees of their member firms. So, too, do broad-based national business organizations such as the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and the National Association of Manufacturers. 64 Many other kinds of organizations provide adult education to their members, employees, clients, or the public; in fact, there seems to be no type of organization that does not.

FEDERAL AND STATE ROLES

It is obvious from the preceding overview of adult education agencies and programs that there is no national system of adult education in the United States. As Knowles recently put it:

Adult education in this country is not "organized" in the dictionary sense of being formed into a coherent unity or functioning whole. It is a complex mosaic of unrelated activities and processes that permeate almost all the established organizations in our society. 65
While in general adult education is indeed unorganized, parts of the field are more organized than they once were, principally because of the increasing involvement of state and federal government. While still modest, the role of government has expanded greatly since the early 1960s, primarily as a result of new federal legislation aimed at expanding educational opportunity for disadvantaged adults.

While hundreds of federal and state enactments provide financial support for adult education (usually through narrowly targeted programs) only a few have had a broad impact nationally. Most of these were initiated in the 1960s. Notable exceptions are the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, which established the Cooperative Extension Service, and the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, a broad program of support for vocational education, including adult vocational education. The ensuing discussion emphasizes the legislative programs of the 1960s, particularly the Adult Education Act of 1966, which was probably the most significant piece of adult education legislation since the passage of Smith-Lever. Its importance comes not so much from the size of the program in dollar or enrollment terms as from the impetus it provided for growing federal and state involvement in policymaking, coordination, and professional leadership for an expanding segment of the field.

**Adult Education Act of 1966**

The Adult Education Act of 1966, part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of that year, originated two years earlier with the Economic Opportunity Act, part of President Johnson’s War on Poverty. The Adult Education Act established a national program of adult basic education (ABE) for the purpose of educating adults “whose inability to speak, read, or write the English language constitutes a substantial impairment of their ability to get or retain employment commensurate with their real ability.” ABE was interpreted to mean education designed to: (1) “help eliminate such inability”; (2) “raise the level of education of such individuals”; (3) “improve their ability to benefit from occupational training”; and (4) “make them better able to meet their adult responsibility.”

In addition to providing for costs of instruction and program administration, the act mandated that a portion of the total appropriation be utilized for staff training and special projects of a research and development nature. The Adult Education Act has been amended several times, mainly to increase the scope and flexibility of the ABE program and give the states more control over staff development and special projects. While the emphasis on serving the least educated has been retained, a portion of the funds now can be used for high school completion programs. A significant recent change allows state education departments
to channel operating funds to community agencies other than public educational institutions.

The federal appropriation for ABE in 1980–1981 was $100 million. About 1.8 million adults were enrolled. The amount of money involved is only a fraction of what the Cooperative Extension Service, the military, or even AT&T spends for adult education each year. However, because it has been integrated into the powerful federal and state educational bureaucracies and because of its links to the massive labor training programs of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, the ABE program has come to be a focal point for much of the policymaking, coordination, and professional development activity that does exist in adult education in the United States.

**Government Role in Planning and Coordination**

Coordination of adult education at all levels of government has two basic and interrelated dimensions. One involves coordination among different legislated programs with similar or complementary objectives, and the other involves coordination among different kinds of institutions or delivery systems that provide similar or complementary adult education services. A complete analysis of the issues in coordinating adult education is beyond our scope. Consequently, the discussion here focuses on two legislated programs—ABE and manpower training under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act—and the problems of articulation between the school-based delivery system and the postsecondary system.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) is a multi-billion-dollar program designed to combat unemployment and underemployment. While most of the funds, until recently, have been used to provide public service jobs for the unemployed, job training, as well as adult basic education for those deemed in need of it, have been major components of CETA. Despite its heavy educational emphasis, CETA is administered through the U.S. Department of Labor, not the Department of Education. It is highly decentralized, with many important decisions, such as who will be trained for what by whom, made by so-called prime sponsors, that is the CETA units of county or municipal governments. There are also state-level CETA organizations, again attached to departments of labor or their equivalents, which are responsible for various aspects of policymaking, planning, and coordination. A few CETA prime sponsors run their own vocational training and adult basic education programs, but the great majority contract for these services with community colleges, vocational-technical institutions, proprietary schools, and public school adult education agencies.

As might be expected, problems of planning and coordination involving CETA and related adult education programs begin in
Washington and spread downward through the state capitals to the local level where the actual programming takes place. The difficulties of coordinating these programs have long been recognized and repeatedly efforts made at the state and federal levels to remedy them through legislation and administrative directives mandating collaboration in planning and implementing CETA, ABE, and vocational education. These attempts to minimize waste and confusion in programs for undereducated and underemployed adults have met with mixed success.

It is perhaps understandable that two federal departments, education and labor, and their state counterparts would encounter difficulty in coordinating educational programs for adults. Coordination of adult education is a problem, however, even within the U.S. Department of Education and most of the 50 state education agencies. This is partly caused by the fact that federal and state education agencies are oriented toward institutional "levels" and adult education, like vocational education, cuts across the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels. Further compounding the situation is the semiautonomous status of vocational education, a result of heavy federal funding. Vocational education itself is fractured into levels.

A brief review of adult education’s place in the U.S. Department of Education illustrates the problem. Adult education functions are assigned to two major offices in the department: the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Vocational and Adult Education and the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Postsecondary Education. The former office includes a division of adult education (under a deputy assistant secretary for adult learning and school-community relations), which administers the programs of the Adult Education Act, and another unit, under a different deputy assistant secretary, for adult occupational education. The second unit is responsible for adult programs funded under the Vocational Education Act. In the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Postsecondary Education there is a deputy assistant secretary for higher and continuing education who oversees some ten operating units, only one of which—community services and continuing education—has anything to do with continuing education. This unit’s main function is to administer the community services and continuing education program authorized under Title I of the Higher Education Act; this is a small program that provides only short-term funding.

It should be clear from this brief description how fragmented adult education in the U.S. Department of Education is. Federal legislation has in effect established separate dominions for adult basic education, adult occupational education, and adult higher education. For the first and last of these there are even separate presidential advisory councils: the National Advisory Council on Adult Education and the National Advisory
VOLUNTARY COORDINATION

The role of government in coordinating adult education centers mostly on federally funded state grant programs such as ABE and the adult education activities of publicly financed educational institutions, particularly at the postsecondary level. These programs and delivery systems, including those beyond the purview of federal and state education agencies, such as ETA and the Cooperative Extension Service, comprise only a part (but an important one) of the total adult education enterprise in the United States. Government has little to do with coordinating adult education outside the sphere of publicly funded programs and institutions. Business and industry, unions, community health and social service agencies, museums, libraries, occupational associations, churches, and any other important providers of adult education remain beyond the
scope of direct governmental control. As a consequence, any cooperation and coordination involving the broader spectrum of providers of adult education has been limited to voluntary efforts.

**National and State Levels**

Adult education lacks a powerful national organization to represent the interests of the entire field and to facilitate cooperation and coordination at the national level. The one organization that comes closest to playing such a role is the Coalition of Adult Education Organizations (CAEO). The CAEO counts among its members the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., the National University Continuing Education Association, the National Home Study Council, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, and many other national organizations concerned with adult education. Among its major purposes are:

1. To identify and focus on major issues in adult and continuing education.
2. To facilitate the exchange of information about resources, actions, and plans of its member organizations.
3. To facilitate joint planning of projects to serve the field of adult and continuing education.
4. To promote the support of governments, foundations, and agencies to achieve equal educational opportunity for all persons.49

According to a recent assessment by Griffith, the accomplishments of the CAEO since its founding in 1969 have been limited. Nonetheless, he concludes that because the CAEO is the only national body that represents the total field "it is on this foundation that leaders of the adult education profession must design their structure for coordinated action in the future."70

At the state level, as discussed in Chapter 1, sustained efforts at voluntary coordination, where they exist, are carried out primarily by professional associations of adult educators. In many states, however, there are multiple associations representing different institutional interests, most notably the public schools and higher education. Sometimes, as in Michigan, New Jersey, and, more recently Illinois, these interests have managed to work together effectively in a single association. Even in these states, however, the adult education associations consist mainly of people employed by public schools and higher education institutions. Adult educators who work in industry, libraries, and other nonschool settings seldom are members. Griffith is probably correct in concluding that at the state level "the forces that tend to fractionalize the field of adult education continue to be almost equal in strength to those favoring coordination."71
Local Councils and Committees

Councils or committees consisting of representatives of local organizations that sponsor adult education abound. Usually, they are constituted on a municipal or county basis. The major function they perform is to serve as a vehicle for informal communication and coordination, although they may also conduct needs assessment studies, publish directories of local programs and services, and engage in political lobbying. strangely, such councils in the larger cities, such as New York and Chicago, were quite active 50 or 30 years ago but have since declined or disbanded. Establishing a secure financial base has always been a problem for such organizations, but that does not explain their decline in the years when adult education has grown most rapidly. Perhaps it has been this growth itself, much of it supported by public funds channeled to schools and colleges, that has undermined the broad-based community support for the field that existed when adult education was less visibly associated with educational institutions. Despite the discouraging trend in some larger cities, local councils and committees continue to play an important role in coordinating the activities of a broad range of adult education agencies in communities across the nation.

LIMITS OF PLANNING AND COORDINATION

Few would deny that state and federal governments have the right and obligation to ensure that public funds for adult education are utilized as effectively as possible. Planning and coordination are necessary not only for reasons of economy, but also to improve the quality of services provided to adult learners. There is always of course the danger that government intervention will result in effects opposite from those intended. For example, too much regulation can stifle the responsiveness of institutions to public needs or diminish the benefits to adult learners of healthy competition among agencies. It is not always easy to discriminate between responsiveness and opportunism or between healthy competition and that which is wasteful. Whatever one's opinions, the trend toward a larger governmental role in controlling and coordinating publicly funded adult education is likely to continue. So far, the benefits have probably exceeded the costs.

Voluntary coordination entails fewer risks, although incentives and resources for positive and effective action are all too often lacking. A major problem is the absence of adequate funding to enable organizations such as the Coalition of Adult Education Organizations, state professional groups, and local adult education councils to undertake systematic and sustained efforts toward comprehensive planning and coordination. Without stable funding and paid professional leadership, these voluntary
organizations cannot be expected to function in the future any more effectively than they do today.

Existing governmental and voluntary attempts at planning and coordination on the national level are, as we have seen, limited in scope and effectiveness. Nonetheless, a major issue today is whether the government should play an expanded role in the planning and management of adult education. This seems to be happening in some Western European countries, with their long traditions of centralized control of education. The impetus for these developments in European nations has come in part from the influential Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), to which Canada and the United States also belong. In one of its many policy papers on the subject, the OECD outlined four options for the future development of adult education in member countries:

1. To let it evolve, as in the past, in a spontaneous and sporadic fashion without reference to any explicit public intervention;
2. To strengthen and coordinate the existing range of activities but not to perceive it as an active instrument of public policy in the social and economic arenas;
3. To strengthen and coordinate the existing range of activities while simultaneously pursuing a positive policy of support for specific activities judged to be national priorities . . . ; and
4. To create a comprehensive service of adult education as an integral element of broadly conceived educational systems and to relate its functions to the social, economic, and cultural objectives of the nation.12

The policies of adult education in the United States today could be said to correspond somewhat to the third option, if indeed such federal programs as ABE and vocational education and the work of the Cooperative Extension Service constitute national priorities. The option recommended by the OECD, however, is the fourth: that is, the establishment by the government of a comprehensive, nationwide adult education system. Such a course of action, while possibly viable in Sweden or Denmark, would be inappropriate for a nation like the United States. The multitude of diverse adult education agencies in the United States could not be reconstituted, redirected, or ignored in the interest of establishing a single national system. That private sector, nonschool agencies would cooperate in such a plan is particularly unlikely. Not only would the financial, legal, and political barriers to such a scheme be insurmountable but there is no reason to believe that a "comprehensive service" would be any improvement over the current, unplaned system of adult education.
CONCLUSION

Governmental policymakers and planners accustomed to thinking in terms of monolithic delivery systems that can be targeted on specific social or economic goals are bound to be frustrated by adult education’s enormous diversity and complexity. Yet it may very well be that the profusion of purposes and agencies that characterizes the adult education enterprise in the United States is not a problem to be overcome but rather the basic source of adult education’s vitality and effectiveness. No one institution or delivery system or “comprehensive service” could possibly address more than a fraction of the educational needs and interests of the adult public in the United States. Moreover, the needs of the public and the organizations to which adults belong or for which they work are continually changing. Even to monitor such changes would be a herculean task for any single agency or group of planners.

To some extent, adult education in the United States functions in a manner analogous to that of a free market economy. There is limited governmental planning and regulation, and educational services are provided by a variety of organizations largely in response to public demand. The great advantage of this state of affairs is that many needs are met and the quality of programs and services for adult learners is often enhanced through the competition of the educational marketplace. There are of course disadvantages to a free market system of adult education, some of which have previously been noted. Perhaps the most serious is that many adults cannot afford the cost of continuing their education. Federally funded programs, such as ABE, and state subsidies for adult education in publicly controlled educational institutions have mitigated but not resolved the problem. Most adult educators agree that it is not only unjust, but detrimental to the public good, that many poor and disadvantaged adults are denied the benefits of continuing education because they lack the necessary financial resources. The major challenge of the 1980s and 1990s would seem to be not the establishment of a national system of adult education, but rather the fostering by the government of a more equitable utilization of existing resources for lifelong learning so that no sector of society will be denied the opportunity for continued learning and development.

NOTES
15. Ibid.
NOTES

27. Ibid., p. 15.
39. Ibid., pp. 33–35.
43. Ibid.
46. Luterman, Education in Industry, p. 11.
AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS

50. Peterson, Lifelong Learning in America, pp. 32–33.
54. Peterson, Lifelong Learning in America, p. 34.
55. Ibid., p. 36.
57. Ibid., p. 201.
58. Ibid., p. 204.
59. Peterson, Lifelong Learning in America, p. 31.
63. Ibid., pp. 165–169.
70. Ibid., p. 98.
71. Ibid., p. 100.
Chapter 6
International Adult Education

The complexity and scope of adult education worldwide makes coverage of the topic within a single chapter a challenging undertaking. However, while there are substantial differences in adult education from one country to the next, some commonalities can be found among industrialized nations as well as among nations of the Third World. This chapter will begin with a brief overview of adult education in Western industrialized nations and then explore, in more detail, characteristics of adult education in Third World countries. The nature of adult education in Third World nations offers an interesting contrast to that of the United States.

ADULT EDUCATION IN INDUSTRIALIZED COUNTRIES

Extracting generalities about adult education from several countries depends to some extent upon a common definition of what is being investigated. As discussed in Chapter 1, adult education may be identified with lifelong learning, or with formal, informal, or nonformal, or recurrent education. In addition, the form that adult education takes in
various countries differs, and one can easily become frustrated attempting to draw comparisons among Danish folk schools, Britain’s Open University, and American adult schools. If emphasis is placed on the learning of adults the task becomes easier. As Verrier states:

The need to learn continuously is common to all mankind, although the ways in which this need is met vary from one culture to another. Since every society develops some pattern of habitual response to this need to learn, it is readily apparent that adult education per se is universal in time and space, although the method of adult education is not.¹

Studies of adult education from a world perspective have centered upon the learning in which adults are engaged. Learning to Be is, in fact, the title of the report of UNESCO’s International Commission on the Development of Education. For the purpose of collecting data in countries throughout the world, UNESCO proposed acceptance of the definition used in the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED): “organized programs of education provided for the benefit of and adapted to the needs of persons not in the regular school and university system and generally 15 or older.”² Similar to UNESCO’s definition is that used by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), representing 25 industrial nations. OECD defines adult education as:

any learning activity or program deliberately designed to satisfy any learning need or interest that may be experienced at any stage in his or her life by a person who is over the statutory school-leaving age and whose principal activity is no longer in education. Its ambit thus spans avocational, vocational, general, formal, or nonformal studies as well as education with a collective social purpose.³

The second point of the OECD definition alludes to the various functions of organized adult education found in industrialized countries. Historically, these functions have been:

1. providing remedial and basic education for those who had not gone to school or who had not profited from school or who had left school at an early age;
2. giving already educated adults an opportunity to further their intellectual and cultural development with or without reference to the conferment of academic credentials;
3. enabling a relatively small number of actual or potential working-class leaders to further their education so that they might increase their usefulness to their fellow-workers;
4. providing occupationally related courses for relatively restricted groups;
3. providing courses designed to promote good citizenship through the encouragement of popular educational movements;
6. providing courses for the socialization of immigrants.  

Third World countries, of course, share several of these goals, but, as will be discussed later, adult education in such countries becomes a means to the overriding end of nation building. Another difference lies in the fact that industrialized countries, characterized by greater economic wealth and more leisure time, can afford the luxury of allowing their adults to pursue "intellectual and cultural development."

While the functions of adult education are similar in industrialized nations, there are differences in its administration and financing and in the configuration of its agencies and programs. There are several reasons for this phenomenon. As Knowles points out, institutions of adult education typically exemplify a response to a specific need rather than a part of an overall national design. Verner offers further insight into the reasons for the uniqueness of adult education in different cultures. His seven "propositions" help explain the growth (and sometimes demise) of a particular form of adult education, as well as why transferring adult education forms from one culture to another often causes problems:

1. Every society has a need for continuous learning, but the nature and content of the need varies from one to another so that a specific need existing in one society is not necessarily common to others.
2. Different societies develop unique methods* to meet their need for continuous learning; consequently, a system of adult education established in one is not necessarily appropriate for another.
3. The method developed to meet a specific need for learning in one culture is not necessarily suited to the same need in a different culture.
4. A method developed at one place and time in one culture can be applied to the same need at other places at the same time in that culture.
5. A method developed to meet a specific need in a culture at one moment in time is not always suited to the same need in the same culture at a different moment in time.
6. A method developed to meet a specific need in a culture at one moment in time may meet a different need in the same culture at a different moment in time.
7. A method developed to meet a specific need in a culture at one moment in time may meet a different culture's need at a different moment in time.  

*Verner uses the term "method" to mean the pattern of organization.
ADMINISTRATION

The sporadic growth of adult education in most industrialized countries has led to a plethora of public and private agencies assuming responsibility for its existence. Consistent with Verner’s observations about cultural and time-bound aspects of adult education, no observer of international adult education would cite a single system as superior to others, or recommend the adoption of a particular administrative model. What can be agreed upon is that each country should insure, through legislative or other appropriate means, that the learning needs of adults are addressed.

At the World Conference on Adult Education held in Tokyo in 1972, representatives from 83 countries endorsed the recommendation that “adult education be recognized as a specific and indispensable component of education, and that legislative or other measures be taken which support the development of broadly based adult education services.”

Issues related to the administration of adult education from a worldwide perspective center upon the extent of centralization and coordination and the amount of integration with the country’s formal school system. The variety of ways in which adult education is organized reflects these concerns. In some countries adult education is administered through a special division within the ministry of education. This would seem to ensure a recognized status for adult education within the total educational system, as well as provide a ready mechanism for articulation with other levels of education. Sweden, Norway, and Yugoslavia, for example, consider adult education equal with other sectors of the educational system. An OECD report on international adult education notes, however, that in practice the interrelationship between the two levels is tenuous in most countries. The advantages and disadvantages of separating “adult education from the general education service, either explicitly or de facto,” are pointed out by Lowe:

Separation emphasizes the distinctiveness of adult education, helps to ensure that adult education is not despised as the parish of the educational system, and reduces the risk that a ministry of education will constrain it in a conventional straitjacket. The disadvantages of separation are that if adult education is everyone’s business it is effectively no one’s business; it leads to unnecessary expenditure and to further dispersion of scarce resources; it makes the recruitment of competent full-time staff even more difficult than it is at present because nearly all educators feel that their careers are insecure when they have to step outside the formal education system. Above all, it militates against the adoption of a lifelong educational model.

Aside from its integration into the educational system, usually into a ministry of education, there are several other ways adult education is organized internationally. Israel, for example, has a separate national board for adult education, administered by the national government.
Germany also has a special national agency called the Deutscher Volks-
hochschul. Public funds are used to provide programs for adults through-
out the country. Scandinavian countries have several national agencies
among which adult education functions are distributed. Finally, many
countries have national nongovernmental associations. England, Switzer-
land, and Australia, among others, each have one national association.
Canada has 2 (one for each cultural language group), and Sweden has 12
national associations.

In reality, the administration of adult education in industrialized
nations occurs through a variety of public and private agencies. Such a
state of affairs reflects the voluntary nature of adult education and its
capacity to respond to needs as they arise. Ironically, this situation places
something of a burden on the adults who wish to "find a continuity of
learning programs in which one endeavor leads naturally and smoothly to
another," and who thus are "forced to integrate" a learning program on
their own. Even in a relatively small country like Denmark which has a
ministry of education responsible for adult education, a number of other
ministries are also involved to a great extent; the Ministry for Social
Services, Ministry for Defense and the Ministry for Labor are also
responsible for a number of activities. A recently published survey
showed that no fewer than 38 central organs were involved with adult
education either administratively or in some other decisional way—and that
no fewer than 100 different types of educational establishments partici-
pated in adult education activities.

The situation is similar but even more complex in a large, highly
diverse country such as the United States. Knowles points out that a
multitude of coordinative organizations have arisen from the institutional,
subject matter, and geographical bases of adult education. Within each
dimension there are subgroupings, some more organized than others.
Knowles concludes that "the relationship of these various parts to one
another and to the whole field of adult education has not been sys-
tematized and made clear."

FINANCE

The sources and extent of financial support for adult education are an
equally complex issue. Even gathering information for the purpose of
comparison poses problems, as the OECD report indicates:

Many adult education programs are run by public authorities with
responsibility for the general education service or by agencies for
which adult education is only a secondary or incidental concern.
For central or even local government the expenditure on adult
education may be so small a percentage of the gross expenditure
on education that it is administratively not worthwhile to keep a separate account and to arrange for special audits. When adult education programs are provided by the public authorities it is often difficult to disentangle the central government from the local government contribution. Adult education programs are often administered and organized by personnel with other responsibilities. There is the danger of double counting. Many public authorities give substantial grants to nongovernmental adult education agencies. Both the donor and the recipients usually show the grants as part of their expenditures. Some institutions indirectly support adult education by providing special services (such as the public library).¹³

Case studies of adult education in nine industrialized countries—Austria, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States—bear out the problem of estimating expenditures. The authors of each study comment on the lack of accurate financial information and warn that what is presented is, at best, "suggestive," "crude," "scanty," or "speculative."¹⁴

While it is not possible to compare specific expenditures among countries, some generalizations can be made with regard to the sources of funding and the issues involved. Each country finances its adult education through some combination of public funds, private expenditures, and student fees. The amount of support differs from country to country and program to program. In a UNESCO report on the financing of adult education, "four out of seven industrially advanced countries declared that the state made available 50 percent of the funds; one (the United Kingdom) reported 45 percent, Poland roughly 11 percent, and Switzerland less than 2 percent."¹⁵ In Canada, Japan, and the United States, private expenditures (the bulk of which is attributable to employers) exceed public outlay.¹⁶

The issues involved in financing adult education center around the question of support for nongovernmental agencies, the extent of government responsibility, and the establishment of priorities for spending. Governmental funding of nongovernmental agencies begins, to some extent, upon the philosophical issue of whether the service provided would ordinarily be a public responsibility. Adult basic education in the United States, for example, is heavily subsidized regardless of who offers the classes. Austria, Canada, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom also are among those countries that heavily subsidize nongovernmental agencies.¹⁷

Adult educators in all countries agree that the field should receive
more national public support. It is not so easy to determine what form that support should take. Suggestions range from financing recurrent education through awarding an allowance “sufficient to maintain a standard of living comparable with that attained during employment” to the following list of finance-related items formulated by OECD members:

1. occupational training;
2. subsidies towards paid educational leave;
3. the building, equipment, and maintenance of centers specially designed for adult education;
4. the training of professional adult educators;
5. providing salaries of full-time administrative and teaching staff outside the employment sector and profit-making agencies;
6. preparatory and in-service training of full- and part-time staff;
7. supporting prescribed costs of activities of adult education organizations and the associations to which they may be affiliated if their own resources are insufficient for these purposes;
8. development programs in the areas, for example, of literacy and community development;
9. educational research with special reference to adult education.

No country of course comes close to assuming responsibility for the whole range of activities listed above. Each country sets its priorities within the limits of its resources and according to its philosophical stance toward adult education and adult education’s place within the total educational system. Lowe makes the point that financial questions should be considered within the larger context of establishing a comprehensive adult education program. Such a comprehensive plan could be facilitated by first taking account of both public and private providers, placing adult education within the general context of social economic policy, making a calculated attempt to link adult education with existing social institutions, and setting the priority of financial support with unmet needs. Finance is an issue that cannot be separated from other aspects of adult education.

DELIVERY SYSTEMS IN INDUSTRIALIZED NATIONS

One of Verner’s propositions for understanding international adult education was that different societies develop unique methods to meet their need for continuous learning. Some delivery systems in industrialized countries provide primarily vocational adult education, others serve nonvocational needs, and others provide both vocational and nonvocational learning opportunities. Following is a sample of the variety of delivery systems found in industrialized nations.
Folk High Schools

Popular in Scandinavia, folk high schools are state-supported, self-governing, residential schools that offer a wide range of generally nonvocational courses. Discussion groups, study circles, and project work are the most common instructional formats. Courses vary in duration from one week to 4 to 6 months. Folk high schools differ in their specialization. Some emphasize cultural topics such as language, music, art, and literature; others emphasize gymnastics and athletics, and some offer preparatory courses for later professional study. Denmark is also experimenting with the family folk high school, where both parents and children may participate.24

External Degree Programs

Inspired by Britain’s Open University and the University of London, several countries (Australia, Israel, Canada, Japan, the United States) now provide flexible opportunities for adults to study part-time for a college degree even though they may not meet formal university entrance requirements. Such programs are characterized by the awarding of credit either for passing examinations in a content area, or for having had relevant life experiences or training not sponsored by colleges and universities. Nontraditional instructional modes such as correspondence courses, tutorial arrangements, and televised instruction are common to external degree programs.25

Polyvalent Adult Education Centers

The multi-purpose polyvalent centers provide opportunities for working people “to update their knowledge or skills in respect to their various needs—technical, academic, cultural, and civic.”26 Ideally these centers respond to the needs of the local community. Versions of polyvalent centers include the workers’ and people’s universities in Germany, Yugoslavia, and the U.S.S.R.; certain technical colleges in the United Kingdom; and the Center for Social and Economic Co-operation in France.27

People’s and workers’ universities are unique adult education institutions, not to be confused with institutions of higher education. In Yugoslavia, the people’s universities are established in rural areas and offer programs in agriculture, health, and household management. The workers’ universities are primarily urban and appeal to workers. Programs offer general basic education, vocational-technical training, and ideological-political education. Funded by unions, local and district
administrations, and factories, workers' universities constitute the largest focus of Yugoslav adult education efforts. In the U.S.S.R., people's universities are sponsored locally by industrial establishments, collective farms, cultural and technical societies, and various government agencies. Different people's universities serve different interests. There are, for example, people's universities of technical progress, public health universities, and cultural people's universities. In 1974, approximately seven million adults were enrolled in 29,000 people's universities.

Community Schools

The community school approach adopted in several industrialized and Third World countries attempts to make the school the focal point of community activities for children and adults of all ages. Lowe has called the community school "the most satisfactory type of adult education institution" for the following reasons:

1. it is economical since it guarantees maximum use of existing resources throughout the day and during weekends;
2. it destroys, or at least goes far towards destroying, the sense of alienation from the schools which affects many adults;
3. it facilitates the transition from school to youth activities and from youth to adult activities;
4. it provides a natural setting in which to bring together all age groups with minimum stress;
5. it allows for local community self-government and control of financial resources.

Correspondence Education

Although it is difficult to estimate participation figures, most writers agree that correspondence education is a significant delivery system in adult education, particularly in Western countries, and particularly for vocational education. Estimates of the number of adults studying by correspondence in Great Britain, for example, range from 500,000 to 750,000 a year. Sweden has three main correspondence organizations—one that is authorized to hold examinations for formal educational institutions, one that provides study materials that do not lead to any formal qualifications, and one that provides agricultural correspondence materials. In the Netherlands, correspondence education is the most widely used form of adult education. Courses are offered largely by nonprofit schools and tuition is partially subsidized by the government.
These represent only a sampling of the types of adult education found in industrialized countries. There are, of course, numerous other delivery systems such as community colleges, proprietary schools, agricultural extension services, government- and industry-sponsored programs, and so on, which reach large segments of a country’s adult population. While some forms find acceptance in many countries (community schools, for example), other forms such as folk high schools or community colleges appear to be more culturally bound.

However, several general observations can be made about adult education in industrialized nations. First, most such countries lack a national policy of adult education and most countries are characterized by a variety of public and private administrative bodies and sources of financial support. Secondly, there is much rhetoric about the virtues of lifelong learning, but little substantial support. The United States, for example, passed enabling legislation for lifelong learning in 1976, but has yet to appropriate any funds. Thirdly, there is a rise in, or at least recognition of, the existence of informal, independent learning, and, concomitantly, innovative approaches to assisting adults in their own learning efforts. There are “education shops” in department stores in Great Britain, learning exchanges in the United States, and a television university in Germany. Finally, participation patterns in industrialized countries reveal that adult education has yet to reach those most in need. The following groups have been identified by OECD as educationally disadvantaged because of economic, social, or geographical factors: unemployed young adults, including school dropouts; certain rural populations; migrant workers; immigrants; the aged; urban poverty groups; unskilled and semi-skilled workers; unemployed and underemployed workers with little education; some categories of women (e.g., housebound mothers); and those experiencing language problems.24 Providing opportunities and eliminating barriers to participation for these groups remains one of the greatest challenges facing industrialized countries.

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE THIRD WORLD

Adult education in the Third World offers an interesting contrast to that found in industrialized countries. Exploring adult education in Third World countries should contribute to a better understanding of international adult education.

The prominence of adult education in much of the Third World in terms of government support and public awareness is a situation to be envied by Western adult educators. Adult education plays a central rather than peripheral role in the nation-building efforts of these countries. Furthermore, adult education in Third World nations is relatively unhampered by traditional attitudes and past structures. It is, in many
instances, more dynamic, innovative, and experimental. Some of the
creative methods and delivery systems found in developing countries may
well answer the needs of industrial nations. Finally, to the extent that all
nations are interdependent, the problems and successes, failures and
triumphs of Third World nations affect the industrialized world. Crop
failures in East Africa, the acquisition of nuclear capabilities by Pakistan,
or ethnic riots in Malaysia have repercussions throughout the world
community. Education, and adult education in particular, is one medium
whereby the urgency of world problems can be addressed, and the ideal
of a world community brought closer to reality.

"Developing" or Third World Nations

What to call the nonindustrialized nations of the world has been a
problem of pride and semantics. Thomas writes that "in the period where
the word 'underdeveloped' was used to describe largely rural agricultural
societies with large populations, low incomes, and per capita production,
the discomfort (from its use) was to a large degree political. The term
LDCs (less-developed countries) carries the same negative connotation as
underdeveloped. A more acceptable term has been developing, but this
also has its problems. In the first place it reflects a Western bias which
equates development with science, materialism, and technology. In an
essay exploring the semantic implications of the term Third World,
Merriam points out that the so-called poor developing countries are in
some ways richer "psychologically and spiritually, enjoying a contentment
and sense of tradition sorely lacking in the ulcer-ridden, hectic, deper-
sonalized industrial societies. To many Buddhists, for example, inner
peace is more valuable than a high gross national product." A second
objection to the term developing is that all countries are changing and
"developing," the industrialized ones even faster than agriculturally
based societies. While not without its limitations, the term Third World
is the more generally acceptable referent for the emerging, nonindus-
trialized nations of Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

The Third World includes about 70 percent of the earth's people;
politically it ranges across the entire spectrum of systems and ideologies.
Adult education in the Third World mirrors the common characteristics of
these nations. Literacy programs, for example, reflect the fact that the
majority of people in Third World nations are illiterate. There is a close
association between illiteracy and poverty. "In the 25 least-developed
countries where the per capita product is less than $100 a year, illiteracy
rates are over 80 percent." In addition to low per capita income, Third
World nations have primarily agriculturally based economies, low gross
m national products (GNPs), poor nutrition and health, and a high birth rate
which results in a very young population (half the population in develop-
ing countries is under 21). According to Lardner, the combination of demographics and economies results in:

1. A marked imbalance in the population structure with a growing predominance of persons under 15 years of age, whose contribution to the GNP is nil or certainly less than their consumption.
2. A reinforcement, whether agriculture stagnates or improves, of the movement of population to the towns.
3. A decline, as nationalism grows, in the opportunities formerly offered by international migration to accommodate populations in excess of the employment capacity of the national economies.
4. A growing problem in the allocation of resources between urban centers and rural areas, and between “productive” projects and “social-welfare” projects.29

Third World countries also are characterized by linguistic and cultural diversity. There are, for example, 14 major languages and almost 500 dialects spoken in India, 3 separate and distinct cultures in Malaysia (Indian, Malay, Chinese), 250 tribal groups in Nigeria, and so on. Such diversity within even a single country poses problems for the government in terms of national educational goals and priorities.

Development and Its Relationship to Education

Adult education, as well as other levels of education, must be considered within the context of development in Third World countries. Traditionally, development has been defined synonymously with economic growth and measured in terms of an increase in either per capita income or the gross national product. In the past it has been assumed that Third World countries would follow in patterns of development set by the Western industrialized world. The “failure” of nations to develop according to Western expectations has led to a redefinition of the concept. Development is now much more broadly defined to include social and cultural as well as individual growth.

Development is a process of self-realization, both individual and collective, and authentic liberation. As such, it cannot seek its tools or its models outside itself. It springs from, and can only spring from, within. If it does not correspond to an endogenous process of interrelated, integrated growth of societies, it is self-defeating. If it does not address itself to all components of development, to the collective promotion of society as a whole, it can only result in disruptive tensions, in disintegrating the social fabric.30

In a recent UNESCO publication, da Costa proposes 12 “musts” for development reflective of the broadened meaning of the term:
1. Development must be total ... it must transcend purely 
economic dimensions in order to include social considerations 
and the whole dimension of cultural and spiritual self-
realization embracing creativity, quality of life, and the rights of 
man.
2. Development must be original, which is to say that imitation of 
models is undesirable.
3. Development must be self-determined. This applies to selecting 
a development style as well as assuring its application.
4. Development must be self-generated.
5. Development must be integrated. ... Strong horizontal and 
vertical linkages must bind together the several productive units 
and ensure complete communication and interdependence,
and full integration with national supply and demand.
6. Development must respect the integrity of the environment,
both natural and cultural, as well as the traditional structures.
7. Development must be planned and requires constant attention 
from and intervention by national authorities.
8. Development must be directed towards a just and equitable 
social order.
9. Development must be democratic, that is to say, it must respond 
to the choices made by the population as a whole.
10. Development must not insulate less developed countries or 
regions into "reservations" where they could barely survive and 
lead a marginal life free from the main flows of growth and 
dynamism.
11. Development must be innovative. It must neither depend on the 
importation of outmoded technologies from developed countries 
nor even advanced technology developed somewhere else.
12. Development planning must be based on a realistic definition of 
national needs and on consumption models that are consistent 
with the national characteristics of a country.41

The role of education in development has also undergone redefini-
tion. When the Western industrialized model of development was 
transported to Third World nations, so, too, were European and North 
American educational systems. Educational programs, particularly com-
parative primary and adult literacy, were thought to be the vehicles for 
attaining economic and occupational success. However, the relationship 
between amount of education and economic growth has proved tentative 
at best. Robert M. Hutchins, in The Learning Society, posits a convinc-
ing case for just the opposite view—that is, rather than education leading 
to economic growth, economically rich societies create advanced educa-
tional systems.42 Hutchins points to Brazil as a country having a fast-
growing economy but an educational level lower than it was before economic expansion began. Nineteenth-century pre-industrial Japan had a high literacy rate as well as widespread primary education.\(^{44}\) Depending upon education to bring about economic growth is a fallacy, according to Hutchins, in that it attributes to education, "in competition with culture, powers it does not possess."\(^{45}\)

Other critics have pointed out that the adoption of Western educational models has had anything but liberating and egalitarian effects. Unleashing that formal education actually resulted in the continued "enslavement" of the masses by raising up an educated elite that ultimately became part of the colonial or national network exploiting the poor.\(^{46}\) Furthermore, when education is enlisted as the catalyst for economic growth it is not always coupled with a more realistic policy of labor development. Educated youth leave the village for a town where employment possibilities, if any, rarely coincide with academic preparation. The result has been a cadre of educated, unemployed or underemployed, dissatisfied youth.

Rather than positing some sort of causal relationship between development and education, most theorists today recognize the interactive effects of the one upon the other. The relationship is a spiral one in which "development is the action strand intertwined with education, both moving the whole system upward to higher levels of quality or forward to new bases. The consequences of such an integrated approach to change affect both developers and educators."\(^{47}\) Stensland proposes the idea that education and development are related change processes and calls for national planning and programming based upon a social change rather than an economic productivity model. The intertwining of the two processes can be facilitated in several ways: (1) through recurrent education in which a person alternates periods of work with educational leave, (2) through the use of education as a way to prepare for development as well as participate in it, as Nyerere has attempted to do in Tanzania, and (3) through social action movements such as Freire's literacy and development work in Brazil and Chile.\(^{47}\) UNESCO's worldwide study of education, summarized in Learning to Be, proposes lifelong education as the master integrative concept for both industrialized and Third World countries. Noting that "over a long term, education stimulates, accompanies, or sets a seal on social and political development, as well as technical and economic development," the study avoids linking the aim of education to economic development. Rather:

The aim of education is to enable man to be himself, to "become himself." And the aim of education in relation to employment and economic progress should be not so much to prepare young people and adults for a specific, lifetime vocation, as to "optimize" mobility among the professions and afford a permanent stimulus to the desire to learn and to train oneself.\(^{48}\)
Nyerere’s keynote address to the International Conference on Adult Education and Development held in Dar es Salaam in 1976 also echoed this new notion of development and education. The purpose of development, according to Nyerere, “is the liberation of Man. . . . Development is for Man, by Man, and of Man. The same is true of education. Its purpose is the liberation of Man from the restraints and limitations of ignorance and dependency.”

An expanded concept of development necessitates a rethinking of the philosophies of traditional educational practice. This reevaluation leads to two major dilemmas for Third World nations. The first concerns the extent to which these countries should retain their colonial legacy. Lowe points out that this is a much more important issue for adult educators than for those associated with any other social institution:

The dilemma for the adult educator is whether to build on or to reject existing structures and customs. In some places institutions and practices inherited by the old colonial regimes may be inflicting damage and yet be difficult to root out; in others, the borrowings may be beneficial but seem obnoxious simply because of their alien provenance.

The second dilemma is determining where and how limited educational resources should be used and for what purpose. Learning to Be notes that the demand for education at all levels in all regions of the world “is of unprecedented dimensions and strength.” Countries are faced with the choice of allocating the bulk of their resources for one segment of the population or one program area or spreading resources thinly across many segments and programs. Lowe concludes that there is no stock answer to this dilemma. He favors a policy whereby priorities are determined and resources applied where they will have the most impact, with a concentration on community development in rural areas.

In many Third World nations the education of adults is a national priority. Countries simply cannot wait for their youth to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary to address the urgent task of national development:

The education of the young is . . . a necessarily slow process. In this context adult education comes to play a very important part. Not because it is part of a quicker process—all developments that require a large degree of human change are slow processes—but mainly because it has time-saving and cost-saving properties, such as a faster turnover rate. You do not need to grow up to use what you have learnt; the skills achieved can be used immediately.

MAJOR PROGRAM AREAS

Adult education in the Third World seeks to eradicate illiteracy, raise political consciousness, improve living conditions, increase agricultural
production, and develop skills for industrialization. In reality, all aspects of adult education are interrelated in the nation building efforts of Third World countries. As Nyerere states:

Adult education is not something which can deal with just "agriculture," or "health," or "literacy," or "mechanical skill," etc. All these separate branches of education are related to the total life a man is living; and to the man he is and will become. . . . Adult education encompasses the whole of life, and must build upon what already exists. 34

Without denying the interrelatedness of various aspects of adult education in Third World nations, one can find distinct program area emphases in nearly every country. The rest of this chapter will explore the five areas of literacy, civic and political education, health, welfare, and family life, agricultural education, and labor development. Major goals, adult education's role within the total development process, and unique and innovative delivery systems for each program area will be discussed.

Literacy

No other program area in the Third World has been the subject of so much rhetoric, writing, spending, and confusion as literacy education. Whether as a small-scale effort or as a mass campaign, whether local or international, the aims and objectives, successes and failures of literacy education continue to be debated and analyzed by educators throughout the world. Such attention reflects the complexity and importance of the topic.

Part of the complexity lies in defining what it means to be literate in any particular culture. In addressing that issue, Danatz and Danatz criticize those who "assume a crusade for a national effort to make literacy a reality without establishing what that reality is." It is, they state, "a task significantly more difficult than finding a needle in a haystack, for at least one knows what a needle is and how it is different from the hay." 35

Defining literacy in terms of what it is not, or in terms of its properties, does little to clarify the concept. The authors conclude that, aside from having a language component, the definition may "forever be in developmental stages, . . . shaped by the changing types of literacy demanded by a changing world." 36

Hunter and Harmon, in a Ford Foundation study of adult illiteracy, also conclude that definitions of literacy and illiteracy are relative. They prefer to differentiate between conceptional literacy—the ability to read, write, and understand signs, labels, instructions, and so on necessary to get along in one's environment—and functional literacy—the possession of skills perceived as necessary by particular persons and groups to fulfill their own self-determined objectives as family and community members,
citizens, consumers, job-holders, and members of social, religious, or other associations of their choosing.37

Just as the concept of development and education's role in it has been subject to rethinking and reformulation, so has literacy and its place in the nation's development: hence, the movement from thinking of literacy as simply the ability to read and write to the notion of its functionality. The assumption that illiterates necessarily want or feel a need to become literate has also been abandoned. Harmon points out that literacy actually encompasses three stages, the first of which is motivational—at which point the illiterate conceptualizes literacy as a tool. The second stage, of attaining the skill to read and write, is then followed by "the practical application of these skills in activities meaningful to the learner."38

The confusion that has masked differences between simple and functional literacy has been compounded by unfounded assumptions regarding literacy and development. Hunter and Harmon list five such oversimplifications that have destined literacy campaigns to failure:

1. The assertion that economic development, increased gross national product, and modernization automatically follow or are contingent upon literacy.
2. The parallel claim that *anyone* who becomes literate is automatically better off economically, is better able to find employment, and becomes a better citizen.
3. The claim, even after narrow economic goals were decreed as too utilitarian and limiting, that literacy might somehow bring about national development in the broadest sense of the term.
4. The equating of illiteracy with inferiority, backwardness, cultural poverty, and low intelligence.
5. The disregard for what individuals and groups themselves need and want within their own social settings and the imposition of programs believed to be "good" for them.39

Functional literacy, which has been adopted by Third World nations as one vehicle for development, has its own definitional problems. In its simplest terms, functional literacy is the attempt to tie the acquisition of reading and writing skills to vocational training, rural and agricultural development, family life, and so on. Reading and writing and the facilitation of a country's social, economic and political development thus become a simultaneous process.

Adilshah, in exploring the "functionalities" of literacy, underscores the complexity of the concept as well as its potential for "understanding, changing, and controlling the real world."40 He describes four major functionalities of literacy: that which relates to the world of work either in a rural agricultural or industrial milieu, that which relates to sex and age
1. the needs and aspirations of illiterate individuals and groups should be taken into account in the identification of literacy objectives;
2. curricula should be functional in terms of a broad range of political, social, cultural, and economic knowledge and skills of use to new literates;
3. teaching methods should be varied and as active as possible, giving stress to "learning by doing";
4. international aid can complement—-but should not attempt to replace—national initiative, both intellectual and material; and
5. the idea of follow-up must be replaced, where substantial numbers of new literates appear on the scene in largely illiterate countries, with the notion of building the infrastructure for a literate and continuously self-educating society.46

In contrast to EWLP, literacy campaigns in China and Cuba appear to be spectacular successes. The difference, according to several observers, rests in the realization and exploitation of literacy as a political force. Unless tied to some form of socioeconomic transformation, to the formation, in Freire's words, of a "critical consciousness," literacy campaigns can expect little success. In writing about the literacy campaign in Cuba, Kozol quotes Raul Ferrer, director of Cuba's Great Campaign:

"Why do the literacy campaigns sponsored by UNESCO fail?" he asked.
"They have the money. They have the expertise. They have the international promotion. They have UNESCO. How is it possible, then, that they do not succeed?"

"It is because their starting point is anti-human. It is because they do not dare to use the words we use. They do not dare to speak of land reform, to speak about the sick and starving . . . not about the ones who make those people sick and poor." . . .

"The literacy campaign," Ferrer announced, "was not a dry event. It must not be talked about as if it were. It was a passionate, turbulent, sometimes desperate—but, above all, it was a political event."

"The statistics of the end results are very good. Yet this was not at any time our chief concern. This fact was a by-product of a deeper goal. The great heart of the literacy struggle was the revolution."47

While not adopting the revolutionary goals of China's and Cuba's literacy campaigns, several other countries have experienced at least modest success in their efforts to eradicate illiteracy. In these cases literacy is closely linked to national development and popular participation in social, economic, and political life. Tanzania is a case in point. With the Arusha Declaration of 1967, Tanzania switched its adult education focus from meeting labor needs to meeting family and community needs at the local level. The declaration outlines a policy of
self-reliance and national development with priority given to rural and agricultural development. Literacy work since 1967 has become an integral part of national and personal development. Tanzania’s participatory approach to development and literacy is structured through the Ujamaa village concept. An Ujamaa village is a small, rural unit based upon the principle of cooperative living and working for the good of all, which stresses the traditions of “familyhood” (the literal meaning of ujamaa). Other apparently successful approaches include those of Somalia, where a year’s motivational phase preceded actual literacy training; Peru, where local community councils are used to launch literacy campaigns; and Guinea-Bissau, where local culture circles and the military are mobilized. These instances demonstrate the efficacy of combining functional literacy with a participatory delivery system.

Organizational structures such as Brazil’s Molzar system, new institutions at national and regional levels, and new methods and materials have contributed to gains made in literacy despite seemingly insurmountable barriers. The absolute number of adult illiterates continues to increase, however, primarily due to the explosive population growth of the Third World countries. Efforts to eradicate illiteracy also are hampered by: (1) multilingual populations; (2) lack of trained teachers; (3) lack of coordination and articulation between national and local bodies, adult and school-based programs; and (4) lack of reading materials and follow-up campaigns aimed at preventing newly literate adults from slipping back into illiteracy.

In conclusion, the complexities, anxieties, and failures of literacy programs in the second half of the twentieth century are counterbalanced by some success, but more importantly by a more realistic and workable reconceptualization of the phenomenon as well. Literacy’s relationship to all other aspects of life is summed up by a definition of literacy from Learning to Be: literacy is “not an end in itself but a means of personal liberation and development and of extending individuals’ educational efforts, involving overall interdisciplinary responses to concrete problems. Literacy training is only a ‘moment,’ an element, in adult education.”

Civic and Political Education

In the broadest sense, all education is political. Whether education supports the status quo of stable societies or is used as a tool in nations undergoing dramatic change, it is “impossible to deny, except intentionally or by some angelic innocence, the political aspect of education.” In exploring the relationship between development and adult education,
Nyerere comments on the political nature of what he calls "generalist" adult educators. Generalists, he says,

are the political activists and educators—whether or not they are members of, and organized by, a political party or whether they are community development workers or religious teachers. Such people are not politically neutral; by the nature of what they are doing they cannot be. For what they are doing will affect how men look at the society in which they live, and how they seek to use it or change it. Making the people of a village aware that their malaria can be avoided, for example, will cause them to make demands upon the larger community in which they live. . . . And if people who have been aroused cannot get the change they want, or a substitute for it which is acceptable to them, they will become discontented—if not hostile—towards whatever authority they regard as responsible for the failure. Adult education is thus a highly political activity. 71

Generalists are followed by what Nyerere calls specialists—those who can respond after a demand has arisen or a problem has been identified. Such specialists can be health educators, agricultural experts, members of literacy teams, and so on.

The political nature of adult education is seen most dramatically in Third World countries that have undergone substantial transformations. In less than three decades, for example, China has moved from a semi-feudal, primarily illiterate country to one that is becoming modern, unified, and literate. Education is viewed as both a means and an end in China:

The Chinese are convinced that the way in which you build a socialist society is through an educated proletariat of workers and peasants, but education is not measured simply by the level of schooling, the literacy rate, or the formal systems of conveying knowledge through books and classrooms. . . . The assumption is that all aspects of human nature are educable, thereby changeable, and that every situation where people come together has the potential for being an educational use. 72

Regular political study, organized by workers' unions or communes, is an important aspect of adult education in China's efforts to bring about a proletarian world outlook. In other Third World countries, political education is part of other programs such as literacy campaigns. It might be recalled that Cuba's literacy campaign was characterized by its leader as a "political event," and Freire's literacy programs in Brazil, Chile, and Guinea-Bissau deliberately involved the development of a "critical consciousness" to bring about social and political change.

Less radical is the role of adult education in creating an awareness of national goals and development plans and of the individual's role in carrying them out. French-speaking African countries have adopted the term les animateurs to describe the individuals so critical to this process.
Les animateurs "are the creative people, the leaders in various spheres of life, who inspire and organize their friends and initiate development." They are the agents of change, in contrast to les sangles, "who make use of existing institutions and adapt themselves to their environment." Adult education in these countries seeks out the animateurs and assists them in becoming more effective. Senegal, for example, has created a unique organization for just such a purpose. Animation refers to both the state organization and a network of local community leaders designed "to initiate and support a direct dialogue between organized communities and state and institutional authorities." Pakistan has found that its village literacy centers have been instrumental in "promoting social cohesion and a new sense of civic responsibility." Tanzania considers training leaders, providing basic education for adults who have not had an opportunity to attend school, and correcting the miseducation imposed during colonial times as important social functions of adult education. The less radical forms of civic and social education strive for achieving some balance between newness and change and the appeal of traditional values and structures. As Coles observes:

Both civic and social education are concerned with change; with the acquisition of new attitudes based on an understanding of why the world of today is different from that of yesterday but without too recklessly allowing all of the traditional forms and structures to disappear. But change everywhere is now the norm and whilst both general education and vocational training will also be helping people to adapt to the revised circumstances in which they are living, it is the special aim of informal civic and social education to enable people to become willing and sensitive co-operative in the process.

Role education (assisting people to perform more competently their roles in society), the community development process, cultural pursuits, and individual interests are all part of civic and social education.

For some Third World nations the development of a sense of national unity and cultural identity is an urgent component of adult education. African nations in particular have had to face the problem of dealing with cultural and linguistic pluralism. According to Kashoki, cultural development encompassing "questions of preserving and promoting one's cultural heritage, evolving a national culture, forging a national identity, ensuring national unity, and promoting and/or selecting one language as a national language" preoccupies developing African nations as much as questions of economic development. The trend in nations characterized by cultural diversity is, Kashoki notes, toward integration rather than assimilation, for the "existence of diverse groups is not necessarily disintegrative." Such efforts are being supported by nationally sponsored cultural and civic education campaigns in several African countries.
This discussion of civic and political adult education illustrates the
observation made earlier that it is difficult to delineate program areas of
adult education in Third World nations. Nation building involves civic
and political awareness, which is intertwined with literacy and aspects of
community development, which all should lead to better living conditions
for each citizen. Another part of the total picture is that aspect of adult
education in Third World countries which addresses health, welfare, and
family life.

Health and Family Life

Poor health, poor nutrition, a high birth rate, and high infant mortality
are characteristic of Third World nations. Some countries in Africa, for
example, "cannot provide even one doctor per 80,000 of the population.
Infant mortality rises to as high as 700 per thousand in some of the new
states. Many million hours of labor are lost annually through under-
nourishment, ill health, poor sanitary conditions, and inadequate
medical care."

The importance of health education, particularly to a
nation's development, is underscored by Harbison, who conceptualizes
development in terms of the utilization of human resources. A nation's
potential for development, Harbison writes, would be determined by,
aside from measures of economic growth and educational attainment, "a
measure of health, and this ideally would include data on life expectancy
at various ages, infant mortality, incidence of critical diseases (such as
parasites, malaria, and tuberculosis), and availability (that is, geographical
distribution) of health services. Finally, some measure of nutrition of the
total population . . . would be useful." In contrast to modern countries
where health and nutrition education has been left primarily to the
schools, health education, Lowe points out, is "an essential component"
of adult education in Third World countries.

Whether in Asia, Latin America, or Africa, adult education programs
aimed at improving health, nutrition, and sanitation conditions encounter
many obstacles. Lack of trained medical personnel and health educators
presents a major problem for most Third World countries. There is a
resistance on the part of such personnel to leave urban centers for rural
communities where the need is greatest, but the living and working
conditions are particularly unattractive. Often, too, the urgency of rural
health problems demands a short-term curative approach rather than a
long-term preventive program. Limited resources are channeled into
fighting communicable diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis, smallpox,
and dysentery, leaving few, if any, for dealing with more subtle problems
of mental health, chronic disease, and physical handicaps. Finally,
combating tradition, superstition, and medical quackery may present the
greatest challenge to health education programs in Third World countries.

Health and family life education in the Third World is often part of functional literacy or community or rural development programs. In the Philippines, for example, the functional literacy program teaches reading, writing, arithmetic, and citizenship skills and provides information about vocations and industries, and health and sanitation. Health and sanitation education includes "the development of essential skills, practices, and attitudes related to home sanitation, such as proper installation and use of toilets, proper disposal of garbage, proper construction of drainage . . . and closer cooperation in community health activities." Kenyans consider health education, which includes instruction in prevention of disease, hygiene, nutrition, child and family planning, and sanitation, as part of "fundamental" adult education. For most Latin American countries, health education is one aspect of broad rural development programs. Rural development is a multidimensional concept aimed at transforming "stagnant, traditional societies into productive, dynamic rural economies." Programs encompass much more than an increase in agricultural and livestock output and productivity. Village and small town development, extension of health and education services, expansion of local trade and commerce, organization of cooperatives, the provision of credit, the creation of local industries for processing agricultural products, and the improvement of housing, water supplies, sanitation, roads, and communications are all within its scope.

Women are often the focus of health education programs in Third World countries. Traditionally, their primary role in these societies has been childbearing and child rearing and thus they are the logical focus for upgrading health and nutrition practices and improving the quality of family life. The potential for women to contribute to their nation's development is, even in their traditional roles as mothers, teachers, household managers, and community members, as great as the male wage earner's, yet they lag behind men in formal schooling, literacy, and employment skills. The plight of rural women is especially acute.

Rural women who are deprived of education and training do work but the kind of work they do is traditional, e.g., traditional agriculture, cottage industry, or petty trading, while their main activity is confined to domestic work, childbearing and child raising. In this way women neither contribute to nor benefit from the process of development in a way compatible with their capacity or their numbers in society. On the contrary, they constitute an obstacle to development because they are swelling the ranks of the traditional sector.

In the areas of health and family life, at least, educational efforts are often aimed at the women and are more often than not facilitated by the
formation of women's groups or societies. Social barriers to women's participation in development are sometimes creatively circumvented by the women themselves. In one section of India, for example, all efforts to convene women for educational meetings were thwarted by religious and social mandates that kept them restricted to their homes. They were allowed, however, to receive instruction in using the *ambar* charkha, an improved spinning wheel. Village classes, followed by home instruction, became the means of learning a craft as well as imparting information related to improving the health and living conditions of each woman's family.  

In other parts of the Third World, health and family life education has been conveyed through puppetry, impromptu local theater, and visual aids. In Mexico, for example, the proper use of contraceptives is described to illiterates in the *fotonovela*, a photo-illustrated story. Final decisions on content, sequence, and symbols are made by the people for whom the materials are intended.  

In some countries large-scale nationally organized efforts appear to have had some impact. Pakistan has established a rural health program consisting of a network of village health centers, each serving 40 to 50 thousand villagers. These centers offer family planning advice, organize talks and demonstrations on nutrition and sanitation, and educate villagers in preventive health measures as well as treat communicable diseases. Tanzania's Institute of Adult Education has launched several mass campaigns, one of which was on the subject of health education. Mlunda defines a mass campaign as "a program designed to solve a problem," with the following elements:

1. There is an urgently felt need.
2. The need involves many; it is felt to be common to all.
3. To satisfy the need, the cooperation of all concerned is paramount.
4. This cooperation ought to be a result of participatory planning and commitment to personal implementation.
5. There is a time factor.

The object of Tanzania's "Man Is Health" campaign was to reach one million rural adults through 75,000 organized "listening groups" with information on measures to prevent five common communicable diseases. Hall discusses the methods used to reach such a large audience:

The campaign made use of weekly radio programs, printed materials, study guides, and a special booklet for the study group leaders which dealt with specific instructions for running each discussion. The emphasis in the campaign was on discussion of the relevant health problems in the area and then decisions about what could be done to alleviate the situation. Many practical suggestions such as increasing the size of windows, building a latrine, filling in the holes where mosquitoes breed, and killing the snails which carry bilharzia
were put forward for the group members to discuss. One of the most important objectives of the campaign was to make it possible for people to see that they had some control over matters of health and they were not simply at God's mercy or being punished by others when they suffered from disease. 32

One source reports that the "Man Is Health" campaign reached twice the number of participants originally anticipated. 33

Several generalizations that can be drawn from adult health education programs in Third World nations might be considered by educators in the industrialized world. Third World health programs, for the most part, look to treating the causes as well as the symptoms of the problem, focus on groups, such as rural women, who will have the most impact in bringing about change; and employ delivery methods that are not only feasible (e.g., radio in Tanzania) but compatible with cultural norms and values.

Agriculture

In the latter part of the twentieth century the emphasis of development efforts in many Third World countries shifted from industrialization to rural development. With between 70 and 80 percent of the population of Third World nations living in rural areas, the aim of development is to "tap and develop the latent capabilities of the rural people through incentives for productive and rewarding employment, and to involve them in the affairs of their community and nation." 34 Programs in rural areas include functional literacy, health care, nutrition, public works, population control, and agricultural education. This section will focus upon educational efforts with regard to agriculture, one of the major concerns in rural development.

One source has delineated two major components of agricultural development: a "technical" aspect, which may include "soil testing, the introduction of new varieties or new crops, [and] the use of fertilizer and irrigation"; and an attitudinal component, "namely, to persuade the farmer to try something new rather than continue to cultivate the land in the same way as their ancestors had done for generations." 35 Both components rely upon educational delivery systems to effect change.

Agricultural development does not mean merely introducing a new fertilizer or persuading a farmer to rotate crops. Changes are related to a nation's total development direction, its social structure, and its political ideology. In comparing the agricultural successes of China with the problems of other countries, Chongho points out that each Third World country must evolve its own model of development compatible with social structures, national resources, and other "realities":

First, agricultural development in underdeveloped countries cannot succeed without profound changes in their economic and social structures and the adaptation of these structures to the needs of the large majorities, not to the privileges of small minorities.
Second, agricultural development cannot be left to the free play of market forces, particularly in poor countries. It must be planned.

Third, agricultural development and modernization cannot take place in underdeveloped countries if they do not simultaneously develop an industrial base of support which makes them less dependent on the international market for agricultural inputs.

Fourth, the theory of international specialization must be seriously reexamined. It is more important for underdeveloped countries to assure the fulfillment of their basic food needs for their own people on their own territories than to produce goods for the world market, while remaining dependent on others for food.

The concerns expressed by Chomchol have been echoed by other observers who point out the necessity of an integrated national development policy that provides the support necessary to carry through development programs. A parallel can be drawn with literacy education. Teaching people to read and write is not enough to sustain literacy. Inexpensive and readily accessible reading materials must be available to new literates or the impact of the initial instruction quickly fades. So, too, must agricultural improvements start with farmers committed to good farming practices, who are then supported by access to markets, availability of credit, structures for collective organization, and so on. Education in various forms plays a crucial role in the agricultural development of Third World countries. Speaking of the African context, Busis writes:

Old techniques handed down to the farmers are no longer adequate. They are now required to produce more, to learn to use new tools, to improve the soil by new methods of drainage or fertilization, or water supply and soil conservation, or grow new crops, or join others in cooperative farming and mechanization. These are tasks for adult education.

The primary adult education delivery system for agricultural development in the Third World is modeled after the U.S. Cooperative Extension Service. Many Third World countries have adopted both its administrative structure and educational methods. In Latin America, extension agents working for ministries of agriculture have, with some success, set up agricultural experiment stations; formed farmers' cooperatives; and youth clubs; sponsored short courses, pilot projects, and demonstrations; and produced technical publications. Extension efforts in Third World nations are not, however, always effective. Chow gives several reasons why this is so: countries are reluctant or unable to support the system financially once it has been established by a consultant nation; peasant farmers who operate within a very narrow margin of failure hesitate to take risks; there is a lack of trained agriculturalists and a reluctance on the part of qualified personnel to work at the local level; and extension agents are not a part of nor fully aware of farmers' problems and aspirations.

Several Third World nations have made interesting adaptations of the
Western extension model. Extension workers in Senegal are selected by local villages to represent the community. The agent is an influential village resident who is—and will remain—a farmer. These village representatives are given intensive training and follow-up support through rural extension centers. Kenya has established a network of residential Farmers’ Training Centers (FTCs). “The centers provide simple food and accommodations, range in capacity from 20 to 100 beds, and offer short courses in basic agricultural methods and techniques to peasant farmers who pay a highly subsidized fee.”

In some countries agricultural education is an important dimension of more comprehensive development structures. The Ujamaa village network in Tanzania, the Communal Villages system in Mozambique, and a nonformal education program for farmers and mothers in the Philippines called Rayalanen Development Trust (RDT) are examples of such structures.

Aside from techniques used by the extension service, other creative approaches to agricultural education can be cited. In use in Ecuador, for example, is a simulation game designed to replicate the economic and social realities of the peasant situation. “Hacienda” sensitizes villagers to questions of land reform, modernization, power structures, and strategies for political reform. Tanzania’s Ministry of Agriculture publishes a rural newspaper called Modern Farming. The paper, which is printed in large type, gives practical advice on many aspects of farming. Inexpensive and widely distributed through extension agents, it is often accompanied by leaflets giving more detailed information on specific farming practices.

Tanzania also conducted a mass campaign, “Food Is Life,” aimed at increasing food production. Reading materials used in conjunction with discussion groups and radio programs were used throughout the country. Perhaps the most unusual method of publicizing the “Food Is Life” campaign was the use of textiles. “In the farthest areas of the country, women were met wearing the ‘Food Is Life’ kanga (material worn as dresses, skirts, head coverings, or shirts), silently delivering the message as they walked to the communal farm or to the well.”

Radio is widely used for agricultural education as well as for other development projects. Lowe estimates that as of the mid-1970s there were, worldwide, over 400 radio programs addressed to farmers:

In Ghana a central broadcasting unit prepares programs for farmers and fishermen, as well as for their womenfolk with a view to improving their domestic skills. Listeners come together in groups averaging 25. The programs are in the form of “magazines” and include illustrative situation sketches and answers to listeners’ queries. . . . In 1962 the African Institute for Social and Economic Development (INADES) was inaugurated in Abidjan (Ivory Coast), with the object of providing radio programs for illiterate farmers. Similar programs are now available in Burundi, Cameroun, Chad, the
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Central African Republic, Ethiopia, and Zaire. The key principle is to treat village communities as totalities and to try to involve all the villagers in a given community. Courses are directed at three groups—small farmers, middle-level workers, women. . . . Great success is claimed for these programs.195

In summary, agricultural education in the Third World is an important aspect of the overall development process. To be most successful, it would seem, agricultural education must be integrated with other areas of community and national concern. The Third World countries, increasingly aware of the pitfalls of adopting techniques and structures from other settings, are experimenting with the delivery systems and instructional methodologies most compatible with their own cultural contexts. Finally, as DeVries points out, adult education’s impact is affected by the larger context of the development process:

Agricultural development depends on a large number of factors such as: good marketing systems, attractive prices, relevant new technology, favorable and stable government policies, and the availability of credit and agricultural extension. The success of extension efforts therefore . . . depends . . . on the complex social, political, economic, and physical environment in which it operates.196

Vocational Training

Much of adult education in the Third World reflects the needs of rural, agriculturally based economies. However, in most instances, nation-building efforts also involve giving attention to a country’s industrial sector. Broadly interpreted, labor development includes the distribution of resources between both the agricultural and industrial sectors. Because of changing consumption patterns and technological advancements, labor needs are in constant flux in developing nations. Vocational education more often than not fails to produce the numbers of skilled and semi-skilled workers needed to meet the demand. Zymelman writes that the mismatch between need and supply is partially the result of the “unquestioned copying of foreign institutions . . . where the educational system proceeds independently and unrelated to the development of the labor markets.”197 Zymelman also points out that formal vocational education is considered less desirable than general education because of the selection mechanism of schools in most developing countries:

Those lucky enough to have been selected proceed to universities and other institutions of higher learning to become leaders of industry, government, education, etc. Employers perpetuate the system by choosing those already selected by the educational system in preference to those that may have as much relevant training, but lack the formal credentials. The result is a vicious circle where vocational training becomes less and less prestigious.198
While grappling with the problems of producing a skilled labor force through the formal school system, Third World nations recognize and cater to the potential within their adult population. "Vocational education for adults will doubtless flourish in the coming years," Lowe feels, "because it can be viewed as a profitable form of capital investment and a possible antidote to unemployment."109 As in industrialized countries, formal vocational and professional training and retraining occurs through universities, technical schools, and vocational training centers. A considerable amount of work-related education is also conducted through private companies. In Zambia, for example, a survey of workers in the private sector revealed that three-fourths had received or were undergoing training through their employers.110

Much of adult vocational education in the Third World, however, is nonformal in nature—that is, outside the regular school system. Nonformal education, and in particular nonformal vocational education, serves many needs in developing societies. Habrison’s discussion of six such functions can be summarized as follows: (1) nonformal education ‑ provides a wide range of learning services which he beyond the scope of formal education, such as training workers in factories; (2) nonformal training and education functions as an alternative or substitute for formal education, as in the case of apprenticeship training; (3) nonformal education is a means of extending skills and knowledge gained in formal education—technicians who combine formal instruction with on-the-job experience are an example; (4) nonformal education in many countries may be the only available learning opportunity for large proportions of the population; (5) nonformal education may help counterbalance some of the distortion created by formal education—that is, it allows people without credentials access to higher-level jobs; and (6) nonformal education provides greater opportunity for innovation.111

Nonformal delivery systems for vocational training in Third World nations are many and varied. Perhaps the most comprehensive such nonformal educational system is found in Colombia. SENA (Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje) is a semiautonomous organization within the Colombian Ministry of Labor that “develops and operates a vast array of training services for workers in commerce, industry, agriculture, animal husbandry, hotel management, and catering as well as medical services (nurses) and even vocational training in the military.”112 SENA services include providing classes in over 100 training centers, consulting to business, conducting labor needs assessments, training within business and industrial settings, and dispatching mobile training units to urban and rural centers. SENA concentrates on training persons already employed and so does not compete for the most part with the formal school system, which emphasizes preemployment training. Habrison notes that SENA-type programs endorsed by the International Labor Organization are in opera-
tion in most Latin American countries and under consideration in many Asian and African nations. Despite some shortcomings, Harbison writes, such programs are particularly suited to developing countries:

The payroll tax is an effective means of raising large sums of money without putting strain on the budgets of ministries of education. The semi-autonomous organizational structure allows for participation by employers and trade unions in programming free from the encrustations of traditional ministries. And the emphasis on on-the-job or close-to-the-job training results in more relevant skill generation.113

In contrast to national training schemes, several countries are experimenting with rural, locally sponsored vocational education delivery systems. Kenya, for example, has established village polytechnics which focus on developing skills particularly applicable to rural life, e.g., carpentry, leather work, and so on.114 Botswana has a system of practical skill training culled the Botswana Brigade Movement. Brigades are formed based on local demand. Training typically centers around building and trades, farming, dressmaking, motor mechanics, brick making, pottery, and crafts. The Botswana Brigade provides a member with up to 3 years training, with the learning of the skill taking place mainly on the job.

