Appendix E

Reading Comprehension

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1. Adult Educators Need to Have Enthusiasm

by Daniel P. Johnson

Daniel P. Johnson is the training coordinator for the Wicbita Police Department in Wicbita, Kansas.

How many times have you attended a training session and were bored to the point that you wanted to get up and leave, or wished that you had brought work with you to do while the training was going on? You also probably sat there with your arms folded in front of you, non-verbally communicating that you were an unwilling participant in the class.

On the other hand, have you ever gone to a training session thinking that it was going to be just another useless training activity and something piqued your interest so that you couldn't get enough of what the trainer was saying? I would be willing to bet that the trainer in the class you liked was positive and enthusiastic about what he or she was teaching and that enthusiasm flowed to you as the learner. In the second situation you were probably much more willing to participate because of that enthusiasm.

How about as a trainer? Have you ever been asked to teach something that you really didn't want to teach, but since it was your job, you did it because you had to? How did you feel about doing that training? Were you enthused about it, or were you negative about it? Now think about a training class that you just love to teach. How is your attitude? I bet it is positive. Further, I would venture to say that your positive attitude flows over into your teaching because you are enthused about the material. How can you as a trainer expect learners to be posiitve about attending a class if you aren't?

I have found that the people who were able to get my interest the most, and from whom I was able to learn the most, were the ones who were enthused about what they were doing and relayed that through their teaching, training, and facilitation skills. The majority of those people also had some unique characteristics in common. Because it is important for success in the classroom. I have used the word *enthusiasm* as an acronym to associate them.

Encourage participation

Nurture success by accentuating the positive

Teach responsively

Heighten understanding by using clear examples

Understand your audience and their needs

Speak appropriately

Integrate different teaching methods and activities in the classroom A?

Strive to challenge the learner

Make the closing meaningful

Encourage Participation

One of the most important things for a trainer to do is to encourage participation from everyone. There are two reasons for this. First, learners in the room bring with them experience that others in the room don't have and with that experience comes the potential for providing valuable information that couldn't be gained without their input. Second, learners tend to learn more when they are participating and playing an active role in the learning process. Very few people get much out of training sessions where the trainer merely stood at the front of the class and lectured for eight hours. However, when the learner ecomes an integral participant in the training both the trainer and other learners receive the benefits.

furture Success by Accentuating the Positive

A little bit of optimism goes a long way in the classroom. I have found that the best way to enhance the learner's experience in the classroom is to be positive. Be positive about yourself as the trainer. positive about the material, and positive about the learner. The sometimes forget that we had to learn the material at some point in our lives, as well as what we had to go through to come comfortable teaching the material. As Stephen D. Brookfield says in his book, *The Skillful Teacher,* "Participating in formal educational activities provides a rich source of insights regarding how it feels to a learner.

If any of your life is spent as a trainer you can use this experience to great ect." (1990, p. 37) Remembering the difficulties that you had when you were in a learning situation and using them as a springboard to create a positive classroom environment is half the battle in nurturing successes. This also means that we sometimes have to fail (or at least be on our way to failure) in order to succeed. Just think about those things that you have learned well-did you succed on the first try, or did you have to keep trying until you got it right?

Another large part of nurturing success is to remember the emotional impact teachers and trainers have had on your learning in the past. Most students derive some sort of emotional response from the learning situation. You, as the teacher or trainer, have the opportunity to affect that emotional impact either positively or negatively. Why not make it positive?

Teach Responsively

In Raymond J. Wlodkowski's and Margery B. Ginsberg's book *Diversity and Motivation : Culturally Responsive Teaching,* they provide a framework for teaching reponsively. It includes four intersecting motivational goals to be used as a systematic approach to teaching responsively. They are establishing inclusion, developing attitude, enhancing meaning, and engendering competence.

"*Establishing inclusion* refers to the norms, procedures and structures that are woven together to form a learning context in which all learners and teachers feel respected by and connected to one another." (1995, p. 27) In a training situation, and especially short ones, it is crucial to get everyone in the class to pay attention to the material. I have found that using a short icebreaker at the beginning of the class helps to bring everyone together and feel like they are part of the class.