In return the student contributes his or her work and production towards the wealth of the Brigade. This system has the advantage of of not requiring large sums of money being injected into it since each Brigade is expected to generate its own resources through marketing its products, or selling the manual skills being learnt.118

A popular medium for vocational education in Third World nations is the mobile training unit. Brazil's UMIT program is a school on wheels that provides vocational skill training and continuing education opportunities for adults. Each mobile unit consists of a large truck and trailer and is staffed by a team of specialists. UMIT is presently operating in over 40 rural school districts. The staff uses a variety of instructional materials and holds sessions in community schools or residences. Instruction focuses upon basic technical training in business, industry, agriculture, and domestic arts, and also includes some enrichment and orientation courses.118 Similar to Brazil's UMIT program is the Mobile Trade Training School (MTTS) program in Thailand. The aim of the program is to offer short, low-cost training in nonagricultural skills to out-of-school youth and adults. The schools use temporary buildings and offer a dozen or so trade courses for one to 3 years in one location before moving to another district.117 Nonformal delivery systems for adult vocational education in Third World nations suffer from some of the same problems that affect vocational education in industrialized countries. Some persons receive training for which there are no jobs, while no training is provided for jobs...
where shortages exist. There is often a lack of trained teachers, the quality of instruction is uneven, and evaluation of program effectiveness generally lacking. Chesterfield and Schutz point out too that such programs "lack much of the legitimacy associated with formal schools, do not perform a credentialing function, and fail to provide continuing possibilities of self-actualization over time."118

Workers' education is another dimension of labor development related to the industrial urban setting. Trade and industrial unionism is a growing force in Latin America and in some parts of Africa and Asia. Tanzania has established workers' councils to insure participation in planning and organization, and has required all factories, government offices, and East African Community Institutions to implement programs in workers' education.119 The International Labor Organization (ILO) has a workers' education program to assist Third World nations to improve the effectiveness of vocational and technical training as well as to promote workers' participation in development through worker education. Activities include international and regional seminars dealing with labor participation in development, study fellowships, development of educational materials (e.g., guides, films, and visual aids), training organized by regional advisors for workers' institutes and union officers, and the efforts of advisory missions. Advisory missions have assisted in the building of permanent workers' education institutes in India, the Middle East, and the Caribbean; developed audiovisual aids in Malaysia; and assisted in research and workers' training in Singapore and Kenya.120

In summary, nation building in the Third World is determined by the interrelatedness of many dimensions of living. The work setting provides one avenue for engaging people in their country's development efforts. Creative delivery systems for developing and enhancing vocational/technical skills as well as the participation of workers in decision making and policy formation can have a major impact on national development.

CONCLUSION

The five program areas of adult education in the Third World—literacy, civic and political education, health and family life programs, and agricultural and vocational education—are all related to a nation's development. While a country may concentrate efforts on a particular program area for a period of time, the interrelatedness of forces affecting each individual citizen and the country as a whole makes dealing with only one aspect of development impossible. Thus, health, family life, civic education, and agricultural development are often subsumed under the rubric of community development. Functional literacy programs teach basic skills within the context of all these other program areas. Notably lacking in Third World adult education is support for liberal education,
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leisure time, or personal development courses. In commenting on this situation, Lowe notes that “an undue emphasis” upon other program areas “may well produce a higher economic output but in the meantime great damage may have been done to the quality of life in a society.” Likewise, individual self-development rarely is a goal of adult education except in terms of the way it adds to the collective efforts of a nation’s citizenry to realize national development priorities. Finally, mass campaigns and in particular the use of radio characterize much of Third World adult education. One writer has called radio “the most potent method of mass education” presently in use in Third World nations. When combined with listening groups and structured activities, radio is an effective educational medium that reaches even the most remote village.

Numerous problems beset all aspects of adult education in the Third World. One of the most serious is the lack of trained adult educators and other specialized personnel. Furthermore, those who are trained often resist relocating in rural areas where their skills are most needed. Secondly, women have not been afforded the same educational opportunities as men, and in nearly all Third World nations they lag behind men in literacy, skill development, and employment capability. Fortunately, this situation is changing as the potential women hold for effecting change in both family and community is recognized. Lack of coordination and follow-through is yet another problem. Wholesale adoption of the delivery systems and administrative structures of industrialized nations is frequently unsatisfactory. Developing a system of adult education that “fits” into a country’s particular sociocultural context is desirable, yet it takes time and a good bit of experimentation. Finally, financing, or perhaps more accurately the allocation of available resources, is especially problematic for Third World nations, most of which are extremely poor.

The world community has in many ways responded to the educational and development needs of Third World nations. International cooperation and commitment to adult education have grown considerably in the last several decades. In addition to the Adult Education Division of UNESCO, other United Nations agencies such as the Food and Agriculture Organization and the International Labor Organization have added adult education components to their technical assistance programs. Among other international organizations that support adult education are the Council of Europe, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the World Confederation of Labor, and the World Bank. Regional associations in all parts of the world, individual countries, and private foundations also have recognized and supported educational efforts in many Third World countries. Several international education organizations such as the International Council on Correspondence Education, the International Congress of University Adult Education, and the Federation of Library Associations focus largely upon adult learners. Finally, the International Council for Adult Education, estab-
lished in 1973, has as its primary objective the promotion of "all forms of adult education as a means of enhancing peace and security in the world, international understanding among peoples, and the advancement of less developed countries." The council advises other agencies and member countries; organizes conferences, seminars, and training courses; publishes materials; and is in the process of setting up regional information centers.

Learning To Be emphatically underscored the need for international cooperation in educational development:

All countries at all development levels should ... be brought into the common effort towards international solidarity, which at the same time should give special consideration to developing countries. There is more and more general agreement that the fight against ignorance is as important as the fight against hunger, the success of which requires linking efforts to develop agriculture in countries short of food with a generous redistribution of world food surpluses. Similarly, in education, efforts in developing countries must be combined with the world potential which could be made available to them.

With regard to aid to Third World nations, the report points out that the "real, specific content of aid is as important as its volume. Effective aid creates the conditions in which it will no longer be necessary by developing the potential which the assisted country requires in order to do without assistance."

The relationship between industrialized and Third World nations goes beyond that of donor and recipient. Adult educators in industrialized nations have much to gain from a knowledge of Third World development efforts. Learning To Be points out that "great as the industrialized nations' resources may be, their ambitious educational undertakings would be in danger of remaining at least partly sterile if they were to develop in a vacuum." The very urgency of the problems of the Third World and their efforts to grapple with such problems is worthy of attention from adult educators worldwide. As Lowe concludes:

In short, some of the most exciting work and the biggest challenges in the field of adult education are to be found in the developing countries. If they, in their wisdom, look for help to UNESCO and to specialists in other countries, adult educators in the developed countries would be well advised to take keen note of what they are doing and how, faced with unprecedented problems, they are turning to unprecedented solutions.

NOTES

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4. Ibid., p. 9.


12. Ibid., p. 44.

13. Quoted in Learning Opportunities for Adults, vol. 1, p. 44.


16. Learning Opportunities for Adults, vol. 4, Participation in Adult Education.

17. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 175.

18. Learning Opportunities for Adults, vol. 1, p. 64.

19. Ibid., p. 63.


26. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 84.

27. Ibid., p. 85.


30. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 81.


34. Learning Opportunities for Adults, vol. 1, p. 32.

37. Ibid.
43. Ibid., pp. 43–44.
44. Ibid., p. 39.
47. Ibid.
51. UNESCO, *Learning To Be*, p. 34.
56. Ibid., p. 40.
61. Ibid.
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69. UNESCO, Learning to Be, pp. 141, 207.
78. Ibid., pp. 41–43.
80. Ibid., p. 214.
83. Lim, Education of Adults, p. 183.
88. Saleh Ram Patshahi, "Adult Education Through Andraski Charkha" in Adult Education in India, ed. Shri Ram. p. 46.
90. Rashid, West Pakistan.
93. Hall, Adult Education and the Development of Socialism, p. 78.
103. Hall, Adult Education and the Development of Socialism, p. 76.
105. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 128.
108. Ibid., p. 112.
109. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 98.
111. Harbison, Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations, pp. 80–82.
112. Ibid., p. 85.
113. Ibid., p. 89.
114. Ibid., p. 90.
115. Coles, Adult Education in Developing Countries, p. 102.
118. Chesterfield and Schott, "Nonformal Continuining Education in Rural Brazil," p. 12.
119. Hall, Adult Education and the Development of Socialism, p. 53.
122. Coles, Adult Education in Developing Countries, p. 105.
123. Lowe, Education of Adults, p. 208.
124. Ibid.
125. UNESCO, Learning To Be, p. 233.
126. Ibid.
127. Ibid.
128. Lowe, Adult Education and Nation Building, p. 16.
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Adult Education Principle

Required Readings
No. 1 Topic 1
Chapter 1
Adult Education

The purpose of this book is to describe and interpret the field of adult education and the knowledge base that constitutes the foundations of professional practice. This chapter attempts to provide a context for those that follow by looking closely at what adult education is and is not and how it differs in both theory and practice from the preparatory education of children and young people. Thus the chapter focuses on the professional field of adult education, its development, and its current status. Subsequent chapters deal with the philosophy of adult education, adult learning and development, participation in adult education, organizations and programs, the international dimension, and problems and issues of the 1980s and beyond.

This chapter begins with a brief consideration of the changing character of education in general and then discusses the concept of lifelong learning and the social forces that have led to increased concern for education as a lifelong process. Adult education is defined and described and considered in relation to other human service professions. The final part of the chapter describes what adult educators do, reviews career opportunities, graduate training, and research, and discusses professional organizations and the issue of professional identity.
ADULT EDUCATION

EDUCATION AND SCHOOLING

The word education is so deeply associated with young people and with schools that for much of the public and even for many professional educators the phrase adult education has a slightly incongruous ring. Nonetheless the realization is rapidly growing that education and schooling are not synonymous; in fact, it has become increasingly clear that education and our understanding of it are undergoing a fundamental transformation. The basic reason for this transformation was succinctly described some years ago in the influential report of the International Commission on the Development of Education:

For far too long education had the task of preparing for stereotyped functions, stable situations, for a single moment in existence, for a particular trade or a given job. It inculcated conventional knowledge, in time-honored categories. This concept is still far too prevalent. And yet, the idea of acquiring, at an early age, a set of intellectual or technical equipment valid for a lifetime is out of date. This is the fundamental axiom of traditional education.1

In many respects the traditional view of education never was realistic. If education is broadly conceived as the deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, evoke, or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills, as well as any outcomes of that effort, then it is clear that the education of adults and children alike occurs today and has always occurred in many settings and through many kinds of activities. Schools and colleges are not the only or even necessarily the most potent institutions that educate. The family, the church, the work place, the mass media, the library, and many other institutions also play important roles in the education of people, both young and old. Moreover, as Lawrence Cremin has observed, each of these institutions educates deliberately and systematically; each has, in a very real sense, its own curriculum.2 Thus an accurate understanding of education must take into account all the institutions and interactions that help to shape the development of individuals across the life span.

LIFELONG LEARNING

In recent years this broader view of education has been given wide currency by scholars and planners who have promoted the concept of lifelong learning. Advocates of lifelong learning assert that education is a process that continues in one form or another throughout life, and that its

1This is a restatement of Lawrence Cremin's definition, but we have added the word "knowledge" to underscore the fact that self-education is included. See Lawrence A. Cremin, Public Education (New York: Basic Books, 1970), p. 27.
purposes and forms must be adapted to the needs of individuals at different stages in their development. Education is seen as an integral part of living and all the institutions of society with an educative potential are considered resources for learning. These ideas, as the International Commission on the Development of Education noted, are not new, but the potential for their realization is greater today than ever before:

Whether they do so consciously or not, human beings keep on learning and training themselves throughout their lives, above all through the influence of the surrounding environment and through the experiences which mold their behavior, their conceptions of life, and the content of their knowledge. However, until the present day, there were few structures in which this natural dynamic could find support, so as to transcend chance and become a deliberate project. Especially, preconceived ideas about instruction—it was for the young and took place in schools—prevented people generally from conceiving lifelong education in normal educational terms. Yet it is true that in the space of only a few years the same obvious fact has come home to people from one end of the world to the other: most men are not sufficiently equipped to face the conditions and vicissitudes of life as lived in the second half of the twentieth century.  

While ideas about lifelong learning may sound like little more than enlightened common sense, in fact they represent a design for the restructuring of educational systems that has revolutionary implications for preparatory as well as adult education. First, the concept of lifelong learning contradicts the tenuous conventional wisdom, and the ramifications thereof, that education is limited to what goes on in schools and colleges to prepare children and young people for adulthood. A second profound implication is that society must make adequate provision to meet the educational needs of adults who have left formal schooling. A third implication, and perhaps the most far-reaching, is that the formal educational system must be reorganized so that it is flexible enough to accommodate individual options and to prepare young people to continue their education as self-directed and competent adult learners. At the very least, this last goal would require much greater emphasis in schools and colleges on learning how to learn.  

Societal Context of Lifelong Learning

What are the "conditions and vicissitudes of life" today that have led us to the threshold of a learning society? There is no simple answer to this question, but some insight can be gained through an examination of certain fundamental social and economic trends that have gained momentum since the end of World War II.

The science-based, postindustrial technology of modern economies has, among other things, led to vast increases in productivity, disposable
income, leisure time, and educational attainment. Growing complexity and change characterize not only technology and work, but also social relations in marriage, family, and community. Obviously, as the society changes so, too, do individuals, and education is an important vehicle for such individual change. It would be a mistake, however, to assume that lifelong education is or should be merely a mechanism for adapting the individual to inexorable social and technological forces. As the Brazilian adult educator Paulo Freire has demonstrated, education can also be a vehicle for transforming society, for enabling people to direct the course of change rather than merely to react to it. Rapid technological and social change has direct consequences for the future of adult education. Consider the implications of the "knowledge explosion," particularly in science, technology, and the professions. It has been estimated that for some fields, such as engineering and medicine, the "half-life" of knowledge acquired in professional school is roughly five years. Thus in a few years half of what the doctor or engineer learned in the classroom has become obsolete. Not only does the absolute amount of knowledge continue to grow exponentially, but the structure of knowledge, technology, and work is becoming ever more complex and specialized. As a consequence, most people must continue to learn throughout their lives merely to keep up with the demands of their jobs. Moreover, professionals in particular must stay abreast of an ever-broader range of concerns as the complexity and interdependency of the professions increase. Physicians, for example, must cope with complicated legal regulations, with unfamiliar new drugs, with changing professional relationships with those within and outside the health field, and with new ethical dilemmas involving decisions of life and death.

Economic and social forces in the postindustrial society also have affected the socio-demographic composition of most industrialized nations in ways that almost surely will encourage the continuing expansion of lifelong learning opportunities. In the United States, and most other industrialized nations, several trends are of particular importance. First, the number of mature adults is increasing in proportion to the total population as well as in absolute size. This aging of the American population is a consequence of declining birth rates, increased life expectancy, and the entry into adulthood of the postwar baby boom cohort, which now makes up about one-fifth of the total population. Of particular note is the birth rate, which dropped from 25 per thousand in 1955 to 15.3 per thousand in 1978 and which will probably increase only slightly, if at all, in the 1980s. In the 1980s and 1990s the baby boom cohort will be entering middle age; by the year 2000, the number of those in the 35-44 age group will have increased by 40 percent from about 25 million in 1980 to 41 million. Looked at another way, in 1970 the median age was 31.9, and if fertility rates do not increase it will be 32.8 in 1990 and 35.5 in 2000. 
Perhaps even more important for the future of adult education is the increase in educational attainment by the population of the United States, Canada, and other industrialized nations. In the United States, the median number of years of schooling completed by adults 25 and over increased from 8.6 in 1940 to 12.5 in 1979. Over the same time span, the percentage of adults 25 and over who completed four or more years of college rose from 4.6 to 16.4. Numerous studies have shown that those with more preparatory schooling are much more likely to continue their education as adults than those with less schooling. The reasons for this phenomenon are complex, but even disregarding the effects of the higher income and occupational status associated with higher levels of educational attainment, there is still a strong relationship between amount of formal schooling and participation in adult education.

The changing status of women in advanced industrial societies also has important implications for the future of adult education. Of particular relevance is the continuing trend toward married women in the labor force. In 1950, only 24.8 percent of married women were employed or looking for employment, by 1979 that figure had jumped to 50 percent, and it continues to rise. As women increasingly combine marriage and jobs, their need to acquire work-related skills and credentials becomes greater. While this is true for women of all ages, it is particularly so for "reentering women," who dropped out of the labor market to raise children and wish or need to return to work but often lack the necessary skills.

One of the most profound changes in the workplace in recent years, affecting both men and women, has been greatly increased individual movement between jobs and even between occupations. A study by Wirtz and his colleagues at the National Manpower Institute concluded that "about 1.3 million people in this country move each year from one major occupational area to another under circumstances requiring significant retraining or education in order to make this change." Wirtz was not referring to routine promotions or reassignment of duties, but to changes across occupational categories (for example, from farmer to teacher and to significant changes within an occupational group (such as from carpenter to tool-and-die maker). Wirtz goes on to cite a Department of Labor study that estimates that a 30-year-old man will make six to seven job changes in the course of his working life. While no comparable figures are available for women, it seems likely that the rate of job mobility has increased for both sexes and with it the need for further education or training.

Underlying these changes in the workplace has been the long-term

*The emphasis on industrialized nations is not meant to denigrate the importance of adult education in developing countries, but rather to highlight the effects of economic and social forces typical of the modernizing process.*
structural transformation of the labor market. The decline in jobs in the agricultural sector, for unskilled labor, and for blue-collar workers in general has been enormous, with demand shifting to the clerical, service, and technical/professional sectors. Thus the jobs that require the least people perform today and will perform in the future requires an expanding base of knowledge and skills.

Finally, the last quarter century (or at least the period up to the late 1970s) has seen a general increase in disposable income and in the amount of leisure time available to most workers in the United States and other developed countries. Median family income, as measured in constant 1978 dollars, nearly doubled from $8,901 in 1950 to $17,640 in 1978. While real income is not expected to grow much in the 1980s, today's standard of living compared with that of 1960 or 1950 is, for most Americans, enormously improved.

Americans not only have more money, but have more time to spend it. Total leisure time for the average urban adult increased from 34.8 hours per week in 1965 to 38.5 hours in 1975. Changes in the work/leisure ratio are underscored by the continuing trend toward longer paid vacations, more paid holidays, flexible work hours, and the four-day work week. More money and more free time have reduced two of the major barriers to participation by adults in educational activities.

In summary, specific socioeconomic, cultural, and demographic forces, and not simply the wishful thinking of enlightened educators, are helping to make lifelong learning a reality. A survey conducted in 1972 found that nearly one adult in three participated in some form of organized learning activity, including self-study. Government statistics, which do not include self-study, show substantial increases in participation in organized adult education between 1969 and 1978. While adult education never was a marginal part of the education of the American public, today its significance is greater and more widely acknowledged than ever before.

NATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

In order to arrive at a definition of adult education, it is first necessary to examine the terms education and adult. Few would disagree that it is important to distinguish between education and learning. All education surely involves learning, but not all learning involves education. In the concept of education there is an element of design, of human contrivance, that is not integral to the meaning of learning. This element of design is clear in the definition of education offered earlier: the deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, evoke, or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills. Education, in this view, is purposeful (deliberate), organized (systematic), and of consequential duration (sustained). On
the other hand, learning can be nondeliberate or incidental, unorganized, and of very short duration. The word acquire in the definition above is crucial because it emphasizes the fact that education includes self-directed learning that is deliberate, systematic, and sustained. Other definitions of education and adult education emphasize the role of the "educational agent," but it seems to us that the defining characteristic of education is the element of deliberateness or design, not the presence of a teacher or leader. From this point of view, then, the construct of adult learning subsumes both natural, unplanned learning and adult education. Adult education itself takes in both self-education, whereby the learner is primarily responsible for the design and conduct of his or her learning activities, and other-directed education, whereby a teacher, leader, media production team, or some other educational agent is primarily responsible for the management of learning.

The preceding discussion obviously does not address all the distinctions and issues involved in defining education, but unless one employs an excessively rigid definition, there will always be some ambiguity and debate over what can properly be called education. Is viewing a two-hour TV documentary on the origins of the Vietnam War an example of adult education? Immediately questions leap to mind about the producer's intent, the content of the broadcast, the viewer's intent. Clearly, there is no one answer to whether or not this activity constitutes adult education. Furthermore, this discussion has stressed the activity or process of education from a perspective that is useful to educators, but which also is limiting. If one looks at individual human beings and their "education" in terms of the sum total of knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes they acquire in the course of their lives, it is clear that the multiplicity of institutions and experiences that educate overwhelms the few that our definition strictly allows. As Grattan put it, one must be mindful of the distinction between the education of adults and adult education, as the former is much more encompassing. John Stuart Mill spoke to this point more than a century ago:

"Education, in its larger sense, is one of the most indispensable of all topics. . . . Not only does it include whatever we do for ourselves, and whatever is done for us by others, for the express purpose of bringing us as somewhat nearer to the perfection of our nature, it does more. In its larger acceptance it comprehends even the indirect effects produced on character and on the human faculties, by things of which the direct purport is quite different, by laws, by forms of government, by the industrial arts, by modes of social life, by physical facts not dependent on human will, by climate and, more local position. Whatever helps to shape the human being is part of his education."

If defining education is at best problematic, defining adult is no less so. Biological maturity is a necessary but hardly sufficient condition for
adult status in most modern societies, for the word adult connotes not only biological but also social and psychological maturity in regard to judgment, autonomy, responsibility, and the assumption of adult life roles. The arbitrariness of using chronological age in defining who is an adult is obvious. Recognizing that an age or trait-specific definition of childhood is of little use, most adult educators long ago adopted a functional definition based on social role. In this view, an adult is someone who has left the role of full-time student (the principal social role of childhood and adolescence) and assumed the role of worker, spouse, and/or parent. This definition, while not totally satisfactory, does at least acknowledge that an adult is a person who performs socially productive roles and who has assumed primary responsibility for his or her own life.

As with that of education, our discussion of adult status leaves many important issues unresolved. Strictly applied, the social role definition would award adult status to a 16-year-old high school dropout and deny it to a 25-year-old medical student. For purposes of defining adult education, however, it makes little sense to view as adults persons who are full-time students in colleges and universities and who are not, in Bryson's words, fully engaged in the "ordinary business of life." Nonetheless, persons who have been engaged in the "ordinary business" of life as workers, parents, and citizens, and who return to schools or colleges as full-time students can be considered as engaging in adult education. It is not the technical definition of full-time student (e.g., one who is enrolled for at least 12 credits) that is important but the absence of the student role vis-à-vis other social roles. The 40-year-old woman who returns full-time to college to complete a bachelor's degree is not a student in the same sense as is a 19-year-old adolescent. For such adults, with rare exceptions, the ordinary business of life continues and the role of student is subordinate to it.

Toward a Definition

How then might adult education be defined? It is important to recognize that no universally acceptable definition is possible, for any definition must ultimately be based on certain assumptions and value judgments that will not be acceptable to everyone. Rather than simply assert that this is adult education, it may be useful first to ask how the functions of the adult education enterprise differ from those of the preparatory schooling enterprise.

To consider every function of preparatory schooling is beyond our scope here. Schools and colleges keep young people off the streets and out of the labor market, select and sort them for various social statuses, mediate the values of the dominant culture, and educate in the sense that we have described earlier. Above all, however, schools and colleges
are agencies of socialization whose principal purpose is to prepare children and young people for adult life. Quite obviously, this cannot be the overarching purpose of the adult education enterprise. Adult education is concerned not with preparing people for life, but rather with helping people to live more successfully. Thus if there is an overarching function of the adult education enterprise, it is to assist adults to increase their competence, or negotiate transitions, in their social roles (worker, parent, retiree, etc.), to help them gain greater fulfillment in their personal lives, and to assist them in solving personal and community problems.

Given the preceding assumptions and definitions, we would define adult education as follows:

Adult education is a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills.

Purposes and Issues

The definition given above emphasizes the learner’s characteristics and intentions and the processes and outcomes of educative activity. It does not address other important concerns such as the content, sponsorship, methodology, or purposes of adult education. Yet if we are to gain a fuller appreciation of how the enterprise of adult education is distinct from that of preparatory education, and of the ongoing debate centering on this question, then it is necessary to take the matter of definition one step further. With this purpose in mind, it may be fruitful to consider the more encompassing definition adopted in 1976 by the General Conference of UNESCO. It is the official world definition:

The term adult education denotes the entire body of organized educational processes, whether the content, level, and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges, universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications, or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behavior in the two-fold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic, and cultural development.

The definition goes on to state that adult education should be seen as an essential complement to other systems of educational development. In the sense of helping people learn new roles or improve their performance it is an important feature of adult education.
integral component of a "global scheme for lifelong education and learning." Not surprisingly, the UNESCO statement minimizes long-standing controversies regarding goals, content, and objectives as well as the nature of who is an adult. (A number of these controversies will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.) While UNESCO sees both individual and social (that is, community and national) development as equally legitimate goals for adult education, others disagree and sometimes even deny the validity of social development as an educational goal. Moreover, while it appears to be implicit in the UNESCO definition, some have voiced concern that education be distinguished from indoctrination, a distinction that is perhaps easier to make in adult than in preparatory education. Content is less controversial, but in certain countries, particularly in the past, nonliberal or vocational studies and studies below university level have been deemed unworthy of consideration as adult education.

In the United States and Canada, the leaders of the adult education movement in its formative years tended to de-emphasize formal instruction and to stress the importance of informal learning for personal development and civic improvement. Thus, for much of the present century, adult education was not always seen as including vocational subjects or learning geared toward the acquisition of degrees and credentials. This perspective also was reflected in a preference for less formal, "adult-oriented" learning processes, especially the group discussion method. The preoccupation with group work and discussion methods among leaders in the field, even as recently as the 1950s, is revealed by the search for a title for the Adult Education Association’s practitioner-oriented journal, which was established in 1951. The journal’s editorial board, which included such prominent leaders in the field as Malcolm Knowles, Howard McLuney, and Leland Bradford, decided toSurvey its potential readers in order to determine a name democratically. Those surveyed chose Adult Leadership from a list of titles including Groups and Leaders, Group Leadership, Together, and Democratic Leadership. Interestingly, the editors were disappointed with this choice; their initial preference had been Together. In 1977, in an action symbolic of the current conception of the field, the name of the periodical was changed to Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years.

Some adult educators still feel that the essence of "true" adult education is not to be found in the remedial or second-chance programs associated with formal schooling. Grattan expressed this point of view succinctly: "Far more important than adult education simply calculated to bring adults up to some chosen mark of formal schooling, is that kind of adult education addressed to adults as adults and designed to assist them..."
to live more successfully. This is the real field of adult education."
(Grattan's italics.)

At the root of debates over goals, content, and methods—and ultimately the definition of the field—is the contrasting nature of the activities subsumed under the broad rubric of adult education. The perspectives of two influential philosophers of adult education illustrate the point. For the contemporary philosopher and adult educator Paulo Freire, who has worked with illiterate adults in Brazil, Chile, and Guinea-Bissau, adult education has a special meaning formed by the hard realities of social and economic oppression in Third World countries. For Eduard Lindeman, a naturalized American whose major work was first published in 1925, adult education had a very different meaning that was tempered by the American experience of the first decades of this century. While Freire looks to Christian humanism and Marxism for intellectual guidance, Lindeman looked in a different direction toward secular pragmatism and the philosophy of John Dewey. Yet, divergent as their backgrounds are, both men have made important contributions to our understanding of adult education. The same can be said of the other scholars and practitioners who have brought to the field a complex pluralism of experience and perspective.

Scope of the Field

There seems to be increasing agreement that the maturity of the adult learner and the needs and problems of adulthood are what give adult education its special quality. Some of these needs and interests are met by academic and vocational programs for adults sponsored by schools and colleges, but many more of them are addressed by the less visible but nonetheless widespread efforts of nonschool agencies. Consider, for example, the multitude of organizations that earmark a substantial part of their resources for the education and training of their employees, members, clients, or customers. In the public sector these include the federal, state, and local government agencies that employ millions of persons in every conceivable occupation—as clerks, scientists, judges, teachers, nurses, prison guards— in addition to the military, which employs more than two million men and women. In the private sector, business and industry likewise employ millions of adults and provide training and education ranging from job orientation to retirement planning for employees at all levels, and from classes in basic skills for entry-level workers to advanced seminars for managers and scientists. Often overlooked, moreover, are the extensive educational programs of the corporate sector designed to help customers use the products or services they purchase, an activity similar to the programs of hospitals and
health maintenance organizations for patient education. Labor unions, too, provide a wide range of educational programs for their members and employees. Voluntary organizations such as the League of Women Voters and the American Cancer Society are heavily engaged in the mass education of the adult public as well as in the training of employees and volunteers. Churches, synagogues, and other religious organizations offer opportunities for study not only in religion but often in other areas, such as parent training. Museums and libraries are major resources for self-education as well as providers of more formal educational programs for both young people and adults. The broadcast media, particularly television, offer not only formal lecture-style courses but also a variety of less formal programs with educational value, including series based on great literary works, or dealing with cooking and gardening, and a variety of special programs on such topics as health, science, public affairs, and religion. In whatever setting adults come together there are likely to be opportunities for purposeful learning. Often these opportunities are planned for or with the learner by an organization or group, but often it is the individual who initiates, plans, and carries out his or her own learning project without the direction of a teacher or other expert.24

Synonyms and Related Terms

The term adult education has not won universal acceptance by those involved with the education of adults. Perhaps this is because it has overtones of night school or invokes in the public mind the specter of basketweaving or similar "recreational" activities. The most widely used synonym is continuing education, which implies that the adult learner is pursuing education beyond the point where he or she left formal schooling, thus underscoring the ideal of continuous learning throughout the lifespan. Colleges and universities, as well as many professional organizations, generally refer to their adult education activities as continuing education, while public school systems more frequently use the term adult education.

Other related terms include lifelong learning (or lifelong education), recurrent education, nontraditional education, community education, and andragogy. While it is often used synonymously with adult education, lifelong learning, as noted earlier, more correctly refers to a reconceptualization of the entire educational process, of which adult education is an integral part. In the words of UNESCO, the term lifelong learning denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and at developing the entire educational potential outside the education system; in such a scheme men and women are the agents of their own education through continual interaction between their thoughts and
action, education and learning should extend throughout life, include all skills and branches of knowledge, use all possible means, and give the opportunity to all people for full development of the personality.  

As a comprehensive theory of education and an agenda for reform, lifelong learning provides both intellectual justification and a plan of action for the fuller realization of the potential of adult education. It is noteworthy that much of the recent impetus for reconceptualizing education as lifelong learning came not from the United States and Canada, but rather from Western Europe. Moreover, the concept is not new. Its origins can be traced back at least as far as 1919, when the Adult Education Committee of the British Ministry of Reconstruction issued its influential report asserting that adult education is a "permanent national necessity" and therefore "should be both universal and lifelong."

Recurrent education refers to another concept of European origin that underscores the principle of lifelong learning that work and study should alternate or that learning should recur periodically throughout one's life as needs and circumstances change. In practice, recurrent education is used principally as a synonym for adult education, particularly in the international literature produced by such agencies as the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

The term nontraditional education is an American invention popularized by the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, a foundation-supported panel of educational leaders that sponsored several studies in the early 1970s. The basic concerns of the commission were the new developments epitomized by the external degree and by corollary approaches to awarding degree credit through such vehicles as examinations and assessment of experiential learning. The commission's work, like its understanding of nontraditional education, was largely limited to developments in higher education.

Community education is used sometimes in a generic sense, and at other times to denote a particular educational philosophy and movement. In its generic sense, community education refers to any kind of educational program or activity designed to serve people "out in the community," whether preschoolers or the elderly. It should be noted that community education is not the same as community development. The latter is characterized by action-oriented community problem solving, in which learning and doing are intimately bound together. Community development has long been associated with adult education. Community education, however, is often associated with the community school movement, supported for many years by the Mott Foundation and dedicated to making neighborhood public schools centers for educational, cultural, and recreational activity for people of all ages.

Andragogy is derived from the Greek word aner, meaning "man," and thus, in contrast to pedagogy (paideia meaning "child"), it is the "art and
science of helping adults learn. The term andragogy is widely used in certain European countries, most notably Yugoslavia, where university departments of andragogy have been established apart from the traditional departments of pedagogy. In North America, except in the French-speaking provinces of Canada, the term has not gained much currency, nor is it widely used in Britain or the Commonwealth nations. Resistance to the use of andragogy stems in large part from the prevailing view that education is not fundamentally different for adults and children. Thus those who stress the continuities in the educational process reject the notion of a special field of andragogy, while those who emphasize the unique qualities of the adult as learner often favor the term. Nonetheless, andragogy seems to be increasingly employed in its narrower denotation as a set of assumptions and methods pertaining to the process of helping adults learn.

Persons unfamiliar with adult education are often puzzled by the terms used to describe the adult education units or activities of particular kinds of organizations. While colleges and universities often refer to their adult education units as divisions or schools of continuing education, there are other terms in use as well. Some higher education institutions, especially land grant state universities, employ the term general or university extension to denote units responsible for general adult education programming. The Cooperative Extension Service, in contrast, refers to a separately funded (and usually separately administered) unit that sponsors educational and informational services for the public, related mainly to agriculture, nutrition, homemaking, consumer economics, and 4-H youth development. On many campuses, one finds a university college or school of general studies or similar unit that provides evening and weekend degree-credit offerings for a mainly part-time adult clientele. Community colleges, like private four-year colleges, rarely use the word extension. Instead, the majority of these institutions employ the terms continuing education and community services to refer to adult education, with community services often restricted to noncredit courses and cultural activities such as concerts and art exhibits.

When an organization provides education for its employees, the terms adult or continuing education are seldom used. In business and industry, adult education is generally referred to as human resource development (or simply development) and the units called departments or divisions of training, human resource development, or employee development. Other employers, too, including the armed forces and many government agencies, often prefer the word training and its variants, although human service organizations such as hospitals often use the terms in-service and continuing education rather than training. There are of course other labels particular to other settings, but the above terms are those most frequently encountered.
Related Activities

While the conception of adult education espoused here is a broad one, it nonetheless implies definite boundaries. As discussed earlier, college students in their late teens and early twenties are in many ways adults, but because they have not assumed the full responsibilities implicit in adult status they cannot be considered as engaged in adult education. Adult education blends with higher education only when the learners' principal social roles signify full adult status—in which case they are usually part-time students. Admittedly this distinction is increasingly difficult to make as more and more older people become full-time students for extended periods of time.

Many of the human service professions, such as social work and psychiatry, are concerned in one way or another with adult learning and education, but education in these contexts is generally considered subordinate to other purposes and processes. While purposeful learning is involved in any kind of therapy, including physical therapy, it does not follow that therapy and education are the same. This is not to deny that in certain respects all professionals are educators and their clients learners.

Professionals who work with adults in a purely educational capacity are adult educators and what they do is adult education, whether it is recognized as such or not. Thus, persons in business, organized labor, government, and the armed forces who design and conduct learning activities for adults are engaged in adult education, although they may refer to what they do as development or something else that obscures its educational nature. Likewise, there are people who work in certain fields, such as public health or recreation, and in certain settings, such as libraries, museums, churches, and broadcast studios, where their work is sometimes educational and sometimes not and where the education may or may not be directed at adults. Librarians, public health officers, social workers, recreation directors, TV producers, the clergy, and many other community service professionals are often partly or almost fully engaged in adult education, although their professional identities lie elsewhere. Clearly, adult education does not encompass all such roles and settings, but it does play an increasingly important part in the larger configuration of social institutions and processes that shapes the life of every member of society.

PROFESSIONAL FUNCTIONS AND ROLES

While organized adult education can be traced at least as far back as the early eighteenth century, it was not established in the United States as a field of professional practice until the founding of the American Association for Adult Education in 1926. As Knowles has pointed out, adult
education is one of the newest fields of social practice in the United States, inasmuch as the library field can be similarly defined as originating in 1876, the social work field in 1873, and the broader field of education (that is, public schooling) in 1857.29

While adult education has developed rapidly in the years since 1926 and undergone many changes, the functions and roles of adult educators have not been greatly altered by time. A distinction is made between function and role because, unlike the field of preparatory education, in adult education there is often a great disparity between the formal roles educators occupy and the functions they perform. In general, adult educators, whatever their designated role, perform a greater variety of educative functions than do their counterparts in preparatory education.

Basic Functions

The basic functions of adult education are instruction, counseling, program development, and administration. Three of these four functions have clear analogues in preparatory education, but program development does not. In broad terms, program development refers to the design, implementation, and evaluation of educational activities. Among other things, the program development process involves assessing learner needs, setting objectives, selecting learning activities and resources for learning, making and executing decisions necessary for learning activities to take place, and evaluating outcomes. These and other activities involved in program development are described in detail in the professional literature.46

What is distinctive about program development in adult education is the blending of roles and tasks that are typically separate and distinct in preparatory education. Program development obviously incorporates major elements of the functions of instruction and administration (and often counseling too) and therefore involves tasks traditionally associated with the roles of both teacher and administrator.

The uniqueness and centrality of the program development function in adult education derive ultimately from the diversity of purposes and needs adult educators and adult education agencies must address. The curricula of schools and colleges tend to be relatively uniform and to remain fairly stable over time. In contrast, adult education agencies generally do not process large numbers of learners through a relatively standardized curriculum. Instead, usually an effort is made to meet a variety of changing individual and group needs through short-term programs. It follows that where adult education is more standardized, as in remedial or second-chance programs that parallel the curricula of preparatory education, the program development function is less important. This tends to be true of degree-oriented higher education for
part-time adult students, occupational education designed to prepare persons for the labor market rather than to upgrade skills and knowledge, and adult basic education and high school completion programs.

As the preceding discussion of the program development function suggests, it is not always easy in adult education to make clear distinctions among professional roles, especially for administrators. While the key role in the majority of adult education settings might well be identified as program developer, in practice this role is usually not formally differentiated from that of administrator. Consequently, a brief overview of the roles of teacher and of counselor will be followed by a more extended discussion of the multifaceted and often interconnected roles of program developer and administrator.

Teachers

The teacher of adults, like the teacher of children and young people, is concerned with transmitting or evoking knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills in a systematic way. There are, of course, differences between teaching adults and teaching young people; in practice the extent of these differences varies. As a rule, the role of adult teacher is most similar to the traditional teaching role in the more formal programs that parallel the preparatory curricula of schools and colleges, and most unlike it in the less formal, nonschool settings. The phrase “transmitting or evoking” used above captures the essence of these crucial differences. Partly because of tradition and training, and partly because of the highly structured nature of academic and vocational subjects, the emphasis in more formal, school-like settings tends to be on the transmission of knowledge by the teacher. In less formal settings, especially where the expectation is that the adults involved will learn from each other, where problem solving is a principal concern, or where self-direction is otherwise necessary or appropriate, the tendency is for teachers to arrange conditions to facilitate the evocation, rather than the transmission, of knowledge and skills. This latter conception of teaching has long been emphasized in the professional literature because it takes into account certain special characteristics of adults as learners. In fact the literature of adult education often does not mention the word teacher, but employs instead such terms as leader, mentor, and facilitator. The word teacher is used here because it is familiar, but it is derived in its broader sense to denote anyone who directly facilitates learning.

The majority of the teachers of adults teach on a part-time basis, and often in the evening. The percentage of adult education teachers who work full-time is not known (nor is much else about the nature of the adult education teaching force) because of a lack of reliable statistics. Some data, however, have been collected on certain aspects of adult education.
A 1972 study of adult education in community organizations such as churches, Y's, and civic and social service agencies reported a total of 654,100 staff members involved. Significantly, the great majority (510,900) were volunteers; only 143,200 were employed full-time.\textsuperscript{41} Statistics on instructional personnel employed in adult education programs by local school systems show a total of 141,015 employed as "classroom teachers," with approximately 8 percent classified as full-time employees.\textsuperscript{42}

The total number of teachers probably will never be known, although some rough estimates can be made. Using the most conservative recent statistics showing 18 million participants in organized adult education in the United States, and assuming a ratio of learners to teachers of eight or nine to one, the total number of teachers would be about two million.\textsuperscript{43} This estimate is crude, but does suggest the enormous numbers involved.

The settings, purposes, and activities of teachers of adults are so diverse as to preclude all but the most general descriptions. As Houle has pointed out, a great many teachers of adults are volunteers who teach in a multitude of community settings, for example, in the educational programs of voluntary associations like the League of Women Voters and the American Heart Association, in museums and libraries, and in churches and synagogues.\textsuperscript{44} Persons employed in basically noneducational roles may also teach adults as part of their work. One thinks immediately of social workers, recreation specialists, the clergy, and many other human service workers. Less visible are the specialists of all kinds in government and industry who share their knowledge and expertise with fellow employees and the technical sales personnel who spend much of their time in customer education. Then there is the large corps of full-time teachers of adults, some of whom have program development responsibilities as well. They probably number more than 100,000. Very few are employed by schools and colleges (some 45,000 are employed in business and industry).\textsuperscript{45} In this category fall the full-time trainers who teach subjects and skills of all kinds in business and industry, in government agencies, and in the military, as well as the full-time staff members of voluntary associations who train volunteers.

As is evident at this point, the overwhelming majority of teachers of adults are not professional educators. Few have received training in education, few hold teaching licenses, and most are employed by noneducational organizations. Even teachers of adults employed by educational institutions are usually selected for their specialized knowledge or expertise, not for their training in teaching.

While full-time career opportunities for teachers of adults are limited, there is reason to believe that this situation is changing, particularly for teachers of basic skills and vocational subjects. In the 1960s and 1970s there was a steady increase in government funding of
vocational training and adult basic education programs. As a result, school systems and some postsecondary institutions began to provide separate facilities for adult education and to operate programs throughout the day and evening. More and more full-time teachers were hired, and this trend will probably continue despite recent cutbacks in government spending. Employers, too, seem to be hiring increasing numbers of teachers of basic skills to upgrade the communication and computation skills of entry-level clerical employees and to provide greater opportunities for occupational advancement by women and minorities.

Counselors

There is even less concrete data available on the counselors of adults than on teachers. Our concern here is with counseling functions that directly enhance the educational activities and purposes of adults. Those functions include the provision of information about educational and career opportunities, assistance in making educational and occupational choices, and help in dealing with problems that interfere with the learning process. There is reason to believe that these functions are widely neglected, especially in less formal adult education settings, but also in schools and colleges. The number of formally designated adult counselors is very small, and thus for the most part the counseling that does occur is done by teachers, program developers, or administrators. A study of big-city adult basic education programs reported that the need for counseling was so great, and the supply of counselors so small, that teachers had this role thrust upon them whether or not they were prepared to accept it. The ratio of counselors to learners in comprehensive public school adult education agencies in New Jersey was estimated at 1 to 5000. In higher education settings, particularly community colleges, this ratio is generally smaller, but counseling resources are seldom commensurate with the need. As a rule, counselors are most widely available to adult learners in basic education, high school completion, and college degree programs and least available in less formal educational settings. Testing and referral to health and social service agencies tend to be prominent counseling functions in ABE and high school completion programs, while vocational counseling (often using group), academic advising, and study skills development are more characteristic of higher education settings.

The recent development of a new counseling role—that of educational broker—and of community-based educational information and guidance centers holds promise for extending counseling services to a much wider segment of the adult population. The role of educational broker was first created by external degree institutions, but brokers are now employed in other settings as well, most notably in libraries and community-based educational information and guidance centers. Unlike
the traditional counselor, the educational broker acts as a liaison between the learner and the educational resources of the community. In trying to match educational resources with learner needs, the broker acts in the interest of the learner, not on behalf of an educational institution. In fact, an essential dimension of the broker role is client advocacy—which might involve, for example, persuading an educational institution to waive an application deadline or provide financial assistance for an adult learner.

Legislation enacted by Congress in 1976 authorizing funds for states to plan and operate Educational Information Centers (EICs) provided an impetus for the development of community-based information and guidance services. Some states are experimenting with the use of public libraries as the delivery system for such services, while others are looking to external degree institutions or various combinations of new and existing agencies to serve as the structure for an EIC network. While much depends on the amount of money appropriated for EICs in the years ahead, it is clear that the need for such services is very great.

Counseling adult learners, like teaching them, is still performed largely by persons who devote only part of their working time to it. It seems likely, however, that the number of full-time positions for counselors of adults will continue to grow. At present, only a small minority of adult counselors and educational brokers have had professional training in counseling or adult education. Those with professional credentials have generally been trained in school guidance or vocational counseling. However, specialized graduate training in adult counseling is available today at a number of American universities.

Program Developers/Administrators

The great majority of full-time adult educators are employed in administrative or semi-administrative roles that involve both program development and management functions. Part-time adult educators, of course, also serve in such roles. This is true in almost all the institutional settings where adult education takes place—hospitals, industries, unions, colleges, volunteer associations, and so forth. As noted earlier, the centrality of the program development process reflects the diverse and changing learner needs that most adult education agencies attempt to serve. Of course, when the needs an agency attempts to meet are relatively uniform and stable, the program development function becomes less central and the traditional distinction between instruction and administration tends to become sharper.

There are other factors that serve to reinforce the blending of administrative and program development roles in adult education. The lack of a full-time faculty in most adult education settings makes it necessary for administrators to assume certain functions that faculty
members normally would perform. Thus, for example, decisions about what courses or programs will be offered and what instructional formats (e.g., lecture, workshop, discussion group) will be employed typically are made by administrators. It follows that where there is a full-time faculty, for example, in some adult learning centers and evening colleges, the administrator's role tends to center on management rather than instructional tasks. Another important factor is the small size of most adult education agencies in terms of the number of full-time professional personnel. When the full-time staff consists of only one or two people (as it often does), then responsibility for both program development and administrative functions is almost unavoidable. However, in relatively large agencies—such as the training unit of a large corporation or the extension division of a land grant university—the highest-ranking administrators tend to devote most of their time to management rather than program development tasks. As a general rule, the higher one's rank in an adult education agency, the less involvement one has in routine program development activities. Nonetheless, many deans, directors, and other managers, especially in smaller agencies, are heavily involved in the day-to-day work of organizing educational activities.

The full-time professional adult educator then typically plays a variety of roles. He or she is simultaneously an administrator, supervisor, program developer, counselor, and, sometimes, even a teacher. Moreover, certain organizational characteristics typical of many adult education agencies impose special demands on the administrator. In most cases the adult education agency is a subunit of a larger organization where the primary goals are not adult education or even education. Very often, as Clark has pointed out, the low priority of adult education within the larger parent organization leads to institutional marginality and insecurity. When budget cuts are made, adult education is often particularly vulnerable. Consequently, the adult education administrator must strive continually to convince administrators in the parent organization of the value and importance of his or her programs. Dependence on the parent organization for facilities and support services also means that a good deal of time and effort must be spent in negotiating and maintaining relationships with other institutional units.

Thus, in many cases the adult education administrator must be something of an entrepreneur, selling the importance of his or her programs within the parent organization and continually making arrangements with other organizational units to secure necessary support services related to personnel, finances, student records, and so forth. Similarly, because most programs rely on voluntary participation by learners and must be largely self-supporting, the administrator also must be an entrepreneur in relation to the larger community. The visibility of the program and the continuing flow of new learners and even teachers
often depend on contacts and linkages with various groups and organizations in the larger community. As Beder has argued, such contacts and linkages can be crucial in securing needed resources such as learners, teachers, political support, and sometimes even facilities, as well as services such as child care and job placement. Even relatively secure and self-contained education and training units in the military and industry often find it advantageous to form outside linkages, particularly with colleges and universities.

In terms of background and training, administrators or program developers are as diverse as teachers of adults. Typically, however, there is a relationship between work setting and background. Education directors in labor unions generally have a background in union leadership; training directors in business and industry usually have business experience or training; and public school adult education directors usually have a background in teaching. While most persons with graduate training in adult education enter administrative and program development positions, professionals with such preparation constitute only a small portion of the total leadership force. Initial occupational identity tends in many cases to block the awareness or acknowledgement of many in the field that they are in fact adult educators. Those nurses who work full-time directing in-service education programs may continue to identify themselves professionally as nurses despite the fact that they have long since given up any nursing duties. Similarly, training directors in industry often see themselves as engaged in "human resource development," not in education, perhaps because education connotes impractical academicism to many businesspeople.

GRADUATE STUDY

As noted previously, only a small proportion of the educators of adults have had university preparation in the field of adult education. Since the 1960s, however, the number of university programs in adult education and the number of degrees awarded have grown enormously. Today, especially in the United States and Canada, and increasingly in Europe, Africa, and other parts of the world, universities play an important role in preparing adult educators and in generating new knowledge for the improvement of professional practice.

The first university courses in adult education were offered at Teachers College, Columbia University, in the 1920s, but it was not until 1933 that Columbia awarded the first doctorates in the field. In that same year the University of Chicago and Ohio State University organized doctoral programs in adult education, and several other universities became involved in the 1940s and 1950s. Graduate programs grew slowly, however; by 1949 only 36 persons held doctorates in adult education from
American universities (there are no statistics even today on master’s and bachelor’s level graduates). By 1965, approximately 500 people held Ed.D’s or Ph.D’s in adult education from American universities, and doctoral programs were offered by 15 institutions in the United States as well as by universities in Canada and Yugoslavia. By the 1970s the number of graduate programs as well as their average size had increased greatly. Unfortunately, there are no recent reliable statistics on graduate study in adult education. We can, however, obtain some idea of the extent of such preparation today by examining the membership of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. In 1960 there were 407 full members of the commission, representing more than 100 colleges and universities in the United States and 8 in Canada. In contrast, in 1960 there were only 20 members of the commission, representing some 15 universities. It should be noted that not all of the institutions represented by commission members offer formal master’s and doctoral programs in adult education, while at least a few institutions that do offer programs are not represented on the commission. Nonetheless, these statistics do provide a rough measure of the phenomenal growth in university preparation programs over the past two decades. Today, one can earn a master’s degree in adult education at more than 50 universities in North America and a doctoral degree at 25 or so.

Despite the rapid growth in the number of graduate programs and the number of graduates with formal preparation in adult education, the majority of university-based programs are of modest size, at least when measured in terms of full-time faculty members. While perhaps half a dozen programs have six or more full-time professors, more typical is a staff of one or two full-time professors whose efforts are supplemented by faculty in other departments or by part-time adjunct instructors. In most cases, the adult education program is part of a larger department. Administrative arrangements vary greatly, but often adult education is combined with programs that are ostensibly complementary, such as vocational education, higher education, or educational administration.

Educational goals, curricula, and orientations to the field of adult education vary among graduate programs. Some newer programs, particularly those established with federal assistance in the South during the late 1960s, are heavily oriented toward training adult basic education personnel. Others, at major land grant universities such as Cornell and Wisconsin, historically have placed emphasis on extension education, that is, the training of personnel for the Cooperative Extension Service. Such specialized goals, however, are not the norm. Because of the scarcity of full-time positions for teachers of adults, graduate study in most universities is geared to preparation for program development and administrative roles in a broad spectrum of settings.

What might be called a core curriculum in adult education graduate
programs usually is found in one form or another at most universities. As
described by Knox, the core curriculum consists of an introductory or
survey course, a course dealing with adult learning and development
(sometimes offered by the psychology department), and courses in
program development and administration. Many universities also offer
more specialized courses in the core areas, for example, in history or
philosophy of adult education, group dynamics, and methods of teaching
adults. In many institutions flexibility is provided by topics courses and
advanced seminars that change their focus from time to time. Flexibility is
also typically available through individualized, self-directed learning
using such vehicles as independent study, fieldwork, and internship
courses. Where the doctorate is offered, there is usually at least one
course geared toward preparation for a dissertation. Finally, as Knox
notes, most programs offer specialized courses that reflect particular
faculty interests or institutional resources, for example, courses dealing
with adult basic education, comparative adult education, or educational
gerontology.

Adult education might be termed an adventurous profession in that
most people enter it perhaps not really by accident but also seldom by
design. A teenager may aspire to be a schoolteacher but seldom to be an
adult educator. Consequently, graduate students come from varied
backgrounds and usually have had some professional experience in adult
education or a related field before beginning graduate study. However,
while graduate students generally range in age from their mid-twenties to
their mid-forties, there has been a tendency, first noted by Houle nearly a
decade ago, for an increasing number to come directly from under-
graduate school. While this is probably due mostly to the increased
status and visibility of the field in recent years, it may also be related to
the recent institution of undergraduate courses in adult education at a
number of universities. Interestingly, a very different trend also seems to
be developing. More people in their forties and fifties are entering
graduate programs, sometimes motivated in part by their experience as
adult students in undergraduate degree programs. If there is such a
trend, it should hardly be surprising in light of the increasing number of
adults, particularly women, who are returning to education or the work
place or changing careers.

Graduates of university degree programs in adult education—at least
degree graduate—seem to find employment most often in colleges and
universities. In their 1965 survey of doctorate holders, Houle and Buskey
reported that 69 percent were employed by colleges and universities, the
majority in administrative and program development positions. Employ-
ment in public school settings ranked a distant second, only 8 percent of
the total. A more up-to-date survey might well show somewhat different
results, but there is little doubt that most doctoral graduates still are
employed by colleges and universities.
Universities, of course, are not the only institutions that prepare adult educators. As Houle observed a decade ago, "the largest volume of organized ... training of adult educational leaders occurs within the institutions which sponsor programs, such as industrial and commercial establishments, public schools, substantive government departments, and voluntary associations." This is still the case today and undoubtedly will remain so. The university, however, has increasingly become the trainer of trainers for these other settings. The university plays a unique and essential role too in the professionalization of the field and in the improvement of practice through the creation as well as the dissemination of knowledge.

RESEARCH
The creation of a body of knowledge in adult education through systematic and disciplined inquiry has lagged behind the development of graduate training programs. Adult educators have of necessity relied extensively on the general body of theory and research findings in education and the social sciences, which is of great importance to all educators. However, this general store of tested knowledge has not been sufficient. There is an urgent need for the development of a body of research and theory unique to adult education so that adult educators may gain a better understanding of the nature of their particular enterprise and the conditions that facilitate successful educational practice with adults.

To date, most of the significant research bearing directly on adult education has been produced by social scientists in such disciplines as psychology and sociology. Some of this work was done more than 50 years ago. A milestone was the publication in 1928 of Adult Learning by the distinguished psychologist Edward L. Thorndike. Using the methods of scientific psychology, Thorndike demonstrated that one's learning ability increases to age 25 and declines thereafter only very gradually (recent research suggests there is no decline until old age). In effect, Thorndike pronounced that adults could learn as well or better than children—a startling discovery at that time. Thorndike continued his work on adult learning into the 1930s, focusing on more pragmatic concerns in his volume Adult Interests.

While a thorough review of the contributions of social scientists to our understanding of adult learning and education is not possible here, we shall note briefly a few of the most influential developments. The studies of Kurt Lewin and his associates, beginning in the late 1940s and focusing on group dynamics and change theory, stand out. Many of Lewin's associates were prominently identified with adult education and had enormous influence on the field's development, especially in the 1950s.
when group discussion was widely advocated as the preferred method of
adult education. Also in the 1950s pioneering work in adult psychosocial
development was undertaken by several scholars whose influence is still
felt. Two of the most prominent are Bernice Neugarten and Robert
Havighurst. Adult Education in Transition, a sophisticated study of the
organizational dynamics of public school adult education agencies by the
sociologist Burton Clark, also appeared in the 1950s. Clark’s analysis of
the causes and effects of institutional marginality is still of value in
understanding administrative roles and organizational processes in adult
education, especially in school and college settings. During the 1960s and
1970s the number of studies by social scientists directly related to adult
education increased enormously, especially in the area of adult develop-
ment and learning. A landmark volume of the mid-1960s was the first
comprehensive analysis of participation in adult education, Volunteers for
Learning.64

There is no doubt that social scientists will continue to make
important contributions to our understanding of adult education and that
adult education researchers will continue to use concepts and research
findings from sociology, psychology, economics, and other disciplines.
However, many research problems that are of little interest to social
scientists are of central importance for advancing understanding of adult
education and for improving professional practice.

Several attempts have been made to identify research priorities in
adult education, but any such judgments are essentially a matter of
preference and opinion.65 Certain few researchers in the field would contest the assertion that no problem or topic has been overstudied and
that many important questions have scarcely been examined. Even the
most fundamental and widely held assumptions about adult learners and
the conditions that facilitate adult learning have been subject to very little
scientific scrutiny. It has not been clearly demonstrated, for example, that
active participation by adults in planning or implementing their learning
activities has any particular beneficial effect on educational outcomes.

There are good theoretical grounds for believing that learner involvement
has certain desirable consequences, but convincing evidence is lacking.
Even in the area of participation, where a good deal is known about the
differences between participants and nonparticipants in terms of age,
educational background, sex, race, and so on, the information has limited
explanatory or predictive value. Little is known about the fundamental
factors—for example, attitudes toward education or major changes in
family or work life—that affect an individual’s decision to participate in
adult education. Historical scholarship, too, has touched on only a few of
the many important questions that must be explored if we are to
understand better the development of American adult education, partic-
ularly in its less formal manifestations outside institutions such as
Chautauqua and university extension.66
Most research on adult education takes place in universities, and by far the largest share is produced by doctoral students in the form of dissertations. While the volume and quality of research in adult education has increased considerably over the past decade, the number of active researchers is still small and the financial support available for research on fundamental problems is limited. Another serious weakness of the research in the field is its fragmented nature; few lines of inquiry have been pursued in a systematic and cumulative fashion, although there are exceptions such as the work on motivational orientations and on processes of self-education.

Forums held for adult education researchers play important roles in encouraging the production and dissemination of new knowledge. The Commission of Professors of Adult Education, a group founded in the 1950s and affiliated with the Adult Education Association, continues to play a vigorous role in encouraging research through the work of various ad hoc committees, through sponsorship of publications, and through an annual meeting devoted in part to the discussion of scholarly issues. The Adult Education Research Conference, established in 1960, meets each year in a different American or Canadian city and provides a forum where not only professors but also graduate students and other interested professionals can share research findings and discuss research methods and related issues. In recent years adult education researchers have been increasingly active in the American Educational Research Association and in other professional societies in such fields as reading and gerontology.

Dissemination of research occurs through other vehicles as well. The most important are the scholarly journals and the federally supported ERIC system, which provides microfiche copies of unpublished reports, papers, and studies that otherwise would not be readily available. The oldest and most prominent research periodical is *Adult Education*, published quarterly by the Adult Education Association. *Convergence*, published by the International Council for Adult Education in Toronto, is another periodical of worldwide circulation and is a major outlet for scholarship with an international and comparative focus. Of the scholarly journals published outside the United States, one of the most highly regarded is the British *Studies in Adult Education*. An indicator of the increasing maturity of the research in adult education is the recent development of several specialized scholarly periodicals, including *Educational Gerontology* and *Adult Literacy and Basic Education*. Finally, a considerable number of periodicals oriented mainly to the interests of professional practitioners sometimes publish work of interest to researchers, as well as less technical articles by researchers themselves: *Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years*, published by the Adult Education Association; *the Canadian Journal of University Continuing Education; The Journal of Extension, Continuums;* and the British *Adult Education*. A 1976 directory lists some 80 periodicals published in all parts of the world.
concerned with disseminating information about adult education or related fields.  

**PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS**

The numerous organizations to which adult educators and adult education institutions belong mirror the multitude of purposes and settings that characterize adult education today. These organizations serve several functions that are vital to the continuing development of the field and its practitioners. Perhaps the most important function served by organizations of adult educators is professional development. Virtually all such organizations or associations provide vehicles for the formulation and exchange of professional information, attitudes, and values. Professional development is fostered in many ways—for example, through publications, committee work, and participation in organized learning activities such as lectures, symposia, and workshops. Another important function served by organizations with both individual and institutional membership is advocacy, sometimes on behalf of adult learners in general or the field as a whole, but more often for special interests. Activities involved in advocacy can range from routine public relations duties to aggressive political lobbying in the state legislatures and in Congress. Another function is coordination. Local adult education councils often serve as informal mechanisms for communication and coordination among agencies in a specific geographical area. At the national level, the Coalition of Adult Education Organizations functions both as a coordinating body for some 20 national organizations and as an advocate for the interests of organized adult education as a whole. At the global level, the International Council for Adult Education performs similar functions and in addition places emphasis on professional development activities. A final function, although one performed by only a few organizations, might be termed regulation. A regulatory organization is one that imposes rules or standards on other organizations. The most explicit example of regulation is accreditation, which is the major purpose of at least one organization—the Council on Non-Collegiate Continuing Education—and an important function of a few others, such as the National Home Study Council.

The full range and diversity of the functions that professional organizations serve are broader than we can show here. After discussing Houle’s work on the classification of adult education organizations, Griffith set forth a useful descriptive typology of associations of adult educators “oriented toward one or more of . . . five bases.” These bases are content, sponsoring agency, method, place, and clientele. As Griffith noted, these categories are not mutually exclusive and educators often belong to more than one type of association. It might also be noted that
the functions discussed above tend to cut across these categories, except for the regulatory function, which perhaps constitutes an additional "base." Yet another base might be "role" as exemplified by teacher and counselor groups in state-level adult education associations and by such role-based national organizations as the National Council of State Directors of Adult Education.

Associations based on content tend to be the least institutionalized and perhaps the least widespread. Typically they consist of committees or special interest groups within the Adult Education Association or of groups concerned with adult education within "content-based" professional organizations such as the American Vocational Association, the Religious Education Association, and various associations in the fields of reading and teaching English as a second language. In contrast, associations based on institutional sponsorship of adult education tend to be more institutionalized and also influential in terms of both advocacy and professional development. Examples include the National University Continuing Education Association, the Association for Continuing Higher Education, the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education, and the American Society for Training and Development. Associations based on methods of instruction or delivery of education include the National Home Study Council, media associations such as the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, and special interest groups such as the Adult Education Association's section on residential adult education. Like institutional sponsorship, place or geography is an important base for the development of professional associations. General-purpose adult education associations can be found at the local level, the state level, and the regional level (e.g., associations in the Missouri Valley, Rocky Mountain States, and Pacific Northwest). Finally, there are the national general-purpose organizations such as the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. and the Canadian Association for Adult Education.

This profusion of associations of adult educators might be interpreted as an example of healthy pluralism or as a symptom of parochialism and fragmentation. Depending on how one views it, it can be either or both. If we consider the larger picture at the national and state levels, it is clear that fragmentation has negative consequences for such vital professional functions as advocacy, professional development, and coordination. In regard to political action at the national level, organized adult education seldom speaks with one voice and has been singularly ineffective in influencing public policy through lobbying efforts in Congress or with administrative agencies of the government. Despite some joint national conferences and other occasional efforts at cooperation, the major national organizations concerned directly with adult education have consistently...
gone their separate ways. Institutional loyalties and parochial interests have so far vitiated any efforts to bring greater unity and coherence to the field.

PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

Most professional occupations are bound together by a common body of knowledge and technique and by common institutional settings, roles, and purposes. As we have seen, however, this is not true of adult education. Adult education by its very nature is an enterprise that cannot be dominated by any one institution and that can never be reduced to any single purpose or function other than the broadest commitment to human and societal development. In some respects adult education is similar to other subfields within the broad profession of education, such as special education or guidance, but in other respects it is very different, for it is not bound to schools or school-like settings and purposes.

That the majority of the educators of adults do not identify professionally with the field of adult education is to be expected. Most, as we have seen, are volunteers or persons who devote only part of their time to educational work with adults. Social workers, museum curators, public health officials, and the various human service professionals who engage in adult education work identify with their primary occupations. This does not preclude, however, the possibility of greater awareness among professionals in related fields that some or much of their work is essentially adult education, and such awareness seems to be growing.

The real issue of professional identity concerns the increasing number of persons whose energies are principally devoted to educational work with adults. Included are the full-time "trainers" in industry and government agencies; the education staff of unions, Y's, voluntary associations, and various community organizations; the directors of continuing education in medical centers and professional associations; and the many other professionals who work with adults in different settings, including colleges and schools. Despite strong institutional loyalties, a growing number of adult educators who have not identified themselves as such in the past are beginning to do so, as greater enrollments in graduate degree programs in adult education show. Given the fact that before the 1950s adult education barely existed as a field of study and as an organized profession, the lack of widespread professional identification with the field is not surprising.

The lack of professional identity may be less acute now than in the past, but it is still a serious concern because of its implications for standards of professional practice and for the political effectiveness of organized adult education. It is doubtful that there is any short-term solution to the problem. Ultimately, the credibility and vitality of any
profession rests on the development and dissemination of a specialized body of theory and technique. A few decades ago it would have been presumptuous for adult education to have made any claims in this regard. Today there is a sufficient body of specialized knowledge and technique to justify the assertion that adult education is a credible field of professional specialization. However, this knowledge base is still fragmentary and the techniques of professional practice still relatively rudimentary. The greatest challenge adult education confronts therefore is to expand its knowledge base and to refine its unique body of specialized technique.

For most practitioners, identification with the profession of adult education will depend on the efficacy of its concepts and practical tools in helping adults to learn.

NOTES

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8. Ibid., p. 50.


28. Adult Leadership 1 (May 1952), 32.

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30. Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed.

31. Lindeman, Meaning of Adult Education.

32. For a review of research on this topic, see Allen Tough, "Major Learning Efforts: Recent Research and Future Directions," Adult Education 25, no. 1 (1978): 260–263.