"*Developing attitude* refers to the norms, procedures and structures that create through relevance and choice a favorable disposition among learners and teachers toward the learning experience or learning goal." (1995, p. 27) The goal here is to get everyone in the class to realize that they need to pay attention to what is being discussed. In other

words, getting them to put down their newspapers or the work they brought with them and participate.

"*Enhancing meaning* refers to those norms procedures, and structures that expand refine or increase the complexity of what is learned in a way that maters to learners, includes their values and purposes and contributes to a critical consciousness." (1995. p 27) Learners have to know that they will get something out of their expenditure of time and effort. It has to be useful to them ; therefore, at the very beginning of the class a foundation needs to be built that provides them with the reasons why they should learn the material. For instance, I remember a police recruit in a firearms class asking why he had to keep doing the same thing over and over again. The instructor told him that he had to do it so that if he was ever in an emergency situation he would be more likely to react instinctively. The recruit really didn't believe the instructor, but about six weeks later the student was involved in an incident where had to react instinctively, and he did. His instinctive reaction probably saved his life. He came back after the incident and thanked the instructor for having him go through all of those repetitious exercises.

"*Engendering competence* refers to those norms, procedures and structures that create an understanding for learner of how they are or can be effective in learning something of personal value." (1995. p. 28) Learners like to know that what they are learning is of use to them "personally." The goal for the teacher or trainer is to find a way to present the material so that all of the students in the class see how they can not only use the material, but use it in a way that will enhance their own lives.

Heighten Understanding by Using Clear Examples

Have you ever been in a class where the instructor asked you to do someting and you had no idea what they were asking you to do? Wouldn't have been a lot easier if you had been given an example of what was expected? Providing the learner with clear examples of what you want will go a long way in enhancing their understanding. I teach

public speaking and have found that when I ask participants to give a speech, they do much better when I give an example speech for them first. Or, when I ask them to prepare an outline, they can see what I want much more clearly when I provide them with a sample outline, or let them look over outlines that previous students have done. Without clear examples, learners tend, to wander aimlessly toward completion of a project with no idea of whether they are doing right or wrong To further relate to using examples, just think how many times you use the phrase "for example" when you are teaching. We use examples for clarification. It makes if easier for students to learn when they can associate the material with something they already know. Clear examples provide that means.

Another large part of nurturing success is to remember the emotional impact teachers and trainers have had on your learning

Understand Your Audience and Their Needs

If would be wonderful for us if every time we went into a classroom everyone there wanted to be there and just could not wait for the class to get started so they could gain more knowledge. It would make our lives much easier. In general, we can expect that most of the people attending training are there because they want to be there. However, think back to how many times you have had to go to a training session in which there was no way that you could use the material being discussed. but had to go anyway Just as in our own experiences as learners. not everyone in a class wants to be there.

As teachers and trainers. We almost always have people in the classes that don't want to be there. So what do we do to over come this? First, understard that just because one or two people in the class don't want to be there. you can't afford to let them ruin the class for the others who are there to learn. You can't expect to get everyone in your classes to accept the material all the time, so concentrate on accentuating the positive participation in the class. I have found that sometimes asking for the opinion or a comment from someone who doesn't want to be there makes them feel as though they have something to contribule

and may change their attitude toward the class A word of caution, though-calling on them could also backfire, so you have to be ready to handle anything when you try to bring negative participants into the discusion. Even with the dangers involved. I still feel that it is worth the risk.

Speak Appropriately

Understanding our audience and their needs will also help us to speak appropriately to our students. We need to realize what we are communicating when we are at the front of the classroom and the power of the words we choose. If we are not careful, learners may think that we are talking down to them and that will build barriers impossible to tear down. I can remember once observing a class where the trainer began personally attacking the studens and telling them that there was no way they would ever be effective communicators. I tried talking to the trainer at the break and told her that her audience didn't appreciate the way she was talking down to them. It didn't help Finally, we had to

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cancel the $ 30,000 training contract that we had with her company, because she could not adapt and speak appropriately to the audience.

Speaking appropriately isn't really that difficult, you just need to know your audience. I am sure that you probably speak differently in a professional setting than you do in a personal setting. You read the situation you are in and adjust your speaking and listening styles accordingly. If you do that same thing in the classroom, it will enhance your chances for success in that setting, too.

Integrate Different Teaching Methods and Activities in the Classroom

To understand the importance fo integrating different teaching methods and activities in the classroom, just think of when you went to a class where the teacher or trainer spent eight hours lecturing. You probably did not get a whole lot out of the class. Now, think of a class that you attended where the methods were varied between lecturing, small-group discussions, exercises and problem-solving activites. Did you get a lot more out of the class? In some of the best classes I have ever attended, the teacher tried to change the teaching method or activity at least every 30 minutes. It is much more work for the teacher or trainer initially, but it will be time well spent if your learners get more out of the experience.

In some of the best classes I have ever attened, the teacher tried to change the teaching method or activity at least every 30 minutes. It is much more work for the teachers or trainer initially, but it will be time well spent if your learners get more out of the experience.

Strive to Challenge the Learner

"When asked to speak about significant learning episodes-those that are vividly remembered as being crucially transformative and that are spoken about with pride it is interesting how many students speak of episodes in which challenge was a central feature." "(Brookfield, p. 48) Challenging our students to do the best they can makes the learning

experience worthwhile for them. I can remember that whenever I have had a teacher who really cared about what I was learning, he or she always challenged me to do better than I thought I could. Sometimes it takes someone on the outside to identify our true potential. As teachers and trainers, we have the opportunity to unlock the potential in each of our learners if we simply challenge them to do the best that they can do and then a little more.

Make the Closing Meaningful

To make the closing meaningful it should do two things. First. it should remind students of what has been covered. Second, it should leave them with something that makes them want to use the meterial in the future. The worst things that can happen is to have someone leave a class or training session and say, "That was a great training class, but there is no way that I can use the material." Providing learners with viable way for them to use the material in their everyday lives is your goal. Probably one of the best ways to do this is to show the learner how what they are currently doing can be done better or made easier by the new material. I also like to provide learners with easy to understand (and use) handouts so they can use them as quick reference guides in the future.

The role of the teacher or trainer in any learning situation is an important one that carries with it a lot of responsibility. Understanding this responsibility is only part of what is needed to make the learning experience positive. Whenever I have been asked to identify the trails of a good teacher or trainner, I have always said that all you have to do is think of those teachers or trainers who have had either a positive or negative impact on your learning. Think of what the good instructors did that was positive and try to emulate those traits. Next. look at those negative experiences, determine what was done wrong, and then determine what could have been done differently to make the experience positive. Then try to implement those positives. Most of all. remember that if you want to be a successful teacher or trainer, you have to have enthusiasm.

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In addition, if adults have been accustomed to teacher-directed learning environments

2. Using Adult Learning Principles in Adult Basic and Literacy Education

ED 425336

Susan Imel

1998

PDF Available

Adult basic and literacy education (ABLE) is a complex undertaking that serves diverse learners with variety of needs, and many individual ABLE programs successfully attract and retrain students. Only percent of eligible adults participate in funded programs, however, and, of those who do, most (74 percent) leave during the first year (Quigley 1997). A number of reasons exist for the nonparticipation and high attrition rates, including the complicated nature of the lives of many adults. The way ABLE programs are structured may also be a factor. The fact that most ABLE programs still resemble school (Quigley 1997 ; Velazques 1996) may mean that many eligible adults may not choose to participate or once enrolled, do not find a compelling reason for persisting until their educational needs are met. Structuring programs around adult education principles can be one solution to developing programs they are more appealing to ABLE learners. This *Practive Application Brief* describes how adult education principles can be used in ABLE programs. Fol-

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can be interchangeable, Although teachers have the overall responsibility for leading a learning activity; in adult learning settings "each person has something to teach and to learn form the other" (Draper 1992, p. 75) Adult learning is a cooperative enterprise that respects and draws upon the knowledge that each person brings to the learning setting.