33. UNESCO, General Conference Adopts a Recommendation, p. 2.


NOTES 33

40. See, for example, Knowles, Modern Practice of Adult Education.
41. J. M. Daly et al., Survey of Adult Education in Community Organizations
42. Yearbook of Adult and Continuing Education, 1975–76 (Chicago: Marquis
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55. Charles E. Kozell, Response to a Need: A Case Study of Adult Education
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56. Alan B. Kros, Development of Adult Education Graduate Programs
    27–28.
58. Houle, “Educators of Adults,” p. 117.
60. Houle, “Educators of Adults,” p. 115.
63. Clark, Adult Education in Transition.
64. Johnstone and Rivero, Volunteers for Learning.
65. See, for example, Burton W. Kerzbow, Educating the Adult Educator: Part 2,
    Taxonomy of Needed Research (Wisconsin Research and Development
    Center, University of Wisconsin, 1968), and The Advisory Panel on Research
    Needs in Lifelong Learning During Adulthood, Lifelong Learning During
66. For examples of recent historical work of this kind, see Adult Education 26, no. 4 (1976).
68. For a review, see Troup, "Major Learning Efforts."
Chapter 2
Philosophy and Adult Education

The philosophy of education involves the systematic examination of the assumptions that underlie practice. How one analyzes and interprets practice in adult education depends upon the philosophical orientation one brings to the task. Just as adult education in the United States is characterized by a diversity of programs, sponsors, and clienteles, so, too, a wide range of thought characterizes the philosophy of adult education. There exists no single conceptual framework, no single set of basic assumptions and principles from which all educators view the field.

This diversity in both the theory and practice of adult education is not particularly surprising. Institutions and movements and philosophies evolve from sociocultural contexts. While some argue that the adult education movement should have a single comprehensive philosophy "so that no matter what problems adult educators are facing they share a common course," it is much more likely that adult education philosophy will continue to reflect our pluralistic society. As one writer has pointed out:

As long as we are a pluralistic society, as long as our public is made up of many publics, we shall continue to have philosophies of education in conflict
with one another. Meanwhile, educators will continue to muddle along as best they can (which is very well indeed) on the basis of different philosophies (or different assumptions), often not formulated at all, and they will continue to feel pressure from different individuals and publics with varied philosophies and assumptions. It has been said that the United States does not have an ideology; it is one. The same may be said of American education. Like the American ideology, the philosophy of education is tentative, changing, and eclectic. 

This chapter’s purpose is to review and analyze the ways in which philosophy has been applied to adult education. Acquainting readers with this topic could be done through a discussion of the views of individual theorists such as Lindeman, Bergevin, and Freire. A second approach might be to analyze the impact various schools of educational philosophy, such as progressivism or existentialism have had upon the field. One might also look at the philosophy of adult education from a historical or developmental perspective, beginning with the earliest analyses of the field and ending with the major contemporary works. Our approach will be to probe the issues salient to the field of adult education—issues addressed by writers influenced by differing schools of educational thought.

The issue given the most attention by educational philosophers is that of the aims and objectives of adult education. Implicit in a discussion of the aims of education is a consideration of the relationship between education and the society in which education takes place. As will be seen, opinions range from those of the British philosophical linguists, who see adult education as “value-neutral,” and its aim the seeking of truth, to those of the revolutionaries, who would use education to bring about radical social change. A second issue is the question of curriculum or subject matter. What one considers to be appropriate content depends to a certain extent upon one’s view of the overall purpose of education. How the content is dealt with leads in turn to questions about the role of the teacher, the role of the learner, and instructional methodology.

THEORY AND PRACTICE

Before beginning a discussion of the purposes of adult education, it seems appropriate to address the question of the necessity of surveying the philosophic work in adult education. One might well ask why philosophy should be applied to education and whether or not it is important for educators to consider their own philosophic orientations.

Several writers have noted the desirability of formulating a philosophy of adult education. Roberts suggests that it is needed because those in adult education are too often concerned with “what to do without examining sufficiently why [they] should do it.” White notes that
philosophy has an "immediate and intense attraction" to adult educators because, like adult education, it is concerned with "such basic problems as freedom and social justice, equal opportunity—in civil rights and power—and the participation of citizens in great decisions." Bergvinson, while recognizing that adult education philosophies vary, feels that there is value in having some basic philosophy to "establish a common point of reference, an integrated viewpoint, toward certain beliefs, ideas, attitudes, and practices."

Many adult education practitioners engaged in the daily tasks of program planning, administration, or teaching have little time to reflect upon the meaning and direction of their activity. The educator is generally more concerned with skills than with principles, with means than with ends, with details than with the whole picture. Yet all practitioners make decisions and act in ways that presuppose certain values and beliefs. Whether or not it is articulated, a philosophical orientation underlies most individual and institutional practices in adult education. An evaluation and understanding of one's own philosophical orientation is one factor that distinguishes a professional adult educator from a nonprofessional or a novice. Thoughtful practitioners know not only what they are to do, but why they are to do it. Experience combined with reflection leads to purposeful and informed action. Philosophy does not equip a person with knowledge about what to do or how to do it; it is concerned with the why of education and with the logical analysis of the various elements of the educational process. Appo's monograph Towards a Working Philosophy of Adult Education presents a rationale for why philosophy can be of use to adult educators:

The adult educator needs a foundation for looking at the relationship of educational problems.
The adult educator needs to see the relationship of adult education activities to society.
A well-developed working philosophy can provide the adult educator with an approach for dealing with such long-standing and basic questions as what is reality, what is the nature of man, what is education, etc.
In a broader, personal sense, development of a working philosophy can provide a deeper meaning to the adult educator's life.

The relationship between philosophy and action or between theory and practice has itself been the subject of debate. Some see philosophy and action as mutually exclusive concepts belonging to different realms. Another approach is to attempt to synthesize the two into one view. There appears to be an emerging consensus among philosophers that both are necessary: theory without practice leads to empty idealism, and action without philosophical reflection is mindless activism. In the early 1970s,
Silliman lamented the lack of philosophical interest in educational practice:

If teachers make a botch of it, and an uncomfortably large number do, it is because it never simply occurs to more than a handful to ask why they are doing what they are doing, to think seriously or deeply about the purposes or consequences of education.

This mindlessness—the failure to think seriously about educational purpose, the reluctance to question established practice—is not the monopoly of the public school; it is diffused remarkably throughout the entire educational system, and indeed the entire society.

If mindlessness is the central problem, the solution must lie in infusing the various educating institutions with purpose, not to abandon interest about purpose, and about the ways in which technique, content and organization fulfill or alter purpose.7

Many current debates on educational policy and practice could be conducted more rationally if basic philosophic differences were clarified. A major purpose of philosophical inquiry, therefore, is to clarify issues so that decisions can be made on rational grounds. Arguments over means in education are fundamentally reduced to differences over ends or purposes to be achieved. For example, the debate over “back to basics” revolves around what types of persons we expect our educational system to produce. And the arguments between the proponents of liberal arts and of vocational education stem from basic philosophic issues related to the nature of the “good society.”

In one sense, most actions are guided by some theory or some philosophy. We act for reasons, good or bad, and generally have some understanding of what we are doing, why we are doing it in the way we do it, and the consequences of our actions. What we have here in the ordinary course of human activity is common sense, which, though related to philosophy, can be distinguished from it. Long ago Socrates raised questions about common opinions and practices and demonstrated that the common-sense view of things could not always be trusted. Philosophy is more reflective and systematic than common sense. Philosophy raises questions about what we do and why we do it, and it goes beyond individual cases and phenomena to treat questions of a general nature. When considering the interrelationship of philosophy and action, it is clear that philosophy inspires one’s activities and gives direction to practice. The power of philosophy lies in its ability to enable individuals to better understand and appreciate the activities of everyday life.

By way of summary, Greene points to an even broader justification for engaging in philosophical inquiry: “We do not philosophize,” she says, “to answer factual questions, establish guidelines for our behavior, or enhance our aesthetic awareness.” Rather,
we philosophize when, for some reason, we are urged to wonder about how events and experiences are interpreted and should be interpreted. We philosophize when we can no longer tolerate the splits and fragmentations in our pictures of the world, when we desire some kind of wholeness and integration, some coherence which is our own.8

ADULT EDUCATION AND ADULTHOOD

The interrelationship between theory and practice in adult education provides a rationale for engaging in philosophical inquiry. Prior to looking at what various writers and schools of thought have said about the overall purpose of adult education, we should examine the concept of adult education, which presents, in itself, an important philosophical issue. Philosophy is interested in the general principles of any phenomenon, object, or process. Philosophy strives, as Schellman notes, “for a maximum of vision and a minimum of mystery.”9 Lawson articulates the problem inherent in “minimizing” the mystery associated with the concept of adult education:

Such a wide range of agencies engaging in such diverse fields of activity raises questions about the criteria which entitle us to bring them together in one portmanteau category. What is it about them which makes them examples of “the education of adults”?10

When one denotes diverse activities and delivery systems as adult education, philosophical issues emerge: Does “adult” indicate who the activities are for, or is there a special connotation about “education” when linked with “adult”?11 As with other aspects of the educational process, one’s definition of adult education reflects a particular philosophical orientation. Behaviorists, for example, would define adult education in terms of changes in behavior brought about by the educational process. Radicals adult educators would find inadequate a definition of adult education that did not include raising people’s consciousness of the social and political contradictions in their culture. And those who accept a humanist or existential orientation would define adult education in terms of inner growth and development. The questions inherent in defining adult education also relate to two other issues in the field: If adult education means learning activities especially for adults, what is the meaning of adulthood? and, If there is a special connotation for education when associated with adults, how is it distinguished from education in general? While these two issues are also dealt with in Chapter 3, they are philosophical questions.

The criteria one selects for defining adulthood are invariably dependent upon a particular sociocultural context. Age, psychological maturity, and social roles appear to be the essential ingredients in such a definition with the priority of these variables dependent upon the context of
discussion. It is interesting to note that in American culture the concept of adulthood is a relatively recent one. In writing about the emergence of this concept, Jordan notes that it evolved "by a process of exclusion, as a final product resulting from prior definitions of other stages in the human life cycle." This notion of exclusion in part underlies Paterson's exploration of the concept of adulthood. "Adults are adults, in the last analysis," he says, "because they are older than children." A person's age states a relationship to time that leads others to expect mature behavior:

To say that someone is an adult is to say that he is entitled, for example, to a wide-ranging freedom of lifestyle and to a full participation in the making of social decisions; and it is also to say that he is obliged, among other things, to be mindful of his own deepest interests and to carry a full share of the burdens involved in conducting society and transmitting its benefits. His adulthood consists in his full enjoyment of such rights and his full submission to such responsibilities. Those people (in most societies, the large majority) to whom we ascribe the status of adults may and do evince the wisest possible variety of intellectual gifts, physical powers, character traits, beliefs, tastes, and habits. But we correctly deem them to be adults because, in virtue of their age, we are justified in requiring them to evince the basic qualities of maturity. Adults are not necessarily mature. But they are supposed to be mature, and it is on this necessary supposition that their adulthood judiciously rests.

In analyzing the term adulthood, Paterson attempts to arrive at the essence of its meaning that is, to the extent possible, culture-free. An existentialist approach to adulthood would involve attention to the qualities and predicaments unique to humans. As Greene notes in Teacher as Stranger, "Acquainted with all the empirical data (if that were conceivable), capable of adjusting one construct to another, the teacher would still have to ask, 'Who am I?' and 'How am I to conceive the other—that child, that colleague, that man?'" Humanistic psychologists such as Maslow and Rogers stress the idea that adulthood is a process rather than a condition, a process in which men and women continually strive toward self-actualization and self-fulfillment.

The concept of adulthood is intrinsically related to the question of whether adult education is fundamentally different from education in general. The disagreement between Knowles and Houle over whether there is a distinct art and science of teaching adults to be termed andragogy implies an important definitional problem. One can emphasize the commonality of the educative process regardless of the clientele, as do Houle and others from various philosophical persuasions. Behaviorists, for example, are more concerned with arranging for reinforcement in the environment to bring about desired results than with whether the learners are children or adults. On the other hand, Knowles makes a case for approaching the educational process differently because one is dealing
with adults rather than children. Others differentiate adult from child education on the basis of the centrality of socialization in the educational process. Paterson, for example, finds adult education a neutral process because it does not require the transmission of attitudes and development of character as is the case in the education of children.

In summary, the concepts of adult education and adulthood can be approached philosophically. One’s assumptions about these concepts affect both practice and theory. Viewing adulthood as a process rather than a state, for example, leads to seeing education as a vehicle for individual development. Likewise, conceiving of adult education as a process of consciousness raising entails a special view of the student-teacher relationship. These practical issues of content and curriculum, teacher-learner roles, and instructional methodology will be explored more fully in this chapter, as they evolve logically from the different views of the purpose of adult education.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

“The most important issue confronting educators and educational theorists,” state Kohlberg and Meyer, “is the choice of ends for the instructional process.” One’s attitude, one’s choice of content and methodology, one’s view of the learner and of the teacher logically evolve from what one considers to be the overall purpose of the educational process. Just as there exists no single philosophy of adult education, there is no single purpose around which all adult educators rally. A wide range of purposes, goals, and objectives has been characteristic of the field from the beginning of the movement. In Adult Education in Action, published in 1958, for example, 18 prominent educators, social scientists, and philosophers wrote about the need for adult education. The amazing variety of responses warrants reproducing the list of topics and authors. "We need adult education," they wrote,

To Educate the Whole Man
To Keep Our Minds Open
To Base Our Judgments on Facts
To Meet the Challenge of Free Choice
To Keep Afloat of New Knowledge
To Be Wisely Destructive
To Return to Creative Endeavor
To Prepare for New Occupations

L. P. Jacks
Nicholas Murray Butler
Newton D. Baker
Dorothy Canfield Fisher
William F. Ogburn
A. E. Heath
John Erskine
Charles A. Beard
To Restore Unity to Life
To Insure Social Stability
To Direct Social Change
To Better Our Social Order
To Open a New Frontier
To Liberalize the College Curriculum
To Improve Teachers and Teaching
To Attain True Security
To Enlarge Our Horizons
To See the View

This list is representative of the several philosophical orientations from which it is possible to view the field of adult education. Purposes such as those listed are easily subsumed into several streams of educational ideology. Kohlberg and Meyer have identified three broad categories of educational thought: (1) romanticism, which stresses health, growth, and nurture of the inner self; (2) cultural transmission, which emphasizes the transmission of a culture’s knowledge, values, and skills; and (3) progressivism, which focuses on practical problem solving for improving a person’s life in society. Erskine’s response above, “To Return to Creative Endeavor” exemplifies the personal growth in romanticism, while “To Educate the Whole Man” and “To Better Our Social Order” are representative of cultural transmission and progressivism respectively. Other schemata such as Apple’s five categories of essentialism, perennialism, progressivism, reconstructionism, and existentialism or Elias and Merriam’s framework of liberal education, progressivism, humanistic education, behaviorism, radicalism, and philosophical analysis might also provide bases for viewing the purposes of adult education.

Both the diversity and interrelatedness of philosophical orientations can be seen through an analysis of the overall aims and objectives of adult education. Using the purposes of adult education as the basis for organizing the philosophical literature, it becomes apparent that there are at least five different emphases. The cultivation of the intellect, which draws on both liberal education and philosophical analysis, is one aim of adult educators. Societal advancement, a second aim, is often seen as a product of individual growth. A third clustering consists of educators influenced by the progressive education movement. For these, the aim of adult education is both personal growth and the maintenance and promotion of a better society. Fourth are the radicals who assign education a crucial role in bringing about a change in the social order. Finally, organizational effectiveness is the aim of adult education activities.
sponsored by employers in both the public and private sectors. Following is a discussion of the purposes of adult education based upon these differing emphases.

The Cultivation of the Intellect

The British philosophers K. H. Lawson and R. W. K. Paterson have introduced American adult educators to the notion that education should be valued for its own sake and considered apart from social goals and social action. The problem inherent in linking educational aims to social values becomes particularly acute in a pluralistic society where there is a difference of opinion as to what ends are most desirable. Brody made this point in Aims of Adult Education: A Realist's View. There is a problem, he says, in preparing people to live the good life because there is no agreement as to what constitutes the good life. Likewise, the "social roles" approach, or attempting to teach people to play certain roles more effectively in society, produces a dangerous conformity to the view of the institutions that have defined those roles.26

Paterson, in an article devoted to the issue of social change as the aim of adult education, underscores what he sees as the inadequacy of this approach. The danger is twofold: the field of adult education will be turned into either "a political arena [as in an open democratic society] in which social, economic, and political questions loom larger than educational questions," or into "a political closed shop."27 It is not a prerogative, argues Paterson, of any one professional group such as educators or doctors to promote social change. Adult education should neither promote social change, "whether gentle and piecemeal or radical and sweeping," nor defend the status quo. The field cannot, he says, "take sides on any social questions."28

Paterson does, however, draw a distinction between the use of adult education for social ends and the social value of education. If adult education is conceived of as a "tool or instrument to be used as employers think fit," then "the education of adults has and can have no social purpose or social relevance."29 If, however, adult education is conceived of as "an intrinsic element or essential ingredient in any society that is genuinely worth building and preserving," then "the education of adults fulfills a most vital social purpose and is always of the keener relevance."29

Lawson also rejects social change as a function of adult education. Besides the argument that education is or should be inherently neutral, Lawson also points out the practical consideration that if adult education were to become involved in social causes, it would run the risk of not receiving adequate public funds for its management.29
What then is the proper aim of education? For Paterson the proper aim of adult education is to transmit knowledge that is "educationally worthwhile." Education, he says, is the "fearless transmission of truth," which is "morally, socially, and politically neutral." Adult education should be designed to bring about a deepened awareness, "a meaningful touch with reality," which is accomplished by building up in a person "rich and coherent bodies of worthwhile knowledge." Paterson discusses what constitutes "worthwhile knowledge":

It is the cognitive value of any piece of knowledge, that is, its intrinsic value as knowledge, which determines its educational value. It is not in its value as a means to economic advancement, either of the individual or of society as a whole, nor in its value as a means to the resolving of social problems, however grave or momentous, but in its intrinsic value as knowledge, as part of the fabric of the knowing mind, part of the very fabric of personhood, to develop which is the defining purpose of education, that the educational value of any piece of knowledge consists. 34

Skills are included in the range of knowledge only if the skills are intrinsically worth learning and not merely instrumental. Overall, little attention is given to skills and affective learning in Paterson's discussion of objectives. An academic subject matter approach is central to his view of education. The subject matter of adult education involves nine different kinds of knowledge: mathematics, the physical sciences, history, the human sciences, languages, the arts, morals, religion, and philosophy. Paterson argues that the objective worth and richness of these disciplines has long been established and so they constitute "worthwhile" knowledge. 35

Lawson proposes justifying adult education as education. It is not related to social service, recreation, or community work, he says, and need not be justified in those terms. Adult education, he feels, "has a claim to public support" purely because "it is a system of teaching and learning." 36 Like Paterson, Lawson contends that adult education does not need an external objective or purpose. It is enough to concentrate on the tasks intrinsic to adult education. Developing the rationality of human beings, educating them "because (they are) judged to be important" is justification enough. Developing the human being, Lawson writes, "serves the purpose of developing society, but it is a purpose internal to the concept of education and not one which is outside it." 37

Lawson also agrees with Paterson about the content of adult education. Content consists of knowledge that is "publicly accredited, socially worthwhile, and any activity which contributes to the development of rational minds." While seeming to prefer the traditional liberal studies conception of content, Lawson does make a case for the learning of skills as a legitimate form of knowledge within adult education. Yet his
inclusion of craft subjects and skills is based on reducing these to a form of knowledge and intelligent behavior. Insofar as the learning of skills demands intelligence, these can be considered adult education activities. A craft qualifies as education insofar as it is a "system of skills, criteria, values, and cognitive knowledge."  

The view the two British philosophers hold of the educational objectives of adult education is consistent with their analysis of the concept of education. If the cognitive, rational, and intellectual dimensions of the educational process are the only dimensions worthy of being called education, then only those objectives that foster these forms of development can be appropriate for adult education. It is not that these analysts believe other objects and forms of human activity are not worthwhile, it is only that they feel they should not be classified under adult education. They believe that confusion arises when adult education is used as the umbrella term to embrace all types of learning activities. When it is so used it is difficult, in their opinion, to give an educational justification for the field of adult education.

In identifying adult education with the transmission of "neutral" knowledge, and thus primarily liberal studies, Paterson and Lawson support a traditional view of the roles of teachers and learners and the instructional process. For Lawson, the task of teachers in adult education is to make the choice about those things that are educationally worthwhile. The learners are of necessity subordinate to the teachers. Unless students are to be confined to what they already know, teachers are essential for introducing "learners to things beyond themselves." It is the role of adult educators to identify what the learners do not know and to determine learning goals. The learners, because they lack knowledge in this new area, are not capable of setting goals. Rather, the learners enter into a contract of sorts in which they are "temporarily giving up [their] freedom to choose in favor of being guided, criticized, and tested according to the standards of a discipline of some kind beyond [themselves]." Lawson thus prefers a teacher-centered approach. A student-centered approach is inadequate because it assumes "that the input provided by equals is sufficient . . . for the educational process to begin." It also assumes that the members of a group are sufficiently articulate and possess an adequate vocabulary and conceptual framework to enable them to conduct a meaningful discussion. If these conditions are met then the validity of the student-centered approach can perhaps be recognized, but it seems to require a group of "educated" people in order to make it work.  

Paterson, recognizing that he is "flying in the face of much recent thinking, in both philosophy and educational theory," also emphasizes "the subject matter of knowledge rather than the procedures." To
emphasize procedures rather than the body of knowledge itself obscures and distorts a great deal more than it clarifies and explains. A body of knowledge is not a creation ex nihilo by a consortium of imaginative methodologists. It is not a cobweb spun by the human mind out of its own resources." 

In summary, a curriculum emphasizing liberal studies and a teacher-centered instructional methodology are logical extensions of these two philosophical analyses’ view of adult education. The aim, for them, is the development of rationality, which is assisted by the transmission of educationally worthwhile knowledge. Education stands independent of its social context and thus needs no socially relevant purpose. Partly because of its claim of neutrality, and partly because of its liberal studies bias, the view held by Paterson and Lawson has not been widely accepted by American adult educators. Many raise the troubling question of whether any programmatic decision can be neutral or value-free. Likewise, adult education in North America is widely conceived of as encompassing a range of subjects, skills, procedures, practices, aims, and objectives.

While philosophically at the opposite end of the spectrum, Paterson and Lawson have in common with those who advocate radical social change as the goal of education a singular focus and prescribed methods for bringing about their desired ends. The next two sections of this chapter present the schools of educational thought that represent the mainstream of adult educational thinking today.

Individual Self-Actualization

Those who write from an humanistic or an existentialist position focus upon individual self-actualization as the principal aim of adult education. Underlying their approach is the belief that human beings are inherently good and possess the power for achieving the good life. Based upon the assumption of innate goodness and personal freedom in this orientation, the purpose of education becomes the development of persons—persons who are open to change and continued learning, persons who strive for self-actualization, and persons who can live together as fully functioning individuals. The focus is upon the individual learner rather than upon content and upon the affective rather than cognitive aspects of education.

A number of educators, psychologists, and philosophers have written in support of personal development as the major purpose of education. Humanistic psychologists Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers see education as a means of fostering self-actualizing and fully functioning individuals. The overall goal of education, Maslow states, is “helping the person to become the best he is able to become.” Among adult educators, Knowles is a prominent advocate of this goal of adult education. For him
the learning process involves the whole being, emotional and psychological as well as intellectual. It is the mission of adult educators, then, to assist adults in developing their full potential. Andragogy, the art and science of helping adults learn, is a methodology for facilitating this end. Knowles’s philosophy of education is characterized by a concern for the development of person, a deep conviction as to the worth of every individual, and faith that people will make the right decisions for themselves if given the necessary information and support. It gives precedence to growth of people over the accomplishment of things when these two values are in conflict. It emphasizes the release of human potential over the control of human behavior.

In an earlier publication Knowles speaks of the aim of adult education as being to help adults become liberated. He speaks of a model of a ”free man” but this is not a stereotypic model, since each individual defines what he will be when free.” All adult educators can rally around this common aim, he feels, because it allows for any type of adult education as long as the individual sees it as liberating. Society does not enter into the process except as a vehicle for providing a full range of choices to a potential participant.

Among the writers who view the purpose of adult education primarily as self-development are those influenced by existential philosophy. They emphasize the educational task of assisting a feeling, suffering, rejoicing free person to fashion his or her essence or character. The primary aim of adult education is to help in the development of responsible selfhood in the face of the complexities and problems of modern life. Brodny sees humanity caught in an “existential or cultural predicament,” between the demands of a modern system of mass production and the democratic commitment to individual freedom and development. The aim of adult education, he says, is to make every adult aware of this predicament and his or her role in it. Adults who are sensitive to their predicament will then commit themselves to “self-cultivation.”

McKenzie sees the aim of adult education as more than the recognition of one’s predicament in modern society. Adult education should also foster a courageous spirit among individual learners. It should, he believes, facilitate the development of a proactive, self-directed adult who will be responsible for the evolution of a more enlightened human existence.

Whether writing from an existentialist or a humanistic orientation, these philosophers see the focus of adult education as upon individual growth and development. This emphasis in turn strongly influences their views of the nature of the curriculum or content of adult education, the roles of teacher and learner, and the instructional process.
The basic philosophic question that underlies content selection is a consideration of the source of knowledge. For those who see the aim of adult education as personal development, the source of knowledge lies in experience itself. The act of learning is highly personal. An individual learns what he or she perceives to be necessary, important, or meaningful. The "knowledge" one gleans from content depends upon one's own experiences, goals, interests, attitudes, and beliefs. Knowledge, for example, maintains that the content itself is unimportant; what is crucial is the "effect upon the learner." 46

For those who place greater emphasis upon the goal of education as the transmission of culture or the passing on of a specified body of knowledge, a liberal arts curriculum is highly valued. Such a curriculum, however, is not necessarily incompatible with the self-development aim of education. Kallen, who views education as a liberating experience, advocates liberal studies as a means of achieving liberation. 47 Simpson and Gray point out that the humanities—philosophy, literature, history, ethics, language, and social studies—"have traditionally been concerned with the person—the individual—and the eternal, existential question of relationships among persons, universes, gods, and dreams." 48 Indeed, specific liberal education curricula such as the Great Books program attempt to assist persons to grow intellectually, morally, and esthetically.

While studying the social, political, religious, and philosophical values of other ages and cultures might contribute to the development of the self, examining one's own values, attitudes, and emotions is equally valued. With youth, such an emphasis finds expression in the evaluation of moral dilemmas and in attempts to develop acceptable values and attitudes. In adult education, values clarification workshops, encounter groups, transactional analysis, and human potential workshops exemplify the emphasis.

Teaching of content, then, is not, in this viewpoint, the goal of the educational process. The focus is upon the individual learner rather than upon a body of information. Subject matter, or a curriculum, serves as a vehicle that, if creatively employed, can lead to self-development. According to one writer, "teaching subject matter in a more humane way" is one of two foci in this type of education. The second is that of "educating the nonintellectual or affective aspects of the student, that is, developing persons who understand themselves, who understand others, and who can relate to others." 49

If one accepts personal development as the aim of adult education, then content is secondary to process, the student becomes the center of the experience, the teacher assumes the role of facilitator, and learning occurs through experimentation and discovery. Philosophical assumptions of individual freedom, responsibility, and natural goodness underlie the student-centered aspect of this approach. Arbitrary decisions about
curriculum and methodology violate the individual student's ability to identify his or her own learning needs. The responsibility for learning is placed on the student—the student is free to learn what he or she wants to learn in the manner desired.

The role of the teacher is that of facilitator, helper, and partner in the learning process. The teacher does not simply provide information; he or she must create the conditions within which learning can take place. In order to facilitate, one must trust students to assume responsibility for their learning. This is a difficult stance to accept for the traditional teacher, for it necessitates abdicating the authority generally ascribed to the teaching role.

Knowles proposes andragogy, a technology of learning especially suited to adults in which the teacher is a facilitator who aids adults in becoming self-directed learners.\(^5\) For McKenzie, the teacher of adults allows learners to free themselves from historical determinism in order to become liberated and courageous people.\(^6\) The teacher of adults can facilitate the process by serving as a resource person, by encouraging students to set their own goals, and by refusing to weave a fabric of destiny which controls absolutely the course of events in the learning situation, by refusing to play God in writing a lesson plan that is perceived as a providential design for the learners, by refusing to carve out in stone the rules for the "historical" development of the learning situation.\(^7\)

While group activity is the instructional technique favored in bringing about individual growth, Rogers specifies several other "methods of building freedom" a teacher might employ in encouraging self-directed learning. The facilitator can provide "all kinds of resources which will give his students experiential learning relevant to their needs" and use student contracts, simulation games, and even programmed instruction, especially that which addresses affective as well as cognitive dimensions.\(^8\)

Those who espouse individual self-actualization as the primary aim of adult education are often aware of the constraints involved in transforming this ideal into practice. McKenzie, for example, asks whether "self-directed learning in educational groups" is "always and in every circumstance possible or even desirable."\(^9\) The answer of course is that one must consider factors such as time constraints, organizational expectations, group size, and so on. As McKenzie observes, "I must grapple not only with ideas in the confines of my ivory tower but also with the application of these ideas in a less-than-perfect, and certainly complex, real world."\(^9\) Those who value individual growth and development as the aim of education can, however, guide their practice toward this end by emphasizing process over content, the adult as the center of the experience, teacher as facilitator, and group interaction as the primary vehicle for learning.
Personal and Social Improvement

In contradistinction to those who see the aim of adult education as cultivation of the intellect or personal fulfillment, and those who advocate using education to bring about social change, are the philosophers and educators who emphasize the individual within the social context. In the opinion of one such scholar, the major issue of adult education revolves around the relation of the individual to the groups with which he lives and of which he is a part. Writers who emphasize the personal development aim of education concede that the more self-actualized adults we have, the better our society. But this salutary outcome is a by-product of educating individuals, not a goal in itself. Educators influenced by progressivism, however, see education as having a dual function of promoting individual growth and maintaining and/or promoting the good society.

In analyzing the role of adult education in society, Hallenbeck points out that the individual learner and the society cannot be separated. And while adult education’s primary concern might be to help individual adults to grow and develop, "what adults want to learn and are constrained to learn... is generated by the social milieu in which they live. Their interests, their needs, their problems, and their ambitions are products of their environment." Broudy underscores this idea with the observation that if the emphasis in education is solely upon individual growth, then "the problem of aims in adult education becomes, so far as the educator is concerned, a problem of means; in short, the problem disappears."

Aside from learning what the social milieu determines they will learn, adults have a responsibility to the society in which they live, according to Hallenbeck. In speaking of an adult learner’s responsibility towards society and society’s changing circumstances, Hallenbeck has defined what it means to be an adult. This notion of reciprocal responsibility was also pointed out by Lindeman in The Meaning of Adult Education. "Knowing-behavior," he says, "is social in two directions: it takes others into account and it calls forth more intelligent responses from others." If adult learners want their "intellectual alertness" to "count for something... they will be as eager to improve their collective enterprises, their groups, as they are to improve themselves."

In sketching its historical roles, Hallenbeck observes that society has emphasized adult education in times of social crisis and has turned to it when adjustments to social changes have been necessary. He concludes that the basic aims of adult education are:

- to maintain an adult population up to the standards of competence in the knowledge, wisdom, and skill which society requires, to develop in adults an understanding of the serious problems which interrupt the operations and
progress of their cooperative society and prepare them to participate in the solution of these problems; and to provide all adults with opportunities for their highest possible development in attitudes, understanding, knowledge, and quality of human existence toward the goal of the greater self-fulfillment and realization of each individual human being.63

Fifteen years after the above was published, Jerold Apps delineated four purposes of continuing education that again reflect both personal and social dimensions. The overall goal of "enhancing the quality of human life" more specifically consists of:

1. helping people acquire the tools for physical, psychological, and social survival;
2. helping people discover a sense of meaning in their lives;
3. helping people learn how to learn;
4. helping communities [societies] provide a more humane social, psychological, and physical environment for their members.63

The relationship between adult education and social responsibility has been most clearly articulated by Lindeman and Bergevin. These two adult educators were influenced by the progressive education movement and its chief proponent, John Dewey. Their views on the purpose of adult education can be better understood given some familiarity with Dewey and progressive ideals.

The progressive movement attempted to respond to the social changes occurring as a result of mass immigration and industrialization in the early decades of the twentieth century. In the face of severe social, political, and economic upheavals, many people put great faith in the power of education to solve them. Programs from kindergarten through high school, as well as in adult education, were developed to socialize the new immigrants, ameliorate the social ills brought about by rapid urbanization, train workers and leaders needed for the growing industrial society, and contribute to the development of a democracy without corruption. The highest ideal of the progressive movement was education for democracy. Thus, the goals of education the progressives held were both individual and social. Liberating the learner released the potential for the improvement of society and culture.

Dewey felt that education had a role in social reform and reconstruction. He felt that education would flourish if it took place in a democracy, but democracy would develop only if there were true education. He defined democratic societies as intentionally progressive and aimed at a greater variety of mutually shared interests. Since greater freedom was allowed their members there was a need to develop a social consciousness in individuals. Thus, for Dewey, a democratic society was committed to change. A democracy, he wrote, "is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communication experi-
ence. Dewey saw the goals of education primarily in social terms. A democratic education, he felt, would produce a society that was constantly in a state of growth and development.

Lindeman's *The Meaning of Adult Education* was strongly influenced by Dewey and the progressivism of the 1920s. While emphasizing individual growth and a situation-approach to learning, Lindeman viewed humans as social beings. Thus, he said, adult education should be aimed at improving the individual's life in society. Education allows adults to cope with and function in a changing social milieu:

Adult education will become an agency of progress if its short-time goal of self-improvement can be made compatible with a long-time, experimental but resolute policy of changing the social order. Changing individuals in continuous adjustment to changing social functions—this is the bilateral though unified purpose of adult learning.45

Lindeman did not merely advocate using education to cope with social change. Adult education, he felt, should also contribute to social action:

Adult education turns out to be the most reliable instrument for social actionists. If they learn how to educate the adherents of their movement, they can continue to utilize the compelling power of a group and still remain within the scope of democratic behavior. When they substitute something other than intelligence and reason, social action emanates as sheer power and soon degenerates into habits which tend toward an anti-democratic direction. Every social-action group should at the same time be an adult-education group, and I go even so far as to believe that all successful adult education groups sooner or later become social-action groups.46

Even more concerned with adult education's duty to promote the democratic way of life is Paul Bergerin. Bergerin sees adult education as essential in contributing to what he calls "the civilizing process." The civilizing process has both an individual and a societal dimension. At the individual level, the civilizing process refers to a person's "maturer" from a "mere survival" state to become a "responsible member of the social order." At the societal level, the civilizing process is a "corporate, social movement involving the whole of society, as it moves from barbarism toward refinement in behavior, tastes, and thought."47 Adult education, then, consists of

- a consciously elaborated program aiding and reinforcing the civilizing process. The overall aim of the professional or lay adult educator, then, will be to bring each of us into some kind of constructive relationship with the civilizing process, always remembering that this process should represent those positive elements in environment and society that help us develop mature rationality in our lives and institutions.48
For Bergevin, the continuing education of adults is essential in preserving and enhancing a democratic way of life. It is a necessity, a "built-in requirement of a society emerging from control by the few to control by the many." Bergevin recognizes the validity of presenting "the adult the opportunity to advance as a maturing individual," but it should always come within the context of helping him or her to learn "how to contribute his share to the civilizing process." For Bergevin, the individual cannot be separated from the surrounding society. The positive environment behind the individual allows societies to progress. Self-development is important in that it leads to being better members of society.

In exploring the role of education in social change, Blakely, like Bergevin, delineated both an individual and a social dimension to adult education. "Education," Blakely feels, "leads to a better, more fulfilling personal life, while at the same time making a better citizenry and a better world." While Bergevin speaks of the "civilizing process," Blakely sees education as working towards a "homeodynamic society"—that is, a society in which a balance is achieved between cultural components that imitate the past and components that invent the future. Survival of individuals and society depends upon achieving this balance.

When the aim of adult education is individual development within, but having an influence upon, the social context, the curriculum, the role of the teacher and student, and the instructional process function to bring about both individual and social ends. Yet this aim also seems to result in ambivalence on these issues for some of its advocates. Bergevin, for example, at one point emphasizes the need to develop the liberal arts curriculum in order "to show a relationship to the adult's own needs and to show what is meant by such ideas as responsibility for one another, freedom, discipline, and a free society." At another point he says that although sometimes certain "subjects—history, mathematics, arts, etc.—are useful," programs "should be developed around the particular problems and needs of the participants." In yet another place he states that adult educators must be "concerned about the indigenous nature of the learning program" guided by the "peculiar problems at hand in terms of the particular adults involved." It is difficult to determine whether Bergevin views content as a specific body of knowledge to be transmitted or as that which is established to meet individual needs, or as both. His writing reflects a conflict between the value of having the learner determine content and the value of learning an established body of knowledge that can further the civilizing process.

The determination of appropriate content in adult education relates to basic assumptions about the nature of knowledge. Dewey, Lindeman, and other progressives see knowledge as inseparable from ever-changing experience. Knowledge is equated with experience, experience that is
reflected upon and that forms the basis for further learning. Dewey defined education as the reconstruction and reorganization of experience, which increases one's ability to direct the course of subsequent experience. It is both active and passive. That is, education or experience is not just what happens to a person, but also what that person does. It is, more precisely, the interaction of the individual with the environment.  

Lindeman echoes the notion of education as both passive and active. "My conception of adult education," he says, "points toward a continuing process of evaluating experiences. . . . Experience is, first of all, doing something; second, doing something that makes a difference; third, knowing what difference it makes." This process of evaluating experience is engaged in by both learner and teacher. The teacher who functions from this perspective is "doing philosophy" in the words of Maxine Greene. "To do philosophy," she states, "is to become highly conscious of the phenomena and events in the world as it presents itself to consciousness." To do educational philosophy is "to become critically conscious of what is involved in the complex business of teaching and learning." 

This emphasis upon the critical reflection of experiences can be contrasted to the importance in traditional education of books that report the experiences of other people. The progressives felt that the learners' own experiences were an equally valid basis for education. Lindeman criticizes conventional education in which "knowledge is conceived to be a precipitation, a sediment of the experience of others." It is a brave teacher "who dares to reveal his special subject in the context of the whole of life and learning." Greene also addresses this issue:

The teacher can no longer simply accept what is transmitted by "experts" and feel he is properly equipped to interpret the world. He cannot even rely on the authority of accumulated knowledge or the conventional wisdom on which so many people depend. He must make decisions of principle, which may make necessary a definition of new principles, more relevant norms and rules. Therefore, he must become accustomed to unconventional presentation of situations around him, to ways of talking with which textbooks cannot do. 

The content of education deemed appropriate by a particular school of thought is thus closely linked to how the school conceives knowledge itself. For progressive educators, knowledge is experience which is both reflected and acted upon by the learner. Specific content becomes subordinated to the developing of skills to evaluate experience. The method becomes the focus of the instructional process. In one of his few allusions to specific content, Lindeman does note that to confront "properly" situations one should use as much as possible the "relevant experience of others . . . experience which has been stored away in books and that which comes freshly from researchers and expert knowledge."
Educators who are equally concerned with individual and societal development see education as intimately related to its social context and the learner's everyday life and experiences. All of life becomes the curriculum. Education is thus not restricted to schooling but includes all those incidental and intentional activities that society uses to pass on values, attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Education in this view becomes extensive. It includes the work of many institutions of society: family, work, school, churches, and in fact the entire community. Lawrence Cremin echoes this progressive notion in asserting that "every family has a curriculum . . . every church and synagogue has a curriculum . . . every employer has a curriculum and so forth." Dewey broadly conceived of education as a lifelong experience:

Education must be reconceived, not as merely a preparation for maturity (whence our absurd idea that it should stop after adolescence) but as a continuous growth of the mind and a continuous illumination of life. In a sense, the school can give us only the instrumentalities of mental growth; the rest depends upon an absorption and interpretation of experience. Real education comes after we leave school and there is no reason why it should stop before death.

The content of education, while secondary to method, was in fact broadened by the progressives to include the practical, pragmatic, and utilitarian. Knowledge of and training in practical skills helps both individuals and society. Curriculum that is both liberal and practical reconciles, in Dewey's words, "liberal nurture with training in social serviceableness, with ability to share effectively and happily in occupations which are productive." Dewey advocated doing away with the dualism in education and establishing a curriculum that reflected the needs of work and leisure, including the humanities and the sciences, the liberal and the pragmatic.

The methodology most favored by educators who stress the interrelationship of the individual and society is the scientific method of arriving at knowledge. Also termed problem solving, project methods, or the activity method, this approach involves several steps. As described by Dewey and others, the process entails the clarification of a problem to be solved, the development of ideas or hypotheses about this problem, and the testing of these hypotheses by an examination of evidence. Progressives felt that this method could be used in most subject areas and that it was based on the natural inclination of the learner to grapple with problems. This experimental method was seen as a vehicle with which to discover the truths about one's world.

Lindeman advocates the situation-approach to learning and states that "the best teaching method is one that emerges from situation experiences." Every adult person," Lindeman writes, "finds himself in
specific situations with respect to his work, his recreation, his family-life, et cetera—situations which call for adjustments. Adult education begins at this point." This approach involves: (1) a recognition of what constitutes the situation; (2) an analysis of the situation as a set of manageable parts or problems; (3) discussion of the problems in light of other people's experiences and available information; (4) use of information and experience to formulate tentative solutions; and, finally, (5) acting upon a solution.  

Benne also has proposed an experimental methodology. In arguing the merits of various philosophical approaches to methodology, he concludes that "a broadened method must be an experimental method, rather than a method of authority, of intuition, of deduction, or of induction." In this experimental view, learning is a "series of experiments with respect to problems encountered and constructed." Benne sees the preferred methodology in adult education as problem solving, for "programs of learning for adults must be adjusted to the learners, to the problems they need solved, to the situations confronting them."  

In the experimental, problem solving, or situation approach to learning, the relationship of teacher and student is perhaps best characterized as a partnership. The progressives opposed viewing the teacher as the sole source of knowledge, whose task was to put, or as Freire would have it, "bank," knowledge into the minds of students. In an educational theory that views the learning of subject matter or academic disciplines as the heart of the educational effort, the "banking" concept is functional. But if education is seen as the progressives viewed it—as the reconstruction of experiences through interactive processes with one's environment—then the traditional view of the teacher-learner relationship is inadequate.

Learning, according to Dewey, is something that students do for themselves. The teacher's responsibility is to organize, stimulate, instigate, and evaluate the highly complex processes of education. The teacher provides a setting that is conducive to learning. In so doing, the teacher also becomes a learner, for the relationships between teacher and learners are reciprocal. Both should plan and learn from each other. The teacher is neither totally directive nor totally passive. Rather, in Dewey's words, "the teacher is a learner, and the learner is, without knowing it, a teacher, and upon the whole the less consciousness there is, on either side, of either giving or receiving instruction, the better." While seeing learning as based in personal experiences of the learner, teachers could also share with learners insights that had come from their own experiences.

Landesman, obviously influenced by Dewey, stated that in adult education

the teacher finds a new function. He is no longer the oracle who speaks from the platform of authority, but rather the guide, the pointer-out, who also
participates in learning in proportion to the vitality and relevance of his facts
and experiences.\textsuperscript{90}

The role of the teacher in progressive thought as helper, consultant,
or encourager is, in some ways, similar to the facilitator role in
humanistic education. There are, however, subtle differences. When
personal development is the primary aim of adult education, the teacher's
role is primarily supportive in allowing individuals to unfold, mature, and
grow. When individual and social action are the goals, the role of teacher
involves a more active partnership with the learner. Cognitive, affective,
and skill development are stressed equally as they relate to the individu-
al's social context and to the enhancement of the social order in general.
Again, Lindeman expresses this notion when he characterizes the adult
educational process as

\textit{a cooperative venture in nonauthoritarian, informal learning, the chief
purpose of which is to discover the meaning of experience, a quest of the
mind which digs down to the roots of the preoccupations which formulate
our conduct; a technique of learning for adults which makes education
coterminous with life and hence elevates living itself to the level of
adventurous experiment.}\textsuperscript{91}

This active, cooperative role of teacher is also emphasized by
Bergevin and Benne. Bergevin advocates treating the adult as a "full
partner in the educational enterprise." Through inclusion in every stage
of the programming process, adult students learn social skills that will
serve to advance the civilizing process. Besides content, participants
learn "how to accept and discharge responsibility and how to work with
others."\textsuperscript{92} For Benne, the role of teacher has three dimensions: the
helper who furnishes a model of "learner", the expert who knows more
about that which is being studied than the learner, and the therapist who
removes attitudinal blocks to learning. Perhaps the most novel part of
Benne's view of the teacher is the role of helper-model in which the
learner emulates the helper's evaluative approach to knowledge.\textsuperscript{93}

Thus, individual growth in conjunction with social development is for
many adult educators the primary function of adult education. While not
rejecting what Kohlberg and Mayer term "romanticism"—that is, the
unfolding of the inner self—educators such as Dewey, Lindeman, and
Bergevin maintain that the individual and the social context are insepara-
ble. Education stimulates the learner's interaction with the environment
while society simultaneously influences the learner's needs, desires, and
motivation to learn. Improving individuals through education leads to a
better society—indeed, the direction of personal development is with the
overall social goal in mind. This goal leads to a specific view of the
instructional process. Kohlberg and Mayer summarize the natural affilia-
tion between the aim of progressive education and the method.
Social Transformation

The progressive educators view adult education as a means of creating a more desirable society while maintaining basic democratic values. The relationship of adult education to society also is the central concern of the radical philosophers and educators. Their emphasis, however, is on using education to bring about a new social order. Thomas and Harrises-Jenkins provide a framework for conceptualizing the different philosophical stances with regard to adult education's role in social change. At one extreme is the view that education "must . . . challenge established economic, political, and social assumptions"; at the other extreme is the desire to preserve inherited cultural traditions and protect the status quo. The authors label these two positions as "revolution" and "conservation." Between these two positions are the less extreme views of "reform" and "maintenance." 

Clearly, in advocating radical social change as the aim of education, thinkers such as Freire, Ilich, Reimer, and Counts fall into Thomas and Harrises-Jenkins's category of revolution. The very nature of a radical approach to education involves both criticizing existing practices and advancing visions of a better society. In making its criticisms and presenting its visions, the radical tradition questions the basic values, structures, and practices of society. Every area of social life is touched—family, schooling, work, religion, and economic and political systems. This section will first look at the radicals' criticisms of society and education and then examine their vision of education's role in bringing about a new social order.

With the exception of Freire, the main concern of radicals has been with public schooling. Many of their criticisms and proposals are applicable to adult education, however, especially given the ever-increasing institutionalization of adult education. Ivan Ilich, prominent in the radical education movement of the 1960s and 1970s, writes from an anarchist philosophical position. As a social and political philosophy, anarchism raises fundamental questions about the role and nature of authorities in society. Moreover, since the eighteenth century its proponents have questioned the very existence of state systems of schooling and the possibility of nonauthoritarian forms of education. The anarchists oppose national systems of education because of their conviction that
education in the hands of the state would serve the political interests of those in control. The central concern of the anarchist tradition is to preserve, as much as possible, personal autonomy.

In numerous articles and books Illich has proposed the elimination of schools from society as the necessary condition for freeing people from their addiction to manipulative and oppressive institutions. Illich's criticism and rejection of schooling is based not so much on its failures as an institution, but on its central position in maintaining an overindustrialized and overconsumerized society. "We are all involved in schooling," he writes, "from both the side of production and that of consumption." We are supernaturally convinced that good learning can and should be produced in us—and that we can produce it in others. Our attempt to withdraw from the concept of school will reveal the resistance we find in ourselves when we try to renounce limitless consumption and the pervasive presumption that others can be manipulated for their own good. No one is fully exempt from the exploitation of others in the schooling process. 97

Illich points out that schools are not the only institutions that shape a person's "vision of reality." Family life, health care, professionalism, and the media have hidden curricula that manipulate one's "world-vision, language, and demands." But, he says,

school enslaves more profoundly and more systematically, since only school is credited with the principal function of forming critical judgement, and, paradoxically, tries to do so by making learning about oneself, about others, and about nature depend on a prepackaged process. School teaches us so intimately that none of us can expect to be liberated from it by something else. 98

Though Illich is principally a radical social critic, his views on education and learning are at the heart of his thinking. The type of learning that Illich espouses is one that promotes human freedom, equality, and close personal relationships. Unfortunately, in Illich's view, "the equal right of each man to exercise his competence to learn and to instruct is now pre-empted by certified teachers." 99 True learning, he says, is learning in which a person freely consents to participate. For Illich, no one has the right to interfere in the learning of another without that person's consent. He contends, in addition, that most learning is not the result of teaching, but rather is gathered incidentally as one participates in life. Teachers "may contribute to certain kinds of learning under certain circumstances. But most people acquire most of their knowledge outside school." 100 The learning that a person cannot gather incidentally from life and things can easily be appropriated from a skill master, a peer, or from books and other learning instruments.
The anarchist influence also can be seen in Ohliger’s stance against mandatory adult education and against the professionalization and institutionalization of the field. Ohliger has alleged that, increasingly, adult education institutions define people as inadequate, insufficient, lacking, and incomplete. Over the years he has kept watch over the number of courses that adults are required to take by law, regulation, or social pressure. His enumeration of the groups now involved in compulsory adult education is extensive:

traffic offenders and judges; parents of delinquents and public school teachers; librarians on welfare; nurses; pharmacists; physicians; optometrists; nursing home administrators; firemen; policemen; dentists; psychiatrists; dietitians; podiatrists; teachers; veterinarians; many municipal, state, provincial, and federal civil servants; employees of all types pressured into taking courses; classes, making sensitivity training or organizational development groups; and of course the military, where most, if not all, adult education is compulsory.

The institutionalization of adult education is the chief target of Ohliger’s criticism. Compulsory adult education has become pervasive in the health professions. Adult education has become more imbedded in the structure of the schooling establishment. Adult degrees, external degrees, and open learning for adults are means the educational establishment has developed for making education a commodity for thousands of adults. Ohliger echoes Illich when he asks:

As we seem to be moving toward a society in which adults are told more and more that they must consume official knowledge in lifelong learning, is it any wonder that we say that adult education is becoming an oppressive force that is taking over people’s lives?

While Illich and Ohliger find institutions and in particular compulsory education at any level oppressive, Freire speaks more to changing the world view, the mind-set, the consciousness of individuals. In his theory, societal liberation and individual liberation are interdependent. While the anarchist attempts to promote personal freedom and autonomy by removing education from state control, the Marxist humanist tradition, of which Freire is a part, attempts to produce the free and autonomous person through a revolutionary change from a capitalist political economy to a socialist state.

For Freire, a society that is dehumanizing and oppressive must be changed. True humanization takes place in the world only when each person becomes conscious of the social forces working upon him or her, reflects upon these forces, and acquires the capability to transform the world. To be human is to seek to guide one’s own destiny. To be free means knowing one’s identity and realizing how one has been shaped by
one's social world and environment. The opposite of humanization is dehumanization or oppression. The condition of oppression is what Freire calls the culture of silence, and such silence can come from either ignorance or oppressive education. Oppression for Freire means "any situation in which 'A' objectively exploits 'B' or hinders his pursuit of self-affirmation as a responsible person." Liberation of individuals and societies, in Freire's view, is a two-stage process:

In the first, the oppressed unveil the world of oppression and through the praxis commit themselves to its transformation. In the second stage, in which the reality of oppression has already been transformed, this pedagogy ceases to belong to the oppressed and becomes a pedagogy of all men in the process of permanent liberation."

Becoming aware of one's oppression, according to Freire, requires a movement through stages of consciousness. As described in his Education for Critical Consciousness, the lowest level is intransitive consciousness. This is the culture of silence that exists in the peasant societies of the Third World. Individuals are preoccupied with meeting elementary needs and do not comprehend the forces that have shaped their lives. Semi-intransitivity or magical consciousness is the second level and can be found in emerging societies of the Third World. Here, individuals have internalized the negative values that the dominant culture ascribes to them and are marked by excessive emotional dependence. The third level of consciousness, naive-transitiveness, occurs when people begin to experience reality as a problem and begin to sense that they have some control over their lives. The highest level of consciousness is critical consciousness, marked by depth in the interpretation of problems, self-confidence in discussions, responsibility, and dialogical discourse. Critical consciousness is brought about not through intellectual efforts alone, but through praxis, the authentic union of action and reflection. Education plays a crucial role in its emergence. "It will not appear," Freire says, "as a natural by-product of even major economic changes, but must grow out of a critical educational effort based on favorable historical conditions.""

While it is not possible to separate his political philosophy from his educational philosophy, Freire does address the inadequacy of traditional education for bringing about social change. For Freire, traditional education equals "banking education," in which learners receive and store mental deposits. Knowledge is seen as a gift bestowed on learners by the teacher. This type of education offends the freedom and autonomy of the learners. Banking education domesticates students for it emphasizes the transfer of existing knowledge to passive objects who must memorize and repeat this knowledge. Such education is a form of violence, for in imposing facts, ideas, and values it submerges the
consciousness of the students. This process alienates consciousness, as students are not involved in a real act of knowing but are given a ready-made view of social reality. Traditional education thus perpetuates individual and social oppression:

It follows logically from the banking notion of consciousness that the educator’s role is to regulate the way the world “enters into” the students. His task is to organize a process which already occurs spontaneously, to “fill” the students by making deposits of information which he considers to constitute true knowledge. And since men “receive” the world as passive entities, education should make them more passive still, and adapt them to the world. . . . Translated into practice, this concept is well suited to the purposes of the oppressors, whose tranquility rests on how well men fit the world the oppressors have created, and how little they question it.106

Radicals such as Illich and Freire criticize the educational system because they see it as perpetuating the evils of oppressive society, as dehumanizing, and as stifling individual freedom. Most radicals also offer a plan or alternative methodology that they envision will bring about personal and social liberation.

In rejecting schools as an instrument of education, for example, Illich does not fail to provide alternative arrangements for learning. Planning new educational institutions, he writes, starts not with the question of what should be learned but with the consideration of “What kinds of things and people might learners want to be in contact with in order to learn?”107 To this end he proposes four channels or learning exchanges or networks. Replacing schools, containing all the resources necessary for real learning, and capable of assisting both children and adults, these networks are:

1. reference services to educational objects—which facilitate access to things or processes used for formal learning, such as books, radios, microscopes, and television. These can be stored in libraries, laboratories, theaters, and so on;
2. skill exchanges—which permit persons to list their skills, and the conditions under which they are willing to serve as instructors;
3. peer-matching—a communications network which permits persons to describe the learning activity in which they wish to engage, and find a partner for the inquiry;
4. reference services to educators-at-large—who can be listed in a directory giving addresses and descriptions of services. Such educators could be chosen by consulting former clients.108

In place of the traditional banking form of education, Freire offers a dialogic and problem-posing education. Cultural action for freedom, as Freire calls it, is action in which a group of persons, through dialogue,
come to be aware of the concrete situation in which they live, the reasons for this situation, and its possible solutions. In order for action to be authentic, the participants must be free to create the curriculum along with the teacher. Freire’s problem-posing education is based upon respect, communication, and solidarity. For Freire, the only justifiable content is that which emanates from the learners. These views or opinions, “impregnated with anxieties, doubts, hopes, or hopelessness, imply significant themes on the basis of which the program content of education can be built.”110 Out of an existential dialogue come what Freire calls generative themes, and “to investigate the generative theme is to investigate man’s thinking about reality and man’s action upon reality.”111 Materials are prepared based upon these elicited themes, and “the themes which have come from the people return to them—not as contents to be deposited, but as problems to be solved.”112

Freire is careful to distinguish between problem-solving education and what he calls “problematizing” education. Problem solving is part of banking education and separates the person from the world or the world from the person. Problematizing, on the other hand, does not separate the person from the world, the teacher from the student, or knowing from action:

Problematization is so much a dialectic process that it would be impossible for anyone to begin it without becoming involved in it. No one can present something to someone else as a problem and at the same time remain a mere spectator of the process. She will be problematized even if methodologically speaking, she prefers to remain silent after posing the problem, while the educand capture, analyze, and comprehend it.113

Central to Freire’s educational revolution is a changed relationship between teacher and student. Insight into the learner’s world, into the state of oppression, comes about through the use of dialogue which he defines as “the encounter between men, mediated by the world, in order to name the world.”114 Dialogue presupposes “intense faith in man,” for, “found[ing] itself upon love, humility, and faith, dialogue becomes a horizontal relationship of which mutual trust between the dialoguers is the logical consequence.” It follows that the roles of the learner and the teacher involve a “horizontal relationship.” Teachers and students both teach and learn simultaneously, becoming participants and co-investigators in the dialogue.115 With dialogical encounter as the method and generic themes as the content, education becomes a task of praxis—combining reflective activity with action.

In terms of the aims and objectives of adult education, Freire’s major contribution lies in his marriage of education and political action. For him there is no such thing as neutral education. Education is either for domestication or for liberation. In Western thought, education is often
regarded as the public transmission of neutral information about the world. What is taught is presumed to be devoid of ideological content. In Freire’s analysis of the relationship between education and culture, it is culture that produces education and uses it for its own self-perpetuation. In fact, the assumptions of the culture are contained in the educational process. Education for Freire is inherently value-laden.

In summary, radical thinkers place great importance on the role of education in bringing about social change. The educational system as it now exists is, however, inadequate as a tool for change. Education must itself be transformed from that which perpetuates the social order and hence oppresses, to that which challenges the social system and thus liberates.

In practice, few educators advocate radical social transformation as the aim of adult education. This perspective does serve, however, to challenge traditional views of educational purpose and method. To the extent that radical social change is not equated with political revolution, the views of Freire and other radical theorists may well receive increasing attention from adult educators in the years ahead.

Organizational Effectiveness

The four emphases so far presented in our conceptualization of the philosophies of adult education around the field’s aims and objectives focus either upon the individual, as in the cultivation of the intellect and personal development, or upon the individual in conjunction with society, as with progressive and radical approaches. There exists yet another focus—organizational effectiveness. Adults employed by public and private agencies and organizations are involved in educational programs designed to achieve the organization’s goals. In the private sector, organizational and employee development programs are ultimately aimed at realizing greater profit; in the public sector the aim is enhancing service to the public.

Whatever the aim, organizations, Lefebvre points out, “have only two resources with which to accomplish goals and objectives—men and money. . . . The human resource . . . is the source for ideas, technical and professional skills, and know-how. With money we purchase land, buildings, equipment, and other materials needed.”113 The development of human resources for the purposes of enhancing an organization’s effectiveness has thus become one of the aims of adult education.

Training, education, and development are three terms commonly used in referring to this aspect of adult education. There is little agreement as to whether, or how, these concepts should be differentiated. In a recent book on management development and training, Watson uses training and education synonymously, stating that “people
ACT as integrated beings, whose knowledge, skills, and attitudes are interrelated and inseparable. To make a distinction between training and education is to ignore these interrelationships. However, he does distinguish between training (formal classroom learning activities) and development (all learning experiences, both on and off the job, including formal classroom training). Discussing the terms in their broader social context, Patton views education as socialization and "thus outside the purview of organizations." Development also is too broad a term because it is both a formal and informal process by which individuals learn. Within the organizational context, Patton favors training, defined as the "formal procedure which is used to facilitate employee learning so that their resultant behavior contributes to the organization's objectives." Training encompasses a wide range of activities from learning a simple motor skill through "developing attitudes toward intricate and controversial social issues." The most specific delineation of the three terms is made by Nadler. All three are subsumed under the umbrella of human resources development, which he defines as "a series of organized activities, conducted within a specified time and designed to bring about behavioral change." Differentiating among training, education, and development, Nadler injects a time dimension. Training thus includes activities "designed to improve performance on the job the employee is presently doing or is being hired to do." Education prepares an employee for a place in the organization different from the one now held. While the goals of training and education are clearly specified, development activities have the broad goal of producing a flexible work force that can "move with the organization as it develops, changes, and grows." Regardless of the terms used, learning activities structured by public and private organizations for employees involve billions of dollars and millions of adults each year. As one writer notes, employer-sponsored education has become a segment of the nation's educational system. It develops its own courses and curricula, employs faculty and nonteaching professional staff, carries on formal instructional activities, evaluates its programs and methods, and often does these in well-designed and equipped facilities that are devoted to them exclusively.

Much of employee education and training draws on the psychology of behaviorism. With organizational effectiveness the goal of this form of adult education, ways must be found to determine or to measure whether the gain in organizational effectiveness justifies the expenditures. Concerned with the most economical and efficient ways to accomplish a task, corporate training often makes use of competency-based concepts and modern instructional technologies. The greatest emphasis in training is
placed upon "the importance of thinking through and specifying the desired outcomes of particular learning programs with respect to changes in knowledge, behavior, attitudes, or sensibilities of the learner—and on making reasonable efforts to appraise results and make appropriate modifications."

The impact of behaviorism upon training can be viewed in terms of the overall goals of training as well as of the adaptation of behavioral methods and techniques. Eitington, tracing the changes in employee training over the years, presents a "model man" chart in which the outdated "Newtonian" model is contrasted to the present "Einsteinian" man. Trainers are now dealing with an individual who is characterized by modifiable intelligence, a computer brain, potential created through transaction with environment, and development as modifiable in both rate and sequence. Eitington's Einsteinian man could, in fact, be "behaviorist man," with its emphasis upon behavior modification and environmental control.

Several other writers define the overall goal of training as behavioral change. Nadler, it might be recalled, writes that human resource development is designed to produce behavioral change. And in a discussion of management training, Watson lists benefits that include changing behavior and developing an awareness of the consequences of one's actions.

To insure for accountability and measurable results, training programs are often structured using a systems approach. The systems approach is one way of looking at the various component parts of an organization or program and how they fit together to bring about a specified end product. Beers writes that trainers are being urged to adopt this form of thinking or reasoning in order to be more confident that the development program is truly designed for the purpose of accomplishing organization objectives and to be able to measure with greater assurance the extent to which the development program and activities actually are meeting the goals set.

Whether in dealing on a large scale with the overall training program or with something as specific as a single instructional unit, behavioral and performance objectives are also widely utilized in employee education. Behavioral objectives provide the mechanism by which a change in behavior can be measured. Behavioral objectives contain three components: (1) the relevant conditions or stimuli under which a learner is expected to perform; (2) the behavior a learner is to perform, including a general reference to the product of the behavior; and (3) a description of the criteria by which the behavior will be judged acceptable or unacceptable, successful or unsuccessful. Like behavioral objectives, performance objectives specify the conditions, behavior, and criteria that will be used to evaluate an employee's performance. These objectives are often set by
the employee in conjunction with a supervisor. Johnson notes that "to improve productivity, organizations increasingly are turning to programs of formal periodic appraisal of individual performance. A device is developed and a procedure worked out. Standards of performance are used as a basis for measurement."

Behaviorism, with its emphasis upon measurable outcomes, overt behavior, and arranging environmental contingencies to bring about desired behavior, is the orientation underlying much of the employee education sponsored by organizations. Many programs, however, incorporate humanistic philosophical principles and techniques. Sensitivity training, human potential seminars, non-directive counseling, self-guided learning, and so on emphasize personal growth and development, which in turn is important to the overall effectiveness of the organization. One of the philosophical issues in employee training is, in fact, the extent to which individual development is or should be congruent with organizational goals. Argyris, in writing about this issue, looks at the nature of the adult and notes that there is a "basic dilemma between the needs of the individuals aspiring for psychological success and self-esteem and the demands of the pyramidal structure." Argyris's conditions for "optimum personality expression while at work" bring to mind Knowles's assumption of andragogy. Adults in a work setting, Argyris writes, need to have jobs which permit them to be more active than passive, more independent than dependent, to have longer rather than shorter time perspectives, to occupy higher positions than their peers, to have control over their world, and to express many of their deeper, more important abilities.

The tension between individual and organizational needs can, he notes, be "the foundation for increasing the degree of effectiveness of both. Argyris and Likert, among others, have suggested ways of integrating individual and employee needs through supportive employee-centered supervision, democratic decision making, group leadership methods, and decentralization of authority.

The concept of organizational development (OD) is an attempt on the part of organizations to match employee development with organizational growth. A basic assumption of the OD movement," writes Stram, "is that an organization's effectiveness can be increased by a process of integrating the goals of the individual working for an organization with the objectives of the organization. Beck and Hillmar enumerate the types of activities used in OD: team building, job design, enrichment, goal setting, problem solving, decision making, managing differences/conflict, process consultation, diagnosis and feedback, interpersonal skills, values clarification, transactional analysis, managing accountability, helping relationships, Gestalt applications in organizations, open system concepts, and psychological contracting.
As in other adult education settings, philosophical goals determine the role of the teacher/facilitator. The role of the training officer in an organizational setting reflects the contemporary notion that developing effective employees results in more effective organizations. A large-scale study of trainer roles conducted in 1978 by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) revealed that trainers are indeed conscious of individual as well as organizational development. Among the role-related tasks identified by over 2500 trainers were: conducting needs analysis and diagnosis, designing and developing appropriate programs, planning and counseling individuals, facilitating group and organizational development, and establishing good relationships with managers. The survey also probed how the training and development activity of organizations had changed within the past five years. The majority of respondents noted that their organization's training and development programs had expanded in that period and were placing more emphasis upon long-range development, career counseling, minority development, and human relations and communications skills. It would appear from the survey that current practice at least to some extent reflects the interrelationship of employee and organizational development.

A wide variety of instructional techniques reflecting several philosophical orientations are used in employee training. Lectures, conference methods, panel discussion, workshops, laboratory or sensitivity training, role-playing, case studies, brainstorming, buzz groups, and management games are among the methods used "to effect change in the behavior of trainees." Also prevalent in training is the use of programmed instruction, a technique that allows for self-paced learning.

As with instructional methods, the content of employer-sponsored training varies enormously. Depending upon the needs of the employee and the organization, training might encompass learning administrative and supervisory techniques, developing basic skills, acquiring technical information, or changing attitudes. For the most part, however,

course content, related as it is to company problems, products, and processes, verges toward the particular and away from the abstract, the utilitarian rather than theoretical. Much of this material is more appropriately taught by operating specialists and managers than by professional educators. The length of company courses tends to be determined by no criterion other than what is needed to convey particular skills or knowledge to specific employees or groups.

In summary, the aim of education sponsored by organizations in the public or private sector is organizational effectiveness. referred to as training, education, and/or development, employee education is characterized by clearly defined goals and objectives. Behavioral principles and methodologies underlie much of this form of adult education. Measures of
CONCLUSION

This chapter has attempted to present an overview of the philosophies of adult education. The differing aims of adult education provided a focus for organizing the diverse philosophical writings. Five emphases were discussed, with their respective views on content, the role of the teacher and learner, and the nature of the instructional process.

The cultivation of the intellect is one objective of adult education. Proponents of this view conceive of adult education as a neutral activity divorced from social action. A curriculum emphasizing liberal studies and a traditional view of the teacher-student interaction characterizes this approach.

Personal development constitutes a second emphasis in adult education. Drawing from humanistic and existential orientations, educators with this bias see adult education as concerned primarily with promoting individual growth and development. A by-product of this emphasis will be benefits to society. Content thus becomes whatever promotes individual growth, the student is the focus of the process, and group interaction is the favored instructional mode.