Use small groups. The use of groups has deep historical roots in adult education, and adults learning in groups has become embedded in adult education practice. Groups promote teamwork and encourage cooperation and collaboration among learners. Structured appropriately, they emphasize the importance of learning from peers, and they allow all participants to be involved in discussions and to assume a variety of roles.

The principles discussed here reflect some of the widely held beliefs about adult learning. The next section provides recommendations for using these principles in adult basic and literacy education programs.

Recommendations for Practice

A growing number of ABLE programs base their practices upon many of the principles described, and recent resources have advocated programs that are more student centered and participatory in nature (e.g.,Auerbach 1992 ; Fingeret 1992 ; Nonesuch 1996 ; Sissel 1996 ; Stein 1995). The following recommendations for practice that reflects adult education principles are based on information found in several of these resources.

involve students in program planning and implementation in any number of ways, including asking them to assist with orientation for new learners, appointing them to serve on advisory boards, and soliciting their suggestions for learning activities.

Develop and/or use instructional materials that are based on students'lives. An important part of the participatory approach is using instruction that reflects the context of students' lives, Sometimes referred to as contextualized learning, this instruction–and the instructional materials–draw on the actual experiences, developmental stages, and problems of the learners, Students are the center of the curriculum and it is directly relevant to their lives (Auerbach 1992; Dirkx and Prenger 1997 ; Nash et a 1992). Dirkx and Prenger (1997) refer to this approach as "theme based" and describe how it promotes the integration of academic content with real–life problems. Furthermore, it has the advantage of integrating academic skills ; rather than focusing on learning academic subjects separately, the theme–based approach focuses on their commonalities and promotes learning them in ways that are meaningful to the student. By using this approach, the classroom becomes more authentic because adults learn to use skills in real–life situations.

Develop an understanding of learners' experiences and communities. Engaging in participatory adul literacy begins by respecting learners' culture, their knowledge, and their experiences (Auerbach 1992). Within adult basic and literacy education, a great deal of attention has been focused on individualizing instruction to meet individual needs. Although there is nothing inherently wrong with this concept, preoccupation with serving individuals can suppress issues of gender, race, and class, issues that reprocduce the realities of the lives of many adult literacy students (Campbell 1992). A growing number of adult lieracy educators are advocating for understanding learners both as individuals and as members of their particular communities or groups (Nonesuch 1996 ; Sissel 1996) and tailoring instruction to address those particular contexts. For example, Nonesuch (1996) describes how the experiences of women can be used effectively in developing a curriculum.

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Incorporate small groups into learning activities. Small groups can help achieve a learning environment that is more learner centered and collaborative than either large group or one-on-one, individualized approaches to instruction. In addition, learning in small groups more accurately reflects the contexts in which adults generally use literacy skills. Small groups have a number of advantages including providing peer support for learning and easing the distinction between teachers and learners by creating a coocerative, participative environment that is less hierarchical than environments produced by traditional approaches. Smail groups can be an effective tool for generating themes and ideas that will form the basis for learning activities (Imel, Kerka, and Pritz 1994).

ABLE programs that incorporate these recommendations will foster increasing self-directedness and critical reflection in learners. Learners who re involved in planning and carrying out contextualized learning activities will develop heightened awareness of their own particular circumstances and the ability to make changes in it.

Conclusion

If adult basic and literacy educators are to be successful in attracting and retaining more adults in the programs, they must change how they think about their programs (Quigley 1997). The schooling mod that predominates must be exchanged for one that is based on adults' perceptions of their goals and purposes and that addresses the realities of their lives. Using adult education principles can be one vehicle for effecting this change.