Perhaps the major proportion of American educational philosophers reflect the progressive view of adult education. Here the aim of adult education is both personal development and social progress. Content is drawn from life situations, the preferred method is problem solving, and teachers and learners are partners in the task of learning.

In direct opposition to the proponents of "neutral knowledge" are those who advocate radical social change through adult education. Here education is viewed as value-laden and never neutral. Content comes from the consciousness of the oppressed and disadvantaged, the teacher is also a learner, and the methodology is a dialogical encounter that leads to praxis—that is, reflective thought and action.

Finally, organizational effectiveness is the aim of a large segment of American adult education. Public and private sector organizations strive to become more efficient deliverers of goods or services. To this end, they may engage their employees in training, education, or development activities characterized by a variety of purposes and instructional methodologies.
PHILOSOPHY AND ADULT EDUCATION

While this approach to the philosophies of adult education tends to highlight the differences in aims, content, and instructional process, there are some underlying similarities among the principal schools of thought. Powell and Benne have delineated several beliefs held in common by most adult educators. Most adherents of the positions outlined in this chapter would agree that: (1) adults are different from young people; (2) education is an activity that emphasizes learning rather than teaching; (3) there is some interplay between the intellectual and emotional elements in learning; (4) a primary vehicle of adult learning is the group; and (5) emphasis is placed on the individual as a learner. 44

Organizing and presenting the various philosophical views on a major issue like the aims and objectives of adult education should shed some light on the practice of adult education. While practicing adult educators may not assume any one particular philosophical stance, it behooves all educators to attempt to identify the philosophical assumptions that necessarily inform and guide their practice.

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Adult Education Principle

Required Readings

No. 3 Topic 1
Chapter 1

Introduction: Adult Education for Development

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE WEST: INDIVIDUALIZATION

Education in the countries of the so-called 'West' has two main characteristics: it is usually seen as a 'good' in itself, needing no further justification; and it is primarily aimed at the individual—personal growth, career development, self-actualization. Both of these are deemed to be self-evident; until recently it has not appeared necessary to educational writers and practitioners to say more precisely what that 'good' is or to argue about the social role of education.

This is particularly true of adult education in the West. Those who provide and those who teach adults in the wide range of formal and non-formal programmes and contexts now available have until the last few years seen little need to justify their activity. What leads to personal self-fulfilment must be good. Even more recent writings on 'adult education for change' and on community education see the process as one aimed primarily at the individual—the provision of learning opportunities, for disadvantaged and other persons and groups to take up if they so wish in order to remedy individual social and economic injustices. This may (indeed, some argue that this will) lead to social change, but social change is not the main objective of the programme. Individual growth is the primary purpose of almost all adult learning programmes in the West.

The reason for this is that adult educators in these countries stress the voluntary nature of the adult education process. The key words in the phrase above are 'if they so wish'. Learning opportunities are offered and they may or may not be taken up. Adult education is for those few who come forward, not for the masses. At the centre of this view lies a concept of adulthood which stresses not only the development of the full potential of the individual but also the person's ever-increasing autonomy. Adult education, it is argued, must not deny the adulthood of the learners. Indeed, it should seek to enhance their powers of self-determination, increase the range of choices before them and develop their powers and skills to exercise that choice; it should help to make the people free.

Taken to its logical conclusion, the adult educator will have no goals other than to satisfy the aspirations of the learners, to teach them what they want to learn. In one
sense, this is the ultimate of the 'market' approach to education—although we must
stress here that we are not talking of a financial market; most adult educators are
insistent that no one is to be denied the opportunity of engaging in the form of adult
learning they seek simply because they cannot afford it. All people, rich and poor alike
(so the ideology goes), should be free to obtain those forms of further learning which
most please them.

THIRD WORLD VIEW: SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Education in general, and adult education in particular, are seen in much of the Third
World to serve another purpose. Whether narrowly conceived as adult literacy (func-
tional or not), the extension of elementary schooling to the masses, or whether more
widely as incorporating extension and post-literacy educational programmes, adult
education is based on nationally identified needs rather than on individual wants.
People, it is urged, ought to learn to conform, to change their behaviour in ways which
will lead to the achievement, more easily or more quickly, of national Development
goals. Attendance at educational programmes is not a voluntary option but a social
responsibility. The assumption is that we cannot rely upon the people to take the
initiative in their own education; persuasion needs to be employed. The education of
children, adolescents and adults alike is for social goals. The role of the adult educator is
not so much to increase choice as to encourage responsible social behaviour. Adult
education in the Third World is for mass education, not for the few.

There are signs that adult education in the West is moving closer to a social respon-
sibility position. In part this is a by-product of the massive upheaval and external
pressures which adult education is currently experiencing, for the state is demanding
more from it. But in part the change comes from within adult education itself. Evidence
of the former is the increasing amount of manpower training programmes for adults
which different countries are offering in order to cope with the nation’s need for a
well-trained labour force; evidence of the latter is the concern of many adult educators
with global matters, especially the two over-arching issues of today, the balance between
the human population and the resources of this planet (conservation or environmental
education), and the need for a peaceful and just society (peace and justice education).
The 'global issues' approach to adult education in the West bears some resemblance to
the mass campaigns in the Third World; and the manpower training approach has
something in common with the 'conformist' view of education in the Third World.
Nevertheless, the gulf between the Third World social responsibility view (which can be
seen as restricting individual freedom for the sake of nation building) and the personal
growth view of Western adult education is still wide.

DEVELOPMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION

It is the thesis of this book that the gulf between the approach of the Third World and
that of the West can be bridged, and that the bridge lies in a properly articulated and
properly understood concept of Development. The main purpose of this book is to
suggest that at the heart of all programmes of adult education in the West should lie the
Introduction: Adult Education for Development

Concept of Development. For Development is not a thing which the countries of the Third World alone need; the West needs it just as much. A little thought will convince us that even in the richest of countries, there are regions which are marginalized and underdeveloped, and sectors of society which are disadvantaged. And in the application of the concepts of Development to the West, we have much to learn from the insights and experiences of the Third World.

But if we are to apply these concepts to adult education in the West, we need to see what Development is and what it is not. I argue in this book that Development is not just a matter of planning or technical assistance, of building dams or providing tractors to farmers or new boats to fisherfolk, for example. Just as Development should lie at the heart of all programmes of adult education, so it is the heart of every true Development programme which lies in a process of educating and training adults.

Some will perhaps see in this assertion a desire on the part of an interested party to promote adult education for its own sake, to secure for it a place in the sun. But the true reason lies in a proper understanding of the Development process. Evaluation has demonstrated that the major barriers to Development lie not so much in the lack of knowledge or skills or resources but rather in attitudes—especially a lack of confidence or an unwillingness to change. And attitudes can only be changed through a programme of education and training. Or to put it another way, the process of changing attitudes as well as providing the new knowledge and skills and understandings which our Development programmes need is what is properly meant by education and training. So that Development agencies in general and change-agents in particular are in fact educators,

'teachers' in the best sense, those who help others to learn, to change.

Put in this way, we can see that education for Development is a matter for the individual, even if the goals are national goals. For although group affiliations assist in the formation and strengthening of new attitudes, nevertheless attitude change is an individual learning process; and the development of confidence and of motivation will, if so directed, lead to both greater social responsibility and to personal growth.

But equally the educator of adults will have goals of his or her own which they will seek to encourage the learners to come to share. For educators of adults are just as much human beings with a sense of social propriety as are the adult learners. Both parties to the educational process need to treat each other equally. The learner should not deny the adulthood of the 'teacher' any more than the 'teacher' ought to deny the adulthood of the learner.

This then is the theme of this book. I am arguing that in the industrialized, technically more advanced, richer, mainly white countries of the world (the 'West') where adult education has been seen as largely either skill training (manpower development) or leisure courses (personal development), a fuller concept of regional and national Development such as has been conceived and executed for many years in Third World countries should lie at the heart of all such programmes. This is not just to argue in favour of adult education for social change; rather it is to assert that adult education in the West is for Development. And in the less industrialized (largely rural), technologically less advanced, poorer and mainly black countries (the so-called 'Third World') where adult education has often been seen as secondary to the national concern for Development, to be done later 'when we can afford it', a proper definition of Development will call for putting the education and training of adults (ETA) at the heart of the Development process itself. Without a full process of ETA, there can be no true Development, without a properly understood concept of Development, adult education
will continue to be marginalized; and this equation applies equally to all parts of this 'one world' in which we jointly inhabit.

TARGET GROUP

The book is primarily aimed at adult educators, to increase their understanding of Development and to persuade them to put the concerns of local, regional and national Development at the core of their work. Others will also find it useful — extension workers and trainers, to understand their own work better and to justify to others the centrality of their mission; and Development agencies and change-agents, who may be encouraged to give greater prominence to education and training in their programmes.

There are of course dangers in trying to put processes such as 'education' and 'Development' between the covers of a book, for it may lead to the unthinking application of techniques to what are one-off, dynamic, problem-solving events. But the effectiveness of what we do depends not only on the measure of commitment we bring to the task but also on the clarity with which the logic-frame of the activity. This book seeks to provide a framework for a new kind of adult education and a practical programme of reform based on Developmental models. It is not a rationale to justify what we are doing but a manifesto for change. And it seeks to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Development has for many years been evaluating itself, challenging its practitioners to new insights, adopting new approaches. Adult education is now in the same position, facing the same sorts of questions.

The answers will arise more from practical experience than from academic debate. This book has grown out of many years' working as an adult educator in local community development programmes in the West, and several years of visiting India and other countries, participating in programmes of adult learning and Development at grass roots level. My experience abroad led me to move from a university department in England largely concerned with liberal adult education and leisure courses, to Northern Ireland where I saw Development concepts expressed through education and training programmes for adults as essential to the life of the region. Several of my colleagues have asked me to justify my assertion that adult educators in the West have a great deal to learn from those countries which, like India, have for years been working with the realities of under-development. These pages must form part of my response to that challenge. Some have suggested that I have 'gone back on' the ideals they once held in relation to the primacy of the aspirations of the individual learners in adult education. This may, for all I know, be true. All I am sure of is that I have learned so much while working abroad that I find I need new concepts and new terms to express the views I now hold.

Writing in India, talking about the ideas in this book to people, some of whom have a wide experience of Development and of adult education and great fluency in their own tongue but limited proficiency in English (while I, to some, have no Tamil and little Hindi), has forced me to try to express myself in basic terms. I am conscious that this can at times sound simplistic and even patronizing. It is not intended to be. Rather it is an attempt to avoid unnecessary jargon and explain as clearly as possible what I mean at every stage. There is nothing more challenging to those of us from the West who engage in verbal games than the straight and sincere question 'What do you mean by ...?'
DEFINITIONS

It is as well then to deal immediately with one or two definitions to ease our discussions—though some will be discussed in rather more detail later.

*Education and training*: by ‘education’ I do not mean the formal system of ‘schooling’ but all forms of planned learning by which one person directly (face to face) or indirectly (by distance education methods) helps another persons to learn something. I see ‘training’ as a part (but only a small part) of education. Education is wider than training. The distinction is not always clear, and some learners can use a course intended as a relatively narrow training exercise (for example, a language course for company secretaries) as the basis for a wider educational experience (i.e. to expand horizons rather than just to extend competencies). So I use the phrase ‘education and training’ as a catch-all phrase, to mean all forms of planned learning.

*‘West’ and ‘Third World’*: Some readers will find objections to the terms ‘the West’ and ‘Third World countries’ used to express the polarity which exists between the richer and the poorer parts of the world. I share their concern and their views that we live in One World as interdependent members and that the range of variation between countries is much wider than such a two-fold categorization allows. Indeed, this book has been written as one more attempt to build bridges—to share insights, to urge those who live in the richer regions that we have much to learn from the experiences of those in economically and technologically less developed regions, as well as the reverse.

Nevertheless, we need words to express these distinctions. There are two main reasons for using the terms ‘Third World countries’ and ‘the West’. The first is that no set of terms is free from objections. The phrase ‘North and South’ does not recognize the major role which Australasia plays in world development; ‘economically less/more developed countries’ (ELDC and EMDC) lays too much stress on economic and technical rather than social change as the goal of Development; while ‘developing’ and ‘developed’ are even worse, for these words imply that the process of Development has somehow ceased in the more industrialized countries, that these regions have no need for further Development. I would have liked to have used the terms ‘rich’ and ‘poor’, except that ‘poor’ carries with it overtones of patronage and fails to recognize the cultural and other wealth of these countries. All such terms have their limitations.

But the main reason I have used these terms is that Developing countries themselves use these words more frequently than any others; and if they choose to adopt ‘Third World countries’ as a generic term for themselves and see in it no impropriety, I am happy that the phrase will express to at least some of my readers in acceptable language the kind of polarity and interdependence I am trying to discuss.

Finally, the book considers several groups of programmes—those of which I have firsthand experience in the UK and the Indian subcontinent, others in Africa and Latin America through reports from UNESCO and other bodies, and especially a number on the continent of Europe through the papers of the European Bureau of Adult Education and the Council of Europe Community Development Programme. From these, a common thread is drawn: that the West is moving closer to the Third World and is beginning to seek in that part of the world answers to some of its problems.
Part I

Adult Learning and Education
Chapter 2

Adult Learning

Adults learn continuously throughout their lives; they do not stop when they leave school (if they have had any formal schooling, that is).

This is an obvious truth; but it carries with it profound implications. It means that learning is not only associated with schooling, with childhood. And it offers hope to all who need to encourage adults to learn as part of their programme of change. Those who come to these programmes are already engaged in learning; and this natural learning can be built upon to achieve planned learning. It will therefore be useful to look at this continuing learning process more closely.

Learning

Learning means making changes—in our knowing, thinking, feeling and doing. Some of these changes are permanent, others are for a time only.

Learning arises from our experiences. It takes many different forms. One writer suggests that it is possible to have 'non-learning' responses to experience, but it would seem that he is looking for a particular form of learning; it is unlikely that absolutely no form of learning changes will result from our experiences.

And learning from experience means that learning is individual; it is not a collective activity. 'Each individual is processing the experience uniquely for personal use. In learning, the individual is the agent, even though the agent may be subject to the social pressures of the group.' Learning is affected, even controlled to some extent, by society or other collectives, but the learning activity itself—introducing learning changes—is personal.
Reasons for continued learning

Adult learning can be divided into three categories—although it must be stressed that these are not exclusive; they overlap frequently. Adults continue to learn

in regard to at least three main areas of change with which we all have to cope. Changes in our personal development, our interests, opportunities and abilities all lead to new learning and to new learning needs. Secondly, changes in our occupations, whether heart specialist, historian or housewife, will call for new knowledge, new skills, new attitudes. And thirdly, as each of us enters new social roles or as society redefines the roles in which we find ourselves, so once again some re-learning will take place. Lifelong learning is then for all of us an inevitable reality . . .

(a) Many adults learn because the occupation they pursue requires learning. Whether this occupation is in the home or in the fields or in a place of work (factory, office, school and so on), whether it is paid or not, changes in the work or general environment or in the individual’s functions or status will call for new knowledge, new skills and new understandings, for new attitudes and new patterns of behaviour. The ‘job’ itself, and our perceptions of the job, will change as time passes; and we will be called upon to learn many things. Even the experience of unemployment results in new learning—how to cope, to retrain, to adapt.

(b) Secondly, as people grow older, they enter into new social roles, new relationships which may have little to do with their ‘occupation’. They marry, become parents, come to accept responsibility for elderly parents instead of being dependants of those same parents. They adopt new positions in society—as householders or taxpayers or voters and political members of a district, region or state. Moreover, changes in social customs frequently call for a redefinition of these roles: one generation of parents, for example, is not always the model for the next, so that
THE NATURAL LEARNING PROCESS

Intention in learning

There is a continuum of adult learning in relation to intention:

(a) At one extreme there is the haphazard learning which is unplanned. Some learning is very casual; it comes about from the stimulus provided by chance happenings—

from seeing roadside posters, from snatches of overheard conversation, from new perceptions of well-known features, from what we read in newspapers or obtain by accident from the radio/television, from meeting new people, watching films, reading the newspapers and so on. There is in this case no intention to promote learning purposely, either on the part of the adult learner or the source of the new perceptions: it is “adventitious learning . . . [which] springs from accidental encounters with unintentional sources.”

(b) There is, however, that learning which is purposeful on the part of the ‘provider’—

advertisements, mass campaigns, political persuasion and social propaganda. Once again there is no intention on the part of the learner to engage in learning but there are clear signs in these cases of intended learning on the part of the provider. It may be called informal learning.

(c) At other times, learning is more purposeful, designed to meet needs as they arise when facing new challenges or coping with new situations. So that further along the continuum is planned learning: a desire to learn about something will direct the actions of adults at certain times. They will seek out material—watch a particular television programme or search for a book, ask questions of other people, hunt for new knowledge and new skills for themselves. In these instances, there is an intention of learning on the part of the learner, though the intention on the part of the provider may not be equally strong. Material produced for one reason may be pressed into service for another purpose in the desire to satisfy a hunger for learning. Sometimes these learning desires are long-standing interests and of a relatively low level of intensity. At other times, short bursts of intensive learning drives are experienced—creating what have been called ‘natural learning episodes’. This kind of intended learning may be termed non-formal learning.

(d) And at the far end of the continuum lie those formal learning programmes in which there is a clear intention to engage in learning on the part of both the provider and the learner—when adults attend classes or go back to school or college, for example, or engage in staff training or professional development programmes. On the whole not many adults enjoy such formal learning opportunities, and they engage in them for relatively short-lived purposes; but they are increasing both inside and outside the formal education system.

It may be helpful to use a matrix to illustrate these relationships (Figure 2.1). All learning, whether informal or formal, willing or unwilling, will fall somewhere in this matrix.
learning is required as each generation defines and executes these roles for themselves—how to relate to their own children as these grow up, or to the school which teaches them, or to the politician who demands their allegiance, and so on.

(c) Thirdly, as adults grow older, so their interests and their attitudes towards the world around them change; their focus shifts and their sense of and desire for meaning alters. And these changed perspectives and concerns will again lead to learning changes. New interests will emerge as earlier ones decline; beliefs which once seemed adequate may no longer appeal, while others come to hold their place with greater or less intensity.

Some characteristics of continued learning

We may note three things about this continuing adult learning:

(a) **Domains of learning:** learning is not just about new facts. Much learning will of course be concerned with knowledge—about people and things, about places and events, both past and present. Adults continue to garner information throughout their lives; they increase what they know. But that is not the sole meaning of the word ‘learning’. Adults also continue to acquire and develop skills—both intellectual skills, like reasoning and comprehension, and physical skills involved in the mastery of new tools and new practices: they increase what they can do. They develop new understandings—insights into relationships between facts or concepts; for example; understanding is not frozen for all time at an early stage in life. They change and increase the range of perspectives. Further, new attitudes and interests are formed. Contrary to some views, appreciation and belief systems change over time. None of us is completely bound by the sets of values and traditional practices learned in youth, for our culture-set is itself changing, and to a greater or lesser degree we are free to go with those changes or rebel against them.

The relationship between these four domains of learning is complex. They are not separate. New knowledge and understandings may lead to the adoption of new attitudes. Equally, the attitudes and values held will help to determine the new knowledge and skills developed, and these in turn will bring about behavioural changes. It is rare for ‘inner’ learning changes not to express themselves in some form of behavioural patterns (in speech, if not in action): indeed, the only way we can see that private learning changes have taken place is in the public arena of behaviour. It is not always easy to distinguish between the various learning components of KASUB (knowledge, attitudes, skills, understanding and behaviour), but these building blocks of learning do exist.

(b) **Kinds of learning:** the second point to note is that some writers have distinguished between different kinds of learning. Learning which is directed towards the control and manipulation of the physical world has been called instrumental learning. This learning can best be expressed in terms derived from stimulus-response and cognitive learning theories. Secondly, there is that learning which applies to personal relationships (sometimes called communicative learning) which may be best described in concepts drawn from social learning theories. And thirdly, there is that learning which concerns the learner him/herself (enactivatory learning)—personal growth and understanding of self, views of the world, meanings and values.
and beliefs—which can best be described in terms drawn from paradigm transformation learning theories.

(c) **Styles of learning:** Thirdly, it would seem that people have different ways of learning. Educationalists have categorized learning styles in many ways. No one theory has commanded universal acceptance, though some are more popular as seeming to explain learning processes more satisfactorily than the others. What does appear to be clear is that some adults learn more frequently and more effectively by thinking about things (especially their own experience) and others more by doing (for example, by trial and error); some build concepts and abstractions, others build machines and experiment. There is no single way in which people learn.

**Modes of learning**

Two main models of natural learning have been identified. They have been called (in technical jargon) "information-assimilational" and "experiential," but it would seem better to call them the 'input' and 'action' models.

(a) **Input learning:** In this mode, the learner is relatively passive; he/she responds to new learning from outside. Like a plant, growth depends upon inputs which are controlled by the outsider. Knowledge or skills or understanding is thus said to be 'given' or 'imparted' to the learners. Much formal education is based on this model, but it is also said to apply to the natural learning process—we all learn by new inputs.

(b) **Action learning:** The other mode of learning is one in which the learner is active, searching out the material he/she needs, trying to make sense of their experience. Human beings, it is pointed out, are not like plants; they can decide and take the initiative in their own learning.

**REFLEXIVE OBSERVATION ON EXPERIENCE**

At the moment, emphasis is laid in current writings on 'reflexive observation' as one of the main tools for active learning. Freire and others have suggested that most learning is accomplished by critically analysing experience. They have spoken of a learning cycle (Figure 2.2) starting with *experience*, proceeding through *reflection* and leading to *action*, which in its turn becomes the concrete experience for more reflection and thus the next stage of the cycle.

![Figure 2.2 The learning cycle: basic features](image-url)
The reflection stage of the learning cycle is, however, complex. For one thing, as Freire indicates, it includes a judgement, reflecting critically on experience. It is not enough just to sit and think about experience; criteria drawn from other sources need to be applied to experience for learning to take place, some input is needed as well as reflexive observation on experience (Figure 2.3). Some writers tend to insist that the main way in which this outside material is fed into the process is through dialogue—dialogical learning is the vogue at the moment; but outside criteria can also come from reading or from films or other media without any element of dialogue, so long as the learner engages with this material.

![Figure 2.3 The learning cycle: input from outside sources](image)

Secondly, as David Kolb has indicated, reflection will sometimes lead to a stage of creating generalizations ('abstract conceptualization', as he terms it) (Figure 2.4). Hypotheses are formed which are then tested in new situations, thus creating further concrete experience.

![Figure 2.4 Kolb's learning cycle](image)
Styles of learning and the learning cycle

On the basis of this model of reflexive observation on experience as the main approach to natural learning by adults, four main styles of learning have been identified:

1. the activists—those who learn directly by involving themselves in the various activities around them;
2. the observers—those who prefer to wait and watch what is going on before they decide and act;
3. the theorists—those who like to generalize from their experience and to apply what they learn in one arena to another;
4. the experimenters—those who like to devise new approaches and try them out to see what happens.10

It is important to stress that in this analysis, people are not seen as using only one of these approaches—we all tend to use all of them. Rather, people are thought to prefer one mode of learning above the others; they are stronger at learning through one approach rather than through any of the others. What is absolutely clear is that people learn actively and that they do it in different ways.

Two comments, however, need to be made about this learning cycle. The first is that learning includes goals, purposes, intentions, choice and decision-making, and it is not as all clear just where these elements stand in the cycle. Some decisions are needed before translating reflexive observation into action, before turning from abstract conceptualization into active experimentation; but, equally, decisions and goals occur at other points in the cycle. They tend to be omitted from discussions of this view of natural learning.

Secondly, it is likely that learning styles will vary according to the type of learning being engaged in. Reflexive observation is undoubtedly important for emancipatory learning and no doubt useful in the other kinds of learning as well, and we shall see that it has considerable importance for the educational and training component of Development programmes. But it is not the whole story. A good deal of adult learning does not comprise reflexive observation on experience, setting up hypotheses and testing them out in action:

- there is the acquisition of facts, information
- there are those sudden and apparently unassisted insights which we all experience from time to time
- there is the learning which comes from the successful completion of some task or haphazard experimentation
- there is the memorization of data or processes
- there are those changes inspired by watching others

And so we could go on; learning is more than just critical reflection. Probably all adults spend part of their time reflecting on experience but some are more strongly driven in this respect than others. Learning is a varied and complex activity: and the adults who engage in it are very varied and complex also.
‘CONCEPT DISTANCE’ IN LEARNING

That learning relates to individual experience is now quite clear. Both the ability to learn from experience and the nature of the responses will vary according to the personality and the prior history of the learner. The fact that two persons reflecting on a common experience will derive quite different learning results shows this.

These responses will vary according to what may be called the ‘concept distance’ of the experience from the central issues and concerns of the person concerned. All persons construct patterns or ‘maps’ of reality; and they locate all knowledge somewhere on these maps in relation to themselves at the centre of those maps and in relation to other knowledge and events. Some experiences will be ‘close to’ the learner; they will have many possible points of contact—for example, a task which grows out of one’s immediate needs. Others will be more remote, alien to the ways of thought and value systems of the learners. With some the learner will feel more at home, while others appear to be distant from the main preoccupations of the learners. For many people, science and technology lie on the extreme outer parts of their ‘map’; they have little in common with these matters. For others, the same may be said of good literature or languages or technical matters such as mending a car or art.

It may be argued that the maps drawn by adults and by children are markedly different. Children draw relatively small maps; they are usually more concerned with what lies outside their maps and are less worried about inconsistencies within their maps; indeed, they seem to expect such inconsistencies to occur. Adults on the other hand are normally less concerned with what lies outside their map (“beyond their ken”); they are frequently more concerned with reconciling any inconsistencies within their maps, seeking to draw the whole together into logical systems which they find satisfying.

Many factors are involved in locating any new material on the map:

(a) how the new subject matter or experience relates to existing experience; things which lie well within the experience of the person are placed close to the centre, matters which lie outside existing experience are felt to be more remote.
(b) whether it is perceived to relate to the current concerns of the learner; even matters which are apparently well outside existing experience will come to be closer if they impose on the major preoccupations of the person concerned.
(c) how ‘difficult’ it is thought to be to learn; each of us has a perception of the inherent complexity of some subjects, that they are hard or easy to master, and this will help to determine where we place them on our ‘maps’.
(d) whether it is seen to possess internal consistency; issues which have at first sight problems of logic in them will on the whole be pushed further away.
(e) whether it ‘rings true’, fits in with the general world picture and with other subjects already on the map.

All these play some part in the location of any innovation on the ‘map’.

The language in which these ‘maps’ are described is drawn in part from concepts of distance (things are thought to be ‘remote’ from reality, for example) and sometimes from personal relations (things are ‘alien’). Because of this ambivalence, in an earlier paper on this subject I used the term ‘social distance’ to express this process of map-drawing, but since this term is used by social scientists to mean something different it seems better to use the term ‘concept distance’ to express what is going on.
This whole field of the constructs of reality which each individual builds for themselves needs further exploration. But its relevance to our enquiry here lies in the fact that it would seem that more learning changes are made by adults in relation to material which has a close affinity with the learner than in relation to material which is remote. Adults (and it would appear children also) learn more easily material which is not alien to their existing patterns of thinking and their own experience. The process of mapping lies at the heart of the way we all learn throughout our lives.

The importance of this for the teacher of adults and for the Development worker is clear. His/her task is to build on this natural learning process by providing a further range of experiences not too remote from the learner’s existing experience by which the learning goals can be achieved. It is through the construction of new and relevant experiences rather than through the provision of new knowledge alone that the teacher/instructor of adults can help his/her target group to learn.

CONCLUSIONS

Adults then learn throughout the whole of their lives. At times, they will learn slowly, almost imperceptibly, at other times with greater concentration and sense of drive. The process will be uneven and will spring from many needs, some of them perceived, some of them unrecognized, so that in any group of adults there will be a wide range of learning responses, learning styles and learning abilities.

It is not my intention here to go into learning theories in any great detail. My purpose is to suggest that all adults learn, sometimes intentionally, sometimes unintentionally; that they engage in more than one kind of learning; that such learning affects their knowledge, skills, understanding, attitudes and ultimately their behaviour; and that they learn more easily in those areas where the ‘distance’ between their experience and the new material is not great.

Much of this learning takes place in a haphazard fashion. Some of it is the product of planning on the part of an outside ‘agent’ but not of the learner, as in propaganda campaigns. But there are for many adults occasions when the learning is intended, when the learner seeks out a helper, a ‘teacher’ of some kind. It is these episodes which we call ‘education’. And it is on these learning episodes that the education and training which is part of both adult education and Development will need to be built.

NOTES TO CHAPTER 2

(1) Jarvis (1987), ch. 2.


Chapter 3

Adult Education: Definitions

The term 'adult education' means many things in different contexts and different periods. Adult education today is not the same as in earlier years; and the words as used in Third World countries do not mean the same thing as they do in the West. UNESCO noted: "in essence, adult education is so closely related to the social, political and cultural condition of each country that no uniform or precise definition can be arrived at". Even within one country, different writers can use the term to mean different things.

For inherent within the concept of adult education are many ambiguities. In order to grapple with these, a number of different titles have been coined—Continuing Education, Recurrent Education, Lifelong Education, the French term education permanente, Non-Formal Education, and so on. These differences, adding richness to the concept, do not perhaps matter too much, except that some persons approaching adult education for the first time find it all very confusing. So it seems desirable to try to define how the term 'adult education' will be used in this book—what is included and what is excluded and why.

Adult education is not just literacy

Adult education is not simply the provision of elementary education (literacy, numeracy and social skills—i.e. those parts of cultural initiation which a child often gets at school) for those adults who have never been to school or who for many different reasons did not learn adequately while in school. We need to make this clear because in some countries, 'adult education' is seen to be synonymous with remedial education for adults, especially adult literacy, so that other forms of adult learning (such as health education, income generating programmes, agricultural extension, professional development or vocational training) are often excluded from 'adult education'.

There is a simple reason why it is unsatisfactory to equate adult education with learning literacy. Initial education is largely intended to induct young people into the society to which they belong. It aims to do more than this of course—to help children to find and develop themselves, for example. But much of its time is devoted to
socialization and other normative skills and attitude development. Adults on the other hand, whether literate or illiterate, have by definition already become established in society; they do not need to be 'brought in'. So that adult education is not 'schooling for unschooled adults', even though it will include the provision of some form of literacy and numeracy and basic coping skills for those who need them. Adult education covers the teaching of literacy to adults but it is much wider than that.

Adult education is the provision of educational opportunities for adults. It covers more or less all forms of planned and systematic learning which adults experience in the process of living their lives. But this too needs further elaboration: we need to look more closely at what we mean by 'education' and what we mean by 'adult'.

Education

The term 'education' is used in three main senses—to indicate a process, a system and a goal. In general, I prefer to see education as a planned process of purposeful learning. This process is often carried on within a system; and many people speak of education as if it were that system (for example, when saying that the government spends money on 'Education'). But that system itself is not 'education': it is a system designed to promote the process of education, an 'educational' system. It is only too possible to have the system but to have little or no education taking place, and equally some of this process of education (planned learning) takes place outside the educational system. Education is also sometimes seen as the goal of the process: schools and colleges exist to lead to 'education', students attend to 'acquire education'.

ADULT EDUCATION AS PROCESS

In discussing education as process, we need to distinguish between 'education' and 'learning'.

Sometimes disputes about such issues as this get tangled because the words 'education' and 'learning' are used as though they were interchangeable, and the argument slides from one to another as it convenient. So it is perhaps worth making the point initially that these are different things. . . . Learning is a pretty basic characteristic of living tissue and it normally goes on... throughout life. Education involves processes of learning which are planned—usually planned by somebody to be followed by somebody else (though the planner/teacher may be dead and may communicate with the learner/student through such media as print, film and the like) . . . . Education then is a planned processes of learning undertaken by intent; the sort of thing that commonly (though by no means always) goes on in classrooms and that involves some who are teachers and some who are taught. In much discussion of adult 'education' the word is used much more loosely. Thus in much French writing about éducation populaire, it seems to be used so as to include the whole range and apparatus of leisure-time activities—cinemas, libraries, television and sports clubs—on the grounds that these exert an educative influence on people who use them and are therefore aspects of education. Certainly there is a sense in which anything that happens to us, from getting drunk to listening to Beethoven, may be said to be 'quite an education'; and certainly we learn... from our experiences, including those of our leisure. But such learning is unplanned and largely unintended: we do not go into either the pub or the concert-hall with a primary intention of learning. If we intend to learn we behave differently: we join a class or a correspondence course, we hire a
Education then is concerned with learning but it is not simply the same as learning. Learning, as we have seen, is a process of making changes in knowledge, skills, understandings, attitudes and value systems, and in behaviour. Some of these changes are intended, others are not intended. And learning continues throughout the whole of life; it is part of the process of living. *Education* on the other hand consists of episodes of *planned* learning. For most adults, this is a voluntary activity, one which they willingly adopt in order to achieve a goal. For others, it may be somewhat less voluntary, and the purpose may be less clearly seen or even imposed on them. But it is a piece of systematic, structured learning with a purpose, sequential learning experiences planned and monitored by an agent for a learner*. Education (and this includes 'training') can be seen as an intended intervention into the natural learning process in order to give this informal learning a direction, increased impetus and some structure. 3

We need to note certain things about this process of education as purposeful learning. First, planned learning implies that there is a *planner* (who may or may not be the same as the teacher) and a *learner* or a group of learners. Someone is helping the learner(s) to learn. The planner(s) may be removed far from the learner(s) or immediately available, or a combination of both of these; and the teacher/planner and the learner(s) may co-operate in the planning process. The means of learning (the teaching-learning materials and the curriculum of experiences devised by the planner) may be in the form of a self-instructional tool, a book (manual), film or radio programme, etc., or a class (lecture, demonstration, etc.). But whatever the form, there is in education an agent and one or more learners. The planner/teacher will be concerned both with the immediate provision of materials and experiences for the learner(s) and also with the whole of the learner's social and physical environment (including the existing informal learning) so that this becomes a support system rather than an obstacle to the process of learning.

Secondly, purposeful learning implies that there are goals to be achieved. These will often have been set by the teacher or planner(s), in which case they need to be accepted and internalized by the learner(s) before learning can be effective; but in many forms of education for adults, they have been set by or in collaboration with the learners. There are a wide range of learning goals; some are narrow—to learn how to sew, for example; others are more open-ended—personal growth or enhanced awareness. The process of identifying and promoting the goals of learning is one of the tasks of the planner(s). 4

Thirdly, planned learning which is education will be concerned with all the domains of learning—with increasing knowledge, with developing skills, with the formation of attitudes, with gaining insightful understanding, and with changes in patterns of behaviour. The aim of the educational process is to help the learners to make more or less permanent changes in all of these areas of learning.

But this process of encouraging learners to bring about learning changes directed to an agreed goal is far from being a mechanistic activity; for the planned learning process is a *dynamic* relationship. Education is not the same as manipulation—as indoctrination, for example. It is a 'meeting' between people—a living encounter with a purpose. Adult education is thus a dynamic and normally willing encounter of adult with adult.
22 Adult Learning and Education

Who is an adult?

Definitions of who is an 'adult' will again vary in different contexts and in different periods. Clearly some age factor must be included in our concept of being an adult. Some countries, following UNESCO, speak of adults as being those aged between 15 and 35, but clearly the term includes those older than the upper age limit. I mean by 'adult' anyone who has reached a certain stage of development normally associated with an appropriate age and recognized in each social context as being definitive, someone who by virtue of that stage of development both thinks of themselves as adult and has been accorded adult status, usually indicated by legal rights and duties; he or she has taken their place in society. In most societies, an adult is someone who has a measure of internalized independence in decision-making, no longer being under someone else's authority. A young person who is earning his/her own living is not necessarily an adult until they can show that they possess the standard of development, maturity and experience, the status given by society at large and the independence of action which traditionally go with adulthood within their own culture. They have assumed the responsibilities of adulthood.

So we need to settle for some definition, such as all men and women over a certain age (in some societies 15, in others 18, etc., but with no upper age limit) and who (for our purposes alone) are not still attending their first school or college. An adult is someone, who has finished initial education, seen as preparation for living (provided, that is, that he or she ever attended school) and who has started the process of 'living'. Adults may return to the educational system or engage in other forms of education and training full-time or part-time, but they will have had a break from their introductory education.

There are still many difficulties about this definition. In some societies, for example, many women who would be seen in every other society as adult are denied most of the expressions of adulthood and apparently do not see themselves as 'adult'—they willingly accept that others will necessarily be involved in decisions relating to habitual behaviour; and many men live within an extended family, and their role, although it allows them autonomy in day-to-day matters, does not include much in the way of personal responsibility in certain areas of decision-making. Are these adults according to our definition above? Each society must make its own judgement about the nature and extent of adulthood. It will, however, be useful to point out that adulthood is an ideal state: none of us reaches it in full. We are each limited to some extent in our autonomy; the extent to which others are involved in an individual's decision-making will vary from culture to culture.

Education and adult education

Is it necessary to stress the 'adult' dimension to adult education? Why cannot we just speak about 'education' as applying to children, college students and adults? There is after all much in common within the processes of planned learning of all groups, and the links between the education of adults and the education of children have been noted on several occasions. It must therefore be asked whether what is distinctive about adult learning is sufficiently important to require a specific category of education to itself.

Although there is much in common in all forms of education, it has been recognized
for many years that it is helpful to clear thinking and to devising educational programmes to make distinctions within the whole educational enterprise in at least two ways: (a) the special characteristics of teaching different subject areas—history or music or science or agriculture or literacy, for example; and (b) the special characteristics of helping particular categories of learners (very young children or adolescents, for example) to learn. We are not asserting the primacy of any one form of education, merely trying to understand more fully what is going on.

Put in this way, we can note that it is becoming increasingly understood that adults learn—and study in order to learn—in different ways from children and young people (college students), and that these differences need to be reflected in the educational processes offered to them. Just as one does not treat a fifteen-year-old student like an eight-year-old, so one does not treat an adult learner like a child or a college student if we are to be effective in the education we seek to promote. Within the general category of adults, there will be many different groups, and their differences need to be allowed for in devising planned learning programmes for them. So that adult education is itself not a single undifferentiated whole: it is a complex of educational opportunities to meet the particular needs of different sets of people. Nevertheless, when contrasted with provision for younger learners, certain approaches seem to be common to all forms of adult learning.

The differences between adult and younger learners are many and have been explored elsewhere. Here we need to note that they relate primarily to the following:

(a) The experience and thus the expectations of learning which adults bring with them; these are different from the experience and expectations which children and college students bring to their education. It is agreed in all forms of education that the effectiveness of the learning process depends on the way the materials and activities used to bring about the learning relate to the existing experience of the learner(s). Adults will inevitably have a larger range of experience and will have developed different approaches to the process of assessing this experience.

(b) Their orientation to learning: the intentions and focus which adults have towards their education are distinctive. For children and college students, the education they are receiving tends to be their primary concern at that stage in their lives and is seen by them and their teachers to be preparatory for some future way of life. For adults, the education they undertake is on the whole secondary to the process of living itself, although at the same time it is more directly related to that process of living. For unlike younger learners, most adults come to their education with specific life-related intentions of their own and a determination to do something about these intentions. Adult learners are 'political' persons in the sense that they can act immediately in relation to the learning they are pursuing.

(c) Their ways of learning: by the time adults come to their educational experiences, they have established learning strategies of their own. Even illiterate adults have been learning all sorts of things for many years and have developed effective ways of learning. These individual learning styles need to be discovered and used in the process of planning purposeful learning for adults.

There are other features of the way adults learn which call for distinctive approaches within the common framework of education. Taken together these characteristics mean that it is helpful to distinguish adult education from primary or secondary or higher
education, to treat adult learners differently from children or college students. This is not of course always done: much education for adults in practice treats the learners in the same way as children are treated; their experience and expectations, their intentions and purposes, their particular learning styles are ignored or even denied.

Education and training for adults

Are all learning opportunities for adults then 'adult education'? For example, if an adult goes back to school or college, is he/she in adult education? Or is adult education only the provision of learning opportunities outside the formal system? What about professional career development courses or industrial training, including these courses which some employees are compelled to attend (e.g. staff training sessions for shop workers, etc.)? In other words, is adult education the same as all forms of education and training for adults?

Wiltshire excludes from his definition of adult education not only 'casual learning that is incidental to other activities' but also those recreational activities in which there is no commitment to learn (even though these may take place in an educational institution); education done under compulsion; and education that belongs to the period of tutelage and preparation for occupation (even though this may for some individuals in some societies extend beyond the age of legal independence and on into the twenties or early thirties).

His approach argues that where adults are compelled to attend particular forms of education or where adults continue to attend educational programmes within the formal system as part of their initial education, they are 'not in adult education'.

Here we need to look at two things, the relationship of adult education with continuing education, and equally its relationship with non-formal education.

Continuing education

Some people distinguish between adult education and continuing education. A number of writers in Third World countries use 'adult education' to mean the provision of basic education (especially literacy) for the post-school population, and 'continuing education' to mean post-literacy and all other forms of education and training which build upon this initial education. In the West, the term has come to have a more restricted meaning with a particular ideology—the continuation of formal schooling into adulthood, more of the same sort of education as already exists for older learners. So that today some people define adult education as liberal education for personal development, and continuing education as courses of further professional training and development. In both sets of countries, continuing education, because it is largely vocational in nature and mostly within the formal system of education, is often thought to be separate from and outside of adult education.

But if it is true that adults learn in different ways from younger persons whatever the context of their learning, because their experience, intentions and learning styles differ from those of children and adolescents, then adults learning in continuing education will be characterized by adult learning processes. Continuing education consists of planned
learning opportunities for adults which, like all other forms of education and training for adults, need to take the special characteristics of adult learning into account when the learning experience is being constructed.

Adult education thus embraces continuing education. Some people attempt to indicate the differences of emphasis by employing the phrase 'adult and continuing education'; but adult education is used in this book as an all-embracing term, inclusive of continuing education.

This means that not all adult education is voluntary. The term covers what has been called 'mandatory continuing education', of those more or less compulsory programmes such as doctors' refresher courses, unemployed training schemes and bank staff training days. The learners in these programmes are adults, even though they are not less voluntary; and they need to be taught as adults. Appropriate methods of teaching-learning need to be adopted in these cases as well as in the more voluntary learning activities of other parts of adult education. Much continuing education takes place within the formal system of education—in schools, colleges, polytechnics and universities; can this be called adult education or is it a case of adults joining the formal system of education?

Nevertheless, all forms of education which take account of the distinctive learning processes of adult learners would seem to be covered by the term adult education. Continuing education, whether inside or outside the formal educational system, in order to be effective, needs to treat the learners as adult learners and not as child or adolescent learners, taking full account of the learners' intentions and experience. So that the definition of adult education as 'all those forms of education which adults experience excepting that which they pursue full-time or part-time directly following the period of their compulsory education' would seem to indicate that when a person stays on at school beyond the age of compulsory schooling or goes to college straight from school, they are not in adult education; if they go back to school or college after a break, then it is arguable that they are in adult education.

Non-formal education

This discussion would seem to provide at least part of our answer to the second question, the relationship between adult education and non-formal education. Non-formal education has been defined as all education provided outside of the formal system, whatever its purposes, target groups and providers.

Non-formal education is often seen to be a radical alternative to formal education in at least two ways, in its organization and in its methods.

Formal and non-formal education organization

Formal and non-formal education can be distinguished in terms of organization and content in several respects:

(a) Non-formal education is open to anyone, irrespective of their former educational level, whereas formal education is highly selective, dependent on prior success in
educational terms, rejecting the many and selecting the few to continue their studies further. Because of this, formal education is strongly organized; we can speak of a formal education system. Non-formal education on the other hand has no clear pattern, no structure; we can only speak of non-formal education programmes.

(b) The content of non-formal education tends to be concrete, life-related, constantly changing to meet new needs, to deal with real issues of current (and to some extent passing) concern, whereas formal education is based on a fixed body of theoretical textbook, compartmentalized knowledge of more permanent interest. Non-formal education is personal in nature, formal education is more impersonal. In a way, this distinction is reflected in the kind of buildings used—formal education usually takes place in special buildings, out of the community, dedicated to one function alone, i.e. education; non-formal education takes place in a variety of settings within the community.

(c) Non-formal education tends to be for immediate practical use in day-to-day life, not (as with most formal education) to prepare for some future purpose.

(d) Non-formal education is a continuing process, not a once-for-all occasion. Unlike schooling, non-formal education allows the learner to go back time and again for more. Non-formal education is available in many different forms during the whole of life. Formal education on the other hand is usually available only for the young and is terminal; the learner knows when he/she has finished it (usually by passing or failing an examination). Non-formal education is usually validated by the learner’s experience of success, formal education by external standards set by the teacher or other educator.

A useful illustration of the difference between the two may be drawn from the differences between modern athletics and the public marathon. In athletics, only those who qualify can compete, only a very few ‘win’; the race is competitive and exclusive. In the public marathon, all may join in, the standards are set by the runners—each one competing against themselves, not against the others (to finish or to finish in a better time than last time, etc.)—and the race is collaborative—each person helping the other to further endeavours—and everyone wins.

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Formal and non-formal methods

Sometimes the terms formal and non-formal are applied to teaching-learning methods. In brief, non-formal methods consist of discovery learning, of active learning processes, while formal methods include more of presentation and demonstration modes, one-way communication, from teacher to learner. Non-formal teaching-learning methods tend to be controlled by the learners; formal teaching-learning methods are hierarchical, controlled by the teacher.

The relationship of non-formal and formal education

What then is the relationship between formal and non-formal education?

1. We should not see non-formal education as simply the opposite of everything the formal educational system stands for. It is not just a reaction against something, a negative concept. Non-formal education is a positive approach to teaching and learning which stands in its own right and which challenges the formal system.
   
   Nevertheless it is realistic to note that non-formal education is and probably will remain a lesser partner in the educational enterprise. It cannot be regarded as a genuine alternative to the formal system in the education of young people because of parental and political aspirations; so that non-formal education is under pressure from the formal system. It is in danger of being either formalized (made to look like the formal system) or marginalized (because it is different, it is regarded as being unimportant). Because of this, many people see the future of non-formal education as resting with the education and training of adults where there is less pressure from the formal system, rather than with out-of-school youth. Even here, it may be regarded as an alternative (second chance) means of entry for disadvantaged adults into the formal system rather than as an educational programme with its own mission. On the whole, it would seem clear that the formal system will influence non-formal education more strongly than non-formal education will affect the formal system.

2. The distinction between formal and non-formal systems and formal and non-formal methodologies is useful. There is no inevitable relationship between the formal system and formal methods or between non-formal programmes and non-formal methods. Many schools and colleges inside the formal system have devised patterns of teaching-learning which display characteristics of non-formal methodologies, in which the learners control the aims, content and processes. It is perhaps in the field of teaching-learning methodologies that non-formal education has begun to influence the formal education system more strongly. On the other hand, many non-formal organizations use remarkably formal teaching-learning methods. This relationship may be represented by a matrix as shown in Figure 3.1.

This distinction between organization and methodologies enables us to see more clearly the overlap between the formal system of education, non-formal education and adult education. Some people write as if non-formal education and adult education are the same thing, but I do not think so, for two main reasons:
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![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.1** Matrix illustrating the range of methodologies used in formal and non-formal systems

(a) Some non-formal education is offered to out-of-school children. This is clearly not adult education for it does not call for adult learning methods, it cannot treat the learners as adults. Non-formal education, although it includes some forms of adult education, is wider than adult education.

(b) Secondly, some education inside the formal system is directed towards adult rather than younger learners and uses adult teaching-learning methods; it treats the learners as adults. Although this cannot be called non-formal education, it can be included in our definition of adult education. Adult education is both narrower than non-formal education, in that it excludes the provision for school-age learners, and wider than non-formal education in that it includes some parts of formal education. The two overlap but are not the same, as illustrated in Figure 3.2.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.2** The relationship of adult education to formal and non-formal education

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**What is adult education?**

My definition of adult education then is as follows: all planned and purposeful learning opportunities offered to those who are recognized and who recognize themselves as adults in their own society and who have left the formal initial educational system (or who have passed beyond the possible stage of initial education if they were never in it), whether such learning opportunities are inside or outside the formal system, so long as
such learning opportunities treat the learners as adults in decision-making, use appropriate adult learning methodologies and styles and allow the learners to use the experience for their own purposes and to meet their own needs.

Such learning opportunities will include a wide spectrum of activities—vocational programmes, career and professional development, leisure and hobby pursuits, personal and social growth programmes, specific training and general interest courses. One UK list puts it: "literacy classes, postgraduate courses, driving instruction, Bible study, technical training, dancing tuition and university extension courses" (National Opinion Research Centre 1963). The range of such learning opportunities will vary greatly from country to country and from period to period.

Adult education in Third World countries thus covers not just literacy campaigns but also community and environmental health education, nutrition, income-generating programmes, agricultural extension, women's programmes, social forestry, vocational skill training—in short, any form of education and training for adults; and in the West, it covers all that normally goes under the title of adult education, adult training and continuing education, both inside and outside the formal educational system. Wherever adults decide either separately or in groups to learn something under guidance, there we have adult education; and the most appropriate methods to be used in all forms of education and training for adults are those methods which treat the learners as adults, not as children or younger persons. The term cannot be restricted to any one kind of adult learning programme; it comprises all efforts to offer to adults the systematic learning experiences which they need to cope with their current and changing "life-site".

ADULT EDUCATION AS DELIVERY SYSTEM

Adult education then is a process by which adults, who are already engaged in continuous learning, adapting to changes in their circumstances, are engaged in more structured programmes of learning in a planned and purposeful way at different times throughout their lives.

But the term "Adult Education" has on occasion been used in a narrower sense to mean a series of provisions made by a range of bodies, some formal, some non-formal. "Adult Education" then can refer to the collection of agencies which provide these learning opportunities for adults.

"Adult Education"—a system?

When we look at adult education as a provision in any country, we see a very diffuse and complex system. We cannot speak of adult education in the same way as we speak of primary or secondary or tertiary education, for these are formal and contained systems. We need to view adult education differently.

(a) First, purposeful learning opportunities for adults are provided by a host of agencies—state, para-statal, voluntary and commercial. Banks offer training to their staff, private institutes offer languages to specific target groups or to the general public, management consultancies offer advancement programmes to
narrow bands of clients. Most governments offer learning opportunities to adults; but unlike formal education, educational and training programmes for adults are not under one single ministry. They are to be found in departments such as Agriculture, Commerce, Fisheries, Food, Industry, Labour, Manpower Development or Human Resource Development, Rural Development, Social Welfare—the list is almost endless. In a recent survey in one state government, twelve departments were found to have units created to offer 'extension' to adults. There are educational institutions like schools, universities and colleges which open their doors to adults for a first, second or further chance. There are the increasing numbers of voluntary bodies and interest groups like churches, charities and political parties; there are informal agencies such as libraries, museums, theatres and concert halls, etc. There are those who seek to earn a living by providing education and training for adults. And beyond all of these, there are self-help groups, providing a chance for their members to learn from each other and in other ways.

But within this wide spectrum of learning opportunities for adults provided in many different locations and by many different formal and non-formal agencies, it is possible in most countries to see a distinction between, on the one hand, those bodies which are specifically charged with the provision of education and training courses for adults (adult colleges or institutes, the Workers' Educational Association (WEA), open universities and university extra-mural departments, folk high schools, etc.) or which provide education for younger groups but include some provision for adults in their programmes (community schools, polytechnics and universities, etc.), and, on the other hand, those agencies which provide such educational opportunities incidentally to other non-educational activities (libraries, museums, churches, community groups, etc.). The former constitute a more formal element within the wider field and they have a greater control over their own destinies, for they can influence the policies which direct their activities. 'Adult Education' (used with capitals) in this book refers to these special agencies; 'adult education' (without capitals) refers to the wider more informal field of learning opportunities for adults.

(b) The means of adult education and training are more varied than in schooling. Correspondence courses, open learning systems, daytime or evening courses of varying lengths, shorter more intensive residential courses, self-study packs, the media—the formats in which these programmes are offered and the modes of teaching—learning available to adults are legion.

(c) The teachers have varied roles and relationships with the learners, in part indicated by the different names used— instructors, trainers, extension workers, animators, promoters, facilitators, tutors and so on. Many of them are part-timers, non-educationalists (in a formal sense, for they are rarely trained and qualified for their educational task). The number of full-time professional educators and trainers of adults, except in the agricultural and health extension services, is small, and most of them organize as well as teach. Most teachers of adults are practising professionals of one sort or another who are willing, persuaded or even sometimes compelled to pass on to others some part of their capacities.
Diversity, coherence and change

The significant thing about this 'diverse constellation of opportunities' is that decision-making in adult education is not centralized or direct; it is heterogeneous, complex and diffuse.

In this adult education is similar to Development. But adult education is more culture-bound and less international in character than Development. The pattern of Adult Education as provision has grown up in each country over many years. Sometimes a particular form or organization will have been transplanted from one country to another—university extra-mural departments, for example, or community colleges or folk high schools from the West to Third World countries—but the mix in every country will differ. The possibilities of specific interests, governmental or non-governmental, influencing this adult education network, seeking to change its direction or purpose or to focus its efforts onto particular activities, will be few and difficult to exploit.

This being so, it is something of a paradox that adult education is more influenced by general climates of opinion than is the formal system of education. Schools and colleges respond but slowly to the demands of the nation or changing general concerns. Adult education provision on the other hand tends to adapt itself more rapidly and directly in response to general changes in culture. Over the years that adult education has been a feature of Western societies, it has shown many and remarkable changes of emphasis, ideologies, forms of provision and learning methods, some of them resulting in controversies and conflicts. The emergence of the concept of continuing education is one such example.

But despite this, there has been in many parts of the West some sense of coherence in this diversity. It has been pointed out, for instance, how similar the programmes of liberal adult education of different providing bodies are and how resistant to change they are. Adult educators talk a language of their own. It is only in the last few years that this coherence has fallen apart with the appearance of new forms of provision, new matters of concern. Nevertheless, we must remember that in adult education as elsewhere, older fashions do not die away with the advent of newer ones; the later find a niche alongside the earlier, and so the network becomes ever more complicated.

Perhaps the most striking example of this incrementalism is the question of the purpose of adult education—what it is all for. It is to this we must turn for the next stage of our argument.

NOTES TO CHAPTER 3

(1) Lowe (1975), ch. 3.
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(11) State Resource Centre, Tamil Nadu, Madras, unpublished survey.
(14) "...there is...a surprising consistency in the provision of a common core curriculum in institutions of all types. The impression is of a broad national consensus about what kinds of things adult education ought to offer..." Mee, G. and Wiltshire, H. C. (1978) Structure and Performance in Adult Education, Longman, p. 110.
Chapter 4

The Purpose of Adult Education

Before discussing differing perceptions of the purpose of adult education, two matters need attention—the debate about the purpose of education in general, and the relationship between adult education and the formal systems of education.

THE PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

Discussions over the nature and purpose of education in society have revealed four main clusters of ideas:

(a) that it has a technical function, to provide a trained labour force, to promote the skills and knowledge required by a modern industrialized society to acquire greater prosperity; education gives capabilities.

(b) that it establishes status. Education is a process of jostling by which an individual achieves a role and thereby a set position which he/she occupies for the rest of life. In this 'meal-ticket' view of the function of education, the constant battles between groups to control different social and economic resources spill over into the schools and colleges. Education follows the changes in society.

(c) that its main effect is to reproduce social structures and cultures, preventing change taking place so that the individual is adapted to the dominant social and cultural norms; education instills respect for the existing elites.

(d) that if it is effective, it is a revolutionary force for both individual (providing mobility) and society (promoting development). It enables the learner to reflect critically on the reality around and to co-operate with others to change that reality.

There seems to be a general consensus that education cannot be neutral: it either confirms or seeks to change the existing reality.
ADULT EDUCATION AND EDUCATION

These debates have spilled over into discussions about the role and purpose of adult education. They have, however, been complicated by another question, the relationship between adult education and the formal educational system. This has been seen to be of two kinds:

(a) Adult education exists to extend formal schooling to those who 'missed out', who failed to get what the more fortunate got through formal education (whether that fortunate group is a majority as in many countries in the West or a minority as in most Third World countries)—what is called a 'remedial' view.

(b) Adult education exists as something quite different, performing functions which formal schooling could never perform—what may be called a 'sui generis' view.

In practice, adult education performs both roles in varying degrees and is subject to both forms of policy. It provides new forms of initial education and special programmes for adults in a series of lifelong learning opportunities.

This two-fold orientation of adult education does not help for clarity of thought in the debate about the purpose of adult education, and there has been and still is much imprecision and confusion in the terms used and the arguments put forward. Nevertheless, there has grown up in the West a general consensus about the nature and purpose of adult education which centres on two main points:

• that it is for the individual
• that it is for those who attend voluntarily

Recently that consensus shows signs of dissolving, but before we can examine this in detail, we must look more closely at these two points and at the way in which this consensus has been arrived at.

The development of adult education in the West

Thinking about adult education in the West over the last 150 years has undergone significant changes, and many different positions have been adopted. Two main strands have persisted throughout this period, the liberal education view and the social change view. They have existed alongside each other, each interrelating with and borrowing from the other.

The nineteenth century saw the emergence of a number of programmes of both kinds, although those directed towards social change tended to predominate—Sunday schools for the masses, for instance, or mechanics' institutes or trade union education, which represented an intention in a new wider democracy to 'educate our masters', to provide learning opportunities appropriate for a society in which all of its adult (male) citizens should participate fully. Most of these programmes, however, expressed their goals in terms of individual growth, so that both strands today claim the same movements as antecedents for their particular approaches and philosophies.

But during the twentieth century, the liberal approach has predominated. The stress since the 1930s has been on individual growth. Such an approach characterized all parts of the educational system in Western societies; how far its origins lie in the latest but
The Purpose of Adult Education

powerful philosophies of Aristotle or in nineteenth-century pragmatic and entrepreneurial attitudes, or indeed in the successful completion by most of the West of its ambitious programme of universal elementary education, is hard to determine."

Lifelong learning and lifelong education

The years after the Second World War saw enormous strides in understanding of adult education. It was at this time that the concept of lifelong learning and of lifelong education—which had emerged before the war—was clarified and refined:

"It is ridiculous to suppose that schools can provide all the learning needed for life, especially in its vocational aspect: those who work on that assumption (as Sir Richard Livingstone put it) 'behave like people who would try to give their children in a week all the food they require for a year: a method which might seem to save time and trouble but would not improve digestion, efficiency or health'."

This is true not only of technologically changing societies but of all parts of the world.

Life is such an endless research problem that no student can ever come out of any educational institution with ready-made solutions to it. The best a student can hope to come out with are the techniques of learning and thinking about any problem life might present.

What came to be called "the front-end loading" or "banking" models of education were increasingly considered to be inappropriate for a rapidly changing and uncertain world. "Learning later" became one of the keynotes of discussions. One result of this emerging understanding of lifelong learning was the view that everyone should have the opportunity to participate in planned learning at any stage in life when their individual needs required and when their desires were aroused. Schooling remained the main form of education, but it needed to be supplemented by lifelong education.

The way such lifelong learning needs and desires were to be met varied according to the social structures, culture and understandings in each country. Different responses were given to the call from UNESCO in the early 1950s for a coherent programme of education continuing throughout life from childhood to old age. Faced with a policy decision as to whether to integrate adult education into a single educational system or to keep it discrete, three main polarities emerged.

(a) Some governments urged the adaptation of the existing formal system to cope with new groups of learners. In America, the community colleges and other educational establishments became the focus of a new approach towards helping adults to learn purposefully through the existing or a new kind of formal educational system; and in other countries, 'community education' called for the integration of child and adult learning opportunities and the use of nationally provided educational facilities by and for the whole community, which had after all paid for them. It was out of this strand that Continuing Education came—the continuation of formal education which follows on from, accepts the premises of, and cannot criticize initial formal education. This approach sought to open up formal education to meet the needs for lifelong learning rather than change it altogether.

(b) At the opposite extreme, the French and the Council of Europe called for education populaire, building various life-related activities in society and new
Adult Learning and Education

agencies into an informal pattern of education for continued learning (formation) rather than using the formal system of education to meet learning needs which sprang as much from cultural as from economic and technological changes; thus 'paid educational leave' prescribed by statute encouraged the growth of private providers of adult learning programmes, including continuous vocational training (education permanente). This approach left the formal system untouched.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), on the other hand, advocated 'Recurrent Education', a refocusing of the formal system so as to allow 'adults who want to resume their education' access to 'formal and preferably full-time education' in a nationwide and lifelong pattern of provision which would give them the opportunity to go in and out whenever they needed to. This was seen as a new strategy, radically changing the schools and colleges to the new insights of lifelong education, incorporating the formal and informal adult education agencies into one single educational system. It was seen to be a matter of entitlement to education, especially in relation to the needs of work. But Olof Palme of Sweden gave a particular thrust to Recurrent Education when he urged that it should be used to redress educational inequalities, and the UK's Association for Recurrent Education also took this line: those who were earlier denied their opportunity for whatever reason should if they so wish have the right to recover the ground they had lost to more fortunate persons. Recurrent education was seen as a strategy for implementing the whole of lifelong learning at childhood and adult stages by transforming the educational system through political action.

Uncertainty in practice

Although the above 'doctrinal' positions were taken up, in practice more mixed approaches were adopted. Most countries drew a sharp distinction between vocational and non-vocational education, the first being equated with 'training' rather than the cultivation of the mind or education for self-fulfilment which has been regarded as the primary aim of education; or between a narrow view of vocational training as skills development and the formation of compliant attitudes on the one hand, and a wider view which aims at the growth of the personality as a whole and which should be of assistance in regulating the development of production in such a manner that it serves in the realization of basic human values and adapts itself to the preservation of the balance of nature' on the other hand. Systems were built to institutionalize these distinctions. Special institutions (like the folk high schools of northern Europe and the Workers' Universities in Yugoslavia) and special activities (like the Scandinavian study circles) were created to promote increased adult learning opportunities. In the UK, adult education was at first added as an appendage to existing formal educational establishments (universities, colleges of further education or some schools) or provided by non-governmental agencies; it was only later that special public Adult Education Institutes were set up by local education authorities. The term 'adult education' joined 'primary', 'secondary' and 'further/higher' education, striving for an equality of acceptance alongside but separate from these other sectors of the whole educational service. The reasons for this lack of consensus are many and probably derive from the dilemmas of pluralism inherent in Western democratic societies. But in large part they spring
from tensions within education itself, tensions, for example, between spontaneous learning and stimulated learning which were more acutely felt in adult education with its emphasis on the autonomy of the adult learner, tensions which in turn reflected the differences between the two main strands of adult education, the social change and the liberal ideologies.

It is not surprising then that the terms used in these discussions were often confused and vague in meaning. Lifelong learning, lifelong education, continuing education, permanent education, recurrent education were all mixed up, often in the same document. 'Continuing Education' was for a time the favoured term to express the whole of (educational) life after school. This certainly was how the UK Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education (ACACE) used the words. Sometimes the phrase was employed in an even wider sense, to mean all education from the cradle to the grave: an Oxford conference saw 'lifelong education' as synonymous with 'continuing education', and as late as 1983 the two terms could be employed interchangeably, with a note that 'the social policy of continuing education has evolved from the liberal-democratic tradition of adult education'. 'Continuing Education' then had no value-laden connotations such as it has today; indeed, 'continuing education' and 'liberal adult education' were on occasion used to cover the same field of adult education, contrasted with 'recurrent education' which was seen as 'radical' education.

The learner-centred approach

Behind all this diversity, the unifying theme was that adult education was for the individual. Both the social change and the liberal tradition views of adult education were agreed that the individual learner was the prime concern of the programme. The study of 'andragogy'—how adults can best be helped to learn while respecting their adulthood—which was more advanced in the United States than in Europe, stressed the student-centredness of adult education—the development of the whole person, the individual's motivation, freedom of choice and participation in the learning process, the achievement of goals set by the learners themselves. 'Adults should learn what they want to learn, when they want to learn it, at their own pace, in their own location and for their own purposes' was the slogan of bodies like the WEA. 'Individuals . . . have the right to choose their own provision for their own purposes' (original italics), to 'exercise a real choice about the sort of learning experience they choose to undergo.'

The end result of this learner-centred approach was the view that adult learners should come to control their own education. The overriding aim behind all educational provision for adults is to help the learners to become independent, so that the planner/teachers will become redundant as the learners plan and carry out their own purposeful learning. And if the objective of adult education is to end outsider-led education and training and to create self-directing learners ('to enable the students to think and work independently' as the Russell Report phrased it), then the planner/teacher will encourage the learners to engage in the exercise of autonomy during the educational process itself. We cannot teach about democracy without practising democracy in our teaching; we cannot teach on equal terms without exercising equality.
The demand for this kind of adult education was seen to come from the learner. Programmes of education for adults had to be based on what the learner(s) wanted to learn, not on what the planner/educator decided the learner(s) should learn. It is something of a paradox that these learners' desires were often expressed in the language of needs rather than wants, for needs and wants are not the same. Needs are prescriptively defined by the educator in terms of the educator's perception of those needs.

Various writers explored this in depth. Some, like Carl Rogers, saw these learning needs in terms of adulthood—drives towards more and more autonomy and maturity. Others, like Maslow, saw different levels of needs—for self-actualization, once the prior and 'pre-potent' needs for food, shelter and safety, and then for love and belonging, recognition and esteem from others, had in large part been met. Still others have sought to express these needs for learning in terms of a search for meaning, each adult interpreting reality in an attempt to make sense for him or her self. The area of learner needs is perhaps the clearest indication of the individualistic approach to adult education in the West. Wilshire proclaimed this most expressively when he saw the pressure for adult learning as arising from 'a sense of dissatisfaction with oneself' and the task of adult education as 'not socialisation, not vocational training but something which may perhaps be described as individuation—self discovery and self development voluntarily undertaken'. Self-actualization became an essential part of liberal adult education: 'All forms of education are a means to an end... the end of personal development, of an awareness of oneself or one's society.'

The private wants of the learners then, rather than public needs, became the touchstone of adult education, and it was increasingly set against Continuing Education, which was coming to be seen almost exclusively vocational in nature, denying individual growth and expression. The recent British Labour Party statement that the first aim of adult education is the promotion of 'personal development and self-fulfilment' repeats what has been the text of most providers from Mansbridge with his 'right of the [class] members to decide how, why, what or when they wish to study' and the '909 Report, Oxford and Working Class Education, to the Russell Report of 1973 and other governmental, para-statid and non-governmental statements.' Similar views were posited by adult educators in other countries. As Raymond Williams pointed out, such a doctrine was based on individualist theories of man and society rather than socialist views.

The purpose of education then was seen to be individual growth and self-development through enhanced experiences at the instance of the learner(s). And the result of this emphasis on providing programmes to meet the wants of the learners was 'the learning contract,' Provision was seen to be the subject of negotiation between the provider/planner/teacher on one hand and the learner(s) on the other. The ideology of adult education achieves for practitioners a promise to their clientele that their primary concern will be with students' needs and interests. In practice there was little real negotiation. What the learner wanted was king: the adult education agency was not supposed to provide anything which the adult learner(s) did not want. Despite the language used, demand, not need, became the criteria for provision; it was to be 'designed in the simplest possible way to respond to demand.' The aim was to 'attract participants'; and it followed that if no one turned up to the programme, this merely showed that the adult
education they had 'got it wrong' in their planning—the right kind of learning opportunities to meet the learners' wants were not being provided.16

Special needs

Such an approach presupposes that demand is pre-existent and articulated by those who are educationally aware. But if everyone was so have these opportunities, there would have to be special provision for groups which were specially disadvantaged. Many people, even in the affluent West, were too poor or too poorly prepared educationally to be able to take advantage of what was offered to them; others were living in places not yet reached by the provision of adult learning programmes. So picking up on the work of writers like Paulo Freire (the new guru of adult education), Ivan Illich and others who pointed out that educational 'drop-outs' were not so much failures as casualties of the educational system, programmes and resources for EPGs (Educational Priority Groups) and EPAs (Educational Priority Areas) and other special sectors abounded. The largest set of programmes was for the largest disadvantaged sector—women. Many adult education agencies sprang to the rescue once the Feminine Mystique was revealed and the invisible became visible (though it is significant that many women's movements kept themselves aloof from the various colleges and education bodies which provided New Horizons, New Opportunities for Women, Wider Opportunities and other special programmes 'for' women). But there were also programmes and pressure groups for other interests—the physically handicapped, the elderly, the retired and retiring, the unemployed, the immigrant, the inner city resident, the itinerant, the mentally impaired, and so on. This was the time when adult literacy agencies were established in industrialized countries after the discovery that illiteracy existed in societies which possessed universal compulsory free education, when coping and survival education for adults was developed, when English as a Second Language (ESL) was found to be a major need, when pre-school groups, playgroup classes and mother-and-child programmes were launched.

Many will argue that the purpose behind these programmes was to bring about structural change, to alter the balance between the dispossessed and marginalized on the one hand, and the educated and powerful on the other. As one engaged in some of these initiatives in the heady 1960s and early 1970s, I can only say that at the time it did not feel like this. We hoped that the process of widening opportunity for education to persons hitherto excluded would result in profound social change. But we were naive in assuming that our small pittance of effort would bring about the mass conversion of the West; we underestimated the numbers needed to achieve social revolution. We did not, many of us, consciously drive towards a set goal, a specific desired change. Our role was permissive rather than persuasive: to help our students 'to understand and perhaps change society'. Social change was incidental to our activities; the primary purpose was individual growth. Even some of the overtly 'social change' and community development programmes of the time were based on a concept of education as personal development, on desires for greater individual freedom and individual learning changes. The New Communities Project in Hampshire (UK), for example, was aimed at providing an "education for individual self discovery and self development...to encourage growth in human personality, character and creativity...greater confidence in their own
ability and potential", not for radical change. The education provided could be used by
the learners for their own purposes—for personal interest (though stopping short of
increased earnings) or greater participation in democracy; the choice would be theirs."

Certainly, we failed to appreciate that 'the logic of class or group interests is different
from the logic of individual interests', that escape for a few from a particular class or
group did not mean any change within that class or group as a whole. And so we
continued to help some few individuals to increase the range of their choices, to come
to have a greater measure of control over some larger or smaller part of their own lives.
Choice was our watchword; and our success stories were those who were enabled to
improve themselves rather than improve their social environment. Our doctrine was one
of liberation: freedom for the individual to choose and to participate. T. Ten Have
summed up our philosophy even when we had not heard of Ten Have himself:

adult education is that process within an individual by which he/she comes to a better
understanding of oneself and of reality, to a critical evaluation of both, and to a conscious
and direct handling of the possibilities offered within the social reality.

The more abstract (some would say abstruse) conceptualization of this point came in the
work of Habermas, though this did not percolate to some parts of the adult education
scene in the West until the end of the 1970s.19

THE MARGINALIZATION OF ADULT EDUCATION

In practice, then, the philosophy underlying the considerable increase in adult education
 provision in the 1960s was individualistic—that everyone had a right to education
throughout their lives. Access programmes for mature students, Return to Study
courses, the Open University and its successors, the University of the Third Age and
community colleges all emerged from the commitment of the practitioners. The spe-
cific needs of those adults who did return to study were researched, new programmes of
learning and new formats were devised, new delivery systems were developed and
experimented with. The search was on for an alternative to the formal system, open to
everyone who wanted to join irrespective of their wealth or poverty, irrespective of their
previous educational experiences and qualifications. Throughout the West, the winds of
change were felt in adult education; even in the Soviet Union, where pleas for a closer
relationship between the world of work and the world of education seem to have been
heard rather earlier than in the rest of Europe, new initiatives were launched. Some even
went so far as to assert that institutionalized adult education itself was denying to its
clients self-reliance and responsibility for their own learning. They sought to develop
open networks of learning and self-instructional resources, relating life and learning in
spontaneous self-learning processes rooted in everyday life, so that each person could
plan his/her own learning.20

Disillusionment with the formal system of education, felt by many educators (them-
selves often the successful products of it), had another result. Some of this provision of
new modes of learning for adults, accepting as it did the analysis of formal education as
having failed these adults badly and as continuing to bar their way into further learning,
was opposed to certification or at least sought new and more appropriate forms of
recognition such as certificates for the learning achieved through life experience. The
great debate on non-vocational liberal adult education continued to animate the providers of adult educational programmes for many years after it had ceased to fill the pages of the journals. Adult education was to be an open-ended process in which individuals enriched themselves.21

The result was that this programme was seen by governments and by many educationalists as being merely of personal value, 'dominated by concepts of leisure time satisfactions'. Adult education thus came to suffer from 'crippling marginality', not just in terms of society or governmental interest but also in terms of the educational system as a whole. More than 90 per cent of the spending of the UK government on education has been devoted to those under the age of 25. The recent emergence of new programmes of continuing education, such as PICKUP and PEVE, and especially employment training provided by the Manpower Services Commission and its successors in the UK and by similar bodies in other countries in the West, has resulted in some redistribution of resources towards the older age groups. Nevertheless these programmes—in societies which increasingly attach significance to paid employment and to education as building up a trained workforce for such paid employment—have themselves helped to confirm the apparent irrelevance and low status of liberal non-vocational adult education until, in the end, attending adult education classes has come to be regarded not so much as preparing for a better use of leisure but as a leisure activity in itself. Adult education has been increasingly marginalized—the last item on the educational agenda, on the back pages of the educational journals.22

Voluntarism

But adult education became marginalized for another reason—it reached only a small audience; it was not a mass programme. There were, it is true, claims that adult education programmes were 'for all people', 'to enable every person to develop their full potential', 'a body of provision for all sections of the population', a programme in which 'all manner of people from different levels of society are ... integrated into a liberal informative educational world' [which] 'offers a broad curriculum to a broad cross-section of the population' and so on. But such claims were unrealistic. Although the aim was that everyone was to be able to continue and advance their learning, the doctrine of meeting learner demands meant that programmes were designed to appeal only to those who were already interested, those who possessed the motivation to take advantage of them and the ability to articulate their wishes, not to those who failed to see or refuse to listen, who would not take up the opportunities provided for them. The principle of voluntarism underlay both the liberal tradition and the emancipatory philosophy of the liberation theologians amongst adult educators.23

Adult educationalists institutionalized this voluntariness. They targeted 'those who wished to take courses designed to meet their needs'. Even those who worked with disadvantaged or action groups (residents' groups, amenity societies, community associations, etc.) worked with those parts of the urban conglomerations where a response was apparent and ignored the rest. There was an elitism of motivation. Adult educators in the West did not on the whole have to struggle with the problem which continually faces extension workers and development change-agents in Third World countries, how to motivate reluctant learners. There were some exceptions, but in general if
programmes did not appeal and recruit, they were simply closed and often not offered again. As training courses for tutors began to stress student-centred active learning methods, participatory processes and respect for the adults' adulthood and autonomy, so the selectivity of adult education programmes became more marked. The concentration of those who were concerned with working-class education on education for leadership led to similar forms of elitism.¹⁷

In speaking of elitism, I am not talking of the fact that, despite the commitment of most adult educators to narrowing the gap between the educational haves and have-nots, the programmes actually increased this gap, so that the more education one had the more one wanted and the more one got, until adult education has become 'mainly a middle-class phenomenon'. 'There is overwhelming evidence that the more initial education people experience, the more they wish to continue with their education in later life.' Nor am I speaking of a financial elitism, though over the years the financing of adult education programmes has tended to increase that tendency. For both of these are forms of elitism which adult educators have resisted strenuously.²⁰

Rather the elitism I am talking of is one which adult educators have connived at. It springs from voluntarism. The result of relying upon the learners to articulate their demands has been that adult education has reached only 'a small and socially discrete' sector of the population; 'it performs [its] functions for a small minority of the population'. Adult education is seen to be irrelevant to the large majority of the population.²⁴

The low participation rates in many countries show this. The diffuse nature of adult education and the differing interpretations of what is and what is not adult education mean that it is virtually impossible to obtain accurate statistics, but the general picture is clear. Few countries can boast the levels of participation of some of the Scandinavian nations (Finland 35 per cent, Norway 27 per cent, Sweden 40 per cent). In the UK a survey in 1980 suggested a participation rate of some 16-20 per cent of the adult population over a three-year period. A parallel survey in the Irish Republic (1983) produced a figure of some 11 per cent in one year and 16 per cent over the previous three years. In the United States, a survey taken by the National Center for Educational Statistics in 1982 indicated a take-up rate of nearly 13 per cent per annum. Comparative work done on a number of industrialized countries using other methods of analysis reveals much the same (Table 4.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
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<td>France</td>
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<td>Soviet Union</td>
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<td>West Germany</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA*</td>
<td>27</td>
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</table>

* Higher than the 1982 survey finding mentioned in the text.

One reason for such rates is clear: as a recent survey of adult students in London (UK) indicated, the role of the adult education service is still seen to be '... meeting the educational needs of those who, for whatever reason, failed to benefit from initial
education and are motivated in later life to make up' [my italics]. Adult education is intended only for those who want to come.

Individualism and social change

There were of course exceptions to this 'voluntary elitism': the older social tradition did not completely die away. A strand of adult education seen as a 'national necessity' and committed to the development of an informed and participatory democracy continued, helping to create, form and direct the working-class movement. The calls of bodies such as the National Council of Labour Colleges (1909) and the early WEA for social reform through education rather than through revolution were renewed: 'every adult educationalist is an agent of change and is committed to social change in so far as he [sic] works for the dissemination of educational values'. But the fact that these voices were exceptions stresses the general truth, that adult education in the West was aimed more at the advancement of the motivated individual than at the Development of society as a whole. From government and practitioners alike comes overwhelming evidence of this. The Adult Education Act of 1976 in Norway puts it well:

[adult education] is to help the individual to obtain a more satisfying life. This act shall contribute to providing adult persons with equal opportunities to acquire knowledge, understanding and skill, which will improve the individual's sense of value and personal development and strengthens the basis for independent achievement and co-operation with others in working and community life.[24]

What is more, the doctrine of individualism held sway even in many of these apparent exceptions. Most socially purportive adult education programmes were still at heart voluntaryist and individualistic. The Liverpool EPA programme, held up as the model of social change adult education, reported that it proceeded by 'conducting a house to house survey of adult education needs and then organizing activities for those expressing interest' [my italics]. This was not an alternative approach to individualism; it held both concepts of self-actualization and social change in the same basket. From Freire with his discussion of individual development and collective consciousness, to Russell ('the value of education is ... measured ... by the quality of life it inspires in the individual and generates in the community at large'), it was felt to be possible to speak of the two goals in the same breath, of 'greater social and political awareness as well as intellectual enlightenment'. Individual development leads to social equality as well as to economic growth; growing individual awareness will bring about social transformation, 'enabling people to understand and even challenge their own organisational culture'.

Some it is true found it hard to reconcile individualism with social structural change: 'for the individual, basic education may offer rewards, for the disadvantaged as a group it offers very little that can ameliorate the circumstances ... or the conditions which produce them'; 'to the individual working-class person, mobility in this society may mean something ... to the class or group ... however, mobility means nothing at all. The only true mobility at this level would be the destruction of the whole class society.' But these are few. For most adult educators, when they borrow the language of radicalism, social change will be brought about through voluntary individual development. 'If education is ... related to consciousness, the learning becomes a "social" as distinct
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from a purely "personal" activity; a liberal progressive movement for educational change... could be a primary factor in reshaping the world for the better... [it would] promote equality" [here, the sentiments are influenced by American writings where 'liberal' is seen to be synonymous with 'radical']. For those adult educators in the late 1960s who possessed a social purpose, large-scale structural change would come about through the increased awareness and decisions of individuals.

The trouble with this position is, however, that more than a century of adult education in the West has not in fact led to any form of social change.

NOTES TO CHAPTER 4

(1) Haley et al. (1961).


(6) For the individual in the West, see Macpherson, C. B. (1973) Democratic Theory, Oxford: Clarendon: "man is free when he is proprietor of his own person"; Macfetnon, A. (1979) The Origins of English Individualism, Oxford: Blackwell; Allen, C. K. (1943) Democracy and the Individual, Oxford: Oxford University Press; Thompson, D. F. (1971) The Democratic Citizen: Social Science and Democratic Theory in the Twentieth Century, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. In much (but not all) of the thinking in the West, the state is seen to be made up directly of individuals (Toynbee called such Western democracies "universal churches"); in much (but not all) of the thinking in Third World countries, the state is thought to be made up of collections of collectives.


The Purpose of Adult Education


Adult Education (USA) 32(1), 3-24.


(15) See for example Jobert (1988), p. 2: education ‘can become a time for self-reflection and questioning one’s immediate field of perception... to help him/her develop a project based on... his/her interests and resources’.

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(18) McPherson and Spencer (1988), pp. 70, 135; Lindeman (1928), pp. 8–9: 'In adult education, the curriculum is built around the students' needs and interests... The approach to adult education will be via situations, not subjects.' See Thompson (1980), p. 101. The libertarian solution of the de-schoolers is to establish the professions and institutionalise society: on behalf of individual freedom' (my italics), Fordham et al. (1979).


(20) See for example Clyde (1972); Newman (1979); Jackson (1970); Kirkwood (1978).


(28) Vaill and Spencer (1988), p. 2; 1909 Report; Lovett (1971), p. 25; EBAA (1980) Norway. Baroness Hooper, one of the UK Ministers for Education addressing the annual conference of NIACE at Loughborough (UK) in May 1988 spoke of the essential character of education as providing for personal growth. The President of the Austrian Adult Education Association, Mrs Freidich-Sandner, spoke in August 1988 of adult education helping individuals to cope with change rather than to direct it, of 'adult education being free from party politics and oriented towards the individual and his or her educational needs': AE 61(2) (1988), 150; AE 61(3) (1988), 256; Council of Europe (1942), p. 27; Lawson (1977) writes of the 'traditional role [of education]... general
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(20) AE 64(2) (1988) 121; Newman (1979); Thompson (1980). pp. 9, 107; Jackson, K. and Lovett, T. (1971) Universities and the WEA: an Alternative Approach, AE 44(2). Dave (1976), p. 34, describes lifelong education as ‘a process of accomplishing personal, social and professional development throughout the lifespan of individuals in order to enhance the quality of life of both individuals and their collectivities’ [my italics]. See Finch, J. (1984) Education and Social Policy, Longman, p. 94: ‘education for both individual development and social purpose’. Russell Report: ‘Traditionally the WEA has believed that much of its work in general education was directed to greater social and political awareness as well as intellectual enlightenment’; ‘it seems to us vital to provide the fullest opportunities for personal development and for the realisation of a higher standard of citizenship’. Lovett (1971), p. 13: ‘As far as individuals are concerned, success can be reckoned . . . in terms of . . . [various competencies and attitudes], but in the most important sense, success will depend on the extent to which adult education contributes to the process of social change’; and Lovett (1980), p. 153, speaks of adult education as ‘meeting a variety of needs and interests among the working class, encouraging personal growth and development; and supporting greater community awareness and involvement’. See Keddie (1980), pp. 62–3. Fletcher (1980) distinguishes between liberal and liberating interpretations of adult (community) education, but others hope to reconcile the two. e.g. Brookfield (1983), pp. 66–70. In the USA, Bowles and Gintis wrote that a liberal view of education provides the means of furthering personal benefit and fulfilment, whilst at the same time promoting social justice, equality and the integration of the diverse interests of different groups in society. See Clarke, M. (1978) Meeting the needs of the adult learner: using non-formal education for social action, Convergence 11, 3–4; O’Sullivan, D. (1981) Adult education, social change and the interpretive model, Aotearoa Review 3(1), 57–70, which argues that social change springs from individual learning.
Chapter 5

A Changed World

The student riots in France and elsewhere in the late 1960s, coupled with the reactions in the United States and other countries to the Vietnam War, marked a distinct change. How far the re-emergence of social conflict at this time derived any inspiration from those programmes of adult education which had been designed to alleviate the worst aspects of disadvantage is not clear. The de-schoolers and the liberation theologians had taught us to view the disadvantaged as oppressed victims rather than as handicapped, and the systems as partial, not disinterested, and the UNESCO Report Learning To Be (1972) showed a possible new educational future. Some educators had come to see that self-fulfilment adult education had not led and probably never would lead to the massive and urgent social reconstruction which was necessary to achieve social justice. So the questions were rewritten: how could society be changed in the direction of a wider-based democracy, and what if any were the parts to be played, respectively, by adult education and/or direct action?8

The student riots failed, or so many judged at the time. But the climate had been changed irrevocably in at least two ways. First a sense of internationalism and collective responsibility had grown. We now saw ourselves as part of an interdependent 'global village'. The language was colourful ('spaceship earth', for example) but the sentiments were real and pressing. Adult education felt these changes. UNESCO international conferences on adult education began in 1972, with their consequent redefinition of the term and the loosening of the close links between adult education and local cultural value systems. The International Council for Adult Education was established in 1973 and other international bodies in distance education and university adult education followed. Adult educators began to visit Third World countries from the early 1970s, following the Development trainers and extension workers who had gone ahead but who did not talk to adult educators of what they learned from these visits. The 1976 Declaration of Nairobi was issued, though like the Faure Report in practice it fell on largely deaf ears in the West.9

The second change was the emergence of an era of gloomy futurology, ranging from Future Shock and Silent Spring to the Club of Rome reports from 1972 onwards. The pressing need now was not so much to advance the cause of particular disadvantaged
groups (though this was still important) or even to cope with a world undergoing accelerating comprehensive change, as to address global problems.

In this emerging sense of crisis, the question was asked whether education had a role to play. A new set of objectives began to be discussed—not just to promote personal growth but to use education to ameliorate some social condition or to solve some social problem. It was undertaken as a task set by the state (a health campaign, for instance) or by a concerned constituency (to mobilize support for environmental conservation, for example). Even some of those who saw adult education as the provision of learning opportunities for those who wanted them were no longer willing to wait for clients to present themselves: the needs of this new (pessimistic? realistic?) world were so pressing that agencies, they urged, should seek to persuade those who did not want to learn to take action through education and to urge those who were abusing the natural and manmade environment to change their attitudes and behaviour. The oil crisis sealed the old world off from the new for ever: what was at stake was not just the welfare of some individuals or groups of people but of society itself. A new meaning was given to the phrase 'survival education': it no longer applied just to helping those who were struggling within an oppressive world to make their voice heard and to take control over some part of their own lives, but to the survival of the human race on this planet.²

DEVELOPMENT IN THE WEST

For gradually the peoples and governments in the West have come to realize that their societies have problems in many ways similar to those of Third World countries, and that part of the answer lies, as in the Third World, in programmes directed towards nationally set goals. Now, I do not want to be misunderstood. The Developmental needs of the Third World countries are of such an immense degree that they must always be in a class of their own. And to urge that the West has similar needs must not be seen as in any way weakening the demands which the Third World countries can legitimately make on the rich countries of the West.

At the same time, as we begin to look at our own societies through Third World eyes, we are learning much about ourselves. Western societies have, for example, come to recognize that they have a literacy problem, and national goals have been set, national programmes launched. Growing awareness of other issues has resulted from the unrelenting pressure of non-governmental interest groups such as CND, Amnesty International, Friends of the Earth and Greenpeace, and from some para-statal bodies such as the UK Health Education Authority. Belatedly, the media and governmental agencies have joined in. These new concerns are increasingly being expressed in Developmental terms (see, for instance, the language used by the European Community), and the goals of the new programmes are remarkably similar to those of Third World countries—national integration and communal harmony; help for the unemployed and under-employed, especially in an age of new technologies; justice for women and other sectors particularly disadvantaged or marginalized (immigrant or itinerant groups, for example) and so on. Most Western cities have urgent housing and inner city regeneration needs, opportunities for formal education are not yet universal; and concern is increasingly expressed about such matters as population growth, resource depletion and the arms race, the health and nutritional status of many sectors, pollution control and the
care of the environment, widespread poverty, the abuse of children, the care of the elderly, poisoned industrial relations, rural deprivation, and the collapse of a sense of local community. All these are areas of concern in which Third World Development programmes have devised strategies which are of relevance to the West.

Sustainable Development

To these concerns may be added the emergence of the concept of 'sustainable Development': an approach to progress which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. (Tokyo Declaration.) The concept of 'sustainable Development' is built on the premise that one of the most pressing world problems is the current use of the earth's resources in such a way that they will no longer be available for future generations. Growth which fails to 'respect limits to environmental resources' is no longer acceptable. Such a doctrine applies to all countries, not just to the poorer nations in the Third World:

...we are talking here not just of the economic development of developing countries but of all development—of human progress, if you like. It is 'development' in its broadest sense, and the requirement that it be 'sustainable' is an injunction to all countries and all people. The ability of future generations to meet their own needs can be compromised as much by the excesses of industrial and technological development as by the environmental degradation of under-development.

Indeed, it is urged, this new insight should strike home first in the West:

...the ideas contained in this new vision of sustainable Development are spreading gradually throughout the world. Combined with other pressures for change, they are helping the West to see, slowly, too slowly, that it too has Developmental needs and must therefore adopt Developmental approaches to meet those needs.

What we are seeing is the beginning of a new approach to Development, 'alternative Development'. Views from the old dogmas persist; some Western politicians can still repeat that 'what is part of our lives today are the ambitions of the Third World tomorrow', but others have come to see that 'the criteria of progress are changing'. Development is coming to mean not so much adjustment to an industrial way of life (which some Third World countries have in fact made relatively easily, using both old and new technologies) but a question of resource management. It is to the world as a whole that we need to turn to find the solutions to the world's problems, not just to the West.

REACTIONS TO CRISIS: EDUCATION AND THE ECONOMY

In the search for answers, some people came to see education—especially adult education, free from what were regarded as the irrelevancies and corrupting influences
of the formal schooling and university systems—as one vehicle for helping to address these problems. Not only can education help societies to adapt to a 'critical present and an uncertain future', to 'train people to tolerate uncertainty'; it can also directly help with the solution of non-educational problems, including social transformation. Universities, for instance, can 'serve the nation's needs'; they have a Developmental role in view of current levels of unemployment, violence, social conflict and economic decline. And governments in some cases have directly asked the educational agencies to assist in relation to these problems.7

The aspect of Development for which education is seen to be of direct relevance is economic revival. Since knowledge is taken to be the basis of economic growth, in an age of new technology, education is 'an engine fuelling the economy'. Universities and colleges exist to promote human resource development, especially in relation to the community which stands around them; they are increasingly being called upon to make their teaching and the fruits of their research available to others. Formal education is 'given the central role of providing the skilled labour power by which technology [can] be translated into greater material wealth'; and if schooling failed to develop human talent adequately, then continuing or adult education must do this: in Spain, 'vocational training, technical innovation and adaptation to new needs in production among groups most disadvantaged by the changes in industry' [received most attention]; 'adult education was placed low on the list of priorities'; 'It is likely that in the future all adult education will be geared more to vocational needs' [Scotland].8

A third strand (economic growth) then added to the two (personal development and social change) which have already been identified as central to the role of education in the West. The strand is not of course new; the need for vocational training had been heard in the nineteenth century and persisted throughout the succeeding years. But it now received new emphasis alongside the other two. Sometimes all three were combined together: the OECD asserted that adult education was 'designed to fulfill three general tasks, to improve competencies, to promote self-fulfillment and better inter-relationship within society, and to enhance social action', and it saw Recurrent Education as a strategy to 'create better opportunities for individual development and greater educational and social equality and play a role in generating economic growth' [original italics]. More frequently, economic growth was combined with personal development: in the UK, for example, the Department of Education and Science considered 'higher education valuable for its contribution to the personal development of those who pursue human talent', while the Universities Grants Committee saw 'higher education attempting to meet both the needs of the economy for highly skilled manpower and the aspiration of individuals for an educational experience which will provide for personal development'.

The role of adult education in Development in the West

Education then was seen to have a role to play in settling some at least of the Development issues which faced Western governments from the early 1970s. But when it came to Adult Education, government attitudes were more ambivalent. On the one hand, traditional adult education was seen to be ineffective, irrelevant to such social and economic
needs and therefore marginal. So new instruments were devised in many countries. In
the UK, the Manpower Services Commission, established in 1974, declared itself to be
in the business of opening up an alternative education and training system alongside the
existing adult education system, because the latter is not attractive to customers. On
the other hand, in countries like Germany and Finland, "government looked to Adult
Education to provide programmes that can demonstrably contribute to its short and
long-term social, economic, political and cultural objectives", as well as maintaining its
traditional role. The role of adult education was reviewed: commissions were appointed
in Ireland, England and Wales, Scotland, Finland and the Netherlands, and many
special sector committees were set up; a number of countries legislated for adult
education (sometimes for the first time)—France 1971, Denmark 1975, Norway 1976,
the USA 1976, etc.\textsuperscript{10}

The aspect which governments called upon adult education agencies to assist with
most was unemployement. Adult education was seen as a major tool to retain the
unemployed or keep them quiescent: "when the new jobless move on to different work or
remain unemployed, the responsibility for them is almost always left to the educational
system" (Finland); "it is essential that basic education should be available to counter the
loss of personal dignity, the waste of human resource and the vulnerability to political
extremism that hopeless unemployment can bring", wrote the UK's ACACE with
uncharacteristic prejudice; while in Norway, adult education was seen to be as much
"for the sake of stimulating the economy and adapting the workforce to the changing
employment market... as a way of providing as many as possible with a chance for
self-development and self-fulfilment on their own terms".\textsuperscript{11} But there were other
approaches: in Germany, when the Ministry of Health or other government body
wanted local-level agencies to participate in some social programme, for example
an anti-smoking campaign, they funded them through the German Adult Education
Association.

But in many cases, this call fell on deaf ears. Most adult educators failed to respond or
resisted the re-orientation required. The offering of learning opportunities to some 10
per cent of the adult population who were already motivated for self-actualization
continued; indeed, this is still the fundamental objective of most of the programmes of
adult education offered in the West today. Although many agencies have stressed that
the two basic needs of today's world, to secure an equilibrium between the world's
human population and its natural resources, and to secure a just and peaceful harmony
between peoples, are so urgent that adult educators should no longer ignore the 60-75
per cent of adults who even in educated Western democracies have participated in no
form of planned continued learning since they ended their initial education, such pleas
still remain unheard as far as the majority of adult education providers in the West are
concerned or have become the subject of rhetoric, not practice.

University Adult Education in the UK and change

University Extra-Mural (or Adult Education) Departments (EMDs) in the United King-
dom provide one example of this more general refusal to listen. Over the last ten to
fifteen years, these departments have come under increasing pressure from three main
sources. First, central government has called for some say in what is done, asserting that
as publicly funded servants, the universities should engage in publicly demanded tasks. Secondly, pressure for Continuing Education (seen mainly as professional development courses, vocationally oriented) has arisen both within and without the university. And thirdly, there had been a growing sense of unease amongst some departmental staff at what they see as the apparent irrelevance of the programmes being offered—that they are not contributing significantly to the real advancement of the region in which they stand.

But despite these pressures, many university EMDs were slow to adapt to the changes demanded of them by the rest of the university and government alike. Many have taken their stand on the defence of the liberal tradition. They have failed to identify clearly what is essential in their ethos and what are their greatest strengths: first, the successful approach to access to higher and advanced learning which they can offer to those who have traditionally been excluded from it; secondly, their insistence that education means the education of the whole person, not just narrow vocational training; indeed, that vocational training in knowledge and skills is most effective when combined with wider education in understanding and attitudes and personal growth; and thirdly, the belief that the teaching of adults calls for special expertise and approaches and therefore for some full-time specialist staff—and to insist upon taking these with them into the new world they are urged to enter. With these in their armoury, EMDs can enter these new fields and yet retain their distinctive contribution to education as a whole.

It may be argued that the record of EMDs in access to higher education is not remarkable; that they compartmentalise as much as any other university department; and that they are themselves not always very good at teaching adults. They have not yet been able to persuade their university colleagues, let alone their governmental masters, that they are doing a good job in any of these respects. But there is much experience and conceptual understanding (if not practice) in these departments, and the pressures for change are irresistible. And a number of these departments, while attempting to preserve some or all of the ground won over so many years, are now beginning to change rather than clung to traditional forms without substance for the sake of their cherished beliefs. Higher education as a whole needs the values which adult educators bring with them.

The same is true of other parts of the adult education spectrum in the West. The world has changed, and adult education is faced with a challenge: either to change with it, preserving and utilizing the essential characteristics of adult learning in the service of new needs; or resist the change, insisting on older individualistic models and thus remaining marginalized, effective with the few rather than the many. There is a good deal of awareness of the fact of change: ‘Adult education in Finland is at the moment in a phase of great change and development’; ‘provision for adult learners in England and Wales is undergoing rapid structural change at present’, are only two of many remarks in national reports. Most countries can speak of ‘the last decade’s upheavals’.

Some adult educators have realized the need for new approaches: ‘developing adult education quantitatively and especially qualitatively is such a huge task that it is no longer sufficient to organise it in traditional ways’, as Finland reported. New philosophies and structures are needed because the problems which adult education now addresses are no longer specifically educational.

Faced with unemployment, changes in industry, the introduction of new technologies and regional development, training seemed to the political powers that be [in France] one of the
means of coping with these social problems ... education is no longer the central figure ... original educational answers have to be found as traditional 'courses' rarely provide a relevant answer ... non-pedagogic criteria for evaluation, particularly economic, will serve to measure the effectiveness of the training initiative; ... the division between general education and vocational education ... should be replaced by an integrated concept of these two ideas."

But reactions have not always been as forward-looking as these remarks suggest. Although there are increasing signs of a willingness to respond positively, a majority of adult educators have chosen to resist the pressure for change; and the result for them has been and will continue to be marginalization, financial cuts and increased competition from other bodies.

Two examples may be provided.

Local authority provision: a rural example

The published programmes of 803 courses offered in 1988-89 to the population of a large section of the rural county of Norfolk, UK, by the Local Education Authority (excluding the WEA and the University of Cambridge) reveal the nature of existing provision (Table 5.1). Few of these programmes may be termed Developmental apart from the health programmes. None of the crafts was intended as income-generating activities, though some of them may have been used for this purpose. Only one 'social roles' course was provided, for parish councillors. The language courses were mostly non-certiﬁcated though some could lead to an examination. Second chance courses in mathematics and English were provided only on a small scale. Employment skills included typing, with some shorthand and computer courses, most of them intended for home rather than business use; only seven courses were offered for small businesses. The small (less than 20 courses in all) multiple category of 'personal and social skills' included personal beauty, creative writing, assertiveness, communication skills, personal development through groups, mathematics for worried parents, caring for the elderly, parents and children, playgroups, and sign language for the deaf.

In answer to the charge that the people of this rural English county are not being offered much that will lead to the social, economic or political development of that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1 The range of adult education courses offered by Norfolk LEA 1988-89</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts and crafts 30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment skills 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic courses 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other outdoor activities 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second chance 6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other indoor activities 3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal and social skills 1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting and drawing 4%; flower arranging 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drain by doing, etc. 5%; drama 3 courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including cake icing 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including keep fit 6%; sports 10% (mainly swimming and badminton); health diets 6 courses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
region, except in health, the agencies may well respond that they see the provision of learning opportunities for Developmental tasks as the responsibility of other bodies such as the Manpower Services Commission (now the Training Authority), the Agricultural Training Board, the Rural Community Council and even the Women’s Institute. Adult education agencies in Norfolk set themselves a strictly limited task—to meet the leisure-time requirements of a small section of the adult population of that county. Even those programmes which could be said to be contributing to the cultural development of Norfolk—of which adult education would claim to have special concern—are directed mainly towards individual self-gratification. There is no sign that Norfolk is part of a multicultural society (only one English as a Second Language course). One course exemplifies this attitude of non-involvement: domestic poultry keeping (‘Discover the joys of keeping hens at home hygienically and economically’) in a county noted for its poultry.

We must not of course underestimate the ability of adult learners to take from these courses what they want—to use ‘Making the most of your knitting machine’ for income-generating activities, for example; but there is apparently no policy to promote income-generating activities in a region which despite its wealth has substantial pockets of poverty.

For adult education agencies in Norfolk base their programmes on those subjects which experience has shown the learners will come to; they ‘seek to do no more than satisfy articulated demand’, as the OECD put it. The agencies plan with a particular target population in mind; they have apparently ignored or overlooked other target groups within the region. They either have not surveyed the needs of the region as a whole or have decided to leave the meeting of those needs to others. Even when the programmes of the University of Cambridge Extra-Mural Board and the local WEA are added, there are few signs that adult education is ‘exploring the reality of Norfolk’ critically which its defenders claim to be adult education’s ultimate justification. Where, for instance, are courses for the large and small farmers in this rural region; for the many local councillors or school managers; for the small business community or professional groups, shopkeepers, parents of young children in a rural environment, the unemployed (the experimental Huntingdon Local Development Project which ran for one year 1986–87 under the auspices of REPLAN pointed the way to possibilities in this area), or young persons starting in their chosen career? Where are there any courses on what it means to live in a rural area in the 1980s and 1990s—in Europe, for example? Adult education is still—as judged by this and many other examples—concentrating on its traditional clientele, the leisureed and relatively well educated and on the whole wealthy seeking activities to fill their spare time. If these adult education programmes were closed down tomorrow, the impact on the Development of the Norfolk region would hardly be noticed. There is nothing here which will lead to any understanding of, let alone change in, Norfolk society.

Local authority provision: an urban example

Much the same can be said of Adult Education Institutes in urban areas, although there are significant differences especially in programmes relating to minority communities and local associations, to which some urban adult education centres are more responsive than most rural agencies. An example from London (Wandsworth and Putney 1988–89) indicates this. The published programme of 813 courses is summarized in Table 5.2. Out of a total of 813 courses, a third (272 courses) were in the appreciation and practice of
art and crafts (of which drawing and painting and courses relating to clothing were the largest categories). Other creative arts—writing, music and drama—were represented in another 8 per cent (66 courses, of which dance accounted for 24). Health programmes, including keep fit, diet, first aid and yoga, accounted for 70 courses (8 per cent).

Table 5.2  The range of adult education courses in Wandsworth and Putney 1958–89

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts and crafts 42%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic courses 10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health 8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second chance 8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal and social skills 8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports 6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other indoor activities 6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment skills 5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other outdoor activities 3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking 3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including (art making 8%; drawing and painting 8%; dance 3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including European languages 7.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly swimming</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including home computing 3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Programmes designed to help with vocational concerns (small businesses, computing—though most of the 26 courses in this category were for home users—and typing) were only 39; languages courses totalled 64 and were mostly European (French 27, Spanish 12, German 10, Italian 8). Academic-type interests—history, sociology, politics, philosophy and religion, film, literature, the environment and Third World issues—numbered 32 courses, some of them in association with London University. Programmes aimed at special groups were varied more than numerous: 4 per cent were specifically for women (assertiveness, self-defence, massage, etc.), though other programmes (e.g. keep fit) were listed as being directed at women. Mother, parent and family education received special attention in 20 courses. There were 68 basic education and English language courses at various levels. Training for workers in the community (playleaders, etc.) was provided in five courses.

Certain comments are needed on this list. First, (as with Norfolk) these courses are of different lengths, from very short to much longer. Some are for certificated programmes, some not. A number are for untutored groups (club classes) meeting to practise their activities. So that not all are of equal educational significance. Secondly, a particular feature of this programme is the imaginative way in which categories are combined, so that there may be some repetitions in the analysis above. Thirdly, the analysis is based on the advertised courses alone: various community groups hold meetings (many of which are concerned with social and political matters) in this Adult Education Institute.

Nevertheless, the conclusions are much the same. Allowing for the fact that there are other agencies engaged in the Development of this part of London, formal Adult Education (and this includes the WEA and the University Extra-Mural provision) concentrates its resources on the cultural and non-vocational interests and concerns of the neighbourhood. It offers more than Norfolk but still relatively little towards the economic, social and political Development of the area in which it stands.

The liberal backlash

Indeed there is a backlash in favour of a non-vocational concept of adult education. The 'high calling' of Tawney and the strong words of the 1919 Report have been reasserted:
education (as the Russell Report in 1973 put it) is 'not for economic purposes alone'. "State-sponsored economism . . . the kind of education blessed by government" is rejected on various grounds—not least the fact that the direct link between education and economic growth is not proven, and that educational provision of itself does nothing to generate jobs—in favour of one or both forms of liberal education, personal growth and/or social change: "those forms of study which are undertaken for the love of God and for the development of the personality" on the one hand, or learning opportunities which become 'a means of liberating the working classes from the bond-age of capitalism's culture' on the other."

Liberal adult education today has widened its brief. It has gathered to it itself much of what is formerly despised, namely social purpose, partly because it sees itself as equally threatened by the vocationalism of Continuing Education, partly because the new programmes of education for the unemployed are stimulating an interest in wider approaches to social education. Borrowing concepts and language heavily from its equally beleaguered partner, social change, adult education, it claims for itself a monopoly of educational virtues, and to speak for all true educators. The advantages of 'liberal adult education' (however defined, for the term is used loosely to cover many different forms of education to suit the purposes of those who employ it) have been frequently rehearsed in sharp contradistinction to the drawbacks of continuing education/vocational training (Table 5.3).

### Table 5.3 A summary of contrasting phraseology used to describe liberal adult education and continuing education/vocational training in the recent literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liberal adult education</th>
<th>Continuing Education/Vocational Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical and liberating</td>
<td>Limited and externally controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deals with ends and means</td>
<td>Deals with means only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deals with broad issues</td>
<td>Deals with immediate problems only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims to produce thinking critical citizens</td>
<td>Aims to produce efficient conventional technicians, producers of profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-ended; arguments for and against</td>
<td>Utilitarianism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Really useful knowledge' calculated to make one free</td>
<td>'Mostly useful knowledge' which limits, controls and anonymizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means of personal development</td>
<td>Servant of specific conceptions of economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulate to enable students to choose own paths</td>
<td>Helps students to adapt to prescribed social change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To help students to understand and perhaps to change society</td>
<td>Toward of manipulative techniques of a fixed social order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberating</td>
<td>Not liberating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creates awareness of issues of individual change</td>
<td>Training for political control and economic reproduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addresses issues</td>
<td>Addresses techniques and skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internally determined goals</td>
<td>Externally set purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aimed primarily or even exclusively at facilitating the development of the person as a whole and in accordance with his or her own background and wishes or at giving people increased confidence in themselves and their abilities</td>
<td>Aimed at good marks, the development of computer science, the fight against inflation and an effort to make products more competitive on world markets . . . it gives a quick clearly identifiable return on the investment in an occupational and career context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: this list has been compiled from recent European and North American writings in which liberal adult education has been contrasted with Continuing Education or vocational training; the weighted language is that of the originals, not mine; the aim is to demonstrate the negative approach to Continuing Education which currently exists among many adult educators. It can be extended with many other examples.
Adult Learning and Education

Liberal adult education has always been, and still to some degree is, considered to be in competition with adult vocational training; thus there is a certain amount of tension between liberal adult education and adult vocational training with the result that...it is not always possible to establish co-operation.

So writes a leading adult educator from Finland. In Scotland, 'liberal adult education has been threatened; the attitude of the [government] is that adult education should be vocationally oriented and entrepreneurial.' 13

Clearly much of this is partial. For one thing, the picture drawn of continuing and vocational education is inaccurate and unsustainable; and even if it were to contain the 'errors' listed, it is surely not impossible for those who believe otherwise to redeem Continuing Education from these faults.

But equally seriously, the claims made for liberal adult education are excessive and unrealistic. Liberal adult education, it is alleged, is 'flexible, responsive...closer to the market place, relevant to the majority of the community'; 'it is a means of increasing social equality', 'able to voice the educational requirement of local communities', to provide 'an education which helps citizens to understand, control and change their lives'. Such goals are praiseworthy; they are exactly the same goals as Development agencies set before themselves. But there are few signs that adult education in the West in fact achieves any of these aims.

Indeed, these and the other claims which liberal adult education makes for itself are not just unproven; they are in many cases patently untrue. It clearly is not 'open to all', however much this is urged to be the case. Its assertion that its 'democratic dialogue, rigorous pursuit and critical probing' help to make people more critical cannot be seen to be correct, for no evaluatory tests which can assess the validity of these claims have been devised and utilized. Many practitioners realize the falseness of such claims, though where it fails, they protest the potential of liberal adult education to achieve these goals. 14

So that it is all the more serious to note that such claims suffer from a logic gap. How can it be urged that liberal (non-vocational) adult education 'facilitates the development of the person as a whole', 'developing the total personality of their students', when it ignores all that part of an adult's life which is devoted to earning a living? The advocates of liberal adult education admonish vocational training for 'attempting merely to develop people into narrow half-humans who can only adapt themselves to the demands of work'; but by omitting any form of vocational enhancement, liberal adult education is itself 'dividing up the person', is itself helping to 'develop people into...half-humans'. 15

NEW APPROACHES

Such criticisms of liberal adult education are not often articulated. Nevertheless, some are aware of them. And thus while a number of committed adult educators, deeply concerned, 'cling courageously to the old faith... continue to meet on the margins of a decaying educational system to practise the ancient rituals of reading, discussing and exploring the links between experience, knowledge and the social order', others have turned away from what they see as such a 'bland and neutral liberal approach' to
something more committed'. For them, 'intellectual satisfactions alone', 'academic parlour games', are not enough. There are some exceptions to the rejection of the demands which national bodies are now making in the West that adult education should help in the task of social and economic renewal.20

A number of adult educators then are seeking purpose in their work beyond the self-gratification of the individual adult learner in a series of responses which are now more varied and complex. Some have found it in a positive, even enthusiastic, response to the emergence of Continuing Education, whether it comes at the instance of government, of commercial and industrial interests or of the professionals themselves. Some have looked for it in political involvement, in action groups. Some are trying hard to persuade new groups to come in, identifying new audiences, experimenting with new formats, taking education and training to the people (for example, 'tutors-in-residence' schemes).

Socially purposive adult education

Others have found such purpose in reinterpreting their liberal adult education to give it a social purpose. Thus, for example, local history courses are for some tutors and providers no longer seen simply as a self-fulfilling hobby like stamp collecting for a small number of activists, but as part of a process of strengthening social identity and local pride, rebuilding local communities as concerned entities, and as such they are of value to all members of those local communities, not just to a few. History itself is seen as a collaborative process of reconstructing the past in which non-professionals must play a crucial part. Genealogy has similarly become family history, a search for roots and understanding; natural history has become natural resource development and conservation; literature has become creative writing as well as a search for understanding human relationships. Adult basic education is now seen not just as the development of individual competencies but as a means 'to put the people in the way of perceiving social ills more clearly'. These adult educators have followed the same path as those 'concerned scientists who have crossed disciplinary boundaries and have integrated their specialist knowledge within a broader morally oriented framework'; their programmes are infused with a social sense of purpose. In these ways, they have sought to demarginalize themselves and their field of activity — and at the same time to increase participation in their programmes.21

Social action

Liberal adult education thus sometimes talks like social change adult education. Nevertheless, the congruency between the two is not a happy one. For although 'collective goals can be deduced from theoretical reasonings by educationists', at root the social change strand has always been hesitant about the individualism which lies at the heart of most adult education (even socially purposive adult education) in the West. Pioneers like Raymond Williams in the UK and Coady and Horton in North America and their successors identified individualism with middle-class competitive culture in opposition to what they saw as the more co-operative working-class and community cultures. They
decided efforts which were oriented to changing individuals rather than the real causes of their problems—economic and social structures and unequal power relationships. The basic approaches of these two strands of adult education are opposed to each other over the central issue of individualism. And these voices, which had been few and marginalized within adult education itself, have now been strengthened. After 1968, there was a new age of questioning, and the failure of adult education to bring about the desired and necessary social restructuring was attributed to the narrow and exclusively educational goals which liberal adult education set for itself; what was needed was social action. 22

But such voices, although growing in number and confidence, are still relatively few in Western adult education. The main thrust remains to give to those individuals who want it their rightful educational opportunity; the rest can be ignored. Most of the newer forms of ‘social change adult education’ are equally based on individualism. Some even regard the social change strand as the main guardian of individualism. For although many writers have argued that liberal adult education is essentially based on individualism, it has been suggested by others that liberal adult education might even reduce personal growth; only socially committed adult education directed at social change can develop true individualism. 23

Education—of adults as well as young people—is to help to make everyone aware of the realities and problems of the community and to permit the free development of personality and thus the acquisition of a sense of individual identity, collective identity and responsibility and to permit the exploitation of local skills and the ongoing learning of new skills, which implies the endowment of each individual with maximum capacity for adaptation and innovation. 24

The central goal, then, has been only slightly redefined: ‘to enable adults to obtain better insight into their personal and societal situation and to foster within them the skills to act upon that situation’. The focus remains the same, the needs of the individual learner in society. And this is taken to imply a rejection of state-set goals; the essentially non-governmental role of adult education is reiterated in many countries in the West.

Nevertheless, the calls of the state for help with Developmental issues will not go away: nor can they be ignored. Roger Boshier has put the problem clearly into perspective when he suggests that instead of continuing to provide programmes which have a high utility for the individual but low utility for the state (‘where the starting point and long-term goal . . . concerns the need and desire to facilitate the self-actualization of individual learners’ as opposed to societal-centred adult education ‘conducted because education can be instrumental in ameliorating or changing some social condition or problem’ such as the need of some local inhabitants to use a new water supply or of a whole nation to save power or to cope with an outbreak of disease such as AIDS)(Figure 5.1), the time has come to seek programmes which have a high utility for both the individual and for society. 25 This is the challenge which faces adult education in the West today arising from new perceptions of developmental needs and new demands from governments for help with new tasks.
NOTES TO CHAPTER 5


(5) The speeches were those of Mrs Thatcher and Mr Gorbachev, repeated in a BBC broadcast, The Greater Challenge, November 1988. I am grateful to the BBC and the producers for permission to quote from this broadcast.

(6) Arocena (1986), p. 2; AEF 25(3) (1988), 4; King, E. J. (1976) Education for Uncertainty, London: King’s College. Denmark (like other countries) reports a governmental invitation to do experimental work, Kandrup (1988); in Spain, political priorities were focused on vocational training, technological innovation and adaptation to the new needs in production among groups most disadvantaged by the changes in industry; Luna (1948), p. 2.

widespread recognition that new knowledge is the most important factor in economic and social growth'; see also Holley et al. (1984); Edwards, L. (1982) Higher Education for Everyone, London: Spokesman Books. See quotations from DES (1972) and UGC (1984) cited in note 9 below. See also DES (1980), p. 1: the central purpose of university continuing education is to promote growth'; DES (1985), p. 1: 'Higher education must contribute more effectively to the improvement of the economy'. Many universities have followed this line; McIlroy and Spencer (1988), p. 15, quote a University of Manchester paper of 1986: 'it is the social duty of higher education to omit part of its resources...

[the development of] high technology base in the regional economy and a highly trained labour force constantly updated'. Tapper, T. and Salters, B. (1978) Education and the Political Order, Macmillan, p. 149, cite the prevailing view that 'education is fundamentally an economic resource which should be employed in a way which maximises its contribution to the development of Britain as an industrial nation'.

(9) OECD (1973); OECD (1972); p. 8; DES (1972); UGC (1984), p. 1: 'although our case for the development of continuing education is largely founded on considerations of employment and economic prosperity, we do not overlook the importance of social, cultural and other factors'.


(15) Published programmes of Putney and Wandsworth A.E. Institute, London, 1988-89.

(16) McIlroy and Spencer (1988) p. 1 is the most recent example of this 'backlash', and it summarises many recent writings in this topic.


(20) A.E. 64(3) (1989), 227; Ryan (1971); Clyde (1972); Thompson (1980), pp. 13-14: 'the problem of liberal adult education since the Second World War is that it has concentrated on satisfying intellectual needs alone... it has been too far removed from the processes by which ordinary men and women can meet their collective economic and social needs'.


(22) See Thompson (1980), pp. 11, 20-21, for example. 'if we do not think we shall succeed in developing adult education unless we make it more social'; Livingstone, B. W. (1941) The Future in Education, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 52. See Lawson, D.


Chapter 6

Government, Development and Adult Education: Ways Forward

In view of the reactions of most adult education agencies, it is no matter for surprise that many Western governments, as they became aware of pressing social issues, rejected traditional adult education as the vehicle for their newly discovered national Development goals. For their need was not how to provide purposeful and planned learning opportunities for a few seekers after truth and freedom, but how to provoke and equip all members of society to play their part in solving the problems which faced them. Every adult, not just the few, needed to learn essential life skills to live in this modern world; and governments could no longer wait until the sleepers awoke, until the people demanded learning opportunities for themselves.

CAMPAIGNS AND TRAINING

It was not that governments were blind to the fact that what they needed were educational programmes for Developmental purposes. Launching a campaign against heart disease in the UK, the Minister for Health recently said that 'governments is not contemplating any legislation . . . we prefer to follow the line of education and more information for the people'; and the metculation programme in the 1970s was seen as a major educational programme for all adults. The education of adults is recognized as the main route to Development.

But in meeting these needs, governments, aid agencies and voluntary bodies very rarely turned to Adult Education for assistance. Health matters like smoking, alcoholism, drugs, heart disease and most recently AIDS (with one or two notable exceptions) have been treated as mass campaigns, ignoring adult education agencies. Large-scale training programmes for the nation’s manpower needs in the light of new technologies and new industrial structures have been entrusted to bodies specially created and not tainted by motivational elitism. That some of these programmes have not been a success is no cause for rejoicing; to a large extent it highlights the failure of the adult education agencies to play their part in meeting the nation’s needs. And in other cases, they have been successful; for while it is only to be expected that governments will tend initially to
treat these Development issues as bureaucratic or technical matters requiring regulation and narrow training inputs, nevertheless to the chagrin of some adult educators; governments and their agents have often learned quickly that appropriate adult teaching-learning methods are necessary for the successful attainment of their objectives, the solution of Developmental problems.

The same is true of the increasing number of para-state bodies, independent non-governmental agencies and special interest groups which have come to press for Developmental goals and to adopt Developmental strategies to attain their ends. One example will suffice. The farming interests in the UK declared 1989 as British Food and Farming Year. Their objectives were clear, "to increase awareness and understanding of farming and food issues in the public at large and to change patterns of behaviour in these fields" - goals which by any definition are educational in character. Those responsible 'developed a very successful primary and secondary level educational programme' and prepared a schools' teaching-learning pack and a teachers' handbook. They launched a programme with museums and other agencies; they built a model farm at one of the country's major tourist centres, arranged events with county local history societies and other bodies, and organized a fair in London in association with one of the major food retailing firms. They pressed the libraries, art galleries, the media, the Post Office into service; and they mounted their own touring exhibition. 'Through other means such as a best-selling cookery book, in-store promotions, etc., we are endeavouring to reach the housewife direct.' But those responsible for these initiatives had no contact with those who argue that they have the greatest amount of experience and expertise in helping adults to learn, i.e. the adult education agencies; and these agencies showed little interest in this campaign. It is arguable that some involvement of adult education would not only have helped to make the programme more effective but would also have ensured that the end result was increased choice on the part of the consumer rather than propaganda, and this would have been in the best interests of those whom adult educators claim they exist to serve.

Developmental responses from adult education

Some adult educators have, however, seen and responded to these challenges; the climate in adult education in the West is beginning to change. Contact with Third World countries by individuals at grass-roots level and by organizations through international bodies and conferences has created a new interest in the connection between adult education and Development. Articles on this subject have appeared over the last few years in most countries in the West, and writers like R.H. Green and Entore Gelphi have begun to explore the implications of this relationship.

These new insights are creating new local responses to government requests and pressure. Certain countries have gone further along these lines than others: as UNESCO noted, 'in some states there is a strong tradition of voluntary effort . . . and so . . . adult education stems from the work of non-state agencies. In others, adult education has become a means of propagating views having official approval.' Thus in Spain, efforts have been made 'to link up the programme of Adult Education to the process of . . . development of the community'; neighbourhood projects related to drugs and to prisons have been devised, while in Aragon a crafts training project has
been launched through one of the People's Universities. Portugal has the Algarve project for participatory development; in France the Le Creusot programme used local history materials as a basis for the development of new economic activities; and in Italy the Prato project aims 'to start a process which will lead to the reconversion, recombination, quantitative and qualitative development of infrastructures and to educational and cultural intervention'. Other examples include some of the west coast programmes in Ireland, and the ambitious projects in Greece 'contributing to socio-economic and cultural development, especially in the most disadvantaged regions through integrated regional projects'. All these examples show how far some countries are mobilizing state and private adult education agencies towards the socio-economic, cultural and political Development of the region within which they stand, and equally how easily the language of Development sits with the language of adult education.

In addition to responding to outside pressures, various sectoral programmes inside adult education are encouraging new attitudes. Programmes of education for the unemployed have prompted a more thorough exploration of social education. The women's movement has from the start been a missionary programme, seeking to share a new vision of the world and to create a new society through structural change and the promotion of a new mentality, while at the same time being concerned to avoid 'invading the person' by imposing knowledge and thought patterns on others. Educational guidance services for adults reveal a similar tension—whether to be responsive to motivated individuals or proactive, reaching out to the unmotivated: this issue is brought to the surface regularly in the current debates on these services.

But these programmes have tended to remain separate entities, divorced from each other; they have not been integrated into a total concept of balanced Development. And they have left the mainstream of adult education largely untouched, being regarded as exceptions, as interesting and pioneering ventures. The need for environmental, and justice and/or peace education as part of adult education has on the whole remained in the realm of theoretical propositions, the fashionable themes of conferences and publications, slogans to be attached to existing programmes rather than the basis of a radical rethinking of the nature and purpose of adult education. Such propositions do not in practice seem to have had the power to become an awakening and directional force; certainly so far they have not made practical contributions to the construction and implementation of educational programmes for adults.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Some have seen this integrating role being played by the concept of Community Education. Community education, embracing schooling as well as adult education, tends to mean many things to many people. At least four main strands may be detected:

1. community (especially parental) involvement in children's education, even the day-to-day running of schools (this was how the Plowden Report in the UK used the term);
2. the school as a unifying force for, not just a social institution in, the community (this was how John Dewey saw community education);
3. the use of the school to help reconstruct society (this was how Henry Morris saw his Village Colleges);
4. rather wider than the schools, a network of educational and social services: 'the aim of community education is community development. It is a social rather than an academic conception of education, one which is intended for all the people for their social life of work, leisure and citizenry' (this was how Eric Midwinter defined it).

In relation to adult education, two main strands can be discerned. On the one hand, community education may be seen as wider than adult education, embracing the formal as well as the non-formal systems, seeking to mobilize all forms of education, especially the primary and secondary schools, into the service of the whole community; hence the village college and community school movement, mainly in the rural areas, seeking to link the local community to governmental resources. But rather later a more radical urban-based approach to community education emerged, more exclusively connected with adult education. This emphasized action by the local community, the opposition of community and government, the utilization of the resources which lie within the community itself rather than dependence on outside services. It was, and still is, more overtly political in nature. Some projects like the Sutton-in-Ashfield (Nottinghamshire) Community School sought to bring both of these strands closer together; but the majority of those who today adhere to the community education movement do not subscribe to the radical doctrines of the minority.

The less radical strand of community education draws a distinction between community education on the one hand and community work, community action and community development on the other hand. Community development (they argue) seeks to affect the course of social change in local communities by analysing social situations and by forming relationships with different groups and services to bring about desirable change. It is the aim of community development to involve the people in deciding, planning and playing an active part in the operation of those services which affect their daily lives. The democratization of community services and action by local citizens for the improvement of their own communities are the main purposes of community development. Community development programmes then serve as a bridge between people and services; they seek to encourage local communities to participate, and planners and providers of services to be more sensitive, more open to popular involvement.

Education is one such service. Community education serves as a bridge between the community and the providers of educational programmes. It aims to encourage the people to influence and to use the educational programmes which are provided for them, and at the same time it seeks to press these programmes into the service of the people. Community educators thus work with the providers of educational services, to open up provision at all levels (schools, colleges and adult education), to make it more relevant, and they work with the people, helping them to influence and eventually to come to control the educational services which operate in their local communities to achieve their own self-fulfilment needs. Community development and community education then (for these people) are similar but not the same thing: community education is one tool to lead towards community development.

The more radical wing of community education, however, does not draw a distinction between community development and action and community education. The advocates of this form of community education see the achievement of personal satisfactions as being brought about mainly by an increased awareness of belonging to a community. They view adult education as existing not primarily for the individual but for strengthening
community identity and community bonds. Community education in this form attempts to use education (especially adult education) to support the local people in their efforts to play a positive role in issues which affect their daily lives. It seeks to do this through locally sited, integrated, issue-based programmes, breaking away from the more compartmentalized, subject-based provision of traditional adult education housed in dedicated educational institutions. Community education of this variety takes community issues for its subject, leading to community action.

There are of course variations within these two main strands. In the radical strand, for example, some see community education as being synonymous with working-class education. They adopt the view that the "culture of silence" which is ignored by those who wield power in today's society needs to learn to speak, to value itself for what it is. Others, fearing the divisiveness of this, replace class consciousness with neighbourhood consciousness or interest-group consciousness (community education for the disadvantaged).

The two strands of community education live uneasily together. The difference lies in their attitude towards the formal system of education. Those who follow the line of community schools are not hostile to governmental resources and provision but seek to secure popular control over what are seen as community (not government) resources. Those who follow the more radical line are more hostile; they would wish to devise new approaches and new systems. The former hope to change and to press the existing system into the service of the local community; the latter wish to bring about structural change. For the former, the education provided is the important thing. For the latter, the main aim is not the educational process but the social change which education will bring—the adult educator is more than an educator, he/she is an activist.

Community education now enjoys increasing popularity in the West; but it has not come to hold that central position in adult education which will help forward the re-orientation required. For one thing, community education, like liberal adult education, is hostile to those forms of continuing education which are strongly vocational in nature; it cannot easily embrace continuing education within itself. Moreover, the anti-government stand of much community education, seeking new forms of educational organization, alternative routes to Development and alternative structures, prevents many of its adherents from wholeheartedly contributing to nationally set Developmental goals. Although its attachment to the formal education system of schools and colleges has helped to reduce the marginality of the less radical form of community education, nevertheless within the field of adult education, community education is itself marginal; community educators often see themselves to be out of the mainstream of adult education. With its strong interest in child education through the schools, community education does not always see the distinctiveness of adult learning—although the radical strand is more clear on this. But the radicals set themselves apart from the rest of adult education because of their ideology."

DEVELOPMENT AS A NEW LOGIC FRAME

Community education, with its emphasis on community development, cannot itself provide, though it may point the way to, a new overarching concept which can preserve the best in traditional adult education, make sense of the surviving strands of socially
purposive adult education, harness the newer energies of continuing education, and help adult education respond to the new challenges which government and non-governmental agencies alike are throwing down.

That concept can be provided by Development—national and regional Development as well as local community Development. Development is increasingly a matter of concern in Western societies. Western governments have widened their agendas to include matters which formerly were the concern of adult education, and agencies are being created to offer programmes to the same people who are the concern of adult education, especially the deprived, the disadvantaged and the marginalized. Development is already congruous with the concerns of adult education, especially in its current emphasis on participation; and its concepts and practices are well understood, tested and proven to be relevant. A balanced programme of Development which embraces not just economic growth but also social development, cultural enrichment and wider political participation would seem to offer to adult education agencies some logic frame in which to set their concerns and programmes.

We need to be clear what we are talking about, because continuing education has increasingly adopted the language of Development for its own forms of programme. It talks in terms of relating to nationally set objectives, of promoting regional development and of being responsive to local needs, of being an assistant to government. But the concerns of continuing education are limited: when it speaks of regional development and local needs, it is concerned for economic development and the needs of local employers. The language of Development is used in continuing education solely in terms of economic growth and the economic and industrial needs of the nation. Even when continuing education speaks of 'social and economic' needs, it is clear that its primary focus is on economic growth, not social change. Continuing education confirms rather than challenges the existing status quo; it promotes technical, not social or cultural change. Despite the language which it often uses, continuing education cannot provide a fully balanced programme of Development education—social, economic, cultural and political—for the nation or for the region. 7

The mission of adult education

If then community education cannot offer a full philosophy for all forms of education and training of adults because it omits the interests of professional groups and others who are not working-class or disadvantaged; and if continuing education cannot provide it because it is mono-centric, concentrating on economic growth and unable to embrace social, cultural and political change, we need to turn back to adult education to see whether it can cope better with such a fully integrated concept. Adult education, with its experience of and expertise in all forms of adult learning, is free to embrace within itself both continuing education and community education. It already has a wide base incorporating much cultural, some social and (in principle at least) political programmes—although traditionally it has left out most forms of economic growth programmes.

Adult education is today faced with the question of deciding what its mission is. So far it has tended to operate on short-term goals—to help individuals and groups to solve particular problems or to develop particular interests. And the agenda has tended to be
set by the formal system of education—the universities, colleges and schools. Adult education has to a large extent not been free to set its own goals in relation to society at large; today there is an opportunity for it to define its own long-term goals.

The ambivalence within adult education

There is, however, some reluctance to face this issue squarely. This is understandable, for there is at the heart of present-day adult education an ambivalence, an uncertainty as to the way ahead.

Provision

On the one hand, adult education in the West has a concern with a range of provision, defined either in terms of subject areas or target groups. It is never quite sure exactly as to the nature of those subject areas or target groups, or where the limits between what is and what is not appropriate for an adult education body to provide lie, but there is some recognition that those limits do exist. The Northern Ireland Strategy Report made one attempt to define those limits by saying that courses which exercised rather than developed skills, knowledge and understanding further can hardly be called educational, so that the Badminton Club supported by the Adult Education Institute is not appropriate, whereas a beginners’ class in badminton is. Others have explored other sorts of limits: non-vocational adult education, for example, or adult education for special groups (the unemployed, ethnic communities, etc.) or for different phases of adult life (mothers with young children, pre-retirement, etc.) or for social and political roles (planning committee members, members of school governing bodies, voluntary body leaders, etc.). Almost all adult educators are agreed that some subjects are best done by adult education and others best left to other agencies; they are aware that there are many other bodies engaged in providing programmes of education and training of adults, and that it is incumbent on adult education to establish its own distinctive niche. Adult education agencies then are responsible for the provision of some but not all forms of education and training of adults.9

Process

On the other hand, adult education has a concern for methodology, for developing understanding and good practice of the most effective teaching-learning approaches for adults as distinct from younger learners. And this concern extends to all education and training for adults, not just to the provision made by the adult education bodies themselves. There is perhaps rather more consensus on this question of process than on the question of content, though debate still persists.9
The choices

Some agencies have chosen to go along the path of process, engaging in academic study and offering training courses to other providers of education and training of adults. Others have chosen to pursue the path of provision, offering programmes to the general public or specific target groups, separate from the other providers. Still others have tried to combine both approaches, though often holding the two sectors in separate departments or divisions (as Adult Education ‘Training’ Division inside an Adult Education Institute, for example). There is some uncertainty as to which role will most help to diminish the marginality and irrelevance with which adult education is often regarded today in the light of the new Developmental concerns.

To pursue the path of provider of programmes alone, to carve out its own peculiar niche, would make adult education merely one among many such workers in the community. This path would leave the provision of some or all health education programmes, for example, or social welfare information programmes, poverty relief, religious education and environmental enhancement programmes to other bodies. It would be to place adult education alongside these other providers, on the same level. The defence of liberal education as the raison d’être of adult education will inevitably mean that adult education agencies will be limited to narrower and narrower fields of provision as more and more alternative agencies appear or are created to join the army of providers. Such a role is unlikely to reduce the marginality of adult education significantly. In an increasingly Developmentally-minded world, the justification for such programmes would lie in the necessity to make provision for cultural Development alongside social, economic and political Development—and it has been convincingly argued many times by adult educators that cultural Development is traditionally the most neglected of all Developmental fields and needs a special guardian.

A way forward

There is, however, another path. Motivated by a concern for a fully balanced national, regional and local Development programme, adult education would be willing to join with other agencies, bringing to bear its special insights, experience and expertise (for example, the training of part-time workers, participatory approaches to adult learning) and above all its concern for individual growth and attitude formation which these other agencies will need if their work is to be fully effective. At the same time adult education can add to the total stock of provision its special concern for cultural Development within the region which no one else can offer. In this way, adult education would become both a specialist and a provider, a link worker and assistant within the community to some of the many Development agencies which are outside the region, and at the same time a provider responsible for maintaining one sector of Development which is its particular concern.

We must not of course arrogate to adult education (or indeed to the process of education itself) a centrality which it does not possess. Many have noted that education is an inefficient tool of social engineering, speaking of the ‘insignificance of schooling ... in its capacity to promote major changes’; ‘nor is it claimed that education can solve all social ills’. This particularly applies to adult education: the divided and isolated
nature of much adult education and its general ethos, an in-built respect for the viewpoints of others, are thought to make it especially ineffective in promoting change unless backed up by a large-scale movement. Nevertheless, education (including the education of adults) is an essential component of programmes of social change; any society engaged in a planned process of Development needs a healthy educational system to complement the other agencies of change it uses. Thus adult education needs to play its part by joining with other agencies in promoting planned change (Development) rather than stand aside or attempt this task on its own. In following this path, it can learn much from Third World countries where adult education has played this role for many years.18

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE THIRD WORLD

Adult education is growing in importance in the Third World, for many see it as a valuable tool for social and economic Development. On the whole, there is little sense of a movement for adult education: the impetus comes not so much from below, from those seeking initial or additional education and training, as in the West, but more from above. Priorities are determined—agricultural extension, literacy and fundamental education, family planning, health, school leaving certificates, and so on—and target groups established—women between the ages of 15 and 35, backward classes, low income groups, mothers with very young children, out-of-school youth, illiterates, itinerant communities, small and marginal farmers and so on. Some programmes are directly under the Ministry of Education (whatever its title), but vocational training and social programmes are run by other government departments or national bodies supported by government. Although there are many variations from country to country (for example, some countries have large numbers of voluntary, non-statutory organizations offering adult learning programmes, while others have very few), in several countries something approaching a national adult education system or 'pattern' may be seen to be emerging from the structures which are growing up, helped and encouraged by the government to implement government Developmental programmes.19

Adult education then is seen by many in the Third World as a bridge between the desires of some to achieve a higher income and social status on the one hand and the Developmental goals of government. Mostly it is a tool of government. Voluntary umbrella associations have emerged in almost all countries, keeping alive the flame of independent criticism and value judgements, but these are strictly limited by their resource base. For, despite the greater social role which governments in most Third World countries envisage for it, adult education is still severely under-resourced; even if governments wished to expand their adult education provision, political realities restrict the freedom to move resources from the formal to the non-formal sectors of education.