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ERIC. Clearinuhouse on Adult. Career and Vocational Education

3. ACTIVE LEARNING

By L. Dee Fink

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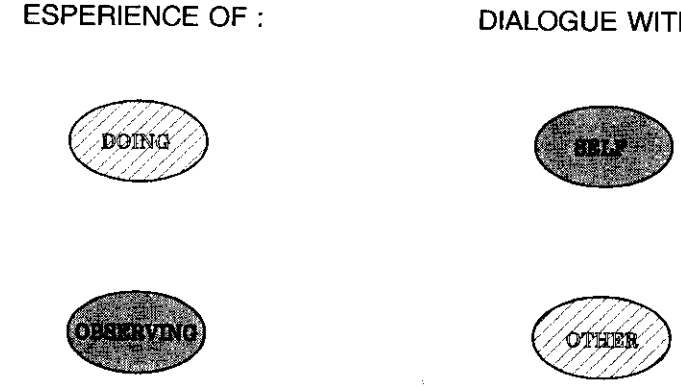
Many college teachers today want to move past passive learning to active learning, to find better ways of engaging students in the learning process. But many teachers feel a need for help in imagining what to do, in or out of class, that would constitute a meaningful set of active learning activities.

The model below offers a way of conceptualizing the learning process in a way that may assist teachers in identifying meaningful forms of active learning.

A Model of Active Learning



Explanation of the Components

This model suggests that all learning activities involve some kind of experience or some kind of dialogue. The two main kinds of dialogue are "Dialogue with Self" and "Dialogue with Others." The two main kinds of experience are "Observing" and "Doing".

Dialogue with Self :

This is what happens when a learner thinks reflectively about a topic, i.e.,they ask themselves what they think or should think, what they feel about the topic, etc. This is

"thinking about my own thinking," but it addresses a broader array of questions than just cognitive concerns. A teacher can ask students, on a small scale, to keep a journal for a course, or, on a larger scale, to develop a learning portfolio. In either case, students could write about *what* they are learning, *how* they are learning, what role this knowledge or learning plays in their own life, *how* this makes them *feel*,etc.

Dialogue with Others :

This can and does come in many forms. In traditional teaching, when students read a textbook or listen to a lecture, they are "listening to" another person (teacher, book author), This can perhaps be viewed as "partial dialogue" but it is limited because there is no back-and-forth exchange. A much more dynamic and active form of dialogue occurs when a teacher creates an intense small group discussion on a topic. Sometimes teachers can also find creative ways to involve students in dialogue situations with people other than students (e.g.,practitioners, experts), either in class or outside of class. Whoever the dialogue is with, it might be done live, in writing, or by email.

Observing.

This occurs whenever a learner watches or listens to someone else "Doing" something that is related to what they are learning about. This might be such things as observing one's teacher do something (e.g.,"This is how I critique a novel."), listening to other professionals perform (e.g.,musicians), or observing the phenomena being studied (natural, social, or cultural). The act of observing may be "direct" or "vicarious." A direct observation means the learner is observing the real action, directly; a vicarious observation is observing a simulation or the real action. For example, a direct observation of poverty might be for the learner to actually go to where low income people are living and working, and spend some time observing life there. A vicarious or indirect observation of the same topic might be to watch a movie involving poor people or to read stories written by ro about them.

Doing :

This refers to any learning activity where the learner actually does something : design a reservoir dam (engineering), conduct a high school band (music education), design and/or conduct an experiment (natural and social sciences), critique an argument or piece of writing (the humanities), investigate local historical resources (history), make an oral presentation (communication), etc.

Again, "Doing" may be direct or vicarious. Case studies, role-playing and simulation activities offer ways of vicariously engaging students in the "Doing" process. To take one example mentioned above, if one is trying to learn how to conduct a high school band, direct "Doing" would be to actually go to a high school and direct the students there. A vicarious "Doing" for the same purpose would be to simulate this by having the student conduct a band composed of fellow college students who were acting like (i.e., role playing) high school students. Or, in business courses, doing case studies is, in essence, a simulation of the decision making process that many courses are aimed at teaching.

Implementing This Model of Active Learning

So, what can a teacher do who wants to use this model to incorporate more active learning into his/her teaching? I would recommend the following three suggestions, each of which involves a more advanced use of active learning.

1. Expand the Kinds of Learning Experiences You Create.

The most traditional teaching consists of little more than having students read a text and listen to a lecture, a very limited and limiting form of Dialogue with Others. Consider using more dynamic forms of Dialogue with Others and the other three modes of learning. For example :

✯ Create small groups of students and have them make a decision or answer a focused question periodically,

✯ Find ways for students to engage in authentic dialogue with people other than fellow classmates who know something about the subject (on the web, by email, or live).