The two purposes of adult education which we identified above can both be seen in Third World countries. Adult education offers to many adults that initial education which they were unable to obtain in childhood; and at the same time it offers opportunities of learning which could not be provided through the schools or colleges. Adult education (or its counterpart, non-formal education) exists in most countries because of the high cost and low performance of the formal system of education; but equally it exists to help promote centrally planned Development policies. It underpins most government programmes. Few Third World countries would dream of launching a
major campaign (for example) for national integration and communal harmony or health or family planning without pressing into service adult education agencies as well as formal educational institutions such as the universities. Thus both voluntary and statutory adult education agencies in the Third World tend to act as co-ordinating bodies, using the various government programmes to create an integrated Development Programme for the area which they serve.

In this way, adult education directly confronts poverty and injustice in a way that it does not in the West. It is true that more emphasis is given to teaching literacy (sometimes with some post-literacy) and to vocational training in skills and knowledge, either for employment or for self-employment, than to political or participatory education, even by the voluntary bodies, for most of these rely upon government support or aid from international welfare agencies and this limits their active involvement in radical social change programmes. Nevertheless, national economic growth and the relief of suffering are the main goals of adult education in Third World countries, and they press into service all the resources they can muster.

There are of course critics of this kind of adult education, both in the Third World countries themselves and in the West. Perhaps the voices in the West are loudest, because a good deal of this Third World adult education does not conform to Western or a priori theorized models of participatory adult education. Much adult education in the Third World is ineffective or affects the lives of individuals but leaves the systems they live in untouched, enabling a few of the poor and illiterate to escape from their poverty and illiteracy, sometimes at the expense of the communities in which they formerly lived (this is not always true; many neo-literates continue to live in their communities and contribute to them); but then so does much adult education in the West. It is not helpful to make such judgements; better to try to understand what is happening and what is being attempted.

Adult education agencies in Third World countries then (a) have wider goals and programmes than in the West; they (b) relate to and draw upon the resources of the programmes of many different government and international agencies; and above all they (c) seek to work in a directive way with larger sections of the population, not waiting for voluntary learners to materialize in their programmes but going out to persuade the target groups to learn what they do not always want to learn. In these three respects, at least, the contrast between the West and the Third World could not be more marked.

ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

But there are possible grounds for congruence. The value of adult education serving as a focus of "inter-agency co-operation" as practised in Third World countries has already been recognized in the West. It is not only in community education that the necessity for adult educators to "involve themselves" with the work of voluntary agencies...and to strike constructive and fruitful alliances with colleagues in the related fields of health and housing..is being urged—"adult educators will themselves learn a great deal from association with such programmes". The "grey area" between adult education and social work (including the statutory bodies) has long been a matter of concern: "both could profit considerably if the relationship were fully explored".
Some writers, such as Illich, are suspicious that co-operation would mean accepting the ideologies of these state-led agencies. But others have recognized that "it is both unwise and unnecessary to ignore the possibilities of using the resources of the state" for a programme of adult education for social change: "the adult educator needs to learn to change from being a lone ranger to being part of a collective". In Greece, for example, the General Secretariat for Adult Education "pursues non-formal education activities in co-operation with providing institutions in other areas of intervention—e.g. the Ministries of National Education, Culture, Agriculture, Employment, Health, Social Security and the Environment—and with other state and para-statal organizations concerned with youth, foreign affairs, trade and industry, insurance, tourism, small businesses, radio and television, and with the police. Local government and cultural associations both public and private.

Co-operation goes further than merely sharing resources and ideals: it relates to a common Developmental plan for the region in which adult education has a full part to play. In Italy, rather than 'scattered intervention' by the adult education agencies, programmes seek to ensure that 'public institutions, special bodies and cultural associations will be called upon to contribute to the realization of a plan...'. But co-operation of this kind is not well known in other countries such as the UK.12

Adult education then is one among many agencies engaged in the Development process. It is not of course the only body in the field. But it is the only agency capable of adopting this co-ordinating role in relation to Development:

- because adult education is not just an administrative body but has direct experience of teaching adults
- because adult education has developed specialisms in helping adults to learn which these other bodies need
- because adult education is dedicated (at least in theory) to helping its participants to examine reality critically
- because adult education with its concern for holistic education is general in approach, not limited in its concern as are other Development agencies such as the health and manpower training services

This last point suggests the true basis on which adult education can enter Developmental programmes devised by others. Adult educators have insights and experience which will enable them, in association with the local community, to help write the Development agenda. It is not a case of merely accepting the goals set nationally or regionally. The centrality given to adult education by its special expertise in helping adults to learn will enable adult educators to contribute to determining not just the processes but also the objectives. The holistic approach of adult education is both its claim to a central role in local Development and also its special contribution.

Under such a model, adult education agencies would direct their provision to the Developmental needs of the region or community within which they are located; they would determine for themselves what those needs are; they would forge alliances with some or all of the increasing number of statutory and non-governmental bodies created to help meet those needs and to use their resources, financial and other; they would set Developmental goals for themselves or accept the goals of others; and they would seek to bring those goals to all the people of the locality, not just a few.

This will mean: working in a new way with less direct provision and more training of
local Development workers within the community; assisting other agencies; full-time staff spending more time in promoting areas of work in the community and less on face-to-face teaching of small self-selected groups; looking at achievements and outcomes in terms of local Development rather than individual learning satisfactions.

Such a model is I believe not only possible; it is both desirable and necessary for today. The concept of Development is the only concept which would seem to offer to adult education any hope of making sense of its position and its special expertise and experience.

Two factors call for the inevitable involvement of adult education agencies in the growing Development programmes in the West:

(a) It is increasingly being realized that there can be no effective Development without there being a process of education and training of adults at the heart of it. It follows that adult education agencies must either provide that essential ingredient on the grounds of their expertise in adult learning, or stand on one side, allowing others to provide it, thus being excluded from Development programmes and further marginalized.

(b) Secondly, if adult education sees itself as helping others to examine reality critically and to explore ways of changing that reality, this must lead us to look critically not just at the reality which surrounds each of the individuals in our classes and programmes but also to look critically at the reality of our own adult education and our own society. This will impel adult education programmes into dealing directly with the major problems which face Western societies today.

Ultimately our response is a question of belief. If we believe that education and training for adults is important and should reach the widest possible group of people, we can no longer ignore the three-quarters of the adult population who have never come to our programmes. It is not enough to continue providing opportunities for a few individuals to advance their own careers and enhance the quality of their own lives. Instead we must play our part in mobilizing the whole of society in a joint drive towards a Developmental programme involving environmental enhancement and social harmony on a basis of justice and peace. These are surely not unworthy goals for adult educators to offer to the society they seek to serve rather than personal self-actualization.

But the implications of all this for our programmes are profound. The criteria for mounting programmes will cease to be student demand but the Developmental needs of the nation and/or region or local community. There will of course be opposition from existing adult education agencies to such ideas. Some see Development as centrally planned, state controlled and directive, and their anti-government stance is long-standing. Others will oppose measuring the achievements of adult education by pre-set goals; yet even those engaged in liberal adult education with their emphasis on developing a critical spirit and greater democracy have such pre-set goals for themselves and their learners, so that the setting and accepting of national, regional and local Developmental goals for adult education programmes can and should hold no terrors. Adult education is not an end in itself, but it is an excellent way of solving a great many problems. 19

It may be too strong to assert that to reject such a path is to side with the existing structures: “refusal to take sides in the conflict of the powerful with the powerless means to side with the powerful, not to be neutral”; “no matter if we are conscious or not as
educators, our praxis is either for the liberation of men, their humanisation, or for their domestication, their domination'. Adult education does have a choice: it can find other roles for itself in this new world. But the road leading to national, regional or 'local Development in partnership with others would seem to offer most.¹⁴

In accepting such a role, adult education in the West will need to become more like adult education in Third World countries, where it is seen as intervention, not simply responding to requests but taking the initiative, and long-term, not simply a series of one-off events like a class. It will seek to promote social goals amongst more or less reluctant target groups rather than teach voluntary learners. And it will no longer be acceptable to point to one or two 'success stories' of individuals who have used adult education as a ladder to climb from humble origins to professional competence. Adult education seen 'as a safety valve to channel off the most able of the deprived and create an illusion of opportunity for all' merely confirms the basic premises on which society and its formal education systems are founded. Rather, success will be indicated by the extent to which mass mobilization of whole peoples behind targets set by some and internalized by the many has been achieved. Evaluation of adult education will be 'in terms of social and economic effectiveness'.”¹⁵

We shall explore some of these implications and criteria in more detail, but before we do this, we need to examine what is meant by Development. This we shall do in Part II.

NOTES TO CHAPTER 6

(1) The new prominence given to education in development in the West is illustrated by the statement of the European Commission, May 1986: 'Consumer education is now increasingly accepted as an essential element in the education of every citizen of every modern state'. See also statement by the UK Urban Regeneration programme co-ordinator, J. Lusby; 'urban regeneration is primarily an educational task', Civic Trust Educational Group, unpublished paper (April 1989); etc.

(2) Correspondence with the Royal Agricultural Society of England 1983-1989. The didactic nature of the campaign is revealed in the statement of the Director in a radio interview: 'The aim is to change people's image of the industry caused by misunderstanding and lack of knowledge, to help them see the industry works and all'. With respect to the AE agencies, the organizer of BFFY 1989 wisely: 'I am afraid I have never heard of the WEA'. But the RASE does have a Rural Employment and Training Unit.


(4) D. Waterman, The peace discussion, in ILSAC (1986), pp. 107-9. See the recent work of
the International Council for Adult Education, Toronto, in peace, justice and participatory AE; but even here, Third World countries lead the way—for example, Africa on environmental education, Latin America on education for justice, Asia on participatory research, etc.; e.g. Jayawardana, W. Ananda and Wesumpura, D. (1987) Adult Education, Development and Peace, Sri Lanka: National Association for Total Education.


(6) For a summary of the recent literature, see Brookfield (1983), pp. 7-9, 61-125. See also the work and publications of the Community Education Development Centre, Coventry, and the International Community Education Association, including its journal.


(9) See references in Chapter 3, note 6.


(13) Council of Europe (1986b), pp. 9, 10.

(14) Freire (1972), p. 7; Freire, P. (1973) By learning they can teach, Conscience 6(1), 79.

(15) Greco (1973), pp. 35, 41; Jobert (1986), p. 3. Etienne Gelpi makes the same point: ‘Lifelong education could result in the reinforcement of the established order, increased productivity
and subordination, but a different option could enable us to become more and more committed to the struggle against those who oppress mankind in work and in leisure, in social and emotional life. A Future for Lifelong Education, Manchester University Press, vol. 1 (1979), p. 1. The language is identical with that of many Development workers.
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS

I enclose hereewith a copy of the above publication which is intended to assist all those who have a serious interest in the education and training of adults — whether as managers, teachers, trainers, learners or laymen — in arriving at a systematic view of the adult education curriculum.

In particular, it is hoped that this document will persuade educators of adults to examine the relationships between policies and practices with clearer understanding and thereby enhance the effectiveness of provision.

This manual is based on the findings of a research project conducted over 2 years by a team from the University of Surrey led by Dr Alan Chinnick. In the course of research the team found that the same principles of curriculum design and development held good across the whole field of education and training for adults. In relation to a four-part model of the curriculum the manual identifies key questions to be considered at area, institutional, and course level. Case studies drawn from the research illustrate the complex way in which such questions arise in practice.

The sets of questions (given as a checklist at the end of each section) and the discussion of relationships between them offer practitioners a ready-made basis both for their own planning and for collective staff development activities. It is hoped that the FDU will shortly be able to offer a programme of support for the latter at regional level.

Two features of good practice in curriculum development are highlighted in this publication. The first is the need for effective communications at and between the various levels of responsibility for provision. The second is the key role of staff development in the process of change. At a time when the provision of education and training for adults is under pressure and the means of resourcing it are becoming increasingly complex, this manual should be of particular value in helping practitioners to cope with change.

Yours faithfully

Jack Maxwell
Chief Officer
PREFACE

The first specific object for which the Further Education Unit was established has from the outset been—

'to review and evaluate the range of existing further education curricula and programmes and to identify overlap, duplication, deficiencies and inconsistencies therein.'

In its initial years, the Unit concentrated on curricular offerings for the 16-19 age group, especially in the deficiency areas of vocational preparation as distinct from vocational education. As the FEU grew and matured, it became possible to extend its range of active concern to the whole field of further education. In the statutory sense this has (since 1964) meant post-school education as a whole, including both higher education (whether offered in the universities or elsewhere) and education for adults (whether through educational institutions or through other community agencies).

The Unit has three main ways of influencing and being influenced by the field in which it holds this central review and development function: the commissioning of one or more projects; the issue of a policy statement; and the formation of an advisory committee. Some curriculum areas merit one or two of these: the education and training of adults has called for all three. The policy statement* was issued in March 1984; the advisory committee began work shortly before.

This manual, however, is the published result of earlier work. It was in 1982 that the FEU commissioned the Department of Adult Education of the University of Surrey to consider 'Curriculum Design in the Education of Adults.' The conventional response to such a brief would have been an overview of the field, with an analysis of consumer needs and requirements, followed by recommendations for appropriate responses from the many providing agencies - colleges, adult education institutes, training bodies, community agencies, higher education institutions, 'responsible bodies' like the WEA. As the research progressed,

1997) on French R1e from "Revised

Climatological Frequencies in the Department of Anderlecht - Conditioned Data" (Ff.1)

Figure 1: Climatological Frequencies in the Department of Anderlecht - Conditioned Data

The graph shows the climatological frequencies for the Department of Anderlecht conditioned by a specific parameter. The frequencies are plotted for different months and years, and the data is presented in a tabular format. The parameter is shown to have a significant impact on the climatological frequencies, with certain months and years indicating higher or lower values compared to others. The implications for further research in climatological studies are discussed.
In this group would be teachers, instructors, lecturers, students. It should be added that some people may be involved at more than one level and in more than one role.

Each section provides a form of check-list and there should also bring to light situations in which curriculum decisions have been inadequate or inadequate (it the latter, possibly because of a failure to take all relevant factors into account).

At various points throughout the guide explanations are offered, examples given, or specific case studies used to illuminate issues found at area, institution or course level.

A brief concluding section offers a curriculum model for EA development from the general text, the check-lists and case-study material. Basically, four main elements are contained in the model.* Expressed simply these are:

As the diagram indicates, in attempting to achieve 'good practice' it is necessary first to consider principles and policies and their related aims and objectives. This then should lead to an examination of curriculum development in terms of the design of courses, programmes and other educational activities to include content and methods. A consideration of how to implement the design, with its attendant problems, follows. Evaluation is essential and should affect the three other elements. Indeed, there will be interaction among all elements.

* See also the FEU Curriculum Development model (FEU Newsletter January, 1983), to which this is closely related.
of activities across a geographical area, and to avoid the wasteful duplication of staff and other resources. Success here may depend on whether relationships with external agencies have been fully developed. For example, one LEA observed during the research has introduced special 'link' courses which remove many of the artificial barriers between LEA providers.

It is important to avoid the 'lowest common denominator' kind of approach where, for example, collaboration represents only a general and comparatively superficial provision.

Some collaborative activities are certainly productive. One example drawn from the research concerned an LEA centre which offered a course on micro-computing in a rural area. Learners were able to provide the micro-computers themselves through their own networks, but came together in the LEA centre in order to share both the equipment and learning opportunities.

1. Are there strong or fixed views about teacher or learner autonomy, and control?

In some institutions the organisation of courses clearly reflect the subject interests of the teacher. Other providers emphasise the value of self-directed learning, that is learning which places responsibility for its development upon the individual and/or the group.

There may be other prevailing values and it is important that all aspects should be considered, such as the emphasis on instrumentalism shown in some institutions with a strong vocational orientation, which conditions the principles and underlies the formulation of policy.

INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

2. Some of the questions under 1 will also be pertinent.
Are there ideas about priorities to which attention must be given?

1. A question of central importance is whether priority should be given to minority or special groups, for example, the elderly, ethnic minorities, the handicapped, women returners or those in need of basic education. Alternatively, should an emphasis be placed on broad 'mainstream' provision flexible enough to provide for those with special needs?

There are problems in providing for stereotyped minorities in that such provision runs the risk of isolating some people into an educational ghetto. It can be noted that the majority of executive staff interviewed during the course of the research emphasised the fact that financial pressures on centres and colleges produced a situation in which 'penny pinching' to develop provision for special groups, and subsidy to maintain it was becoming increasingly difficult.

Should the curriculum be responsive to particular pressures?

National and local initiatives may both exert pressure. On the national level, the DES PICKUP initiative has regional agents one of whose functions is to encourage institutions to liaise more closely with employers and make provision for the up-dating of employees.

An example of local student pressure involved a women's collective provided by three educational professionals - two redundant PE teachers and an employed student counsellor - which offered a broadly based course which included 'Women in Literature', 'Women in Science' and 'Assertiveness Training'.

After several months, it became evident that the learners were identifying further needs for participation in both vocational and non-vocational education. The co-ordinators were aware that the learners had highlighted some needs that the collective itself could not satisfy, particularly as a number of learners were expressing interest in courses carrying a professional qualification. They therefore designed a course which tried to construct study plans tailored to the requirements of each learner. This was stimulated by the fact that the women had received little guidance from their FE college and polytechnic as to which courses were appropriate to their needs and interests.
Are objectives conditioned by internal examination problems? For example, curriculum goals may be affected by inter-departmental factors which may point to the need for internal reappraisal/re-organisation, possibly through staff development and training provision. Academic boards have in some instances been seen to be effective in removing internal competition and disputes.

Is there a need for long term staff development policies to be adopted, and should the curriculum emphasise the special strengths of staff?

Space: Is there adequate accommodation? Are specialist rooms available? Is the environment suitable? Is the best use being made of the available accommodation?

For example, the use of school premises inappropriately designed, equipped and furnished for adult learners may itself prevent effective learning from taking place. Yet the movement of furniture and equipment, where possible, can offer improved learning opportunities.

An example from the research of imaginative use of accommodation is that of one FE college which provided a 'drop-in' centre where students with difficulties were able to call during free times in their programmes in order to discuss their problems. The aim was to hand over formal programmes but to collaborate with students by responding to their questions as 'Can I talk about ... How do I express ... Can you help me develop my thinking ... ?'. Particular attention was paid to the development of study skills and methods of self-evaluation. This programme was supported by provision of a room with resources - typewriters, micro-computers, books, worksheets, self-evaluation charts. It was constantly available, due to the flexibility of the supervising teacher, who encouraged learners to call even when other groups were using the room. The level of reasoning which the centre required may seem however that similar provision lies beyond the scope of many TE providers.

1. **Cost**: How much equipment exists and is it available when required? Is it appropriate for the work to be done? The lack of appropriate equipment can severely curtail provision of EA and/or limit the degree to which a subject can be extended.

2. **Time**: does time condition some of the objectives? For example, is time available for adequate planning? If not, a re-assessment of how far planning time is considered to be an important factor in curriculum development will need to be made.

3. **Finance**: is the amount of money available adequate to support all the desired objectives? Despite difficulties of definition considered below 'cost-effectiveness' was an issue of concern for all the EA providers contacted. There was a marked lack of consensus over what actually constituted 'cost effectiveness' and the appropriate strategy to achieve it.

Many emphasised increased effectiveness introduced by internal changes such as encouraging the extending of provision to new learner groups by the wide use of self-programming activities supported periodically by teaching staff.

4. **Student attitudes**: to what extent do student attitudes act as a stimulus for, or constraint on innovation and progress? How much attention is paid to learners' wishes and learner control? What scope is there for negotiation of the curriculum with learners?

These examples highlight questions concerning ideas governing policy. The research has shown that often practitioners are not fully aware of the ideas about curriculum priorities which exist in their areas or institutions. It seems clear therefore that sometimes there is incompatibility of ideas and hence inefficiency.

Many of the above may seem to be questions for administrators. However, teachers and instructors should also consider these issues. In particular, they have to consider how free they are from the constraints of established ideas and values, what degree of control is exercised by outside agencies such as examining boards or by financial limitations on their own style and degree of expertise. It is clear from the evidence that in planning a course or lesson teachers often attempt to
(i) Staffing: number of staff available; specialist strengths; staff development needs
(ii) Space: adequacy and suitability of accommodation
(iii) Equipment: Amount and appropriateness
(iv) Time: availability for adequate planning as well as for adequate provision
(v) Finance: amount available; effective use
(vi) Student attitudes and likes: amount of attention to be paid to learners' wishes and knowledge.

Are there areas of conflict over aims and objectives between the various levels of policy determination? How can these be resolved?

SECTION 2

DESIGN

Introduction

Decisions concerning course or programme design may be taken at various levels and may overlap. For example, there may be centralized planning at an area level, or it may be devolved to institutions or to individual teachers.

In planning the design account must be taken of this factor.

A. AREA LEVEL

Decisions about design at area level must be related to the following questions:

1. How best are the available resources to be allocated?

These include staff and other resources. For example, in the overall programme it is necessary to decide what proportion of resources should be used for teaching, for accommodation, for publicity, for staff development and training activities, for the support of self-supporting groups etc.

It may be necessary to decide if some institutions will be supported more than others, and this, for example, may be the result of decisions taken in the Regional Advisory Councils (RACs), and/or the National Advisory Board (NAB).

Some area decisions concerning curriculum design may be concerned with the planning of new opportunities decided at this level, for example, a growing provision of pre-retirement courses.

2. What should be the balance between full-time and part-time staff?

3. What modes of attendance will be offered throughout the area?
(10) the matching of the length of each course to its objectives rather than rigidly standardising them. (During 1972-73 courses could be found of only two weeks duration whereas others lasted 4, 8, 12, 20, 32 and 36 weeks.) This flexibility meant that more courses could be offered and resources released for other initiatives.

(11) a high priority to provision for the disadvantaged.

(111) improvements to the balance of the 'mainstream' programme, for example by increasing the number of mathematics and science related courses.

This exploration of flexible alternative programme resulted in a better use of resources and a better focus on educational achievement.

4. How can an adequate degree of control over the design of the curriculum be maintained?

The results of the research have suggested that provision with the most effective control over curriculum content were those who encouraged participation from managers and teaching staff, learners and elected members.

A related question concerns the role of management committees, academic boards and other bodies. Is it possible to devise more effective ways of securing their support? The research has shown that the degree of success of these bodies varies enormously from organisation to organisation. Some appear to meet very infrequently and have little influence, whereas others provide a degree of support.

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Good practice requires coherent and well-informed course or programme design. Attention must be paid to aims and objectives, content, methods, assessment. The research has shown that the effective handling of these basic elements is often assisted by genuine rather than token participation between planners, teachers and students, whether at area, institution or course level. An example which extends this is identified below.

At the end of a seven week course in dress and soft furnishings the learners were encouraged to join a self-programming group. This offered an environment providing mutual support, encouragement and skill-sharing without a teacher being present. The teacher moved into a consultancy role and provided her expertise when the group were unable to solve problems from their collective experience and knowledge.

In this example a continuing dependency on the teacher gave way to well-directed learning, whilst educational continuity was maintained through the advisory nature of the teachers role. This approach also enabled the teacher to act as a resource for several groups, where previously only one group could have been serviced in the time available.

In considering course or programme design attention must be paid to the following questions.

1. In terms of aims and objectives, what is being attempted?

For example, is the teacher wishing to convey knowledge, build confidence, develop skills, stimulate motivation or secure understanding? Should the teacher be attempting to develop learner independence?

2. With regard to subject content, is too much being attempted in the time available?

A variety of reasons may exist for over-provision of content. For example, an inexperienced teacher may use content as a means of retaining status or the subject authority. Alternatively, a teacher of an examination based subject may offer too much content in the hope of ensuring his or her student's success rate.
SECTION 3

IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

One of the main problems is that of relating the initial practice to the planning which has taken place. Even when the design has been carefully constructed (as suggested in Section 2) there is evidence that not infrequently a failure occurs because practitioners are not fully aware of the problems, or because they interpret the design in ways which were not intended, or because they are unwilling to give the design their full support.

The problem of ensuring continuity between aims, objectives and practice appears to be particularly acute when there is a negotiated curriculum.

The major questions to be considered are therefore:

A. AREA LEVEL

1. Has there been adequate planning of how to secure implementation by those directly concerned?

(3) Is there good communication between those with area responsibilities and those in institutions so that, for example, there is a clear understanding of the amount of autonomy allowed to college principals or centre heads? This is essentially a matter of organisational procedure and where there is a belief that all decisions are taken at area level with little or no consultation, those at local level appear to give the plans only minimum support. The evidence suggests that good practice requires maximum consultation at all levels.

(1) The research evidence indicates that although local Development Councils (LDCs) and similar bodies have failed generally to produce effective innovation at field level, they have worked very well as organs of communication. Through the exchange of information which takes place in them, EA providers have been able to gain a greater understanding of other organisations and
(1) Establishing and continuing closer liaison with a range of local agencies and community groups in order to disseminate information, assess needs and build up a comprehensive information bank.

(2) Establishing and maintaining effective feedback to educational providers.

(3) Attempting to contact and stimulate enrolment among occasional or non-users of education or training provision.

By establishing a recording system for the demand and use of the service, it was possible for staff to build up a comprehensive profile of users. This enabled the service to produce informed strategic planning. It was considered appropriate to identify trends in demand in order to construct detailed plans for improving and extending operations when presenting reports to the funding agency.

Staff were anxious to identify needs which they could not currently satisfy, and to anticipate increasing demand which would put them under pressure. The following problems and limitations produced by under-resourcing were outlined:

(1) The service was unable to act as advocate on behalf of groups and individuals.

(2) More detailed examination of users' needs for feedback to educational providers was necessary.

(3) The need for wide-ranging and systematic outreach work was present.

(4) The need to construct a network of educational guidance services for the pooling of information on priorities, problems and opportunities, each with a focus on serving local community needs, was identified.

Has full support of the programme been adequately provided?

The evidence suggests that when programmes have been broadly decided at area level, it is valuable to plan for efficient and continuing communication through which policy makers, administrators and client members can be kept informed about the implementation of curriculum decisions. Satisfactory implementation depends not only upon the expeditious transmission of decisions to the practitioners but also upon the continued interest and support of those more indirectly concerned.

The following case study demonstrates a concern for communication and participation:

In one LEA area, after local government re-organisation and subsequent changes in the AE services, a new principal was appointed. He had overall responsibility for four operational areas, each of which had its own full-time area head and administrative officer with a considerable degree of autonomy. Prior to re-organisation the provision was mainly a General non-vocational kind, with most classes being of a standard 30 week type, and with an attempt at modification or evaluation being made. The principal, after informal discussions with colleagues, took the initiative and drew up the following list of aims:

(1) To provide basic education for adults.

(2) To help disadvantaged and handicapped adults to gain the benefit from AE, and to become more integrated in the wider community.

(3) To produce a range of educational and cultural activities for adults.

(4) To provide facilities and support for self-programming adult groups pursuing specific subject interests but without the continuing support of a professional teacher.

(5) To enable adults to have easy access to information and resources.
Effective implementation relies on the support of the institution-wide community, including the principal himself, who plays a key role in setting the objectives and direction for the program. He must be committed to the success of the initiative and provide the necessary support and resources. The principal is also responsible for the overall development and management of the program, ensuring that it aligns with the institution's goals and objectives.

Institutional support is crucial for the success of the program. Efforts should be made to involve all levels of the institution, from the top management down to the staff and students. This can be achieved through clear communication, regular meetings, and feedback mechanisms. Staff development opportunities should be provided to enhance their skills and knowledge, which in turn will improve the effectiveness of the program.

The institutional level plays a significant role in the implementation of such initiatives. The principal and the administrative staff are key stakeholders who can drive the change and ensure its sustainability. They should be involved in the planning and decision-making processes, and their support is essential for the successful implementation of the program.

The success of any initiative depends on the commitment and support of all stakeholders. It is important to have a clear vision, strong leadership, and effective communication to ensure the program's success. Continuous monitoring and evaluation are also crucial to assess the program's impact and make necessary adjustments.
several hundred industrial workers who were to be made redundant with the opportunity to sample various activities the college was able to offer. The initiative was unsuccessful, and a major contributory factor was the lack of attention paid to staff development and training. The staff were unable to relate to people not taking specific courses, and there was a lack of counselling support to aid them with their new task and role. The initiative consequently faltered, not because the college and its staff were unwilling to adapt or innovate, but because there had been a failure to assess resources and expertise and to undertake necessary staff preparation and support. Without a structure to provide such support, which would have enabled them to acquire the appropriate skills, the staff “fell back on their old (academic) habits”.

4. What help can be given to those responsible for managing the implementation of the design in order to achieve maximum effectiveness?

The evidence suggests that there ought to be opportunities for staff development and training for those who serve on management committees or have executive responsibilities. Such individuals play an important part in the implementation of curriculum development decisions and yet often those with responsibilities other than as teachers are omitted from schemes of preparation and support. Steps ought also to be taken to improve the effectiveness of guidance and counselling within an institution.

3. Is the publicity and marketing adequate? How much publicity is required and for what purpose?

(1) Some programmes within the curriculum may need little publicity or marketing because they are determined by the requirements of an external agency such as the HSC, which provides the student body. Other programmes thought to be desirable and possible may require considerable effort to secure recruitment, and it is important to identify with precision and clarity what the target groups are.

(j) Other actions are required which concern:

(a) the amount of general publicity material available and the purpose it is intended to serve.

(b) the amount of specialized publicity available.

(c) the amount of publicity and other marketing methods which may be adopted given adequate human and physical resources. These may include:

- Advertisements (libraries, shopping centres, clubs)
- Brochures
- Handbooks and leaflets
- Newspapers
- Outreach publicity by individuals
- Journals
- Public meetings
- Radio and TV

(d) how the effectiveness of publicity and marketing can be estimated.

(e) use of staff expertise in publishing programmes and in marketing ideas and the institution.

Both general information materials and publicity designed for specific target groups need to be considered.

COURSE LEVEL

1. Implementation at course level clearly requires the teacher to have competent subject skills which, it is assumed, have been certified by the employing agency. Ideally, effective teaching skills are required. The research suggests that attention should be paid to:

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3. Attention should be given to the support needed from non-teaching staff such as clerical and technical workers, for whom a special programme of staff development may be very helpful.

Examples of failure of support have included the non-arrival of audio-visual equipment when required, lack of help in operating equipment, refusal to undertake duplication or photocopying for part-time teachers etc.

4. A check should be made on the adequacy of general resources, including equipment, the provision of a creche etc.

CONCLUSION

If design is to be satisfactorily implemented attention must be paid at all levels to ensure that practitioners are fully aware of curriculum plans and proposed developments. It is crucial that the understanding of all staff is secured so that the design is fully supported. The research suggests that adequate staff development is the most important factor.

During the period of implementation it is necessary to evaluate progress and to examine matters such as:

- the effectiveness of the structure of the design
- the ways in which resources are being used
- the effectiveness of publicity and marketing

These are the concerns of the next section.

[Check List]

A. [ } Area Level

1. Has there been adequate planning of how to ensure full implementation by those directly concerned? For instance:

   (i) Is there good communication to ensure understanding and knowledge of the design?
   (ii) Have arrangements been made for the exchange of information in UEL's or similar organisations?
   (iii) Are the overall publicity and marketing methods adequate?
   (iv) Has attention been given to clarifying knowledge about the new structures?

2. Has indirect support for the programme been adequately provided?

   Are there satisfactory means of ensuring a good flow of information about developments to administrators, elected members, employers etc?

B. Institutional Level

1. Have ways been devised of securing maximum support for the implementation? For instance:

   (i) Is there an effective communication channel between the Institution and policy makers at area level?
   (ii) Are the means of informing and/or possibly involving locally elected members, employers, welfare agencies etc adequate?
   (iii) Is there effective communication with the management committee or academic board and are they satisfactorily organised to provide support?
   (iv) Have steps been taken to ensure good staff support? Is the flow of information satisfactory? Does the design make unreasonable demands on staff time?
   (v) Is there staff development and training at institutional level required to ensure effective implementation?

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4. Was the design 'cost-effective'?

This is a possible question which, as the evidence indicates, is beset with problems. It is difficult, for example, to define exactly the term 'effective' or to measure educational outcomes with a precise degree of accuracy, especially as they may be long term rather than short term. Financial costs can be either exaggerated or underestimated and it is usually difficult in the educational budget to apportion administrative costs, maintenance costs and general overheads. Simple calculation about the number of students per teacher, or examination results do not alone provide satisfactory measure of cost-effectiveness.

The evidence therefore suggests that although this question may be tackled, any answers should be treated with extreme caution. The collection of information about costs and budgeting may be helpful, however, in examining the effectiveness of the structure of the provision.

5. Are the methods of evaluation at area level satisfactory?

Evaluation at area level sometimes takes the form of an annual review carried out by senior staff or sometimes by special 'inspectors'. Regular conferences involving staff drawn from within an area appear to be particularly useful.

INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

1. Some of the questions to be posed in evaluating the implementation of the design at institutional level are:

(1) were all the resources in the institution fully used?

Samples have been brought to light of unequal loading of members of staff, some being asked to make only a very light contribution while others were heavily burdened. There were also instances in which expensive equipment had lain idle for long periods although it could have been used to good effect.

(11) was the timetable planned satisfactorily? Did students find it possible to attend all the courses they wished?

(111) how far was it possible to adhere to the original plan for the programme? Were modifications beneficial or otherwise?

(1111) did the management committee or academic board or the elected members play a satisfactory role? Were the channels of communication effective? What obstacles existed? Can these be removed?

(1111) did the staff, teaching, administrative or technical, cooperate fully in helping to achieve the planned aims and objectives? Was there evidence of misunderstanding and/or resistance? Was the amount and type of staff development and training satisfactory?

(11111) how effective was the publicity/marketing?

2. How should the evaluation be carried out?

(11) The evidence in this enquiry strongly underlined the need for adequate records to be kept as a first stage towards efficient evaluation. As has been said, "good bunches come from good data". Some providers, however, appear to recognize the need for formal information-collections systems because of the small size of their organizations. It seems clear that even in these cases records could be valuable such as microfilm and as the basis for long term planning. A first evaluation question must therefore be: have adequate records been kept? Practitioners, however, also need to ask what 'adequate' should mean in terms of their own institution. There may be differences because of local circumstances and there is no point in collecting information just for its own sake without it being put to use.
(1) Drop-out rates or examination results are two types of performance indicators, but must be treated with care. In themselves they are not necessarily a good guide to the competence of a teacher as many factors are involved.

(11) Similarly the popularity of a teacher is not a guarantee of quality.

(111) Evaluation of staff performances should be undertaken as a long-term measure in which profiles are developed over a period of time. It may be aided by student clerk lists of student feed back in some other form.

(1111) The scrutiny of the performances of individual teachers is difficult because it involves subjective judgments and it must therefore have a broad base and be sensitively handled. The process of self evaluation offers an important additional dimension, not least because it passes some of the responsibility for assessment to the individual concerned.

EXAMPLES

It is perhaps indicative of the general situation that the research enquiry produced no examples of thorough evaluation at any level.

In the whole, subjective monitoring by staff seemed to be the maximum undertaken and the amount of this was very variable. In some parts of the field, however, the following examples were found:

(1) a regular review of programmes and their development in meetings of area principals, or of staff within colleges, or of full-time staff in extramural departments or in V.I.A. districts.

(11) more formal requests to teachers to complete a form at the end of each course. In this they were asked to indicate their impressions of the achievements of the course, and details of work undertaken by students, as well as comments on the accommodation and equipment available. The aim was to illuminate the general situation and the process seems to have been carried out most by university extramural departments.

(111) the circulation of questionnaires to students asking for their opinions about the provision.

(1111) Unsolicited student feedback. For example, a V.I.A. class had been introduced to an accepted a range of experimental teaching methods by their tutor to assist to an understanding of the subject. Another tutor was engaged to teach a specific topic within the course and relied exclusively on presentation of slides followed by short discussion periods. The class secretary was asked by the other students to contact the providing agency, to observe that they did not wish to learn in this comparatively passive way and in request that they have a tutor who would allow them to learn actively through experience.
A 'SYSTEMS' MODEL

This systems model is derived from the four major elements of curriculum illuminated through case studies and described above. It represents the systematic inter-relationship which exists between these elements and identifies in each quarter, certain basic questions relating to them.

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Developing Principles & Objectives

The Adult Learner

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Design

Implementation

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PERSPECTIVE: GOOD PRACTICE

The Research Findings

The concept of LA, while theoretically acceptable, presents problems when sought in practice.

It was considered necessary, in implementing this research, to identify in the various LA providers different and often competing sets of criteria for specifying 'good practice'. In particular, it was important to distinguish between what the provider considered to be 'good practice' in the circumstances and 'good practice' as an ideal to which the provider aspired despite the circumstances.

In the course of the investigative phase of the research, considerable evidence emerged regarding the degree of commonality among providers in what constituted 'good practice' in LA.

General descriptions of 'good practice' were accompanied by a high degree of agreement among providers and within providing organisations, while more specific descriptions of 'good practice' resulted in a low degree of commonality. For example:

General description:

'Structure is sound and cost-effective.'

Specific descriptions:

- Clear goals should be set.
- 'Murphy' is a frequent user of resource allocation.
- Focus on specific groups.
- 'Self-programmed' groups are effective if resource allocation is coordinated.
- 'Self-directed' groups do not work as effectively as a result of effectively directed learning.
- Competition between providers encourages efficiency.
- 'Competition encourages differentiation.'
- Duplication of provision and effort between providers is avoided.

These descriptions of specific practices are most numerous, and providers are in greater disagreement, when it comes to actual strategies and tactics used to implement general principles.
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**Note:** The text is not legible in the image provided.
- Routine collection of data, eg. student enrolment and 'drop-out' figures for monitoring purposes.
- Support of self-programming groups.
- Optimum use of 'progressive' methods, ie. those which actively engage adults in their own learning.
- Encouragement of financial concessions, eg. fees and travel costs for the unemployed, or those in rural areas lacking adequate transport facilities.
- Maximisation of teacher awareness of programme design skills, eg. the creation of independent learning opportunities with and/or for students.
- Maximisation of teacher awareness of students' existing experience and/or expertise as a factor in curriculum development.
- Retention of close and active liaison with professional and voluntary organisations.
- Promotion of local inter-agency working groups for specific purposes.
- Use of LMC's for communication purposes.
- Formalisation of student representation on policy/management committees.
- Monitoring of demand for information and publicity.
- 'Follow-up' procedures on students' programme completion.
- Inter-provider negotiation for provision of credit transfer and 'special entry' systems.

Finally, two key concerns must be identified. These have been taken from contemporary literature and current practice as well as from the research.

1. Firstly, it may be necessary to develop more systematic, planning to be based on the needs of both students and employers, and to avoid random and haphazard include the provision of both planning and co-ordination at an international level. Furthermore, well-structured and coordinated planning could benefit greatly from close and active liaison with professional and voluntary organisations. Consequently, the establishment of local inter-agency working groups and the promotion of independent learning opportunities with and/or for students could make a significant contribution to improving the effectiveness of the programme. In particular, the establishment of such groups is likely to provide a mechanism for ensuring that the needs of both students and employers are met.

2. Secondly, there is a need to establish and develop autonomy for localised networks aimed at facilitating regular contact between providers and to extend the dissemination of information, the use of LMCs, and the development of local networks. The establishment of local inter-agency working groups and the promotion of independent learning opportunities with and/or for students could also make a significant contribution to improving the effectiveness of the programme. In particular, the establishment of such groups is likely to provide a mechanism for ensuring that the needs of both students and employers are met.

A strategy for identifying and capturing existing and potential communication to improve the effectiveness of LMCs, the establishment of local inter-agency working groups, and the promotion of independent learning opportunities with and/or for students is likely to provide a mechanism for ensuring that the needs of both students and employers are met.
### Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AE</td>
<td>Adult Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BTEC</td>
<td>Business and Technicians Education Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNAA</td>
<td>Council for National Academic Awards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DES</td>
<td>Department of Education and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>Education of Adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>Educational Centres Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECCTIS</td>
<td>Educational Counselling and Credit Transfer Information Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEC</td>
<td>European Economic Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMRIAE</td>
<td>East Midlands Regional Institute of Adult Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>European Social Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FE</td>
<td>Further Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEU</td>
<td>Further Education Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>Local Education Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDC</td>
<td>Local Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSC</td>
<td>Manpower Services Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>NAB</td>
<td>National Advisory Board</td>
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### Place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OU</td>
<td>Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PITC</td>
<td>Professional, Industrial and Technical Colleges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAC</td>
<td>Regional Advisory Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCR</td>
<td>Regional Curriculum Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRFAC</td>
<td>South East Regional Forum for Adult and Continuing Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UACE</td>
<td>Universities Council for Adult and Continuing Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEA</td>
<td>Workers' Educational Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>YTS</td>
<td>Youth Training Scheme</td>
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</table>
3 Learning

What is learning?

Some readers may, understandably, be tempted to give this chapter a miss. The world of educational psychology is full of division and uncertainty, and it is not always clear how a consideration of the various current learning theories can help us as teachers in the practice of our craft.

Nevertheless, it is always useful to stand back from what we are doing and look at it in terms of general principles. Further, it is surely necessary that the overall theories should be pressed into service concretely to assist the teaching process; there is otherwise little point in all the speculation. This is beginning to happen; although relatively few of those who research into the learning processes have devoted time to considering the direct relevance of their studies to teaching, there is a small but growing interest in the application of this type of theory to practice. Most important of all, part of our task is to help our adult student participants to learn how to learn, or to learn how to learn more effectively; and for us to be able to do this properly, we need to become aware of what is involved in the process of learning.

This is a huge field, fraught with dangers and complexities. Whole books are written about learning theories or about small parts of one particular theory. The language is often abstruse, and there is no agreement as to the ‘true’ models; polemics fly. Particularly there is a call by some writers today for a complete transformation of the relations between teacher and taught, and between all members of the learning group (including the teacher) and knowledge, authority and expertise. To attempt to sum all this up within the compass of one chapter may seem to be courting disaster. But the task still seems to be worth trying. I have on the whole stuck to the well-worn paths rather than take the reader into the newer realms of study (which are more exhortatory than empirically based), though these are exciting, and something of them is discussed in Chapter 10.

Learning

In common parlance the word ‘learning’ carries at least two meanings. There is first a general one of some kind of change, often in knowledge but also in behaviour: ‘I met Mr. I today and learned that he had lost his job’; ‘Today a new bus timetable was introduced. A spokesman for the council said that he believed..."
the public would soon learn to use the new routes.' But there is also a more intense sense of the verb 'to learn' meaning to memorize, learn by heart: 'Take that home and learn it.'

We may leave on one side the meaning of the word as 'memorizing' and concentrate instead on the 'learning as change' model. To say that 'learning is change' is too simple. First, not all change is learning; the changes brought about by ageing or other physical processes can hardly be described as 'learning changes', though they may necessitate learning changes. Secondly, some forms of learning are confirmation rather than changes of existing patterns of knowledge and behaviour. Since the knowledge is more strongly held or the behaviour more intensely engaged in after the learning has taken place, it can still perhaps be said that learning is change, but on these occasions the changes are directed more towards reinforcement than to alteration of patterns of knowledge and behaviour.

Learning as change takes two main forms: those more or less automatic responses to new information, perceptions or activities that result in change (which may be called 'incidental learning'), and secondly those structured purposeful changes aimed at achieving mastery. There is a difference in meaning between the use of the word in contexts such as: 'He burned his fingers. He learned not to do that again', and 'I had some trouble with that machine but I learned how to manage it.' The second implies both purpose and effort, which the first, being unintended and involuntary, lacks.

What we usually mean by learning are those more or less permanent changes brought about voluntarily in one's patterns of acting, thinking and/or feeling. There are at least two parts to the process: the reception of and engagement with new material, i.e. the development of new perceptions or the engaging in new forms of activity, and secondly the responses to this new material.

Areas of change

There have been several attempts to describe the different areas of learning change. Many of these are overlaid with philosophical assumptions about human nature and the nature of knowledge that are difficult to test. Sometimes they are seen to be hierarchical - that is, some areas of learning are viewed as being of a lower order than others, though not necessarily dependent on prior learning; but, this is not always true. Kurt Lewin, for example, has suggested that learning changes occur in skills, in cognitive patterns (knowledge and understanding), in motivation and interest, and in ideology (fundamental beliefs). Cagné (1972) on the other hand has identified five 'domains' of learning:

- Motor skills - which require practice.
- Verbal information - facts, principles and generalizations, which, when organised into larger bodies of information, become knowledge; 'the major requirement for learning and retaining verbal information appears to be its presentation within an organized, meaningful context'.


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- Intellectual skills - the skills of using knowledge; these 'discriminations, concepts and rules' that characterize both elementary and more advanced cognitive learning and rely on prior learning in a way that motor skills and verbal information do not.

- Cognitive strategies - the way knowledge is used; the way the individual learns, remembers and thinks; the self-managed skills needed to define and solve problems. They require practice and are constantly being refined.

- Attitudes

Learning, then, takes place in a number of different spheres, which for our purposes may be distinguished as follows:

1. We may learn new skills or develop existing skills further, not just physical skills, our ability to do certain things, but also skills of thinking and of learning, skills of coping and survival strategies.

2. We may learn new knowledge as we collect information that is largely memorized.

3. Such knowledge may be held uncomprehendingly, as experience will testify; we thus need to learn to relate our new material in ways that lead to new understanding.

4. Further, since we can learn new skills and new knowledge and new understandings without necessarily changing our attitudes, the learning of attitudes is a distinct sphere of learning.

5. It is possible for learning changes to be brought about in all four of these areas without accompanying alterations in our way of life, our pattern of behaviour. It is therefore necessary to learn to apply our newly learned material to what we do and how we live, to carry out our new learning into changed ways of behaving - to learn wisdom, in short.

The way these five arenas of learning change relate to each other is not clear; it is certainly complex. What for instance is the relationship between changes in knowledge and changes in attitude, or between new knowledge and changed patterns of behaviour? When new knowledge ('smoking can damage your health') meets contrary practice (the habit of smoking), the learners may do one of at least three things. They can decry the information, ignore or reject it ('It's all very exaggerated' or 'I know but I don't care'); they can accept the new knowledge but use other knowledge to rationalise away their behaviour ('Less than 10 per cent of smokers die of cancer caused by smoking, and I'll be one of the lucky ones'); or they can accept the new knowledge and change their way of life to fit in with it. The way an individual reacts to learning changes in any one arena seems to depend on personality and situational factors.

From the teacher's point of view, it is useful to keep the distinctions between these different areas of learning in mind during the preparation of the learning opportunity. We will find it helpful to ask ourselves whether our teaching is primarily in the area of skills or of knowledge or of understanding or of attitudes or of behaviour, for this distinction influences the practices we adopt in the
programme of learning we are planning. Most of our teaching covers several different areas of learning, probably all of them, and in any case it is doubtful whether they can be kept apart. Changes in attitude rely to a large extent on changes in knowledge and understanding (recent studies have stressed the necessity for direct human contact in bringing about changes in attitudes), and behavioural changes can hardly take place without accompanying changes in one or more of the other areas. Nevertheless, while bearing in mind that most teaching which concentrates primarily on one of these areas (such as skills) inevitably involves learning in other areas, (knowledge, understanding and perhaps attitudes and behaviour) as well, we need to ask ourselves precisely what sort of learning change we and our student participants are attempting to deal with at this particular stage of the programme.

Learning theories

How do we learn?

There is a distinction between the type of learning change desired (the acquisition of new skills or knowledge, for instance, or the development of new insights) and the process by which those changes are brought about. It is here that the greatest differences of opinion have been expressed by educational theorists.

The many different learning theories may be divided for simplicity’s sake into three main groups. There are the behaviourist theories, mostly of the stimulus–response variety of varying degrees of complexity. There are the cognitive theories, seen by some more as a variant form of behaviourist theories but based on different views of the nature of knowledge. And there are those theories that have been called humanist; these rely on analyses of the nature of personality and of society. It is possible here only to outline the salient features of each of these three main groups of theories.

Before we do this, we may remind ourselves of two earlier dimensions to our study:

1. We noted above (pages 18–20) the basic spectrum between the poles of the ‘conformist’ view of education and the ‘liberation’ view. It is tempting to see a correlation between the stimulus-response theories and the conformist approach to education on the one hand and between the humanistic group and the ‘liberation’ view on the other, indeed, there is some truth in this, in its overall emphasis. But it is an over-simplification; the distinction runs right through all these learning theories, and each group operates along the whole length of the spectrum.

2. However there does seem to be a clearer relationship between each of these groups of learning theories and the three main elements of the teaching-learning situation. Education consists of a dynamic interaction involving three parties
(page 12): the teacher-planner, the student participant(s), and the material used to bring about the intended learning changes. It is no coincidence that each of the three main groups of theories tends to exalt the primacy of a different one of these three elements. Behavioural theories stress the role of the teacher-agent in providing the stimulus and selecting and reinforcing the approved responses; cognitive theories emphasize the content of the material that controls learning; while the humanist theories (the most complex group of all) direct attention to the active involvement of the student participant in the learning process.

The relationship between these three groups of theories and the conformist-liberation continuum on the one hand, and between these theories and the main parties to the learning encounter on the other, may be set out as follows: (Fig. 15).

**Figure 15**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning theories</th>
<th>Conformist-oriented</th>
<th>(continuum)</th>
<th>Liberation-oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural; teacher-centred</td>
<td>Reinforcement of desired responses</td>
<td>Exploration of different responses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive; subject-centred</td>
<td>Discipline of subject</td>
<td>Discovery learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanist; learner-centred</td>
<td>Imitation of norms</td>
<td>Group learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Behaviourist theories**

This group of theories suggests that we learn by receiving stimulus from our environment, stimulus that provokes a response. The teacher may direct this process by selecting the stimuli and by reinforcing the approved responses while discouraging the 'wrong' responses. Learning is thus brought about by association between the response and the reinforcement (a system of 'rewards' and 'punishments', not of course a crude programme of doling out sweets and detentions but a complicated system of success and failure indicators).

Such a theory tends to stress the active role of the teacher-agent; the student learner is often seen as more passive. Although the learner offers a variety of responses, it is the teacher who controls the stimuli, who chooses the 'correct' response and 'rewards' it appropriately, discouraging the other responses. 'Feedback', the return from the learner to the teacher, is largely related to the reward; it stands on its own, separate from and following after the learning process.

This is not seen by its proponents as a process appropriate only to a low-level kind of learning. Stimulus-response, it is urged, applies at more advanced levels
as well. Nor is it confined to skill learning; it is the basis of cognitive and attitudinal learning as well – the understanding of historical processes, for instance, or the appreciation of music. The general validity of the theory is seen by the fact that it underlies most of the other groups of theories. Cognitive theories take it a stage further by stressing the inherent demands of the subject-matter, but they still rely on an assumption that responses are called out by different stimuli. And the theory is equally seen to be relevant to the humanist theories; these emphasise that the stimuli arise from our social and life context, that the variety of response is dependent upon our individual experiences and personalities, and that at an early stage in life we learn by a system of rewards (approvals) and punishments (disapprovals), which indicate whether our social advances and patterns of behaviour are acceptable or not. Stimulus and reinforcement are elements of all theories of learning.

Cognitive theories

Since the 1960s a number of theories have emerged that direct attention to the activity of the learner in processing the response and to the nature of knowledge itself. These form a distinct group, which may be labelled cognitive theories – though some people see them more as a transitional form of behaviourism in view of their reliance upon stimulus-response concepts.

These theories point to the active engagement of the mind in relation to the matter under consideration. They stress the processes involved in creating responses, the organization of perceptions that goes on in the mind, the development of insights. In order to learn, understanding is necessary; the material must be marshalled step by step and then mastered. The setting of goals is related to each part of the material encountered. Feedback is seen as an essential element in the process of learning, not separate from it.

Although this set of views may be seen as laying emphasis on the active involvement rather than the passivity of the learner, in essence this activity is controlled by the inherent structure of knowledge itself. The material that the teacher-agent orders and the learner seeks to master dominates the process. The frequency with which the words ‘must’ and ‘necessary’ occur in connection with this view of learning reveals that the teacher and the learner are faced with something bigger than both of them, to which they both must adapt themselves – the world of knowledge, which lies outside of themselves.

This group of views is not confined to learning that consists of the acquisition of new knowledge or the coming to new understanding. It also applies to learning in the area of skills as well as to attitudes and patterns of behaviour.
Humanist theories

These learning theories are more recent in origin and are not so coherent as those in the other two groups. They stress once more the active nature of the learner; indeed, the learner’s actions largely create the learning situation. They emphasise the urges and drives of the personality – movements towards (for example) increased autonomy and competence, the compulsion towards development and growth, the active search for meaning, the goals that individuals set for themselves – and the social setting within which they operate. Learning and setting goals for oneself are a natural process, calling into play the personal learning abilities that the learners have already acquired and that they seek to enhance. Learning is largely by imitation and identification with others, drawing upon all the experience that goes to make up the self and upon the wider society. Motivation for learning comes from within; and the material on which the learning drives fasten is the whole of life, the cultural and interpersonal relationships that form the social context.

These views also stress the autonomy of the learners. They point to the fact that all other theories of learning speak in terms of 'controls': that the learner is controlled, by the stimuli, by the teacher or by the subject. They on the other hand see education as part of a process of conflict by which the learners seek to take control of their own life processes. It is the engagement of the learners with the world around them and with themselves that creates the learning milieu. The material on which they exercise their learning skills is less important than the goals they have set themselves. The role of the teacher, then, is to increase the range of experience so that the student participants can use it in any way they please to achieve their own desired learning changes.

Hierarchies of the learning process

The identification of these three groups of learning theories raises the question of the relationship between them. Is one 'right' (in the sense of being a more satisfactory explanation of what is happening) and are the others 'wrong'? Or are they all true, operating perhaps at different times or at different stages of the learning process? Or are they most relevant to different 'audiences' – the stimulus–response theories being more appropriate to young children, the cognitive theories being most applicable to adolescents coming to grasp with concepts, and the humanist theories being particularly relevant to the adult learner? Or do they apply to different types of learning: to skills/knowledge, to understanding/attitudes, and to wisdom, respectively? Do they form a hierarchy of learning strategies? Certainly some educationalists have seen stimulus–response as a lower order of learning than insight, for example.

Most writers on learning theory have posited that some hierarchy of learning
exists, although they have seen this as operating within one theory rather than between the different groups of theories. They have thus constructed lists of learning processes, from the simpler learning changes to the more advanced, from lower-order teaching-learning tasks to those of a higher order. There is little agreement about these hierarchies; each writer creates his or her own list, amplifying, qualifying and amending those that came before or developing a new hierarchy of their own, and it is impossible to reconcile some of them.

**Behaviourist hierarchies**

The most commonly cited such hierarchy is that of the behaviourist writers. This is usually set out as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stimulus–Response</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Habituation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditioning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Operant conditioning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trial and error</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insightful learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Symbolic learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We do not need to spend long on each of these different learning processes, but since they are rehearsed more often than any others, some elaboration needs to be given.

- **Habituation** is the most primitive of all learned response, learning not to respond to oft-repeated stimuli (the ticking of a clock, for example, or in a more extreme form, crying ‘wolf’).
- **Conditioning** may be ‘simple’ or ‘transferred’. It consists of learned responses directly and often involuntarily provoked by certain stimuli. It is possible then to call forth certain desired responses by feeding a different stimulus when this is accompanied by a process of ‘association’.

  Much of this conditioning is directed towards the avoidance of unpleasantness. It is thus seen to be more important in emotional learning, less important in cognitive learning. A stimulus may call forth what is called ‘avoidance learning’ – a response designed to avoid, repress or escape from the stimulus itself or at least to reduce the anxiety that the original stimulus might arouse. A number of problems occur in this field; for example, the anxiety thus aroused may itself be reinforced whenever the response is engaged in. Some adults returning to education for the first time may come to associate the learning situation with early fears originally learned at school.
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- **Operant conditioning** is a more controlled process by which certain responses are encouraged by a system of rewards and punishments, which together comprise a programme of reinforcement. Imitation, identification and the search for approval are all involved at this stage.

- **Trial and error** is an experimentation with responses in order to provoke positive reinforcement. It can consist of external activities such as practice, and internal activities such as imagining. By now the learners are beginning to be more active in controlling their own learning.

- **Insightful learning** constitutes an abrupt change in the process of learning. It is a recognition of the relationships between different elements, which in itself brings rewards in the sense of success, achievement, fulfillment—and thus pleasure. It enables problems to be solved by breaking them up into separate items, a rearrangement of which leads to the invention of new constructs.

- **Symbolic learning** is the same process, undertaken not for real but through symbols (pictures or language or mathematical expressions, for example). This enables more complex problems to be handled, more complex entities to be built up. In this process other strategies, especially trial and error and insightful learning, are called into play.

- **Social learning** is seen as the highest strategy of all. Through this can come the processes of modelling, of building ideals and identifying with them; of using interaction (especially discussion and co-operation in common tasks) to create new stimuli; and of seeking conformity to and compliance with the values of others by a process of internalising, making them one’s own. Society, or that part of it with which we mix, prescribes what responses shall be reinforced and, sets the example for imitation.

Several other hierarchies are identified by behavioural theorists. One that has attracted attention among adult educators, because it identifies each stage with age-related learning processes, is that of the Belbins:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Belbin</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conditioning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Imitation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Memorising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exploring</td>
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</table>

They point out that the infant is first subject to *conditioning*, that it then progresses to *imitation*, which they argue makes little demands on the conscious thought processes. This is followed by *memorizing*, coping with verbal communication, a process that occupies the growing child from the age of about 4 to 16. Some primitive societies did not get beyond the oral repetition of tradition: ‘a capacity to recite great tracts of poetry or to quote sacred works (upon which cultural values were founded) was the mark of the true scholar’. A more
advanced form of learning, which marks the adolescent years, is the development of sensori-motor skills, the use of tools and in some societies the manipulation of weapons: 'by puberty each individual would be expected to have become proficient. . . . After the age of, say, twenty the need to master new learning in this field would recede.' The fifth type of learning, that most suited to adult life, is exploring:

This approach . . . is what characterizes the adult learner in his general orientation to learning as a whole. It is perhaps for this reason that older learners have been found to thrive on discovery-type styles of teaching; that is, because it accords with the type of learning for which he is most fitted by his role-in-evolution. Any loss of learning capacity will be immaterial in comparison with his ability to use effectively what he has already learned.

(Belbin and Belbin, 1972)

The Belbins' description of the learning process has now been overtaken not only by new thinking about adult learning but also by rapid and major social and economic changes. But the hierarchy of learning processes they posit may still be useful, as each stage argues for prior learning in the preceding stage.

Cognitivist hierarchies

Those who espouse the cause of cognitive learning also have their hierarchies. The two most formally developed are those of Bloom and Gagné:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bloom</th>
<th>Gagné</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Stimulus-response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Chaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Verbal association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis-synthesis</td>
<td>Multiple discrimination</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Concept learning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Principle learning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiving</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Responding</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Valuing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Conceptualising</td>
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<td>Organising</td>
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</table>

As with earlier lists, both of these represent a progression from simpler to more advanced forms of learning.

Gagné draws heavily on stimulus–response theory. Signal is a generalised learned response to a signal received; stimulus–response learning is seen as an advance on this, whereby the stimulus is discriminated out of the general background of signals and the response is purposeful; reinforcement of 'correct' responses as against 'wrong' is needed. In chaining, the learner connects together two or more stimulus–response reactions. Verbal association is the process of using
already learned language to create chains, and *multiple discrimination* is that form of learning by which the learner makes differentiated responses to stimuli that, although they have a basic similarity, have become distinctive in themselves. A common response to a whole group of stimuli (seen together to form a class) is a *concept*, while a chain of two or more concepts is a *rule* or *principle*. Finally *problem-solving* is the use of principles to select out the required responses in order to resolve a problem and to create a new, higher-level principle.

Bloom on the other hand draws a distinction between learning in the cognitive domain and learning in the *affective* domain. There is, he feels, a parallel pattern of growth in both of these areas of learning; he emphasises the need for the development, alongside the cognitive process, of a value system (expressed by words of action) to reinforce the growing understanding that comprises cognitive learning. The lowest level of the cognitive domain is the recall and recognition of knowledge; on the affective side, it consists of *receiving* – i.e. paying attention to stimuli, developing awareness, being willing to receive and eventually using selective attention. Then comes, on the cognitive side, *comprehension*, understanding the material, exploring it more actively; on the affective side, the growth of commitment to the material, *responding* willingly and the emergence of a sense of satisfaction with the response. Thirdly, there is on the cognitive side the *application* of the comprehended knowledge, using the material in concrete situations, matched on the affective by an assessment that the activity itself is worth doing, so that the learners seek out further ways to take part in the learning process; they come to *value* the concept and the process and to express their preferences and eventually their commitment. The next stage after the application of their new understandings is an exploration of new situations by breaking them down into their constituent elements (*analysis*) and by building up new concepts by *synthesis*; correspondingly on the affective side the learners begin to make judgements and attach concepts to each of the values they have identified. Finally the highest level of learning is reached on both sides. In the cognitive domain, the learners come to *evaluate* what they are doing, to judge the value of the knowledge they possess in relation to the realisation of their goals, while in the affective domain they *organize* the values they have identified into a system that in the end comes to characterise each individual.

Bloom thus brings together in his hierarchy of learning processes both the cognitive learning and the personal growth element. This synthesis is a marked feature of the third set of learning theories, the humanist group.

**Humanist hierarchies**

It is not yet possible to present any similar hierarchy of learning processes for that group of learning theories to which we have given the general title of ‘humanist’. Because they rely on a variety of interpretations of the factors involved in learning, we are faced with a number of divergent views of what learning is all
about, only one or two of which include anything approaching a hierarchy of learning processes. These views themselves fall into two main categories: those concentrating on the ‘personality’ factors and those concentrating on the social or ‘environmental’ context with which the personality is in dialogue.

**Personality theories**

Among the many differences of opinion, one main area of agreement is the distribution of personality types along a spectrum of some kind or other – between the extrovert and introvert, for instance; or between those who see the ‘locus of control’ as within themselves and those who see it as outside of themselves (‘I was ill because I ate bad meat’ as against ‘The food in that restaurant made me ill’); or between the fatalist and the self-confident (Rotter, 1972) for example.

The importance to the teacher of adults of these ‘internal–external’ scales warrants a word of further explanation. People placed at one end of the scale have a general expectancy that positive reinforcers are not under their control. They may tend to lack self-confidence, to possess feelings of inferiority, even to expect failure and to rely more on luck, fate, chance or God. In terms of learning, they often feel that what they don’t know is so vast and what they do know is so small that they may be discouraged from the start from attempting to master new fields. At the opposite extreme are those who believe that reinforcement is contingent on their own behaviour. These people are usually more independent, resisting manipulation; they will act, learn, pay attention and (if they feel it necessary to the achievement of some goal they have set for themselves) remember. They draw upon the information and other resources provided by their environment; they select activities in which they are already successful, and feel confident that what they already know will help them to master further skills and knowledge.

Most of our student participants will occupy mid-points between these two extremes or will display characteristics of both of these types at different times and in different circumstances. But it is useful to remind ourselves of these basic dispositions before we look more closely at the various learning theories built on such interpretations of personality.

McClelland has drawn attention to the fact that, in different types of learning situation, the relationship between knowledge (K), attitudes (A) and practice (P) varies; he described four kinds of learning as

- behavioural modification;
- functional learning (the satisfaction of basic needs);
- the development of consistency (the reduction of inner tensions);
- and information processing.

These do not necessarily form a hierarchy of learning processes; rather in each of
them, the way in which K, A and P relate to each other is different. The importance of attitudes in the learning process and the relationship of attitudes to knowledge lie at the heart of much within these theories. Eric Berne, for instance, in *Games People Play* (1970) built his view of learning to a large extent on the difference within each person of the ‘parent’ (P), the ‘adult’ (A) and the ‘child’ (C), and argued that communications between people may go seriously wrong if the lines get crossed - if for example one person speaking as ‘adult’ is responded to as ‘child’.

Two major writers, Carl Rogers (1974) and Abraham Maslow (1968), have helped us to see learning as the main process of meeting the compulsions of inner urges and drives rather than responding to stimuli or meeting the demands of new knowledge. Rogers viewed this as a series of drives towards adulthood - autonomy, responsibility and self-direction - though it is now clear that the precise forms of such drives are culturally bound, that they do not apply in all societies. Maslow on the other hand saw this as an urge to satisfy in part or in whole a hierarchy of needs (the subject of needs forms a major topic in most writings on adult education; it is discussed in more detail on pages 63-4). But whether viewed as goal-seeking (based on limited and specific goals set by the learners themselves) or ideal-seeking (related to objectives set by the value system the learners have come to accept and hold), both argue that the learner is impelled from within to seek out learning changes.

Such learning is achieved (according to David Kolb, 1975) by active engagement in four main kinds of activity. These do not quite form a hierarchy; rather they distinguish between different ‘styles’ of learning, though something of a progression can be seen between them:

- concrete experience;
- reflexive observation;
- abstract conceptualisation;
- active experimentation.

**Environmentalists**

No man or woman is an island. The learning process, especially when self-impelled in this way, calls upon the resources of the environment in which the learner is situated. Most recently four main sets of social and environmental learning theories have been developed to which attention may be drawn here.

In brief, human communications theory indicates that communications link people together into an organization to achieve a common purpose. Communication is not just a one-way tool; it is a system or network of events. Communication is a transaction, a series of two-way processes, which involve a source (initiator), a transmission, a message and a receiver. There is inevitably interference and distortion in the transmission, and feedback is a necessary, though independent, part of the process in order to check whether what has been received is the same
as or equivalent to what has been sent. Interpretation is an essential element of the transaction. Learning is the process of change that comes about through reactions to the continuous reception of messages which is the inevitable consequence of each person being part of a human communications network or society.

Human communications theory tends towards the ‘external’ end of the personality scale; social learning theory on the other hand stresses the ‘internal’ factors. It is based on a study of the interaction of the individual and the social environment. The interaction starts with members of the family and widens out from there, and much of the learning process consists of imitation and the internalization of value systems acquired from others. Like the human communications theory, this is not just a stimulus-response theory; it emphasizes the active engagement of the individual with the environment, a dialectic with all the potential for conflict and the need for conflict-resolution.

From here modern learning theories have seen the engagement of the individual with the environment in a holistic sense — the total environment, not just the social environment. The physical world in which we live, the built environment that we have made for ourselves, the mental world (what the French call mentalités), as well as the social environment, are all elements with which we are bound in a perpetual engagement.

Some writers have seen this engagement as a struggle, a desperate search for freedom. Habermas, like Carl Rogers, views human life as a quest for self-emancipation, a search for autonomy through self-formative processes. Like others he has drawn on the seminal work of Paulo Freire (1972), who identified three stages of learning, a hierarchy of activities which are first task-related, secondly concerned with personal interrelationships, and finally with what he called ‘conscientization’, a concept that implies the transformation through learning of the awareness of surrounding reality, the development of a concern to alter it, and a realistic assessment of the resources and hindrances to such a process and the conflicts; it is bound to provoke. Habermas similarly has identified three kinds (or domains) of learning which in themselves form a hierarchy:
Teaching Adults

- Technical learning - how to manipulate the environment; the acquisition of the skills and understanding needed to control the world we live in (it is interesting that he puts scientific learning on the lowest rung of his scale);
- 'Practical' learning - learning changes in the realm of interpersonal relations and concerned with increasing interpersonal understanding;
- Emancipatory learning - self-understanding, an awareness and transformation of cultural and personal presuppositions that are always with us and affect the way we act.

Habermas concludes that these different kinds of learning have different methods of investigation, of teaching and of evaluation. Any teaching-learning situation will not only call upon all three kinds of learning, though in different proportions; because the teaching-learning encounter is part of the wider struggle of the individual and his or her total environment, it will involve a complete transformation of the relationships between the learner, the teacher (or mediator of knowledge) and the knowledge (competencies). It is significant that the kinds of learning outlined by Habermas seem to approximate to the three dimensions we identified earlier as being involved in the pursuit of full adulthood: maturity (full development of the individual's talents and potential), perspective and autonomy.

Such total learning will lead to what some theorists now refer to as paradigm transition. Learning in relation to the whole environment in which we live is that most difficult of all processes, the modification and adaptation of those paradigms (accepted and usually unchallenged world-pictures on which we build our lives) that underlie our whole personality and all our actions.

One of the more important expressions of this group of theories is George Kelly's 'personal construct theory', which argues that learning is not something determined by external influences but that we create our own learning. By observing and reflecting on experience, we form our own personal constructs (units of meaning) from our ideas, feelings, memories and evaluations about events and people in our lives. In this way we make sense of the world and manipulate it, rather than respond to stimuli and seek to reinforce our responses. The act of learning is then largely initiated by the learner, exploring and extending his or her own understanding, holding what has been called a 'learning conversation with him/herself'.

Many writers of this school reject the notion of 'knowledge' as existing outside of ourselves, as a reality to be discovered by research, as information to be found out. Instead, all that exists are the various 'acts of knowing' that we all engage in. Knowledge creation does not mean so much the uncovering of hidden truth as the construction of new perceptions. Those who search after truth are faced with the choice between all these various acts of knowing; the focus switches from the knowledge itself to the criteria by which we can judge the validity of the questions asked and the answers arrived at in each individual case. Some have gone further and denied the existence of the mind as a finite, fixed and static entity, in favour of 'a dynamic, ever-changing flux with unknown potential'. Thus those
psychologists who speak in terms of fixed measures like intelligence, aptitude and personality traits for what are seen by other writers to be ‘temporary stabilised states’ rather than permanent features of the personality are regarded as perpetuating myths and creating blocks to a true perception of the personality as fluid and active in its own quest, a perception that will enable learning to be more effective.

Such views rely upon the innate drives of man and woman towards autonomy and understanding in an attempt to control rather than be controlled, in a search for liberation. In other words, learning is not seen by these writers as merely the satisfaction of a series of urges, seeking a state of rest and harmony, the diminishing of a sense of anxiety, the relief of tension. Learning through life is rather an active engagement with our environment and with ourselves, a struggle that may actually increase tension, a dialectic in which we seek to alter both our environment and ourselves in the constant search for something better, some ideal. Learning is seen as the process by which our sense of discontent with the now and search for transcendence can express itself in a quest for perfectability.

Factors for effective learning

We have come a long way, from those early views that saw learning as a series of responses to externally applied stimuli, through the views of learning as the imposition on the individual of a discipline inherent within knowledge itself, to those views that see the individual as an active participant — the most active participant — in a struggle for living within a modern world. What are we to make of all of this in the light of our own teaching?

Each of these groups of theories has its own strengths and weaknesses. The stimulus-response theories are the set that has been most actively tested, but such testing has largely relied on simple tasks, not the higher forms of learning, and some of it has been done with animals. The other two groups of learning theories rely upon philosophical assumptions that do not lend themselves easily to testing. But with all their limitations, can they help us to determine what factors will assist us in maximizing learning, in making our work more effective?

What emerges most clearly from these learning theories, even the stimulus-response type, is that learning can itself be learned. Learning is an activity in which we all engage and which we can improve if we pay attention to the strategies involved and to the skills it calls forth. The importance of this for the teacher of adults is clear. Adults can improve their learning ability, provided the learning experience, however defined, is constructed so as to pay attention to the particular ways of learning, to the context and other factors that make the process effective, and to the skills used in the course of the learning process. It is therefore possible in each case to draw up a list of those strategies and factors that will enhance the learning process.
Lists of factors

Several lists have been drawn up of the factors for effective learning. These lists have often been compiled without any direct relationship with any one particular learning theory; it is relatively rare to find the implications of any theory worked out in detail for the teacher, though this is beginning to happen more frequently.

The theories that lend themselves most easily to this are the stimulus-response type. Here a distinct line emerges; in order to achieve effective learning, a series of successive stages have been identified as being necessary. These must take into

**Figure 16  Factors for effective learning**

- Motivation - the arousal of the learner to new levels of awareness and receptivity of stimuli;

- Cue – the process of providing the stimulus;

- Engagement – the process by which the learner relates the stimulus to previous learning and past experience (the use of both short-term and long-term memory in this process is important; memory is seen to be active, not passive; it selects and transforms the stimulus to meet material it already contains);

- Activity – the process by which the learner engages with the stimulus (for instance, in play) in order to create the various responses;

- Evaluation and feedback – the processes by which the learner judges, from among the various possible responses, which are the 'correct' ones and offers them up for reinforcement;

- Reinforcement – the reward or 'punishment' for the various responses so that the 'right' responses are selected out and encouraged and the 'wrong' responses are discouraged.
account the variety of situations in which adult learners engage and particularly the adulthood of the student participants, the existing knowledge and experience they bring to the learning task, and their active engagement with the new material. Such a list, modified to include these steps, is shown in Fig. 16.

Gagné, in his elaboration of these behaviourist theories with cognitive theory concepts, has explored this process in detail. He takes into account the activity of the learner in dealing with the new material and relating it to short-term and long-term memory, as well as some of the external factors influencing the learning (the role of the 'management', i.e. teacher and other agents of learning, and the various expectancies of teacher, learner and society). He has represented the process as shown in Fig. 17.

**Figure 17**

![Diagram](image)

Such a list based on the stimulus–response theories, each stage of which can be elaborated, helps us in planning effective learning opportunities - to pay attention to motivation, the cues, the engagement of the learners with the material, the activities they engage in, and the means of evaluation and feedback. But other factors are involved, and several of these have been listed. It is useful to look at some of these other lists, and from them and from our own experience to draw up our own list.
Factors for effective learning

1. Motivation.
2. Clear goals; awareness of need.
3. Conducive environment, not threatening.
4. Appropriate methods.
5. Presentation skills.
7. Expertise of teachers.

1. Motivation.
2. Awareness of students' differences.
3. Awareness of students' existing knowledge and attitudes.
4. Reinforcement.
5. Practice opportunities.
7. Division of material into learnable units.
8. Guidance as to appropriate responses.
10. Presentation skills.

I have given above two frequently quoted lists of factors for effective learning, not in order to discuss them in detail, but as a spur to you to make your own list. One or two features stand out from these lists.

The first is that both of these—and every other such list that has been compiled—start off with ‘motivation’. This is such an important question for the teacher of adults that it seems best to deal with it on its own (see pages 61–66).

The second point is that these lists incorporate three different sets of factors: (a) those primarily concerning the teacher (‘awareness of students’ differences’, for example, or ‘empathy’); (b) those that are more the concern of the learners (‘motivation’ or ‘practice’, for instance); (c) and those concerning the context within which the learning takes place (‘conducive environment’, for example). All three elements will play their part in creating the most effective learning opportunity for adults, and as teachers we need to pay attention to each of them.

Thirdly, most of these lists tend to confuse the situational ‘factors’ that lead to greater learning and the strategies that the teacher and the student participants may adopt in order to achieve their learning goals. It ought perhaps to be in the area of strategies that learning theories should be most helpful to the teacher, but equally the teacher-as-planner is often able to control or alter the situational factors towards increasing learning. At least the teacher should be aware that such factors will affect the work that they are engaged in.

The sort of list that each of us produces will depend on how we see learning. If we see it as stimulus-response, the role of the teacher in creating or directing stimuli and in reinforcing the desired responses will feature prominently in our list. If we see learning as cognitive process, the ordering of the material will come to assume primacy. If we see learning as a part of the process of the development of the individual in an engagement with others, with the social context as a whole, with the total environment or even with one’s own perceptions of this...
environment, the learners' direct involvement in the learning process will be paramount in our list. Each of these groups of learning theories calls for a different set of factors for effective learning and a different focal point for the teacher to adopt.

Most teachers call upon some of the insights of each of these groups of theories at different times during the teaching-learning encounter. At times we deal with simple responses, and we all use reinforcement of 'correct' patterns of response regularly. At times we are conscious of the demands of our subject, that it is impossible to proceed to more advanced work or general principles before more simple tasks have been completed and more simple concepts grasped. At times we note the problems created by the failure to communicate (for example, in conflict) or to relate to different social groups (for example, in prejudice) or to come to terms with the total environment (for example, alienation) or to adjust existing paradigms (for example, blocks to learning). Thus we call upon different strategies to try to cope with each of these situations.

So perhaps all three sets of theories are necessary to describe what is a most complex and dynamic activity. We need to use all of them when constructing our own list of the factors that will most help us to help our student participants to bring about the maximum learning. The exercise on page 62 provides an opportunity to do this at this stage.

Motivation and needs

Much has been written about motivation in relation to adult education. Although there is little common ground on the general ingredients of motivation, almost all are agreed that the teacher may promote or diminish the motivation of the student participants. We tend to rely too much on the fact that adult student learners come to us of their own free will, that they are already interested in the subject, that they are already motivated to learn. We forget that initial motivation to learn may be weak and can die; alternatively it can be increased and directed into new channels. This is part of the task of the teacher.

Motivation is usually defined as those factors that energize and direct behavioural patterns organized around a goal. It is frequently seen as a force within the individual that moves him or her to act in a certain way. Motivation in education is that compulsion which keeps a person within a learning situation and encourages him or her to learn.

Motivation is seen as being dependent on either intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors consist of those external incentives or pressures, such as attendance requirements, external rewards and/or punishments or examinations, to which many students are subjected. These, if internalized, create an intention to engage in the learning process. Intrinsic factors consist of that series of inner pressures and/or rational decisions which create a desire for learning changes.
Exercise

You may find it helpful to use the space below to list for yourself those factors within your course that most help in the learning process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual factors</th>
<th>‘Learner’ factors</th>
<th>‘Teacher’ factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(a) Stimulus–response view of learning

(b) Cognitive view of learning

(c) Humanist/social view of learning

It has been argued that it is desirable in all forms of education to move from motivation based on extrinsic factors to motivation based on intrinsic factors— from, for instance, a desire to pass an examination to an interest in the subject itself. But even within intrinsic motivation, there is a hierarchy of motives. For example, a desire to please some other person or loyalty to the adult group that keeps the student attending even when bored with the subject is seen as an intrinsic motive of a lower order than a desire to complete a particular task within the learning context. Some people see this move from extrinsic motives to intrinsic motives and from ‘lower’ levels to ‘higher’ levels of intrinsic motives as
corresponding to the desirable move from the lower level of stimulus-response learning to the higher levels of social and personality learning, similar to Habermas's move from 'low'-level technical learning to the 'higher' level of emancipatory learning, or Freire's move from low-level skill training to the higher level of conscientization (page 55 above).

There are three main groups of ideas behind the development of a theory of intrinsic motivation. The first states that motivation is a drive to fulfil various needs; the second says that motivation can be learned; and the third claims that motivation relates to goals accepted by oneself.

**Needs-related motivation**

Many people see motivation as internal urges and drives based on needs. All individuals vary in the composition of these needs and their intensity. At their simplest instinctual level, they may be the avoidance of pain and the search for pleasure, or the Freudian drives related to life, death, sex and aggression; but all such instincts can be modified by learning. A motive is a learned drive directed towards a goal, regarded by many as a search for the reduction of tension or conflict. Such directed drives may be aroused, as we have seen, by incentives (external factors) and by goals set for or accepted by the individual (internal factors).

Some writers have distinguished between needs (seen to be physical) and drives (psychological). More often, however, a distinction is drawn between primary needs (related to bodily functions, called viscerogenic) and secondary needs (psychogenic); the latter are seen to come into play only when primary needs are to a large extent already met.

Abraham Maslow is recognized as the apostle of the 'needs' school of thought. He developed his theory of 'pre-potency' - that one need must be largely satisfied before the next can come into full play. He distinguished basic drives from temporary needs, and established his hierarchy (Fig. 18).

Maslow argues that all people are driven through the first four stages of basic needs. As each lower need is in part met, the next higher level of need is triggered. Several levels of need can be in operation at the same time. The highest level of need, self-actualization, may not be reached by some individuals on more than an occasional basis. This level consists of a need to create, a need to appreciate, and a need to know and understand. (It has been said that Maslow has indicated a further level of need above self-actualization: self-transcendence, a need to express tangibly concern for others; but this does not occur in his published writings.)

For the teacher, concern for extrinsic motivation on the personal and social levels must be, at least in part, satisfied before adequate motivation for the more self-fulfilling kinds of learning can be properly aroused. At the same time, within any one group of adults, there will be a wide variety of needs, and within each individual student participant there will be a different mixture of needs. This
mixture will be constantly changing as the learning proceeds and as the individual's life situation changes.

In one sense, Maslow's hierarchy of needs fails us as adult educators precisely at the point we need it most. It seems to offer us an analysis of the pre-conditions to the type of learning we are most interested in: the almost self-evident truth that the needs for food, shelter, personal relationships and a sense of esteem must in part be met before creative, evaluative and cognitive learning can take place. But it reminds us that when some of our student participants come to our programmes from a desire for social relationships or to gain some sense of esteem, as many do, they are being driven by needs that must be satisfied at least partially before further learning can take place.

Maslow further suggests that, if the lower levels are satisfied in part, the motivation to self-actualization will be automatically triggered because it is inherent within each individual. If it is not so triggered, this is because one of the lower levels of need has been inadequately met. This is by no means certain; and in any case it does not analyze the motivation towards different forms of self-actualization.

To do this we need other explanations of motivation. We have already noted (page 54) Carl Rogers's view of the drive towards adulthood: maturity and autonomy. Houle sees motivation as more complex, as related to the goal-orientation or process-orientation or subject-orientation that comprises the inherent drives of the individual (page 30). A further division is along a spectrum consisting at one end of those who are 'high-achievement-oriented' (not just ambitious, though it includes them; this group embraces those who seek to play chess or do crosswords or make bread or breed pigeons better than anyone else) and at the other end those who are anxious about failure. The former experience
what has been called an ‘approach motivation’, a drive towards engaging in some activity or other, whereas the latter experience an ‘avoidance motivation’. Success encourages the former, but failure does not necessarily put them off, whereas both success (regarded as a flash in the pan that will not necessarily be repeated) and failure alike encourage the latter to withdraw.

**Learned motivation**

Such achievement orientation suggests that motivation can be learned. It is thus seen by some as the fruit of the reward-and-punishment systems that people have been exposed to during the course of their early development. If this is true, then perhaps motivation may be altered by a new system of approvals and disapprovals, by specific training activities accompanied by a change of the learning environment to emphasize achievement rather than failure. Exactly what the factors are that lead to motivation for educational change being learned is not clear. Stimulus-response theories may help here; success and pleasure in early educational experiences seem to play a part. It is pointed out, for instance, how many of those who liked their schooling and were a success in educational environments return to participate in adult education activities of both a formal and non-formal kind, whereas although others use the lack of education to rationalize their lack of success, relatively few are motivated by this lack to return to education. But the issues remain unclear.

**Motivation and goals**

The third view is that motivation for learning is related to the goals set and accepted by the learners for themselves. It has been noted that motivation is highest in those who are most concerned with the learning process itself, who are satisfying their goals in each learning task, whereas those who have their sights set on goals further away (to pass an examination or to get a better job after the course is over) have a lower level of motivation. Motivation then seems to be related to the nearness of achieving the desired goal. The importance of this to the teacher is that the student participants need to see clearly the immediate goals, to accept them for themselves, to believe them to be achievable and to see some progress towards their attainment, if their motivation is to be kept at the highest possible level. But there is a further factor: confidence. Individuals will become more positively motivated when they become confident that they can not only cope with the learning situation but alter it to meet their own needs.

**The learning situation**

Although it is useful to look at needs and at other views of initial motivation, it is probably best for the teacher not to rely solely on this original motivation but to
seek to build new kinds of motivation in relation to the subject-matter itself. In this respect, an emphasis on the extrinsic factors of motivation rather than the intrinsic will not lead to a durable level of motivation towards achieving the learning task. Although many adults are motivated by such concerns, it would seem that, particularly for adults, a stress on attendance, examinations and discipline (though other forms of incentive may be useful) is not an appropriate way to heighten or build new forms of motivation.

F. Herzberg (The Motivation to Work, 1972) developed the concept of ‘motivators’ and ‘hygiene’ factors within any teaching situation. He saw ‘motivators’ as those factors that made the student participants ‘feel good’ about their learning — a sense of achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and personal growth. When these are present, the learners are happy; they have a positive attitude towards their tasks. These feelings are not on the whole long-lasting, they need to be continually reinforced; but they spring directly from the work in hand. In contrast the ‘hygiene’ factors that create a sense of dissatisfaction normally spring from the context of the learning situation — from teaching styles, inappropriate methods, working conditions, relationships within the group and so on. These are longer-lasting in their nature. These two sets of factors are not the plus and minus of the learning situation. The presence of motivators and the absence of hygiene factors are both necessary to achieve positive motivation. The absence of hygiene factors alone without the presence of motivators will not help the learning, whereas the presence of hygiene factors will militate against motivators.

This suggests that motivation factors lie as much within the learning situation as within the individual student participants themselves. In this context, the teacher plays a vital role. Motivation is as often in the eye of the beholder as is beauty. The teacher may assume that the learners have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can, that they wish to escape from responsibility, that they have a static range of abilities that nothing within the learning context will improve, which is the function of the teacher to direct towards the learning task. In this case, we as teachers become part of the extrinsic factors influencing motivation; we become a hygiene factor ourselves. Or we can assume that learning changes are natural to all human beings and certainly are the expressed desire of our students; that they are willing to accept responsibility for their own learning; that external factors such as the educational system itself and the existing patterns of work in society are inhibiting the student participants from exercising their imagination, creativity and ingenuity; that all students are capable of breaking out. In this case, the teacher becomes a ‘motivator’ in the learning environment. Motivation, then, is as much a matter of concern for the teacher as it is for the learner; it depends as much on the attitudes of the teacher as on the attitudes of the students.
A PERSPECTIVE ON SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT STUDENTS ENROLLED IN USM'S OFF-CAMPUS ACADEMIC PROGRAMME

Universiti Sains Malaysia's Off-Campus Academic Programme is a unique and innovative, hybrid form of distance education. Its primary purpose is to extend USM's campus boundaries to parallel those of the nation in providing access to selected academic degree programs within the limits of the Universiti's resources to qualified adult learners. While these learners are required to participate in five (5) three-week annual residential intensive study programs, and their last year (6th) on-campus as full time students, approximately seventy-five (75) percent of the coursework is completed off-campus. Resources provided by USM for off-campus study include eleven Regional Centers and one Study Center, each of which is managed by a Resident Tutor and in most cases staffed by part-time tutors. The Regional Centers are used for meetings of off-campus students, conducting face-to-face tutorials, and receiving stations for teletutorials that originate from USM's Center for Off-Campus Academic Programme. Reading references and other learning resources for off-campus students are also provided at each the country's Regional Libraries located either at USM Regional Centers or at Public Libraries within close proximity of these Centers. One of the major, and perhaps most important learning resource provided by USM for its 2800 off-campus students is in the form of instructional modules that have been designed and validated for most courses. A module is a set of printed materials consisting of well-planned teaching notes and activities which have been carefully laid out for students to

* Prepared and presented by Professor E.J. Boone in a teletutorial with USM off-campus students, Friday, August 24, 1990. Professor Boone is a Fulbright Scholar in USM's Off-Campus Academic Programme and is Head, Department of Adult and Community College Education, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina (USA)
work on independently. Armed with these resources, individual students are expected to master the content of the courses in which they are enrolled. Thus, off-campus students are expected to become self-directing in their learning of the content included in each course in their respective curriculum.

Much has been written about self-directed learning in Adult Education. Leading international authorities in Education allege that the goal of all planned education would be aimed at helping all learners, regardless of age, learn about and become skilled in guiding their own learning, intellectual development, and ultimately, their empowerment in coping with any situation. This paper addresses several questions about self-directed learning and its implications for adult students enrolled in USM’s Off-Campus Academic Programme, namely: (1) How is self-directed learning defined?; (2) How does self-directed learning differ from other learning approaches?; (3) What are some of the psychosocial traits and cognitive/affective behaviors commonly associated with the self-directed, adult learner?; and (4) What implications does this treatise on self-directed learning have on the learning styles of adults enrolled in USM’s Off-Campus Academic Programme?

(1) How is self-directed learning defined?

"Self-Directed Learning" is a process in which you, "the off-campus student", take the initiative with or without the help of others to acquire a comprehensive and accurate understanding of the content in the course/courses in which you are enrolled. Continued rigorous inquiry and search for more facts about and understanding of the content to be learned and mastered is the hallmark of a highly motivated and skilled "self-directed learner". (Boone, E.J. The Self-Directed
How does self-directed learning differ from other learning approaches?

Numerous methods are used by adults to learn a subject or skill. Regardless of the method or combination of methods used by students to learn, the would-be learner is required to become actively involved in processing, analyzing, evaluating and interpreting the information being transmitted. The adult learner, more than his younger counterpart, uses his wealth of experience to judge the relevancy and usefulness of new content. The adult learner also continually attempts to connect new information with prior experience. To learn, the would-be learner, whether young, middle age, or older, has to exert effort and become mentally involved in processing, associating, and connecting the new content with what they know or have experienced in their real or perceived environment.

In today’s world, the opportunities for one to learn are greater than in any other period of civilization. However, if futurists are correct in their projection of further breakthroughs in instructional technology that will occur in the next 10 years, those technological methods now being used to communicate information and educate society’s masses of people will become obsolete. The accuracy and credibility of the projections of futurists ten (10) years ago about the effects of advancements in computers and other forms of electronic technology on the processing, storage, and retrieval of information are manifest today in the availability and use of highly sophisticated computers, telecommunication systems, satellite transmission systems, interactive audio-video (T.V.), and other forms of instructional technology. These forms of instructional technology provide viable methods of communicating with,
designing learning experiences for, and instructing learners residing in all parts of the world.

In examining and contrasting the many approaches to learning one must acknowledge that all learners, and specifically adult learners, vary in how they approach, create, and use the many opportunities available to them to learn. However, it should be recognized that the methods adults in particular use to learn, and those that they prefer are closely related to their educational needs and interest – to what is studied, why, and where.

In higher education throughout the world, the traditional approaches used to instruct full-time, and for the most part young people approaching adulthood, include the use of teacher-directed forms of instruction in classrooms, laboratories and other controlled educational settings; assigned readings in specified textbooks often supplemented by other recommended print materials generally housed in comprehensive campus-based libraries; and, sometimes scheduled individualized tutorial sessions with each student enrolled in a course. Lectures supplemented by the use of various forms of instructional technology (films, videos, overhead transparencies, slides, etc.) are the most commonly used modes of instruction in the typical teaching of courses in higher education. This approach to teaching and learning in higher education has withstood the test of time, and no doubt will continue to be a major instructional mode for transmitting research-based information and guiding students in its mastery and application. However, circumstances now and indeed those forecast for the approaching new century, indicate that total reliance on this traditional approach (face-to-face, teacher-student
classroom educational context) will not be economically feasible nor adequate for
helping a country’s total human subjects acquire the learning behaviors that will be
needed to effectively cope and survive in an environment in which “change” is the
only constant and predictable variable. Indeed there are many prominent educators
who believe that the primary role of traditional education should be redefined to
include a greater emphasis being placed on teaching students how to learn and
instilling within them the values and commitment to pursue continuous, disciplined
learning throughout their life-span. These basic human competencies would be
intentionally taught as an integral part of helping students master the basic
foundations of knowledge.

The costs for maintaining institutions of higher education such as Universiti Sains
Malaysia continue to increase. The factor of updating physical facilities including
laboratories, classrooms, libraries, instructional equipment, and the housing of
students coupled with the need for sufficient funds to employ and retain high quality
teachers, researcher, and scholars are becoming increasingly more costly. The
expansion of facilities and resources to allow existing Universities to expand
enrollments does not appear to be financially feasible now nor in the foreseeable
future in most countries.

USM in 1969, along with other prestigious Universities throughout Europe, Asia,
Australia, New Zealand, Canada and United States, recognized the need to make
some of its curriculums accessible and economically feasible to qualified off-
campus adult students. USM’s response and commitment to serving the educational
need of these adult students throughout the nation became a reality in 1971 through
the establishment of its Off-Campus Academic Programme. From its beginning, USM administrators and faculty have steadfastly emphasized that the courses and curriculums offered through this distance education medium must be of the same high quality as their campus-based counterparts.

Today, Universiti Sains Malaysia has in place an Off-Campus Academic Programme that is of equal quality to its On-Campus Academic Programme, and that is meeting the educational needs of a significant number of qualified adult students throughout the country. Its off-campus program includes the use of validated and copyrighted instructional modules jointly developed by USM senior residential faculty members and core faculty members in its Off-Campus Academic Centre supplemented by regularly scheduled teletutorials, teleconferences and a weekly radio program. Further, the use of the country’s Regional Libraries located at USM’s Regional Centers or at local libraries located near these centers provides off-campus students access to supplemental references and other reading materials. A further strength of the program includes five (5) annual three-week intensive study programs on the University campus. All off-campus students spend their last year of their degree programs as full-time students at USM. A component of USM’s Off-Campus Academic Programme that is different from most other distance education programs in the international community of nations is the inclusion of curriculums in the Sciences as well as in the Arts and Humanities.

The major differences between USM’s On-Campus and Off-Campus Programmes are the instructional modes being used to instruct students, the degree of maturation of the two learner groups, the physical location of the students, and the degree of
responsibility placed on the two student groups to master and demonstrate understanding and competence in the content of courses and curriculums in which they are enrolled. Another significant difference between the two learner groups is that most off-campus students are expected to perform roles as a spouse, parent, and full-time worker in addition to that of student.

Off-Campus students for the most part are strongly urged to assume the responsibility for their learning of the content in their respective courses and curriculums. Essentially the off-campus student is expected and, indeed, required to become a self-directed learner, thus exhibiting a high degree of initiative, independence, resourcefulness, and discipline. “Self-directed learning”, although viewed by some students as a difficult and sometimes frustrating learning style to master, can have positive and lasting effects on the learner. The findings of recent research on learning styles of adults (Knowles, 1985; Brookfield, 1986; Boone, 1990) provide the following insights about the values that accrue to the committed, self-directed learner.

“Students who take the initiative in learning, learn more things and learn better.”

“Self-directed learning is more in tune with the adult learner’s natural processes of psychosocial development and maturation.”

“Self-directed learning teaches students how to learn — a set of inquiry behaviors that will be of a lasting nature and, thus will be useful throughout their life-span.”
“Self-directed learning teaches students how to use their experience as well as that of other human resources to give meaning to that which is being learned.”

“Self-directed learning strengthens and builds the confidence of the student in taking on and learning any task or body of content regardless of their perceived difficulty.”

(3) What are some of the psychosocial traits as well as cognitive/affective behaviors commonly associated with the self-directed, adult learner?

A synthesis of research findings focused on “self-directed learning” reveal that ten (10) psychosocial traits and cognitive/affective behaviors characterize the “successful self-directed learner”. These include:

(i) Positive self-concept;

(ii) Strong sense of purpose or goals;

(iii) Strong motivation, a “firm commitment to learn” and a “positive feeling about one’s ability to learn any intellectual task”, regardless of its perceived difficulty;

(iv) Strong belief that the degree of success/achievement attained in academic work or any other aspect of life is the direct result of self-effort expended by the learner;
(v) Believes that the learner must take the initiative in his/her learning of academic content encompassed in the curriculum being pursued or in solving problems in every aspect of living;

(vi) Exhibits an optimistic outlook in coping with and learning new content as well as new ways of behaving in all aspects of life;

(vii) Exhibits self-control, discipline, and stable behavior in responding to problematic and sometimes emotional situations;

(viii) Knows how to effectively cope with pressure and stress associated with academic work and other aspects of living;

(ix) Plans and strongly adheres to a plan and time schedule for engaging in study and mastery of content in coursework; and

(x) Knows how to seek out, identify and effectively use every available learning resource to obtain information and other assistance to solve problems and expand one’s information and perceptual base.

These ten psychosocial traits and cognitive/affective behaviors are learned and can be altered through intensive disciplined study and practice. To increase one’s effectiveness as a “self-directed learner”, the student is first and foremost encouraged to make a rigorous self-assessment of his/her present learning style to determine learning habits that need to be altered. Based on this self-assessment of
learning style (habits and practices), the student should design a plan for modifying his/her learning style to become a stronger "self-directed learner". Continued practice of these new learning behaviors is critical to one's success in becoming a committed, self-directed learner. The findings from several recent studies of adult learners (Knowles, 1985; Brookfield, 1986; Knox, 1986; and Boone, 1990) confirm that those who exhibit independence and initiative in their learning of new content experience greater academic success and satisfaction than those who depend on and indeed expect teacher/tutors to tell them what, when, and how to learn.

(4) What practical implications does this treatise on self-directed learning have for the adult student enrolled in USM's Off-Campus Academic Programme?

The implications of this information will vary for students depending on their preferred learning styles. However, some general ideas that seem to be applicable for all off-campus students are offered for your study, inflection, and hopefully your use.

(i) First, all off-campus students, regardless of present learning styles, should strive to become more independent and self-directing in their learning of the content in the courses in which they are enrolled.

(ii) Second, all off-campus students should constantly reaffirm their resolve and commitment to directing a significant amount of their time and effort to mastering the content in the courses in which they are enrolled.
(iii) Third, all off-campus students should adopt and maintain a positive, “can do” attitude about their capacity to learn the content in their courses, regardless of perceived level of difficulty. Research findings clearly indicate that learners who are positive and confident about their ability to learn can and will successfully master any intellectual task.

(iv) Fourth, all off-campus students should develop and utilize a systematic, but personalized approach to mastering the content of the courses included in their respective degree curriculum.

- Upon receipt of the module(s) or other materials for beginning a new course, the student should immediately read through the total module, assigned textbook or other print materials at least 2 times. The first reading of the module and/or other printed reference should be preceded by examining its table of contents and the title headings of each major unit, lesson or chapter. The objective is to acquire a mental image or an overview of the main ideas/points emphasized by the author and how they are presented in the module/book. The first reading of the module/book/study guide should be done quickly. Hopefully, the first reading will serve to provide the student with a general perspective of the content of the module. The second reading which will require more time and concentration should be focused on comprehension and understanding of the content. The reading will require total and uninterrupted concentrated study. The student may want to underline the major concepts contained in the
content. Further, the student should consider developing written notes on the content of the module during the second reading. A practice that has proven to be useful in learning major concepts is the use of flash cards. A flash card is 3” x 4” in size and will fit into one’s pocket. The learner writes the concept on one side of the card and on the other side its definition. These cards provide a useful learning technique in that the learner can take advantage of every moment available to refer to and learn the concept. These cards may also be used for other purposes, such as recording titles of important references, names of authors, summaries and quotations. Some students may feel the need to reread the module for a third, and perhaps fourth time.

As a result of reading the module, the student will discover that there are points or problem areas that will require consultations with the lecturer, other students who have completed or are currently enrolled in the course, resident or part-time tutors, and other knowledgeable resource people in the community. Further it would be desirable for the student to read other reference books and printed materials in Regional Libraries at USM Centers or other public libraries located near these Centers for additional clues and help in understanding the content emphasized in the module/book/study guide. The main point to emphasize at the beginning stage of the course is that the student should take the offensive in acquiring an overview and understanding of the content of the course.
The student, with the help and support of the family, needs access to a space or a room in their home or other location for quiet, uninterrupted, concentrated study.

The student should engage other students in a discussion of the course content. Study groups of students enrolled in a course can be very useful to most students. Such dialogue with other students, individually or in study groups, will further supplement the student’s understanding of the module/book printed materials. Contact should be made with the Resident Tutor of the Regional Centers as well as with part-time tutors. The student should take the initiative in contacting and interacting with all potential resource persons who can be of assistance in helping him/her to understand the module’s content.

The student should attend and actively participate in all teletutorials that are conducted for the course(s) in which the student is enrolled. To acquire maximum benefit from each teletutorial, the student should make prior preparation for it by re-reading the content of that part/section of the module/book to be discussed in the teletutorial. Further, in preparing for the teletutorial, the student should put in writing, questions that he/she needs to have answered by the lecturer conducting the teletutorial. These questions should then be addressed to the lecturer during the teletutorial. A self-directed learner will give full attention to the content covered in the teletutorials by active listening and taking good notes and contributing to the discussions. It
is also important that the self-directed learner listen carefully to
questions asked by students at other centers and the lecturer’s responses
to these questions.

Students should study and reflect on responses received from the
lecturer in the teletutorial to their questions as well as to the lecturer’s
responses provided by the lecturer need further elaboration, the student
should write or telephone the lecturer for further assistance. Also, the
student should seek additional information about the
questions/concerns by locating and reading other reference materials in
either the USM Regional Center or a local library located near the
center. The bottom line is that the student should continue to search for
learning assistance until his/her questions/concerns are resolved.

The student should begin work on homework assignments/learning
exercises prepared and requested by the lecturer as soon as they are
received by the student. A self-directed learner will not procrastinate
or put off completing homework/learner exercise at a later time. Read
through the learner/homework assignment carefully and thoroughly.
Be sure you understand what the lecturer is asking you to do in
completing the exercise. Check thoroughly the content of your
module(s) to seek clues in working through the exercises. Check
library and other references for content that maybe helpful in
completing the learner exercise. Rough out in writing what you think
are the correct responses to questions or problems contained in the
learner/homework assignment. Check your responses with other knowledgeable persons to determine whether they are correct and adequate. Complete in final form your responses to the learner exercise and send to your lecturer as soon as possible.

Upon receipt of the lecturer's evaluation/assessment of your completed learner exercise, read and re-read the written comments of the lecturer. Rework those problems or questions that you did not answer correctly. Check your corrected responses with the lecturer or part-time tutor, or other knowledgeable persons. Practice several times reworking the problems or questions you missed. Continue working on these problems/questions until you feel confident that you thoroughly understand how to correctly work and provide the correct response(s) to the problems/questions.

As you advance through the course and are required to master new and increasingly difficult content – go back to the beginning of the course and thoroughly review the content that has been previously covered (hopefully that you have learned) to further solidify your content base as preparation for mastering the new and more complex content. Continued review and, indeed rereading of the module or book will help you build a thorough and accurate understanding of the course content. Again, you may want to write additional notes as a result of your rereading of the course module/book. A helpful hint that can greatly facilitate your understanding of the content is that of associating
or connecting the new concepts with prior learning episodes/activities that you have experienced.

- Prepare for and make maximum use of your time in your participation in the annual intensive, three-week study course on the USM Campus.

- Attend and actively participate in all lectures, tutorial sessions, and laboratory exercises scheduled for the course(s) in which you are enrolled.

- Get to personally know all of your lecturers. Schedule appointments with each of your lecturers as soon as possible following your arrival on campus to discuss your courses.

- Get to know as many of the students possible who are pursuing the same curriculum as yours. Ask them to share with you information about their learning styles and study habits in mastering the content of the courses.

- Get to know all you can about the excellent learning resources in USM’s Library. Spend as much of your study time as possible in the Library. Locate and read, as many supplemental references that are relevant to your course(s) as time will permit. Take notes on the main points that you discover in these books and other printed
materials. USM’s Librarians are your friends and they want to help you become independent and self-directed learners.

(v) Fifth, a conscientious, committed self-directed learner will continually work at helping their family, fellow worker-employees, and friends understand that he/she needs their help, support, and encouragement to function effectively in his/her new role as a student.

- The learner should share with their spouse and children general information about what he/she is learning in their courses. Every effort needs to be made to help one’s spouse and children feel that they are a part of and are contributing to the learner’s role in pursuing study leading to completing the requirements for the degree program being pursued.

- Employers and fellow employees need to be kept informed in a general way about the time being devoted to study and what is being learned.

(vi) Sixth, a self-directed learner will consciously plan for and add to his/her roles as spouse, father/mother, and worker – the new role of being a student. This will mean redistributing one’s time to effectively function in each of these four roles. Good and effective management of one’s time is critical to being a good student and at the same time functioning as a good spouse, father/mother and worker. One’s spouse, children, and employer should be involved in and informed about the changes in the learner’s life style that
will be required to provide the learner quality time for concentrated and uninterrupted study.

(vii) Seventh, the self-directed adult learner will exhibit good study habits that can be observed learned by his/her spouse and children. Thus, becoming and functioning as a conscientious and committed student, the learner will become a model for his/her spouse and children to emulate/copy. The goal is to set a good example for the family that will result in their devoting more time to reading and learning new content and thus, broadening and enriching their everyday pattern living.

Thus, my message to the USM off-campus student is that increased emphasis on becoming a self-directed and independent learner can greatly enhance one’s intellectual development and growth, and academic performance. The competencies and skills acquired in taking charge of one’s own learning will be useful throughout the life span of a person. “Learning to learn” is a never ending quest for those adult learners whose life’s goals are to be adequate for performing those tasks needed to succeed in any change situation and to experience to the fullest that evasive, but important need, “self-actualization".
REFERENCES


Assessing Learner Needs and Setting Program Objectives

When you are planning an educational program for adults, where do you start? The starting point could be intended outcomes, learning activities, educational needs, organizational expectations, or evaluation results the last time the program occurred. It doesn’t make much difference as long as you touch on all of them early, because they are so interrelated.

What do you have to go on when you begin to consider each of these planning components? As you decide, what ideas and evidence do you include beyond your own assumptions and beliefs? How do you decide when it is important to go beyond your own experience and ideas to obtain additional opinions and facts? What other people do you involve in the planning process? Why? For each program, how do you decide how much planning to do? How do you distinguish between planning and doing?

In the process of helping adults learn, program planning and implementation should blend together. As you are planning a program (course, workshop, coaching session), it is desirable to use impressions, evaluations, and materials from similar ones in the past with special attention to what worked well and what could have been improved. If resource persons will assist with the program, it is desirable to involve them in the planning process to have the benefit of their ideas and their commitment to a coordinated effort. As the program proceeds, it is desirable to have planned for likely contingencies, so you can be flexible and responsive by selecting ideas, methods, and materials that best fit the unfolding flow of the program (Beck and Putnam, 1979; Bowren and Zintz, 1977; Ca Camarius, 1981; Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1980; Kielas, 1980; Naller, 1982; Sok and Burkey, 1985; Wedemeyer, 1981).

This chapter and the next together coverings; the following one, materials. They emphasize planning and assessment before the program begins. The program emphasizes implementativeness and the planning, the transaction, program evaluation, and ways to support participants’ efforts to apply what they learn.

The major sections of this chapter are next: context analysis, and objective setting. The next sections are learning activities and related arrangements. These explore interrelated components that in best practice in a preliminary way and then progressively they fit together. However, those components are separated in these two chapters to suggest some you might consider in a given instance and to provide practice. Experienced instructors can use the a checklist of concepts and practices to consider an instructional plan.

Needs Assessment

How do you usually decide on the education your program will address? How formal or informal are you with your process, and how satisfied are you with it? To what extent do you distinguish between educational needs and needs for changes in learning? Practitioners make assumptions about educational needs based on their experiences as teachers. Effective practitioners use their familiarity with learners (including the context in which learners will learn) to decide which assumptions seem valid in particular instance and which should be explored.
The focus on measuring and improving performance has increased over the past decade. Organizations are realizing the importance of metrics in guiding decisions and improving outcomes. This has led to the development of various tools and techniques for measuring performance, such as key performance indicators (KPIs) and business process improvement (BPI) initiatives.

The need for accurate and meaningful performance metrics is critical to effective decision-making. 工作设计 (Job Design) is a critical component of performance management. 工作设计 (Job Design) involves defining the tasks, responsibilities, and roles of employees to optimize performance. Effective 工作设计 (Job Design) can lead to increased productivity, job satisfaction, and overall organizational success.

In order to measure 工作设计 (Job Design) effectiveness, organizations must establish metrics that reflect key performance areas. These may include measures of task completion, quality of output, and customer satisfaction. By setting clear goals and expectations, organizations can better assess the effectiveness of their 工作设计 (Job Design) efforts.

One common method for assessing 工作设计 (Job Design) effectiveness is to use a combination of qualitative and quantitative measures. This may involve surveys, interviews, and performance data analysis. Organizations should regularly review these metrics to identify areas for improvement and adjust their 工作设计 (Job Design) strategies accordingly.

In conclusion, effective 工作设计 (Job Design) is a critical component of performance management. By establishing clear goals, setting measurable objectives, and regularly reviewing performance data, organizations can optimize their 工作设计 (Job Design) efforts and achieve greater success.

References:
- 薪酬与激励 (Pay and Incentives) (1998)
- 工作设计 (Job Design) (1999)
Procedures and Uses. Many writings about planning and conducting continuing education activities include none assessment procedures as an important component. Some procedures are large-scale and enable program administrators to decide whom to serve and what programs (courses, workshops, on-the-job training) to offer. By contrast, instructors appreciate small-scale procedures that help them decide which topics are most important for individual learners, the learners’ current proficiencies, the standards or expectations that constitute their desired proficiencies, and the relative priority of various needs (Birnbrauer and Tyson, 1983). Following are some of the major needs assessment procedures, with indications of how you and learners could use the findings.

- Observing and analyzing performance and tasks to clarify discrepancies between current and desired proficiencies. (Task analysis, familiar in work settings, also occurs when the focus is on homemaking, recreational, or leadership activities.)
- Discussing findings of performance review with learners to agree on educational objectives to which all those associated with the review are committed.
- Reviewing organizational records for evidence of adequacy of performance and proficiency, which has implications for unmet educational needs. (Examples include such evidence from systematic analysis include audit findings; records on productivity; attrition, absenteeism, errors, accidents, and dissatisfaction; and recognition for outstanding performance.)
- Obtaining opinions of experts and people in helping roles to identify needs they perceive as widespread among participants.
- Using standards of achievable best practice (such as examples, role models, and formal standards) to help you and learners agree on desired proficiencies.
- Administering instruments to assess current knowledge, skills, and attitudes. (Examples include achievement tests, exams, self-assessment inventories, interest checklists, observation guides, and projective tests such as sentence completion.)

Assessing Learner Needs and Setting Objectives

- Comparing responses to voluntary program offerings as a basis for estimating responses to similar future offerings.
- Discussing alternative topics with participants to identify widespread interests.
- Reviewing past provider experience with teaching similar adults and topics to project likely future trends.
- Surveying organizational or community opinions to identify additional clienteles and needs.
- Considering new developments and trends that are likely to arise educational needs. (Examples include new technology and equipment, changing laws and expectations, and shifting relations among organizations, communities, and nations.)
- Reading about adult development and learning to recognize pertinent characteristics of similar adults that suggest likely needs of participants.
- Reading professional literature about trends, issues, and procedures to suggest possible unmet needs.

The wide variety of methods for educational needs assessment makes it difficult to choose those that are best in a particular instance. Newstrom and Lillyquist (1979) provide a rationale for such decisions, especially in work settings. The methods they review include advisory committees, assessment centers, attitude surveys, group discussions, interviews with potential participants, management reports, observations of behavior, performance appraisals, organizational records, questionnaires, and proficiency tests. Although such methods are described for use in deciding which programs to offer, they can be used on a modest scale to help you decide which topics to emphasize in your program.

Newstrom and Lillyquist present a contingency model that includes four criteria for selecting a combination of methods:

Learner involvement. Including potential participants in assessment of their own educational needs will provide them with insights about their strengths and weaknesses that can motivate them to engage in learning activities to meet their needs.
planning and improvement will depend on your understanding and use of concepts related to this interpersonal aspect of needs assessment. The following concepts can enable you to conduct focused needs assessments that strengthen your efforts to help adults learn.

The relative importance of the educational needs identified tends to be judged in light of expectations of learners, yourself, and representatives of organizations. It is the participants in your program who learn, and the needs that will mainly influence their learning activities are those that pertain to proficiencies they want to enhance. Thus their involvement in the needs assessment process is important both for their motivation to change and for their decisions about their ongoing learning activities. Specification of current proficiencies helps both learners and instructors recognize the extent to which learners already have prerequisite abilities. For many educational objectives regarding leisure, family, and citizen roles, learners' perceptions of their own needs are the main basis for educative activity.

In some work, organizational, and community roles, however, other people's expectations are also important. For example, expectations about quality standards held by supervisors and recipients of service are clearly relevant to the assessment of educational needs of physicians and pilots. Accountability requirements result in multiple expectations—for example, in deciding which needs not to respond to and which should receive high priority. Organizations sometimes tend to identify educational needs as proficiencies when performance does not measure up to standards. A positive emphasis on growth to achieve desired proficiencies is preferable because it increases motivation and decreases defensiveness associated with participating in a program for people who are deficient. In addition, you can extend the needs assessment process beyond acquisition of technical knowledge and interpersonal effectiveness to fit in with existing organizational and societal expectations, by exploring needs to challenge such expectations and values, sometimes in order to help learners become emancipated from inequitable or inhumane restrictions and to renegotiate more mutually desirable goals and relationships.

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When you help adults enhance their proficiencies in applied performance areas such as work or recreation, it is important to focus on the source of the problem, not just symptoms. One type of needs assessment that can help you do so begins with functional analysis of high-frequency tasks that are critical to successful performance. Among the ways to identify critical proficiency areas are observations of and interviews with beginners, suggestions by supervisors and experts, and conclusions from research studies and literature reviews. Within each proficiency area, you can then describe specific proficiencies and indicate how they contribute to successful performance (Zemke, 1982).

Obtaining information from several sources (triangulation) helps to identify various levels of expertise for important proficiencies. For occupations in which tasks are relatively complex, such as managerial and professional occupations, the proficiencies may be fairly abstract. A survey of managers' educational needs found that communication abilities were the most widespread needs, followed by control and leadership. In that instance it was decided that the educational activities should be highly individualized (Thomas and Sireno, 1980). By contrast, in less complex occupations, a skills audit can specify minimum levels required for more concrete tasks, to help employees and their supervisors recognize deficiencies as a basis for remedy and excesses as a basis for advancement (Jones, 1980).

Especially in work settings, needs assessment can include a mastery model against which to assess discrepancies in relation to current proficiencies. Barr (1980) reports an example from newly appointed first-line supervisors in the Bell System. Their approach included relative weights for the importance of remedying discrepancies for major generic supervisory tasks. In declining order of importance, those tasks were planning, controlling, problem solving, performance feedback, coaching, motivating, time management, oral communication, self-development, written communication, career counseling, and conducting meetings. The development of the mastery model included comparing highly proficient, experienced supervisors with those who were newly appointed on performance, task complexity, frequency, time, key decision points, and deficien-
By contrast, many "transformational" leadership approaches focus on changing the organization's culture and values to create a more innovative and customer-focused environment. These approaches emphasize the need for leaders to inspire and motivate employees, to create a clear vision for the future, and to foster a culture of continuous improvement. However, research suggests that while these approaches can be effective in the short-term, they may not be sustainable in the long-term. Leaders who rely solely on these approaches may struggle to maintain their effectiveness over time, as employees may become disillusioned with the changes and the lack of tangible results.

In contrast, research suggests that leaders who focus on developing their own skills and competencies are more likely to be effective in the long-term. These leaders are able to adapt to changing circumstances, to influence others, and to inspire action. They are also able to create a positive work environment, which in turn leads to increased employee engagement and productivity.

In summary, while transformational leadership approaches can be effective in the short-term, leaders who focus on developing their own skills and competencies are more likely to be effective in the long-term. These leaders are able to create a positive work environment, which in turn leads to increased employee engagement and productivity.
Assessing Learner Needs and Setting Objectives

the educational needs of the adults you want to teach, a useful starting point in context analysis is an understanding of major influences in the setting where the learners are likely to apply what they learn. Adults’ motivations to learn and to apply what they learn are influenced by their perceptions of standards, opportunities, and expectations related to enhanced proficiencies. In addition, their and your understanding of context can contribute to decisions on using learning activities to strengthen problem solving, specifying mastery levels (as for contract learning), and helping learners use educational strategies that enable them to use or deflect influences that encourage or discourage them to learn and apply. For example, in work settings, analysis of current tasks and likely technological and societal trends that affect one’s work can suggest how to avoid obsolescence and benefit from supportive reference groups. Your conclusions about context can also help you decide whether to emphasize individual, temporary group, or organizational learning formats. Organizational formats are for people whose interaction over time in the same organization is considered when assessing needs and planning applications. Typical examples are curriculums for school staff and performance audit for hospital staff.)

Another set of influences relates to your proficiencies and preferences as an instructor and your awareness of other providers. Emphasizing your abilities and interests enables you to make distinctive contributions and enhances your satisfactions. Knowing about the process and outcomes when other people have conducted similar or related educational programs for adults enables you to build on and incorporate that strength and assistance. If you teach for a large and varied provider (such as a company’s training and education department or a university’s continuing education division), there are typically many people who can assist with planning and conducting your program. This is especially useful when you are teaching a new category of learners or dealing with a new content area. Especially in smaller providers (such as a community agency or an association), familiarity with comparable programs of other providers in your service area can enable you to build on their offerings.

Context Analysis

Your decisions about program objectives and emphases benefit from analysis of influences on your efforts to help adults learn and on their efforts to learn and to apply what they learn. When you plan a program, what do you consider regarding the purposes and resources of your provider organization? Are there topics to be covered or materials to be used? And what do you consider regarding situational influences on participants’ learning and application, such as encouragement by supervisors and discouragement by peers?

This section identifies major contextual influences and suggests how you can use an understanding of them in your situation to strengthen the ways you plan and conduct educational activities for adults (Keaveny, 1983; Schein, 1978).

Given your content expertise and objectives related to
An approach to connect multiplicity to coherence in special urban areas, made a creative synthesis of special urban areas on the basis of the concepts and the experience of the process of specialization and the experience of the process of specialization, resulting in a model of an integrated zone of multiplicity.

In this model, the concept of multiplicity is integrated into the concept of coherence, which influences the development of the process of specialization. The model is based on the idea that the development of the process of specialization is influenced by the interaction of multiple elements within the system. These elements include the interactions of various stakeholders, the influence of external factors, and the impact of internal processes. The model suggests that coherence and multiplicity can coexist and complement each other, leading to a more integrated and effective approach to urban development.
workshop for older rural adults a desirable project. Unfamiliarity with similar projects made Vernon uncertain how to proceed.

Conversations with people familiar with similar workshops in urban areas in other states, along with people familiar with rural areas of the state, contributed greatly to Vernon’s workshop planning. The increasing numbers of well-educated older adults whose families no longer lived nearby and the examples of older adults who began writing for publication were sources of encouragement. Media coverage of such success stories of older writers helped overcome negative attitudes by friends as well as older people themselves about their ability to write for publication. The university seemed to be the only institution offering an educational program on creative writing for older adults in a rural area.

To encourage initial participation and to provide follow-up assistance for the long process of beginning to write for publication (until success is achieved), Vernon decided to co-sponsor the workshop with local schools, religious institutions, community colleges, and interested community groups. In each county where a workshop was held, interested local continuing education practitioners formed an advisory committee of representatives of co-sponsors. One provided facilities, others contributed staff assistance, and all helped to identify older residents who might be interested and sent personal letters of invitation. Such co-sponsorship helped keep costs down, so that only a nominal fee was charged. Vernon conducted three afternoon workshop sessions two weeks apart for older participants, with assistance from local writers who agreed to provide follow-up assistance.

Vernon Jackson’s experience illustrates only some of the situational influences that might be considered. Has this section suggested any new ideas that you might use to analyze the context in which your programs occur?

Objective Setting

Needs assessment and context analysis can be major sources of information in setting program objectives, but there are other sources as well. Where do objectives for your program come from? Who is involved in the process? How is the final set of objectives selected?

Most instructors have a fairly good idea of what they want to teach. Deliberate attention to setting educational objectives can strengthen the process by clarifying reasons for using formal procedures, by providing an understanding of procedures that could be used, and by identifying ongoing ways to improve the objective-setting process.

Formalizing objective setting for the sessions you conduct can help you and others emphasize and help achieve important outcomes. Conclusions from needs assessment, context analysis, and criteria for judging desirable performance usually produce many more potential objectives than your program can address. You, the learners, and often other people (such as resource persons and continuing education coordinators) want to agree on learning objectives and activities that are productive, satisfying, and efficient. Formalizing the objective-setting process—through writing objectives, using a planning committee, or devoting program time to the process—enables participants to contribute to it. Benefits to participants of clarifying particular educational objectives for and with them include increasing their understanding of and commitment to achieving the objectives, helping them understand relations between current and desired proficiencies, preceding answers with questions, and helping them learn how to learn beyond your program (Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1980; Knox, 1980b; Knox and Associates, 1980; Smith, 1982).

You can use important, clear, and agreed-on objectives in several ways. Explicit objectives help you select materials, out-
The process involves understanding and interpreting the information provided, and then applying it to real-world situations. Effective teaching strategies include the use of visual aids, interactive activities, and group discussions. By focusing on these elements, educators can create a learning environment that is engaging and effective.

Assessing Learning Needs and Setting Objectives

Finding the right balance between instruction and practice is crucial for successful learning. By setting clear objectives and assessing learning needs, educators can tailor their instruction to meet the specific requirements of their students. This helps to ensure that students are able to achieve their goals and develop the skills necessary for success in their future endeavors.

In summary, the process of education involves understanding, interpreting, and applying information, and then assessing the effectiveness of the teaching strategies used. By focusing on these elements, educators can create a learning environment that is both engaging and effective.

References:


Figure 1:

[Image of a diagram or chart]
Assessing Learner Needs and Setting Objectives

The major steps for an instructor who uses an LCI approach begin with analysis of the new job assignment, with attention both to the component tasks and to how the job fits into the larger organizational structure. The specification of each component task includes both performance standards and necessary human and material resources. This is followed by a list of questions the learner should ask to know about and perform each task. The next step is to prepare a learning-task sheet that describes learning activities and resources that enable the learner to achieve desired proficiencies, along with information about how the learner will be evaluated and by whom.

With this preparation, the person selected for a new job assignment meets with the immediate supervisor (or someone else who will serve as tutor) to assess the learner’s current proficiencies. The learner and tutor then jointly prepare a learning contract, which specifies the desirable learning outcomes (based on discrepancies between the learner’s current proficiencies and the desired proficiencies that were specified). The list of questions and resources that were prepared then help the learner to prepare a highly individualized educational plan for acquiring the desired proficiencies. Implementation of the plan should enable the learner both to perform well and to be better able to engage in future self-directed learning activities (Knowles, 1986).

The tutor helps to schedule and monitor progress through a useful sequence of learning activities, provides assistance, identifies resources, and evaluates progress until full proficiency has been achieved. In this learning-by-objectives approach, the learner pursues a self-paced individualized action learning project, and technical experts in the organization certify that proficiency standards are achieved. It is important that there be positive career advancement consequences of the effort for the learner. An LCI approach depends on supervisory time and support.

A special aspect of objective setting is attention to creative growth and innovation. This applies to your approach to teaching as well as the learners’ approach to applying what they learn. Odiorne (1979, 1984) suggests useful guidelines for creative goal setting. Some guidelines emphasize being curious about new ideas and developments that could be adapted and used, especially for innovation. This entails being open to and obtaining a basic understanding of the new idea, exploring the feasibility of the new idea in a particular situation, and introducing desirable changes. Suggestions for successfully making changes include the following: Make sure a change is important, fit new ideas into familiar patterns, reinforce progress, allow varied methods of application, and start small, evaluate, modify, and expand. Are you helping learners to consider such objectives? Are you enhancing your own creativity as an instructor?

The remaining guidelines are for looking within an activity group or an organization to analyze past results in order to achieve future improvements. This is aided by openness of communication and lack of defensiveness in an atmosphere that encourages creativity. Ways to create such an innovative atmosphere include emphasizing expectations, examples, assistance, and incentives for innovation; obtaining commitment from individuals and teams; having leaders who are satisfied with the status quo; providing favorable consequences for people who innovate; and supporting people who can encourage and assist the person who should be more innovative. Additional suggestions include involving other people in goal setting, including outside suggestions; focusing on a manageable number of desirable, feasible, and challenging objectives; providing guidelines for action; and setting intermediate targets to assess progress.

Most important of all, you can use the objective-setting process to achieve consensus on what outcomes you, participants, and other people associated with your educational program are committed to help achieve. Your special contribution is to help assure that the objectives are feasible as well as desirable.

In what ways might you modify your objective-setting procedures so that they better serve the participants and the program? After you have considered the ideas in this section and information from various sources, your personal judgments are likely to be very important.
Effective Learning Activities

Choosing and Implementing

This chapter focuses on various strategies for planning and implementing effective learning activities. It highlights the importance of considering the learning needs and preferences of the audience. The key points include:

1. **Needs Assessment**: Understanding the needs of the learners is crucial. This involves gathering information through surveys, interviews, or observations.
2. **Objectives Setting**: Clear and specific learning objectives guide the design of the activities.
3. **Activity Design**: Activities should be engaging and relevant to the learners. This includes a variety of methods such as case studies, role plays, and interactive sessions.
4. **Material Development**: The materials used should be relevant, up-to-date, and effective in achieving the learning objectives.
5. **Evaluation**: Regular feedback and evaluation help in assessing the effectiveness of the activities.

The next chapter delves deeper into the specific components of planning and evaluation. For further details, please refer to the designated section.
ing and commitment to learning projects enabled and encouraged each supervisor to learn and apply in ways that were beneficial to the individual and the organization.

Conclusion

There are various ways you can help participants become committed to the program: understanding the needs and expectations of the actual participants, establishing a supportive and challenging climate for learning, and obtaining agreement on objectives. Because learners may have many reasons for participating in your program, it is important to test your assumptions about their needs and expectations. Doing so will help you decide on the extent and types of further needs assessment procedures to use with the participants, such as self-assessments, agenda building, and performance review.

Ways to establish a supportive and challenging climate for learning, especially during early sessions, include selecting conducive facilities, arranging for you and participants to get to know each other, providing warm-up activities, and having early sharing of information about backgrounds and expectations. Other ways include providing an overview of the program, periodically obtaining participants’ reactions, and encouraging persistence.

The specific ways in which you obtain agreement on objectives and use the ones agreed on will vary from program to program. Typically, you use information about participants and context obtained near the start of the program to modify objectives, while considering both desirability and feasibility. Procedures for gaining agreement on objectives include learning contracts, group discussion, planning committees, nominal group process, examples of effective performance, and evaluative feedback.

Do any of the foregoing ideas about ways to engage the learner, during early sessions especially, suggest changes you might make in your instructional approach? If so, try one or two in your next program.

The essence of helping adults learn occurs in the teaching/learning transaction. Your understanding of adult learners, planning of activities and materials, and efforts to provide a supportive and challenging learning climate culminate in the learning activities that occur in the program sessions. Without educational achievement in those sessions, concerns about application and program support are empty. The satisfaction that you and the participants gain from the program experience depends on such procedures as use of questions and examples, provision of practice opportunities, sequence of activities for progression, satisfactory pacing, positive reinforcement, and program evaluation that provides useful feedback to participants and to you. Both activities and evaluation are integral parts of the teaching/learning transaction. (Evaluation is covered in Chapter Nine.)

As the program sessions unfold, what typically occur? What are your usual roles and those of the participants? How do those roles vary with the size and type of group? How do you use questions and examples? What amount and type of practice occurs? How are learning activities sequenced? How do you handle pacing and reinforcement? What has gone poorly that you would like to improve? These aspects of the ongoing teaching/learning transaction occur in some fashion, if only by default. As you review this chapter, use the ideas in each section to reflect on your usual practice and your rationale for it. A useful result would be a few new ideas to try out in your next program.
The concept of instruction is central to the design and implementation of educational programs. Effective instruction requires a clear understanding of learning objectives, appropriate teaching strategies, and effective assessment methods. This chapter will explore various aspects of instruction, including the role of the teacher, the importance of curriculum development, and the impact of technology on instruction.

In this chapter, we will focus on the following key topics:

1. Introduction to Instruction
2. The Role of the Teacher
3. Curriculum Development
4. Technology in Instruction
5. Assessment in the Classroom

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to:

- Understand the importance of instruction in the learning process.
- Identify the role of the teacher in effective instruction.
- Evaluate the components of a curriculum.
- Discuss the impact of technology on instruction.
- Use assessment tools to evaluate student learning.

Let's begin our exploration of these topics.

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The importance of instruction in the classroom is well-documented. Effective instruction not only leads to high levels of student achievement but also fosters a positive learning environment. Teachers who are knowledgeable about their subject matter and skilled in facilitating student learning can make a significant difference in the lives of their students. This chapter will provide insights into the various components of instruction and how they can be integrated into the classroom to enhance student learning.
How to Provide Challenging Interactions

master the answers, solutions, and information, they will, you hope, discover new questions, problems, and reasons. Your task is to arrange for provocative questions and challenging examples that are important to achieve the program objectives, are relevant for the participants, and provide a useful starting point because they simplify a complex learning task that could otherwise be confusing or overwhelming. Initial questions and examples encourage participants to clarify and use their current proficiencies and allow you to introduce concepts and procedures that serve as advance organizers (fundamental ideas or actions around which learners can organize subsidiary knowledge, attitudes, or skills).

Using Examples. There are many types of examples that you can introduce, depending on the content, the objectives, and the learners’ background. They may be actual examples or recorded on film or videotape. Possibilities include equipment to be demonstrated, operated, or repaired; specimens or artifacts; performance (as in athletics, sales, teaching, counseling, or performing arts); and interpersonal relations. Analyzing and critiquing examples enables learners to recognize and apply their current proficiencies, as well as to focus on what they want to learn in order to achieve more desirable standards of proficiency. In some settings, you or a supervisor or a resource person or another participant may serve as a model by demonstrating a practice or procedure, having learners emulate your example, and providing feedback so they can improve.

Using Questions. The question is one of the most powerful and flexible teaching tools you can use. You can ask questions to guide group discussion, provide written questions to help learners with study and review, and encourage participants to use questions to organize their own learning activities. Following are some of the purposes for using questions to facilitate learning:

- To diagnose learners’ current proficiencies (knowledge of facts, understanding of concepts, attitudes toward content, mastery of skills) so that you and they can build on useful proficiencies and modify misunderstandings and undesirable habits.
- To guide efforts to master the content by focusing on impor-
How to Provide Challenging Interactions

managers. The questions helped the participants proceed inductively from the examples toward powerful insights and generalizations.

Practice

In your programs, is it important for participants to practice, rehearse, or review in order to achieve mastery? If so, how well does this work? What do you do that influences practice by participants? This section explains why and how you can encourage and help participants to keep practicing until desirable levels of mastery are achieved.

Most learning, growth, and change depend on repeated interaction. The interaction is with the content to be learned, which may be in the form of printed materials, visual aids, demonstrations by resource persons, discussion with participants, or observation of objects or situations. This active process is called "practice." When you seek to gain mastery of an area of performance (typing, acting, playing a musical instrument, speaking a foreign language, writing a computer program, playing tennis), it is apparent that practice is essential to progress. However, even to enhance proficiencies that emphasize knowledge or attitudes, if mastery, retention, and application are to occur, there must be sufficient practice, rehearsal, or review. This is similar to the repetition that produces gradual changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the natural flow of our daily lives.

However, practice alone does not make perfect. Mindless practice results in boredom and attrition. For progress to occur, practice should be combined with feedback about discrepancies between current and desired proficiencies, which contributes to both focus for efforts and motivation to persist. The section on learning activities in Chapter Five contains a list of types of learning activities for use in individual, large- and smallgroup, organizational, and community settings. That list includes most of the available opportunities for practice and feedback. The present section suggests ways to combine various types of activities to achieve sufficient interest and interaction.
so that persistence and progress result. The next section suggests how you can sequence activities for maximum progress. The following guidelines for practice and persistence pertain to realism, contiguity, and variety.

Realism. The more realistic your practice activities are, the more likely the learner is to persist and to apply what is learned. The main constraint on helping adults learn in the actual situation in which they intend to use what they learn is cost—the cost (in time and money) to you and the provider of using an actual situation and the cost (psychological as well as physical and monetary) to the learner that attends failure in the actual situation. (This is the reason for the Link Trainer to educate airline pilots and the simulated working model to educate power-plant operators.)

Practice exercises can be sequenced in descending order from realistic to abstract. Such a continuum might be: an organizational effort to improve team building, a supervised action learning project, a role-playing exercise to learn interviewing, a computer simulation, a case discussion, and a film followed by diagnostic questioning. At each stage of the program, try to provide as realistic activities as you can consistent with learner success, and try to move toward more realistic activities as the program proceeds.

Practice is also essential for skill mastery, as in educational programs to help industrial electricians engage in troubleshooting to diagnose the precise cause of malfunctions (Ballou, 1981). An effective method is simulation based on videotapes, workbooks, and computer practice exercises. Such an individualized and self-paced approach can include many conditions conducive to adult learning. The individualized format reduces excessive concern about making a mistake and about peer pressure and thus reduces the resulting defensiveness, and it allows sufficient presentations, practice, and feedback.

A combination of workbook units and brief videotaped demonstrations can ensure that each unit deals with a coherent procedure, preceded by an overview, so that the complexity of the total process is not overwhelming to the learner at the outset. If the simulation and related materials are accurately based on task analysis, the learner should obtain a clear understanding of a desirable sequence of tasks to be performed along with a rationale essential for meaningful practice.

Videotaped demonstrations have the advantage that they can be revised and improved through pretesting and formative evaluation. Workbooks or computer simulations can provide practice and feedback that reinforces sound problem-solving strategies and pinpoints needed improvement. For example, as the learner uses the computer to simulate identification of symptoms and then possible causes of malfunction, the computer records and analyzes the learner's problem-solving strategy, which is compared with the optimal strategy and solution stored in the computer. As a result, the learner can compare points of departure between actual and optimal strategies, along with the rationale for the recommended steps. Learners report positive reactions associated with individualization, low pressure, relevance of the situation, high motivation, mastery learning, and short learning time.