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✯ Have students keep a journal ro build a "learning portfolio" about their own thoughts, learning, feelings, etc.,

✯ Find ways of helping students observe (directly or vicariously) the subject or action they are trying to learn, and/or

✯ Find ways to allow students to actually do (directly, or vicariously with case studies, simulation or role play) that which they need to learn to do.

2. Take Advantage of the "Power of Interaction."

Each of the four modes of learning has its own value, and just using more of them should add variety and thereby be more interesting for the learner. However, when properly connected, the various learning activities can have an impact that is more than additive of cumulative ; they can be interactive and thereby multiply the educational impact.

For example, if students write their own thoughts on a topic (Dialogue with Self) *before* they engage in small group discussion (Dialogue with Others), the group discussion should be richer and more engaging. If they can do both of these and then observe the phenomena or action (Observation), the observation should be richer and again more engaging. Then, if this is followed by having the students engage in the action itself (Doing), they will have a better sense of what they need to do and what they need to learn during doing. Finally if, after Doing, the learners process this experience by writing about it (Dialogue with Self) and/or discussing it with others (Dialogue with Others), this will add further insight. Such a sequence of learning activities will give the teacher and learners the advantage of the Power of Interaction.

Alternatively, advocates of Problem-Based Learning would suggest that a teacher start with "Doing" by posing a real problem for students to work on, and then having students consult with each other (Dialogue with Others) on how best to proceed in order to find a solution to the problem. The learners will likely use a variety of learning options, including Dialogue with Self and Observing.

3. Create a Dialectic Between Experience and Dialogue.

One refinement of the Interaction Principle described above is simply to create adialectic between the two principle components of this Model of Active Learning : Experience and Dialogue. New experiences (whether of Doing or Observing) have the potential to give learners a new perspective on what is true (beliefs) and/or what is good (values) in the world. Dialogue (whether with Self or with Others) has the potential to help learners construct the many possible meanings of experience and the insights that come from them. A teacher who can creatively set up a dialectic of learning activities in which students move back and forth between having rich new experiences and engaging in deep, meaningful dialogue, can maximize the likelihood that the learners will experience significant and meaningful learning.

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4. The Young and the Rest of Us

By Jennifer Y. Salopek

At compass Foods in Rye Brook, New York, Joe Machicote and Ron Tremper teach employees as young as 16 the finer points of contract food service through a program called Compass in the Community. For many of those young workers, it's their first job.

In New York City, Steve Hochberg is responsible for training 26,000 temporary employees to handle clerical and administrative tasks during the city's twice-yearly elections. A majority of the employees are retired ; several of Hochberg's workers are well into their eighties.

Recently, many books and articles have been published about crossgenerational conflict, work, and management. Why this, why now? We asked Bradley Richardson, principal and founder of JobSmarts, a consulting firm in Dallas that specializes in teaching companies how to relate to their Generation X employees.

By Jennifer J. Salopek

The Gist

❒ Trainers should tailor their approaches to the age of the trainees. With younger learners, go for fun and fast-paced. With older learners, aim for comfort, and respect their experience.

❒ Trainees of all age groups need to feel that it's safe to participata and to dissent. Reward participants for speaking up, even if it's to disagree.

❒ To achieve the ultimate richness of Internation, mix participarts of all age groups. Enpolyees need to learn from each other as well as from you, cross-generationallinter-action can be stimulating and eye-opening.

"People have been entering the workforce forever," Richardson concedes. But, he explains, there just aren't enough bodies to go around. The baby boomer generation, of which virtually every member is currently of working age, numbers 78 million. By contrast, Generation X has only 48 million members. "That 'birth dearth' means that there are

almost 50 percent fewer Gen X workers out there than baby boomers. Demographics lead to demands, so employers are doing the scramble to recruit, train, and retain young talent."

Can and should the trainers at Compass Foods and the New York Board of Elections-and at your organization-adapt their approaches to suit the age of trainees? Our research reveals clearly that yes, They can, and yes, they should.