Contiguity. Opportunities to practice or apply what is learned should be available as soon after presentation as possible. In the instructional mode of a didactic course, concepts presented in readings are used in brief written exercises that follow, and concepts presented in a film can be used next in case discussion. In the inquiry mode, learners can use the generalizations they discover inductively to solve a simulated problem, and the inquiry procedures they master in a basic problem can be applied to a more complex one. In the performance mode, observation, demonstration, trial, feedback, and trial again can occur in a quick succession for individual tasks before the learner is expected to assemble multiple tasks to perform a complex activity.

Variety. Some idea of standards of desirable proficiency helps learners understand the difference between change and progress, and feedback helps them realize the progress they are making and focus on important next steps. In addition, however, there should be enough variety that learners will persist until mastery. A variety of opportunities for practice allows participants to select those that most interest them, thus being re-
sponse to individual differences. Varied activities also help maintain interest over time for each learner. It is desirable to intersperse active and passive segments, difficult and easier ones, those that present new concepts or procedures and those that explore how to use them in various situations.

The general idea that should undergird the realism, contiguity, and variety of practice is that it should be interspersed with attention to standards and feedback so that learners can benefit from the focus and motivation that can result from recognizing discrepancies between current and desired proficiencies. It is this concern for sequencing learning activities that the next section addresses.

Sequence of Learning Activities

Although varying the sequence of learning activities can increase learners' interest and persistence, the main reason for carefully planning and modifying the sequence of activities is to help participants progress in the achievement of their educational objectives. Time limits prevent achievement of all that is desired. The section on learning activities in Chapter Five includes a list of suggestions on planning the sequence of the entire educational program, many of which apply to individual sessions. The current section deals with ways to improve the sequence of activities as the program proceeds.

In introducing a new topic, procedure, or session, consider what you know about the content and learners so you can select activities and content likely to seem interesting and logical to participants. Emphasize content that enables learners to have early success experiences and provides useful prerequisites for subsequent topics. It is sometimes reassuring to participants to combine unfamiliar content with familiar methods or unfamiliar methods with familiar content.

It is also reassuring and helpful to provide an overview of a topic, unit, or session before proceeding with details. Such an overview helps participants recognize and build on their current proficiencies that pertain to what they are about to learn. It is also helpful to introduce early the subtopics that are especially important or will be frequently used in the session or unit or can be readily applied by the participants. Such an overview can be provided by a demonstration, brief tour, or film. For example, before analyzing a piece of music, play it through once. Before teaching individual tasks that constitute a complex procedure, demonstrate the entire procedure. Then demonstrate the subtasks and allow the participants to practice them until a sufficient level of mastery is achieved (Richardson and Harbour, 1982). Provide feedback at each stage. Finally, have learners assemble all the parts and practice using them together. This method has been shown to be especially effective for adults with limited learning abilities who had experienced difficulty with less organized methods. Careful attention to subdividing and sequencing learning tasks reduces difficulties due to information overload. When dealing with subtopics, it is important to maintain continuity so that learners understand relationships among the parts.

It is usually helpful for difficulty to increase from the beginning to the end of a unit or program. As much as possible, participants should find learning activities challenging and objectives achievable, avoiding both being bored and being overwhelmed. However, keeping early activities easier will contribute to both mastery and confidence. There are several ways to keep difficulty level manageable at the outset. One is to begin with the simple and move toward the more complex. In the instruction mode, emphasizing deductive reasoning, this means beginning with simple concepts that are easy to grasp and have few exceptions and using them to explain or solve examples to which they readily apply. In the inquiry mode, emphasizing inductive reasoning, it means beginning with examples from which the generalization or procedure can be readily discovered.

Another way to keep difficulty manageable is to begin with the basic and to move toward the specialized. The general and basic ideas or procedures that are first introduced can help learners consolidate and apply their current proficiency, serving as a solid structure on which to build the details in an organized way. This structure contributes to both acquisition of enhanced proficiency and later recall, because by beginning with the fun-
Helping Adults Learn

- Directing members' contributions by encouraging reticent members and limiting the most talkative so others have a chance.
- Mediating and harmonizing differences, including arranging compromises when needed.
- Following—listening and using the ideas of others.
- Relieving tension and reducing disruptive negative feelings through humor or conciliatory efforts.

Following are major self-serving behaviors:

- Dominating or manipulating the group or members by interrupting, giving orders, or trying to assert authority.
- Aggression, or seemingly unprovoked hostility toward the group or members, as reflected in criticizing, blaming, deflating, or attacking others' motives.
- Blocking and interfering with group progress by tangents, irrelevancies, rejection, or returning to issues already resolved by the group.
- Seeking recognition and attention through boasting, excessive talking, or extreme ideas.
- Special pleading beyond reason for pet ideas, with exaggerated claims.
- Withdrawing, or disengaging from the group, as reflected in indifference, passivity, whispering to others, or excessive formality.

It is not sufficient to recognize such behaviors in yourself and in other group members. To use such insights to help adults learn, it is important to be alert to how beneficial a current or potential behavior is likely to be in the flow of an actual session. This can help you decide whether to give more or less attention to task or maintenance behavior, recognizing that there are sometimes trade-offs between content and process. For example, you may restrain your impulse to give information because it seems more important to draw out reticent members and set standards of learner-guided inquiry behavior. It is desirable for participants to understand and deal with all three types

How to Provide Challenging Interactions

of behaviors. By precept, example, and positive reinforcement, you can encourage their group leadership behaviors that seem beneficial and, in extreme instances, discourage disruptive behaviors (Feston, 1985). With shared leadership, other participants can also make constructive contributions to reducing the problem.

Vicki Alvaro was especially effective with disruptive participants. With the overly talkative, she gave recognition for their valuable contributions; tried to seat them to the side, avoided eye contact, and used body language to discourage excessive comments; interrupted after the basic point had been made to relate it to the current topic or asked how other participants felt about the idea; and, in extreme cases, talked with the disruptive participant in private about the problem.

Your contribution to sequencing can extend beyond guiding large- and small-group learning activities. For example, it can include preparatory activities by learners before group sessions, such as reading, self-assessment, and analysis of their situation or problem to which what they learn is to be applied. Other types of activities to be sequenced include consultation, self-directed study, and intermittent solitude.

Pacing

Closely related to sequencing for progression is attention to pacing. This includes how fast the learners proceed through educational activities and materials (whether presentation and practice activities are concentrated or distributed over time) and allowance for individualization. The fundamental guideline regarding pacing is simple: Let learners proceed at their preferred pace. There is great variation in learning style and in preferred pace. Most adults learn most tasks best when they set their own pace. Their opportunities to do so depend on your planning and flexibility.
The text on the page is not legible due to the quality of the image. It appears to be a page from a book or a document, but the content cannot be accurately transcribed.
the usefulness of the conclusions, they are likely to be receptive to the feedback and to minimize defensiveness, distortion, and denial.

2. Organization. It takes some planning and expertise to have evaluation instruments that are valid and efficient, to make judgments based on the evidence, and to report conclusions in useful ways. The most effective instruments and procedures for evaluation and feedback to adult learners result from use and refinement.

3. Judgments. Evaluative feedback about educational efforts entails explicit or implicit judgments. Learners should understand the basis on which such judgments are made, regardless of who is making them. The most useful judgments interpret learner progress in relation to stated objectives, expectations, standards, or desired proficiencies. Feedback about discrepancies with the standards that learners want to achieve (even if the conclusion is poor initial performance) can be used diagnostically. This depends on clear objectives or expectations and criterion-referenced instruments or forms that allow learners to compare their achievement with their expectations. By contrast, learners can do much less with judgments that result from comparisons of educational achievement with that of other participants or with unstated standards.

4. Quality. The amount and quality of feedback should be sufficient and timely so that learners have something to work with. A list of strengths and weaknesses of a trial performance is far more useful than a summary critique such as "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory." Receiving a critique right after some of the trials so the conclusions can be applied to the next trial is far more useful than receiving a critique a week later when no more trials are scheduled.

5. Use. It is helpful to suggest to learners specific uses they can make of evaluative feedback and to provide opportunities for them to do so. In a series of sessions for new supervisors on conducting meetings, each participant might have several turns to lead brief sessions. After each session, critique forms might be completed by the session leader, other participants, and the instructor. The leader would then indicate what went well and what changes could be made to improve. The instruc-

How to Provide Challenging Interactions

ator and other participants would then offer constructive criticism by commenting on both strengths and weaknesses, and the discussion of that session would conclude with the leader suggesting changes to try the next time. The leader would also be able to review the critique forms in preparation for conducting a session the next time. Such detailed and timely feedback focused on improvement reduces defensiveness by the learner and emphasizes constructive change.

Reinforcement. Positive feedback is a form of reinforcement. People change gradually in response to multiple influences, and it is as important to reinforce what is done well as to criticize what could be improved. Rewards and praise are other forms of reinforcement. Recognition can range from a simple "very good" from a respected peer or instructor to an award by distinguished judges for "world class" performance.

Many adults receive reinforcement for satisfactory performance and feedback on suggested improvements from exposure to role models and standards of best practice. They can compare their own practice with the standards and both derive satisfaction from what they are already doing well and focus motivation to make improvements. Memorable encounters with role models or standards of excellence can leave especially lasting impressions. However, it is important that the standards not be so far beyond the learner's current proficiencies that the learner becomes intimidated and discouraged. Self-assessment inventories can provide detailed and useful reinforcement and feedback. It is also important to minimize negative conditions that discourage learning.

One of the most influential forms of reinforcement is successful use of what is learned. Although reinforcement from the actual performance setting beyond the educational program may be the most powerful, it may also be accompanied by undesirable side effects such as defensiveness by the learner, dysfunctional influences by other people, and even an element of danger. Consequently, simulations such as computerized patient management problems for physicians or Link Trainers for airline pilots may sometimes be more satisfactory sources of feedback and reinforcement.

In general, it is desirable to provide feedback and exter-
How to Provide Clarifying Interventions

The teacher needs to comprehend the material's most prominent and
pertinent ideas to effectively convey it. She or he should
recognized that the teaching/practitioner's role is to
communicate effectively. The practitioner's role is to
clarify, elaborate, and reinforce key points. The teacher
needs to ensure that the students are engaged and
understanding the material. The teacher should
clarify any confusing points and reinforce the
material. The teacher should also provide examples and
illustrations to help students understand the concepts.

Conclusion

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NINE

Using Program Evaluation Information Effectively

How is your program evaluated? Who evaluates it? On what basis? Who does what with the results? How do you feel about the process? Few aspects of helping adults learn generate more concern and less action than program evaluation. Though discussed in this chapter, it should relate as much to program planning as to implementation. Effective evaluation should be part of each component of planning and of all aspects of the teaching/learning transaction.

In best practice, program evaluation provides feedback to you, participants, and decision makers to guide program decisions. It can be as much a political process as an educational one. Implicit conflicts can surface as a result of evaluation activities. This chapter emphasizes your use of evaluation concepts and procedures as part of program planning and implementation.

Planning Program Evaluation

Educational programs for adults are continually evaluated informally—when learners judge the usefulness of their educational activity and decide whether to persist, when instructors judge the effectiveness of educational materials, and decide whether to change them. In turn, when program administrators judge instructors' performance and decide whether to have them teach next time. In each instance, people associated with the program make judgments about a program's worth and effectiveness.

Using Program Evaluation Information Effectively

There are three main reasons for formalizing program evaluation as a part of the program-planning process. First, you are more likely to accurately describe influences, performance, and expectations. Second, you are more likely to make sound judgments clearly based on pertinent evidence. Third, you are more likely to use an evaluation process that communicates findings in ways that encourage people associated with the program to use those findings for decisions on program planning, improvement, and justification (Grotelueschen, 1980; Grotelueschen, Gooler, and Knox, 1976; Kopp, 1986b). This can help strengthen your program, in part by enabling you to protect it from inadequate judgments by other people that might be at least partly offset by your evaluation findings.

Focusing Your Evaluation: Addressing Audiences and Issues. Many aspects of the program could be evaluated, and many evaluation procedures could be used. It is important to be selective when you plan evaluation so that the benefits from evaluation exceed the time and money spent. For example, program evaluation could focus on educational objectives to be achieved, program design, effectiveness of implementation, or outcomes achieved. Evaluation plans can also be selective about the main purpose to be achieved. When the purpose is planning, the evaluation activity is needs assessment or market research as discussed at the beginning of Chapter Four. Sometimes the main purpose is program improvement, as when people closely associated with the program use formative evaluation procedures to assess its effectiveness in order to make changes to strengthen it. Sometimes the main purpose is program justification, as when people outside the program help to assess impact for purposes of accountability.

Perhaps the most important question to consider when planning evaluation is: Who are the main audiences for the evaluation report, and what issues concern them that your evaluation could address? Clarifying the audiences for your evaluation report helps you specify not only the general purposes and scale of the evaluation effort but also specific objectives and criteria. For example, you as the instructor might evaluate for your own use changes in learner satisfaction and achievement associated with use of different instructional methods. By contrast, find
essential categories of valid data are efficiently collected. Typical sources of data include standardized and local tests, observation checklists, questionnaires, interview guides, organizational records, and sometimes evaluation committees. Pretesting of questions and forms can clarify wording and increase validity. Multiple sources and types of data are valuable for key variables. Comparison groups are important in follow-up studies to allow conclusions about the program’s probable contribution to the changes found.

A frequent flaw in evaluation studies is inadequate planning of data-analysis procedures. The unhappy result is an inability to draw useful conclusions and implications because data were not collected for key variables or were not collected in a form required for the most appropriate data-analysis procedures. If you are not familiar with the design of research and evaluation studies, it is usually a good investment at the planning stage to consult someone who is. People with such expertise may be higher education research or evaluation specialists or may be engaged in evaluation or market research in a business or a community agency. Evaluation can be conducted on any scale and depth, but the validity and usefulness of findings usually depend on a soundly designed plan for data collection and analysis (Cook and Reichard, 1979; Merriam and Simpson, 1984).

An early part of data analysis is summarizing data within each category. For example, when evaluating discrepancies between your and participants’ expectations of what they should learn and their actual achievement and satisfaction, you might prepare the following summaries:

- A list of the proficiencies that you believe participants should acquire in the program.
- A list of the proficiencies that the participants hope to achieve.
- A tabulation of scores showing how well each participant mastered the learning tasks and achieved the educational objectives.
- A summary of participants’ responses to questionnaire items.

Using Program Evaluation Information Effectively on their satisfaction with their learning process and outcomes.

Such descriptive summaries for early units of a course allow you to make judgments about program effectiveness, with implications for modifying your approach to later units. The data analysis includes comparing descriptive summaries to answer the following types of questions:

- Did you and the participants generally agree on the proficiencies to be achieved? If not, how could greater consensus be achieved?
- To what extent did achievement meet or exceed expectations? Were there unexpected outcomes?
- Did variations in participants’ satisfaction with the learning process and outcomes parallel variations in their achievement? What are the implications for instructional procedures?

These questions address the instructional decisions you can make. In addition, each participant can review the data on his or her expectations, achievement, and satisfaction as a basis for evaluative judgments to use in making decisions about his or her ongoing educational activities.

Use of Findings. The purpose of program evaluation is to make judgments for planning, improvement, or justification. This entails encouraging use of findings for decision making. An evaluation plan that specifies purposes, audiences, and issues has many implications for reporting. A sound evaluation plan should also indicate effective ways to report pertinent findings to each of the audiences and ways to encourage actual use of findings. As an instructor, you are one of the main users of evaluation findings. Perhaps other people also make instructional contributions. What type of evaluation report (detail, format, implications) would be most useful for making instructional decisions? How can you include participants in the process of planning and conducting evaluation activities so that data are valid, findings are relevant, and suggestions are used? Such feed-
Conducting Education

and Training

Conducting education and training is an important part of the
program. It helps participants develop the skills and abilities
needed to succeed in their work and live independently. It
also helps them to understand the impact of their work on others.

Courses are offered on a wide range of topics, such as:

- Communication and interpersonal skills
- Problem-solving and decision-making
- Time management and organization
- Money management and budgeting
- Health and safety
- Nutrition and healthy eating
- Stress management and mental health
- Social skills and building relationships
- Legal rights and responsibilities
- Technology and software basics
- Career development and job search strategies

Courses are taught by experienced professionals and are
adapted to meet the needs of each participant. They are
offered in both classroom and online formats, and include
hands-on practice, group discussions, and individual
feedback.

Participants are encouraged to participate actively in
courses and to apply what they learn to their daily lives.

Evaluation and Feedback

Evaluation is an ongoing process that helps to
improve the program and ensure that it meets the
needs of participants. Feedback is collected through:

- Surveys and questionnaires
- Interviews and focus groups
- Observations and assessments
- Participant feedback and suggestions

This information is used to make changes to the program as
needed, and to develop new courses for future participants.
Helping Adults Learn

- The settings and expectations where participants are likely to apply what they learn in the program, which affect their success in doing so.
- Impact of the program in the form of application and benefits.
- Feedback about any of these aspects (including evaluation) to enable you or others to make adjustments for program improvement.

Because participants usually want to use what they learn from your program by applying it in their life roles such as work or family, in your program evaluation it is helpful to consider the broad social system that includes such settings, as well as your educational program. However, you can seldom evaluate all these aspects, and so the reason for such a broad view is to select those aspects that are most important to include in a particular instance.

For example, if you are evaluating an educational program to help employees in an organization improve their performance, your main evaluation purpose may be to assess program impact on participants’ subsequent performance. Thus, you may give much less attention to evaluation for detailed program improvement or for planning future programs. By focusing on evaluating connections between program implementation, improved performance, and organizational benefits, you are likely to give much less attention to evaluating other contexts: your teaching style; program goals, content, and design; and the participants’ expectations, satisfaction, and learning gain. To increase the feasibility of such an evaluation activity, conduct the simplest evaluation possible that will answer the questions that you want to have answered, sample and use existing data where you can, and recognize that real-world evaluations should contribute information and commitment for decision making, in contrast to typical research projects aimed at more precise explanations. Although conclusions-oriented research may yield generalizations, instruments, and procedures, the focus in this chapter is on decision-oriented evaluation to judge worth and effectiveness.

Using Program Evaluation Information Effectively

**Summative Evaluation.** Summative evaluation of program outcomes has several uses, including assessment of impact on learner performance and benefits to others. Such uses of summative evaluation include justifying whether it is worthwhile to offer the program or use the activity or procedure again and being confident about the results that you and the learners can expect from the activity (Belasco and Trice, 1969; Cervero, Rottet, and Dummock, 1986; Rosenheim, 1977). In the context of this section, the main use is to guide your decisions about how beneficial your program and its components are.

A prime example of summative evaluation is the set of studies of the relative effectiveness of alternative instructional methods. Guidelines that include typical outcomes to expect from various activities to help adults learn are sometimes based on judgments of anticipated impact. Similar informal evaluation occurs when you compare the results of new methods or materials and those you typically use. The usual procedure is to compare the actual outcomes with objectives or expectations.

If you want to refine the general impressions and guidelines about the relative impact of instructional methods in order to choose the best learning activities for your content, participants, and circumstances, consider the following procedures.

1. Review your own experience with (and past feedback on) the relevant alternative methods of teaching and learning, listing the main learner outcomes you would like to produce with any of them, and then compare and contrast the methods, including process, outcomes, and your satisfaction with them. This preliminary review can clarify your rationale so as to guide both evaluation and use of findings.

2. Locate summaries of research and evaluation studies that have compared these methods, perhaps with different content and learners. Outline the main findings on use of methods and relative effectiveness and also the procedures that were used to collect and analyze data about process and outcomes.

3. Reflect on what you have found so far and clarify the main questions, issues, or reasons that you want to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of the methods you use. Compare your experience and rationale with the generalizations you ob-
data in each category (outcomes, processes) for the participants who used each method and then comparing the results achieved with each method. Understanding of the basic concepts and procedures of probability helps set confidence levels, to decide how large a difference has to be before it makes a difference.

12. Draw implications for improvement. All the preceding steps can enable you to draw sound implications. This final procedure includes both interpreting the findings and suggesting ways to improve your teaching.

The foregoing example of summative evaluation procedures to compare the impact of instructional methods deals with only one aspect of the teaching/learning transaction. To conduct such a study would require that you arrange to teach the same content and similar participants using different methods and that you collect data during and after the program. However, most of the work of planning and conducting the study would be done outside program sessions. Furthermore, following the foregoing guidelines, you might conclude that one method was better than others but not discover what features of that method contributed to its effectiveness.

By contrast, the following two brief examples of summative evaluation follow the same basic concepts, but most of the effort would occur during session time and the participants would learn more about the evaluation process. One example deals with individualization and the other with feedback.

A learning contract is a way to individualize learning activities, and evaluation is part of such a contract. After participants draft their proposed learning contracts, you (perhaps with a committee of participants) might review them to find similar outcomes. If there are some, you might invite the participants who prepared learning contracts that proposed similar outcomes to participate in a small comparative study. Those who volunteer would help plan and implement the following modest evaluation study designed to help them learn how to assess their learning projects as well as help you gauge future learning contracts.

Suppose that several learning contracts propose as an outcome identifying and introducing an improvement in work procedures that affects co-workers, which they agree to help implement. You might operationalize a generic measure of that outcome that would fit the selected learning contracts, such as a set of rating scales on extent of acceptance and implementation to include in interview guides or questionnaires to collect data from participants, co-workers, and supervisors.

If participants include these common rating scales in their plans for evaluating the impact of their learning contracts, they can analyze relations between these data on the common outcome and the individualized data they collect about the process of conducting their learning project and their satisfaction in doing so. By completing learning projects before the end of your program, the participants who collaborate on conducting parallel evaluations can share their findings and then discuss variations in project success and what seemed to contribute to it. You will gain a more detailed idea of the results of the learning contracts and some idea of the arrangements associated with the more effective projects. In addition to evaluating the success of this program, you can use the findings to guide participants in similar future programs as they plan and conduct learning projects.

An example of an even easier summative evaluation is on feedback and reinforcement. Assume that you frequently teach a course or workshop for similar groups of adults. Participants’ end-of-program reaction-form ratings on evaluation and feedback have been low, and you share their opinion that feedback procedures should be improved. You have concluded that participants will vary in the extent and type of feedback on progress which they prefer and from which they are likely to benefit.

Prepare a brief description of feedback procedures, using your syllabus statement and materials on feedback, past participant reaction-form ratings and comments, and your own familiarity with the feedback procedures you have used. Use that description and suggestions from readings on evaluation and from other people interested in evaluation to identify some likely ways to improve feedback, including procedures to do so. Early in the next program, ask each participant to rate each procedure on a list that describes ways of providing feedback that
perhaps revise their implementation objectives and leave a copy with you. Let them know that you will send a reminder a few weeks before you send a reply form on which they can report on positive and negative results in their efforts to achieve their implementation objectives, other changes that resulted from participation in the program, and suggested improvements that might have made the program more helpful. You could reply with comments about their achievements and ongoing application, as well as use their progress reports to improve your future programs.

Formative Evaluation. The emphasis in formative evaluation is on use of conclusions by people associated with the program (instructor, participants, supervisor) to improve the ongoing process. Usually timeliness of findings and commitment to their use for program improvement are emphasized more than rigor of procedures for data collection and analysis and detailed attention to outcomes (Brinkerhoff, 1988).

To illustrate use of formative evaluation for program improvement, assume that you want to strengthen your use of questions to guide learning. One approach would be to assess discrepancies between desired and actual use of questions. Further assume that it would be satisfactory to use questions more in accord with the preferences of yourself, participants, and experts without testing in any detail how much this improvement contributes to learner achievement and application.

The basic evaluative process consists in making judgments about discrepancies between desired and current use of questions and then suggesting ways to reduce the discrepancies. An early step is to decide who can provide useful information about desired use of questions. Certainly, you can list your objectives and expectations about what you want to achieve through use of questions and what you consider to be characteristics of effective questions. Your participants can also state their expectations about uses of questions that occur in study guides, facilitating discussion, and self-assessments. You can also obtain expert opinion on use of questions in educational programs, from writings and available experts. Next, prepare a de-

scription of desirable standards for question asking composed of the generalizations common to all sources and those from each source.

Using the resulting criteria, describe your current use of questions. This description can be based on written questions you have used and your recollection of oral questions, supplemented by information from tape recordings, participants, and peers. Organizing this description of current practice into the same categories that you used for desired use of questions will facilitate the discrepancy analysis. As you make judgments about discrepancies, try to make explicit the assumptions, values, and additional information that you include in your rationale, along with the major discrepancies you identify. Next, from the resulting conclusions, prepare implications that suggest ways in which you want to improve your use of questions. Ongoing evaluation can indicate the extent and type of improvement you actually make.

A somewhat different formative approach is illustrated by the following example of evaluation of the selection, sequence, and pace of practice activities. These program aspects are somewhat more complex than the use of questions illustrated in the previous example, and two major criteria are achievement and persistence. In this example, you might begin with a description of practice activities, along with your rationale for selection, sequence, and pace. Your record of sequences of practice activities, progress during practice sessions, participant satisfaction, and persistence rate constitutes the baseline for evaluating what happens when you modify practice activities.

Assuming that you believe that practice activities could be greatly improved but that at the outset you are uncertain how, you might ask peers for suggestions, along with individual participants. The most promising changes in practice activities might then be proposed to the group of learners as a basis for selecting those to modify on an experimental basis. Next, prepare a set of forms to keep track of participant time devoted to practice activities, along with satisfaction. Combine this infor-
the end of each day or session to program evaluation. In a conference or workshop format with concurrent subgroups, a leader and one or more participants from each subgroup can volunteer on a rotating basis to take part in joint evaluation meetings. In either case, the purpose is to assess program effectiveness and solve problems hindering learning, by discussing such topics as pacing, materials, group interaction, instructional procedures, and logistics. (If there are subgroups, just before adjourning for the day, members can tell their representatives about questions and concerns they would like to have discussed at the evaluation meeting. At the start of the next day’s session, representatives can report on proposed solutions, and the participants can help decide on changes.) If such evaluation meetings are to be beneficial, you should take them seriously, be prepared to hear negative as well as positive comments, and be willing to seek solutions to problems that emerge. It helps to explain that improvements will be made where they can be but that some program aspects cannot be changed. Engaging in such evaluation meetings can also help participants learn to use evaluation more effectively in their future educational activities.

Guidelines for Conducting an Evaluation. In practice, a combination of formative and summative evaluation is most useful. External, summative evaluation provides the most convincing evidence of outcomes, which is of interest to administrators and policy makers as well as teachers and learners. (Such evaluation can be the most difficult and controversial.) But it is of limited value for you to know how successful your program is without also knowing what contributes to that success so you can preserve the strengths and reduce the weaknesses. That is the contribution of formative evaluation, in which people associated with the program analyze the process for purposes of improving it. This is much easier if there are important outcome criteria and measures against which to assess procedural modifications.

For any type of evaluation of your educational program, the following suggestions for conducting an evaluation can con-
Conclusion

Program evaluation can be used for planning, improvement, and justification. The evaluation procedures you select depend on evaluation purposes, audiences, and issues as you describe and judge the worth and effectiveness of selected aspects of your program. The aspects on which you focus depend on feasibility as well as your estimates of the points at which benefits warrant evaluation costs. The focus of evaluation can be any program-planning component (needs, context, objectives, activities, or evaluation itself) as well as related arrangements (participation, resource persons, finance, materials, facilities, records, and coordination).

Evaluation findings can help both you and participants make such educational decisions. However, it is important to be selective and focus on program aspects for which improvement or justification benefits exceed the costs of conducting the evaluation. Summative evaluation of program worth and impact focuses on outcomes and is useful for justification and accountability. Formative evaluation of program process and effectiveness focuses on procedures and is useful for program improvement. Guidelines for conducting evaluations include these: build on existing understandings, focus on what you want to analyze, design a basic study, collect and analyze data, and involve people and report findings in ways that encourage use of conclusions.

Like the other chapters, this chapter covered more aspects of its subject than you can deal with at one time. Which aspects seem most pertinent to what you currently do for evaluation? Which concepts are illustrated by your current evaluation practice? Are there any improvements you would like to make in your program evaluation? If there are, what are some initial steps?

It is usually desirable to start small. Perhaps begin with participant reaction forms or achievement tests or organizational records that reflect application of what participants learn in the form of improved performance. Critique this current evaluation practice and use a few ideas from this chapter to decide what few evaluation activities could be added or modified to provide a sounder basis for evaluation findings and increased commitment to use of the findings. This attention to evaluation can be a vehicle for your continued learning and improvement as an instructor; the participants and the provider organization are additional beneficiaries.
CHAPTER 8
Teaching Tools for Providing Information and Skill Training

The next three chapters present a collection of teaching tools with a brief explanation of how to use each one. The tools are organized according to various teaching purposes: to provide information, skill training, critical thinking, and so on. That's not to suggest that you can't take tools from any of the categories and use them for other purposes. For example, if you want to try a case study approach for presenting information, do it. In addition, many of the teaching tools may be combined in the same class or workshop. See Chapter 11 for suggestions on how to select teaching tools.

I have used these tools in my teaching. Some I developed myself, others are modifications of standard teaching approaches. I would encourage you, as you gain experience teaching, to do the same thing. Try the tools and then modify them to fit your own situation. I encourage you to invent new tools and new teaching approaches that fit you, your learners, and your particular kinds of learning situations.

TOOLS FOR PROVIDING INFORMATION

LECTURE

This is probably the most criticized of all the teaching tools I discuss in this book. Some teachers of adults argue that the lecture should never be used ever. I am certainly not advocating that you do all of your teaching following the lecture method, but there is a place for lectures, particularly short, succinct presentations used in conjunction with other teaching.
new question with the expectation to the process.

Session Highs 1. List of past questions. Answer one more.
2. Highs the report section. 5. Sets of short scripts in.
3. Drawing the question. Then select in order, answer.
4. Reading from an instructor. You may not proceed to step.

Read

Be enthusiastic! Below, what you are saying.

Start a cue, and on time.

'Begin'

Correct.

Be positive! Which set of questions can add additional information on this.

Provide feedback.

Always listen for audience questions at the end of the lecture.

Be sure that all students can see and understand you. Don't stand.

Always listen to face cues;

Keep your heart with the group.

Note expressions; the cues the reader's words. 

Keep eye contact with the group.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Note when you can be heard.

Listen to feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.

Look for feedback on your notes; a hand raised, a question.
FIELD TRIP

For many topics that you teach, a field trip is an excellent tool for providing information. For instance, if you are teaching a course in gardening, a visit to a garden center might be in order. If your course is on modern art, then visiting an art center will likely add to what you present in class. To be effective, field trips require considerable planning.

Tips for Preparing and Carrying Out
Visit the site before the trip, and discuss with the guide what you want the class to see and do.
Pay particular attention to all details such as transportation and meals.
Discuss with participants what they should look for on the trip.
Pay particular attention to any participants with physical disabilities.
Make certain that all participants will be able to see and hear.
After the trip, help the participants analyze what they saw, its meaning, and the relationship of what they learned on the trip to other topics discussed in the course.
Be prepared for the unexpected, and be able to adjust with grace and a sense of humor.

Avoid
Taking a field trip without clear objectives and prior planning.

PRINT MATERIALS

Unfortunately, many teachers tend to take print materials for granted. They may provide a reading list and sometimes even require certain things be read, but they don’t consider the difficulty that some participants will have in gaining access to the materials.

Another error that some teachers make is failing to be specific about readings. If you expect people to read something, then you must be specific about what you expect, when you expect it, and then make sure that learners have access to the materials.

I’ve also learned that some participants want to read beyond the requirements. So I usually provide a bibliography of additional readings for those who want to go further.

When I’m conducting workshops, I try to have copies of supplemental readings in the room, so participants can browse through them during breaks and decide if they want to read further.

Tips for Using Print Materials
In a course where reading is a requirement, provide one textbook, rather than several, or photocopy chapters from several books, magazines, or journals and make them available in a package. Follow copyright laws; your photocopy center has them.

Be clear about what materials you expect learners to read between class or workshop sessions.

Encourage learners to keep a journal where they write responses to what they are reading—questions, comments, and disagreements. Encourage more than merely copying a series of quotations from the readings.

Be prepared to suggest particular readings for participants with specific interests who want to go beyond the requirements.

Make certain that required reading materials are central to the topics you discuss in class and not seen as unrelated or merely “nice to know” information.

Distribute written handout materials during class sessions. Use a three-hole punch, so materials fit in notebooks. Keep them.

Avoid
Expecting more reading than adult learners with work, family and other responsibilities can handle.

Expecting no reading, particularly when many adult learners look forward to enhancing what they are learning in class.

Giving no direction to learners about how to organize their reading.

Failing to recognize the great diversity in the amount of reading participants will do. Some will want to go well beyond what you suggest.
The above text is not legible, making it difficult to provide a natural text representation.
MASTERING THE TEACHING OF ADULTS

Making negative comments to participants who take longer to learn a skill.

SKILL DEMONSTRATION

Some years ago I taught basic photography classes to people who had recently purchased 35mm cameras. Since this was before the advent of automatic cameras, I often demonstrated how to load film, adjust the shutter speed, and so on.

For many kinds of skills, learners gain much by watching the teacher perform the skill. I usually combined a skill demonstration with a short lecture about what I was doing and why, followed by letting the participants try the skill (see Hands-on With Supervision below).

Tips for Using

Be well prepared, which means practicing before class.
Have an example of a finished product to show, if there is one.
Have all needed materials out and ready to use.
Make certain that all participants can see and hear what you are doing.
Be deliberate, emphasizing each step of what you are demonstrating.
Repeat those elements of the process that are most difficult.
Allow for questions. For some demonstrations, questions may be answered during the process; for others, questions are best held until the end.
When feasible, provide a written copy of the steps that have been demonstrated, or give out a written guide at the beginning of the demonstration so participants can follow along. Some learners will take notes on the handout as you speak.

Avoid

Moving too quickly.

Assuming participants may be familiar with some of the steps and

Teaching Tools for Providing Information and Skill Training

Dismissing some questions as inappropriate, which discourages other participants from asking questions.
Assuming a superior attitude about your skills which may discourage learners from trying to master the skill.

HANDS-ON WITH SUPERVISION

As I mentioned above, when you are teaching skills you will generally combine some lecturing and a skills demonstration with providing time for participants to practice the skill.

Tips for Using

Provide times when learners can come to you for additional help, if they want it.
Be patient with learners' errors.
If the skill involves safety (use of woodworking equipment, for instance), make certain safety cautions are clear to everyone.
Be willing to demonstrate again whatever steps a learner is having difficulty with.
Be particularly patient with participants learning hand skills when they are left-handed and you are right-handed, or vice versa.
Allow time for learners to practice the skill unobserved. Some learners become nervous when you look over their shoulder.
Encourage participants to help each other.

Avoid

Expecting that everyone will grasp the idea on the first attempt.
Making discouraging comments.

Embarassing learners in front of their peers.
Losing your patience with learners who seem to have no grasp of...
EXHIBITION

Exhibitions are a unique way to experience and learn about the history and culture of a place. They can be a powerful tool for engagement and education, offering visitors a chance to see a wide range of artifacts and learn about the stories they tell. Exhibitions can also be a way to attract new visitors to a museum or gallery, helping to increase attendance and revenue.

CASE STUDY

The exhibit at the British Museum in London, England, is a prime example of how an exhibition can be used to engage visitors and provide educational opportunities. The exhibition, which features artifacts from around the world, offers visitors a chance to learn about the history and culture of different regions and cultures. The exhibit includes interactive elements, such as touchscreens and virtual reality experiences, allowing visitors to engage with the artifacts in a more immersive way.

Interpretation

Interpretation is the key to successful exhibitions, as it helps visitors to understand and engage with the material presented. Interpretation can take many forms, including text labels, audio tours, and interactive exhibits. It is important to ensure that interpretation is clear and accessible to all visitors, regardless of their background or level of knowledge.

Conclusion

Exhibitions are a powerful tool for engagement and education, offering visitors a chance to learn about the history and culture of a place. They can also attract new visitors and increase attendance and revenue. By providing clear and accessible interpretation, exhibitions can help visitors to engage with the material presented and learn more about the stories it tells.
CHAPTER 9

Teaching Tools for Developing In-Depth Understanding

This chapter will present several teaching tools I have found particularly useful for helping participants develop a deeper understanding and wider perspective about what they are learning. These tools go well beyond merely helping adults gain new information or learn new skills. They can help adults experience as well as learn critical thinking skills. See Chapter 12 for more information about teaching critical thinking.

TOOLS FOR DEVELOPING IN-DEPTH UNDERSTANDING

FORUM

I use this teaching approach when I bring a resource person to my class or workshop, and I want the participants to have an opportunity to interact with the person.

The forum follows the resource person’s speech. I plan for fifteen minutes to an hour of open discussion. I encourage participants to offer their opinions on the topic, to raise and discuss issues, and to challenge comments the resource person makes, as well as to question each other’s comments. As teacher, I moderate the discussion.

Tips for Planning and Conducting

Be clear about what you want to accomplish with the forum.

Make certain that the resource person has agreed to participate and understands how it works.
WHAT HAPPENS NEXT?

Each group meets before the assigned time.

First, discuss the instructions about "Discuss the concept of time."

Second, conduct a whole-class discussion on

During the learning phase, summarize what the groups have said.

Next is your "Tell me the concept, please." "Turn a

two-minute discussion on how to learn the groups.

After each kid talks, select one point to discuss.

Check the time of the groups to help answer questions.

When they have two minutes left, prompt the group to think about what they know.

Be clear about what you want the groups to discuss.

This is the third point.

Can we wrap up in a few words, please?

That's the second point...

Thus the first point.

Let's wrap up with the groups.

The meeting is now complete.

END AND THANK YOU

What will you do after the meeting?

Having enough rapport to make a group discussion.

Allowing the group meeting is determinate into a group discussion.

Be prepared to react to participants who cannot hear periods.

Understanding the importance of making implicit contributions.

Explain the rules.

Strive for accountability.

Actively seek out those who are not following a necessary

Type for Planning and Conducting

From Reflection and Communication.

After the discussion, reflect on the group's activities. When I heard a silent voice or the participants in the meeting of silence, when people are thinking and engaging, the group becomes more active. I'm telling them to think about their own experiences. They are of course free to make notes.

The group is a forum to express their thoughts and perceptions. There is no pressure for a specific structure or format.

End the meeting. We are here.

Time is excellent for those who want to take a break.
Comparing one group's responses with another, as if one group developed correct answers and others were wrong.

BUZZ GROUP

This is a longer and larger version of the diad and triad technique. Following a lecture or other formal presentation, break the total group into smaller groups of four to six to discuss an assigned question or issue for ten to fifteen minutes. Ask each group to select a recorder who reports results to the total group.

Tips for Using

Have a plan for organizing the groups. Suggest people seated around each table form a group, or people in every other row turn to the people in back of them.

Be clear about what you want the buzz groups to do.

Specify the time allotted for the discussion and let the groups know when they have two minutes left.

Circulate among the groups to help answer questions.

Ask each buzz group to select its own recorder/reporter.

During the reporting phase, summarize what the groups have said and write comments on a chalkboard or newsprint.

Avoid

Giving vague instructions such as "Discuss the lecture for ten minutes."

Letting groups meet beyond the assigned time.

Comparing one group's responses with another, as if one group developed correct answers and others were wrong.

GROUP DISCUSSION

This is a classic teaching tool in adult education. I have used it often as a way of involving people and sharing ideas, and as an approach for encouraging people to interact with me and what I have to offer.

Discussion groups work best when they are no smaller than five or six nor larger than twenty-five or thirty. Participants in a group discussion must have some knowledge of the topic to be discussed, either from assigned readings, previous lectures or other formal presentations, or from personal experience. Participants are generally seated in a circle to facilitate easy contact with each other. Emphasis is on interaction among group members and on sharing of experience and points of view.

Tips for Using

Sit in the circle with the participants.

Use an "ice breaker" exercise so people can become acquainted. See Chapter 10 for suggestions.

Be specific about what the group will discuss.

Limit introductory comments about the topic to fifteen minutes or less.

Keep the discussion directed and on the topic. This often means raising specific questions from time to time with the group, asking people to be more specific if their contributions seem vague, and summarizing whenever you believe the discussion is wandering. Sometimes it helps to write the summary statements on a chalkboard or newsprint to help the group focus its attention.

Bring people into the discussion who are reluctant to speak. ("John, do you have an idea about this question?" "We haven't heard from Mary yet, what do you think about this?")

Politely discourage people who want to dominate the discussion. ("Thank you, Tom, but we really must move on." "An interesting perspective, Jane, does anyone else have a view on this?")

Avoid

Allowing the discussion to drift without direction or purpose.

Using group discussion when the group members do not have sufficient background or information to make a discussion worthwhile.

Embarrassing anyone in the group by making light of a comment or question.

"Forcing" people to participate who wish to be "silent" partici-
pants. This does not mean they shouldn’t be given an opportunity to participate.

Dominating the group with your own comments, suggestions, directions, and opinions.

SIMULATION GAME

This tool involves participants in situations similar to those which they may face in real life. Games may be paper and pencil activities with a series of problems to be solved, with new information fed into the process as the game progresses, and chance put into the game via card spinners and other devices. Games may also involve computer simulations where participants work the entire game by acting and reacting to information presented on a computer screen.

Tips for Using

Provide participants with background information about the subject matter the game addresses before beginning the game. For some games, you may want to immediately launch into the game, with a discussion of its purpose held until the game is completed.

If it is a team game, select teams carefully so that they are balanced. Avoid placing shy participants on the same team with the most aggressive participants.

Stop the game from time to time to assess progress, problems, and frustrations. Participants may also want to share strategies they are using in working the game.

When developing your own game, make certain it is appropriate for the learners’ level of understanding and background information about the topic.

At the completion of the game, spend time discussing what was learned, what difficulties people had, and how particular problems were solved (Adapted from “National Association,” 1972, pp. 28–31).

ROLE PLAYING

This is an enjoyable tool to use, and one from which participants usually gain a great deal. Role playing is an excellent way for participants to experience a situation in a safe environment. It works well when studying interpersonal relationships, practicing job interviews, exploring community issues, or probing topics where emotions run high and several perspectives are involved.

Tips for Using and What To Avoid

Involve no more than three or four people in a role play with the remainder of the group observing. Additional role plays may involve other members of the group.

Carefully select the role players to avoid the possibility of some persons embarrassing themselves. Often times you will want to select the players before the class meets so they have an chance to think about their roles.

Develop specific roles for each role play member in sufficient detail. For example, if you are role playing a job interview, you might have the interviewer stress asking questions about ability to get along with people. The job candidate is instructed to mention that one of his shortcomings is inability to relate well with others. Do not let role players see each other’s specific role assignments. Role players have no script. They must feel their roles and say what they believe the situation demands.

While role players are making final preparations, direct the group to look for specific behaviors, emotional reactions, and underlying forces that emerge in the role playing drama.

Stop the role play when sufficient information has been presented for a discussion. Avoid having the role play continue too long.

Upon completion of the role play, ask the role players how they felt about their roles and what they learned from the experience. Ask the entire group what insights they got from the role play experience.

When discussing the role playing event, monitor the discussion to help ensure the discussion is about the roles played and the meaning of them, rather than about the people who played the roles.

GROUP PROJECT

If you are teaching a class that meets over a period of time, this is an excellent tool to help participants learn together. From two to four participants work together on a project such as tracking down specific
A model of the group's test for the "S" group

The model, which is used to assess the group's performance, consists of four main components: motivation, engagement, and the group's ability to execute their task.

1. Motivation: The group's motivation is measured by their level of engagement and enthusiasm for the task at hand.

2. Engagement: The group's engagement is assessed through their active participation and ability to maintain focus on the task.

3. Execution: The group's ability to execute the task is tested by their ability to complete the assigned tasks accurately and efficiently.

4. Feedback: The group's feedback on the model's performance is collected to provide insights for future improvement.
Tips for Using

Provide background reading and other information sources to the class prior to the session where they will do the simulated TV show.
Divide the class into small groups of five to six. Counting off works well so that the small groups are formed by chance.
Suggest the following to each small group:

a. Discuss the information about the topic (person, historical event) and come to some common agreement (or identify areas of disagreement) about the available information.

b. Select a type of television show: game show, soap opera, news broadcast, documentary, situation comedy, detective show, or western that they wish to simulate.

Give each small group about one hour for the discussion and the development of the TV show.

After one hour, ask each group, in turn, to present its show in approximately five to seven minutes.

After each presentation, ask questions: What main points were you communicating? What difficulties did you have in deciding what ideas to communicate and how to communicate them?

Upon completion of all the presentations, discuss common themes presented by all the groups. Ask questions: Were you able to understand the person, event, or topic, at a level beyond reading or hearing about it? Assuming you were, what were some of the dimensions of this deeper level? What did you learn personally from this activity? Did you find this activity difficult? Were you uncomfortable with it? Why?

Avoid
Comparing the small groups with each other, implying some were of higher quality than others.

Rushing the process. Ample time must be provided for discussing the topic and developing the TV simulation.

Suggesting that everyone should be comfortable and excited about the process. Some participants will not be.

QUESTIONING

Being able to ask probing questions is one of the most powerful teaching tools. Asking questions can help participants dig more deeply into a topic or idea, explore various perspectives, and make thoughtful judgments about the accuracy and applications of information. Learners can examine in depth their own feelings and perspectives on a topic or issue.

Tips for Using

Use visuals such as chalkboard or newsprint to help record, organize, and synthesize answers.

Develop questions that can help people explore a topic more deeply, searching for accuracy and application:

- What is the source of this information?
- How do we know this source is accurate?
- How can we test the accuracy of this information?
- Do other sources differ with this source? In what way?
- Does this information square with your experience?
- Do we have all the information we need to develop a perspective on this topic? What appears to be missing?
- Do we have different interpretations of this information in this group? Explore people’s interpretations.
- What applications do we see for this information?
- Where should this information not be applied?

Develop questions to assist people in exploring their own feelings and perspectives:

- How do you know this? Personal experience? Reading? Authority? Thought it through?
- Can you say more about this?
- Can you give me an example?
used this tool in association with other teaching tools—for example, during a group discussion on a reading assignment or in a seminar.

Tips for Using

Take time to explain what an assumption is, and give examples of assumptions written material so people are comfortable with the process.

When discussing written material, a film, or videotape, or a person's contributions in a group, ask, "What are the assumptions behind these statements, pictures, images?" Possible areas for exploration include: assumptions about people and their motivation, about government and its operations, about society and its purposes, about competition and cooperation, about progress equaling material possession, about who controls decision making in a society, and so on.

Avoid

Being impatient when people have difficulty ferreting out assumptions. The process does take some time, particularly when people have not done it before.

Presenting your own assumptions in such a way so you leave the impression that they are the right ones.

DEBATE

In those situations where I want to help participants clearly see two sides to an issue or question, I have often used a debate. I assign position A to a group of three to five persons within the larger group and assign position B to a group of similar size. Groups A and B are asked to make as strong a case as they can for their positions. Debate works best for groups of ten to thirty.

Tips for Using

Form groups by counting off or some other approach that mixes people.

Assign a position on a question or issue to each group. If you have four groups of five each, two groups will have the same position. For instance, if the discussion is about the issue of agricultural pesticides, two groups are assigned position A: "All agricultural pesticides should be banned," and two groups are assigned position B: "Agricultural pesticides are necessary for the future of world food production."

Give each group about fifteen minutes to develop its presentation.

Ask the first group (A) to present its position taking no longer than five minutes. Alert one of the opposing groups (B) to be prepared to rebut.

After Group A gives its presentation, the rebuttal group has three minutes to develop its rebuttal.

The rebuttal group presents its rebuttal for no more than two minutes.

Repeat so that all groups have an opportunity to make both their primary presentations as well as rebuttals.

Discuss what was learned from the exercise when the presentations and rebuttals are completed.

Avoid

Allowing some groups to have more time than others in presentation or rebuttal.

TOOLS FOR OFFERING MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES

Panel

I've used this approach often at workshops and conferences where participants need to see several points of view on a topic. I ask three to five people of different perspectives and backgrounds to present their views on a question to a group. I usually serve as moderator of the panel, trying to make sure that none of the panelists dominates the discussion.

I follow the panel discussion with a variety of approaches, depending on the amount of time, the kind of room, and the size of the audience. If there are movable chairs, I break the audience into smaller groups and follow a buzz group or group discussion approach. If time is short, and chairs are fixed, I may use the diad or triad approach in order to get reaction to the panel. These teaching tools are discussed earlier in this chapter.
3. The speaker is speaking clearly and clearly visible.

4. The audience is engaged and responsive.

5. The session is interactive and includes activities for the audience.

6. The session is well-organized and structured.

7. The session includes a variety of delivery methods.

8. The session includes visual aids and multimedia.

9. The session includes opportunities for feedback and discussion.

10. The session includes opportunities for networking and building relationships.

11. The session includes opportunities for learning and growth.

12. The session includes opportunities for fun and relaxation.

13. The session includes opportunities for personal development.

14. The session includes opportunities for professional development.

15. The session includes opportunities for community building.

Tips for breakout sessions:

- Keep the session focused and relevant.
- Provide clear instructions and goals.
- Encourage participation and feedback.
- Use a variety of activities and exercises.
- Provide opportunities for reflection and discussion.
- Encourage networking and community building.
- Provide opportunities for growth and development.
- Provide opportunities for fun and relaxation.
- Provide opportunities for personal development.
- Provide opportunities for professional development.
- Provide opportunities for community building.

16. The session includes opportunities for personal growth.

17. The session includes opportunities for professional growth.

18. The session includes opportunities for community building.

19. The session includes opportunities for fun and relaxation.

20. The session includes opportunities for learning and growth.

21. The session includes opportunities for networking and building relationships.

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98. The session includes opportunities for learning and growth.

99. The session includes opportunities for networking and building relationships.

100. The session includes opportunities for community building.
Give participant about fifteen to twenty minutes to complete their pictures. Suggest that participants who finish early might want to view pictures of other participants who have finished early.

Insist that participants use no words in their pictures.

When all of the pictures are on the wall, move as a group from picture to picture, asking the “artist” to say something about the picture—what it depicts and the difficulties in creating it.

Encourage group members to ask questions of each “artist.”

When the exercise is complete, lead a discussion about the meaning of the exercise and what participants believe they learned.

Avoid

Making judgments about either the quality of the drawings or the ideas expressed.

Letting the group judge the drawings. Insist that they attempt to understand and appreciate what each “artist” has done.

3-D CREATION

Making three-dimensional creations is a powerful tool for uncovering knowledge participants may not know they have. As in drawing, this method allows learners to translate abstract ideas into concrete representations. This method also indirectly teaches cooperation and idea sharing.

For example, I ask learners in my classes to make 3-D creations of adult learning theories. You could use this approach for almost any abstract idea: labor-management relationships, theories of world trade, approaches to family relationships, and so on. Most participants (not all) have lots of fun doing this exercise.

I break my class or workshop group into smaller groups (three to five members) and ask them to create a 3-D representation of an abstract idea by using common office supplies such as tape, paper clips, paper, marking pens, envelopes, or easily available material such as paper cups and plates, fabric, and boxes.

Tips for Using

Give each small group an envelope with supplies that may be used for the creation. Give each group the same inventory of supplies.

Allow each group about an hour to discuss and construct a 3-D creation of the idea they have been assigned. Suggest they might want to spend about half of their time discussing, the other half constructing.

Encourage groups that finish early to view creations of other groups that finish early.

When all groups are finished, or time is called, move everyone from creation to creation while a representative of the group explains problems in building the creation, what ideas the creation represents, and the ideas the group discussed.

Lead a group discussion of problems people experienced with this method and what was learned from it.

Avoid

Making negative comments about the creations.

Allowing some groups to take an excessive amount of time to complete their creations while other group members are waiting.
to do it. I know what doesn’t work. Don’t bring in some story you read in a magazine or heard over the radio or, worse, picked up at a party the point of which has no relationship to your subject. It is absolutely taboo to attempt humor by poking fun at some ethnic, religious, or racial group. Humor is not humor when it demeans someone. It is not funny when you attempt humor at the expense of someone in your class or workshop, someone who is picking up an idea more slowly, or makes a mistake.

I use puns—participants sometimes groan, but they work. I often poke fun at myself, some mistake I’ve made, something from my experience that is relevant to the topic. Humor is an extremely personal thing. How you use it is very much a part of you. Experiment with it. If it doesn’t work, it doesn’t. Some people are probably not meant to be funny. But I think most of us have a humorous streak within us, and I believe most learners do too.

TOOLS FOR FIRST SESSIONS
ATMOSPHERE CREATORS

The atmosphere you create during the first hour of a class or workshop often determines the tone for the remainder of the class sessions or the workshop. The following tools are useful for establishing a positive atmosphere.

Tips for Using
Arrange the chairs in a circle so everyone can see everyone else, if the group has twenty-five or fewer members. If there are more than twenty-five participants, sitting around tables helps to reduce formality.

Greet participants at the door when they come to the first session. Introduce yourself. Give each participant a handout that briefly describes you, your background, and your experience with the content of the course or workshop.

Give participants, as they enter the room, a copy of the course or workshop syllabus or agenda. This should include objectives for the course or workshop, assignments and deadlines, grading procedures (if a credit course), suggested readings, suggested topics for each session, and where participants can buy required reading materials.

If appropriate, begin the session by going through the course agenda, elaborating on it and answering questions that participants may have about requirements, deadlines, and so on.

For many courses or workshops, allow participants to add topics they particularly want to have covered. This can be done following a discussion of the agenda or during the time that participants introduce themselves. Write the additional topics on the chalkboard. Indicate whether you will or will not be able to cover the additional topic requests—so participants know what is in store for them (see Chapter 13). For some workshops you may want to concentrate entirely on what the participants want to do within a broad topic area. See "Tools For Developing a Group Agenda" below.

Indicate when the participants can anticipate breaks. No session should go longer than forty-five or fifty minutes without a ten-minute break. Provide directions to restrooms and vending machines.

Provide something Eminently practical during the first time the course or workshop meets. This can be a new skill or a new piece of usable information. A handout may be distributed that includes a description of this new skill or new information. An example in a beginning computer course would be how to turn on the computer and bring the software on line. Whatever it is, make sure the participants have the experience of actually learning something.

INTRODUCTIONS

Take time during the first session for participants to get to know each other. Here are several approaches.

Tips for Using
Ask participants to introduce the person next to them for five minutes. Then switch and the second person interviews the first. Ask the people in each pair to introduce each other to the group giving names, hometowns, avocational interests, and workplaces. To add interest, ask people to find out from their partners something they did within the past six months that was particularly exciting for them, and share this with the class.

Go through the months asking persons with birthdays during the
Learning Environment
Creating a Good
Teaching Tools for

CHAPTER 10
month mentioned to give their names, and so on. Ask for the same information as above.

If the group is seated at tables, provide stand-up name tags. Participants can make these from five-by-seven cards that are folded the long way.

Provide name tags for participants to wear, particularly during the first session. Make sure the writing on tags is large enough to be seen. For sessions when you do not know the names ahead of time, have participants make their own name tags when they arrive.

When using small group discussion, ask that participants reintroduce themselves to their small group before beginning the discussion.

TOOLS FOR DEVELOPING A GROUP AGENDA

GROUP WORKSHOP PLANNING PROCESS

Here is a group process for identifying learner needs and interests, but with an emphasis on individually developed statements. The process is designed for learning sessions where the major attention of the session is on the topics (needs and interests) expressed by the group participants. (Adapted from Delbecq, Van de Ven & Gustafson, 1975).

Tips for Using

Divide the total group into smaller groups of five to seven. Each group should have paper and pencil for each member, a flip chart, a felt pen, and masking tape.

1. Instruct each person to take a few moments to think about questions or topics that should be covered in the workshop.
2. Ask participants to independently list their questions or topics for the workshop. Ask them not to talk with other participants during the thinking and writing process.
3. When steps 1 and 2 are completed, instruct each small group to select one person as recorder.
4. Go around the table and have each person read one of the questions or topics. The recorder writes this question or topic on the flip chart in brief words or phrases. The recorder takes a turn with the rest of the participants. Continue around the group, each member in turn, until all the topics and questions are listed. People without further questions or topics are passed over. When a sheet is filled, tape it to the wall for the small group’s reference.

5. Discuss each question or topic in turn so everyone can understand what has been written.

6. Ask each small group member to write on a separate sheet of paper the five items from those posted on the wall he or she considers most important. Once each person has completed this task, ask each member to assign a value of “5” to the most important item, a “4” to the next important one to a “1” as least important. The recorder should then write these votes on the flip chart.

For example, if the group selects six items from its list, the voting might appear as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Votes</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Rank</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1-3-2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2-3-1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5-5-4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5-4-4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Collect the flip charts from each group showing the results of its deliberations and voting for the total group to see. Indicate that unless there is substantial disagreement, the highest ranked questions will receive the most attention in the workshop.

Be aware of two cautions I have discovered. First, participants, once they begin studying, discussing, and becoming more aware of a topic, may change their minds about what is most important for them. Even though they may have told you, through this process, what they wanted included in the workshop, they will likely adjust their thinking as the workshop progresses. Second, if the topic of the workshop is not familiar to the participants, they may not know what questions to ask or what the possible topics are. Thus, you as teacher must take the leadership for introducing new topics and questions that take learners beyond their present questions and topics of interest.
tools for last sessions

before a session, participants are asked to prepare by reviewing the previous session's material and reflecting on how they can apply the concepts to their work. this helps to ensure that the session is relevant and useful to participants.

tools for last sessions

after the session, participants are encouraged to reflect on what they learned and how they can apply it in their work. this helps to reinforce the concepts and ensure that participants retain the information.

tools for last sessions

the session ends with a group discussion to allow participants to share their insights and experiences. this helps to reinforce the concepts and provide opportunities for networking.

tools for last sessions

the session concludes with a summary of the key points and a discussion of next steps. this helps to reinforce the concepts and ensure that participants understand the next steps.

tools for last sessions

the session concludes with a thank you to the participants and organizers. this helps to reinforce the concepts and show appreciation for the participants' time and effort.

tools for last sessions

the session concludes with a reflection on what participants learned and how they can apply it in their work. this helps to reinforce the concepts and ensure that participants retain the information.

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the session concludes with a reflection on what participants learned and how they can apply it in their work. this helps to reinforce the concepts and ensure that participants retain the information.
TOOLS FOR INDIVIDUAL PROBLEM SOLVING

STUDY GROUP

I have encouraged learners to form study groups for those classes that continue over several weeks and deal with topics that are quite new or difficult for learners. A study group consists of from three to five learners who meet regularly outside of class to discuss class content, share individual problems, prepare for examinations (when they are part of the class), and assist each other to learn.

Tips for Using and What To Avoid

Wait to form study groups until the class has met two or three times and the participants have become acquainted.

Allow learners to form their own study groups, but encourage them to include people in their groups who may think differently than they do. Such diversity can help learning.

Be alert to help those who have difficulty finding a group.

Encourage everyone to be part of a study group, if you are using this method. Those not a part of a study group will increasingly feel left out as the course proceeds.

Be available to meet with study groups, if they request your assistance, but do not meet regularly with them—you may be the problem they want to discuss.

INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE

Make yourself available for meetings with participants before class, after class, over coffee, in your office—wherever convenient for you and the learner. The individual conference allows learners to ask you questions they may have been uncomfortable raising in front of the entire class.

Tips for Doing and What To Avoid

Be available for learners who want to talk with you away from the meeting room.

If the conference is based on an appointment, make every effort to keep the appointment or notify the learner if the conference time must be changed.

Be alert to personal problems that are clearly beyond your competency for handling. Have available names of people to whom the learner can be referred.

Be a good listener. Avoid making judgments about the learner’s responses or questions.

Try to help the learner work out problems by raising questions and offering alternative solutions.

Be honest but also careful about responding to questions about “How am I doing?” Too critical a response given in a perceived noncaring way may drive the participant away from your class.

SELF-CONFIDENCE BUILDING

Adults often come to a workshop or course with low confidence in themselves and their ability to succeed. This is particularly so in those workshops and classes that deal with such topics as improving study skills, improving writing, and sharpening public speaking abilities. Here is a tool to help build self-confidence (Adapted from Apps, 1990).

Tips for Using and What To Avoid

Divide the class into small groups of three or four participants each.

Ask participants to share with others in their group a success, accomplishment, or achievement they experienced before they were twelve years old, between the ages of twelve and twenty, and between twenty and the present time. This need not be a grand and publicly recognized achievement, but something that was important to the participant.

Repeat the process but this time ask the participants to share their greatest successes during the past month and the past week.

With the whole group, discuss any difficulties that participants may
Selecting the Right Tool

CHAPTER II

...
Some tools to foster in-depth understanding include the following:
Buzz Group
Diad and Triad
Forum
Group Discussion
Group Project
Quiet Meeting
Role Playing
Seminar
Simulation Game
Some tools for developing multiple perspectives include the following:
Drawing
Guest Speaker
Panel
Simulated TV Show
3-D Creation
Useful tools for providing information include:
Field Trip
Interview
Lecture
Print Materials
Result Demonstration
If you plan to focus attention on developing critical thinking skills, see Chapter 12 for an in-depth discussion.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNERS

Groups of adults generally differ in age, educational level, experience, learning style preference, and personal history. You obviously can’t select teaching tools that fit the unique needs and interests of each person, but knowing about the people in your group, in several dimensions, can help you select appropriate teaching tools.

Knowing the amount of experience or information group members have about the subject when they begin can help you select appropriate tools. If a group has limited knowledge and experience about the topic, you must immediately begin a group discussion. Use tools for providing information as a beginning place. Later you can use tools that develop in-depth understanding, offer multiple perspectives, and present opportunity for critical thinking.

Are there persons with hearing or vision problems? Be particularly mindful of this in your use of audiovisual aids.

Are people attending the workshop or course by choice, or must they attend, for example, to maintain certification or to earn credits for salary increases? Some compulsory attenders will participate readily to make sure they receive proper credit for their attendance; others will participate reluctantly, if at all.

Is there generally high personal motivation—a writing course where everyone wants to publish, for example? Highly motivated learners will participate in a range of activities with little hesitancy.

What is the range of basic skills in writing, reading, speaking, and listening? If several participants lack basic communication skills, you may be limited in your choices of some tools or it will take longer to accomplish certain tasks.

Which learning styles do the participants prefer? You will likely have considerable diversity. Even though adults tend to prefer one learning style over another, particular circumstances (content studied, what the participant already knows in a subject area, and so on) will influence which learning style the participant will prefer at any one time. Many adults, when exposed to teaching approaches new to them, become quite comfortable and often say they are learning more than they do from approaches that seem more allied with their preferred learning styles. Refer to the References section for books describing learning style inventories and their use.

From my experience, I believe most adult learners fall into one of three learning style categories. Below are descriptions of each category with some suggestions for appropriate teaching tools.

Intuitive Learners

Intuitive learners:
Prefer learning when both feeling and thinking are combined.
Want to find meaning for themselves in what is presented.
Resent having a teacher tell them what they should learn and how they should learn it.
Like to make their own judgments about how they can apply what they are learning.
Appreciate getting to know other learners as people and for the knowledge fellow learners have to share.
Some appropriate tools for intuitive learners include:
Buzz Group
Drawing
larger than twenty-five do not expect to do much whole group discussion. But with movable chairs, considerable small group discussion is possible. I have seen effective small group discussion, around tables, with groups as large as two hundred. I also once observed a presenter attempting to use small group discussion with a group of twelve hundred people in a huge banquet hall and it was a disaster.

Groups larger than twenty-five to forty also prevent the use of most experiential approaches such as 3-D Creation, Drawing, Consciousness Raising, and Searching for Assumptions, unless you have help. Even with assistants, the management of experiential learning projects with large groups can quickly become overpowering.

Time of day influences the choice of tools. Work-weary participants coming to your class at day’s end often require teaching tools that excite and involve. A long boring lecture will promptly lull them to sleep, unless the topic is riveting. Consider using a variety of tools and changing the pace fairly often.

The length of the sessions influences which tools you choose. An all-day workshop provides a great opportunity for trying a variety of teaching tools, while an hour-long session is considerably more confining. Even with the latter, however, you can use far more variety than you might imagine. You may comfortably use Diad and Triad, Buzz Group, Group Discussion, Role Playing, Debate, or Demonstration, for example.

THE TEACHER’S PREFERENCE

Teachers often prefer the tools they use well. Good speakers like to lecture. Some enjoy using audiovisual equipment. Teachers who like working out elaborate management schemes will probably choose complicated learner involvement tools.

But what if the tools you are most comfortable with are not the ones that best fit the criteria listed above? Do you blindly go on, or do you cultivate the use of new tools? A teacher who needs to learn how to use a new tool in order to carve letters or learn how to use the new tool in many situations you may not have a choice. If you avoid learning how to use new tools, participants won’t return to your classes or workshops.

On approach is to consciously decide that you are going to learn how to use some new tools during the coming year. Select those tools that best fit the factors listed above and are interesting to you. Think how the tool might be used at a particular time in your class or workshop.

Then try it with your class. If you are a little nervous about the tool and your performance with it, announce to the group that you haven’t done this before. Most groups will rally around you and enjoy the new approach to learning, and they will give you constructive feedback about how to improve your use of the tool.

Master teachers constantly push beyond their present limits of performance. This means taking risks, trying new ideas, examining what worked right and what didn’t, and then trying it again. In this way, your bag of teaching tools will ever increase. You will feel that you are constantly growing as a teacher, not having to rely forever on old teaching tools that can become a little stale in the doing.

A fear for trying new things is failure. To move on from where you are now, you need to accept failure, learn from it, and go forward. The joy in trying new approaches is in the satisfaction that you are learning and growing as you teach.

THE ART OF SELECTING AND USING TOOLS

It makes sense to consider the above factors when selecting tools for different teaching situations. It also makes sense to plan what teaching tools you will use during a given teaching session. Bury in addition to being rational and systematic, there is also an artful dimension to tool selection. Master teachers have a “feeling” about a group, the subject matter, and the circumstances that surround it. Master teachers, often without being able to explain why, select particular teaching tools because they believe it will be the best one to accomplish a given purpose. And they are often right.

In addition master teachers blend teaching tools during the course of a teaching session. Some blending can obviously be preplanned, but not all. A master teacher knows when to move from one teaching tool to another, from lecturing to group discussion, from a simulation game to questioning for critical thinking. You will learn when to abandon a tool that is not working with a particular group and move to another. You will also learn to “read” a group, as it progresses through various learning exercises and know when to stop, when to continue, when to suggest a break, and when to use a different tool. Some clues to watch for include body language (shuffling around in seats, pacing through notes) and looks of confusion or boredom.

Art influences in a large way how well a particular tool is used. The same tool, used by two different teachers with the same group, same subject matter, same room, can be an unqualified disaster for one teacher and a huge success for another. The difference between how the two
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CHAPTER 12