You're from Mars, they're from Venus "Trainers should adapt their approaches for younger learners", says Richardson. Although people will still have individual learning styles, Richardson says we can count on the fact that Gen X workers will process information differently.

"We need training now more than ever," says Machicote, director of relations development for the Compass Group. "We're tapping sources we normally wouldn't have gone after, due to the low unemployment that's been facing the food industry for several years."

Compass in the community was developed because the company recognized a need to change the image of its industry. "When you say *hospitality,* people think hotels," says Machicote. "If you say *food service,* they think *cafeteria lady.*" To combat those narrow stereotypes and entice younger workers into its contract food-service business, Compass decided that it needed to take its knowledge and business into local high schools. "If students can learn about us ahead of time, we can change the impression of our industry," continues Machicote.

The program is structured as a set of six-to-14-week internships offered twice a year, in fall and spring. At Compass's New York location, about 20 students enter the internship program during each enrollment period. Interns are selected through an application and interview ; at the end of the internship, the employee receives a certificate of completion and a stipend of about US$ 1,000. Compass also sponsors exceptional interns to the Culinary Institute of America and supports them with letters of recommendation.

Each internship period begins with an Orientation Forum on the first day, in which

trainers cover such basics as

- ❒ Sanitation and hygiene
- ❒ conduct
- ❒ safety
- ❒ customer service
- ❒ sexual harassment and violence prevention
- ❒ Diversity and respect.

Those are all good, basic topics every food-service employee should know, but how do you make them and other mandatory training interesting to young workers? Make it make sense. David stillman

Generations at a Glance

Generation	Age	Influences	Traits
Millennium	0–late teens	❒ Fall of the BerlinWall	❒ Independent spenders
		❒ Expansion of technology	❒ Globally concerned
		❒ Mixed economy	❒ Health conscious
		❒ Natural disasters	❒ Cyber literate
		❒ Violence	
		❒ Drugs and gangs	
Generation X	Early 20s–Mid 30s	❒ *Sesame Street*, MTV	❒ Technosavvy
		❒ End of Cold War	❒ Diverse
		❒ Rise of personal computing	❒ Independent
		❒ Divorce	❒ Skeptical
		❒ AIDS, crack cocaine	❒ Entrepreneurial
		❒ Missing children on milk cartons and missing parents at home	
Baby boomers	Late 30s–Early 50s	❒ Booming birthrate	❒ Idealistic

Traditionalists	Mid 50s–Early 70s	❒ Economic prosperity ❒ Expansion of suburbia ❒ Vietnam, Watergate ❒ Human rights movement ❒ Sex, drugs, rock'n roll ❒ The Great Depression ❒ The New Deal ❒ World War II ❒ The G.I. Bill	❒ Competive ❒ Question authority ❒ "Me" generation ❒ Patriotic ❒ Loyal ❒ Fiscally conservatiove ❒ Faith in institutions

Courtesy of Bridge Works, 888.519.1187; www.generations.com

and Lynne Lancaster, principals of the generational consulting firm Bridge Works, advise you to spend extra time on background when training Gen Xers. They recommend that you explain why you're doing the training, how it fits in with corporate culture, and what it will do for trainees'careers.

Make it fun. "We designed our program to be fun," says Machicote, Interns work in small groups and are encouraged to be creative. They can play around in the kitchen, write their own menus, and experiment with recipes. Compass serves such clients as health-care facilities, corporate cafeterias, schools and colleges, and prisons. Everything is made fresh and from scratch, so interns can work with the chefs to create their own ideas for salads or specials, or whatever.

Make it personal. Every Compass intern is linked with the manager of the unit, who serves as a mentor, He or she offers one-on-one guidance, helping the intern work through the training manual and demonstrate mastery of skills such as knife handling. Managers receive special training in mentoring and working with young people.

Andrea Nierenberg, a management consultant based in New York, offers these suggestions for making your training more personal :

❒ Provide many opportunities for trainees to ask questions.

❒ Ask them whether the information pertains to them.

❒ Adapt your information to the scenarios they give you.

But, while making your training personal, says Nierenberg, don't take things personally. "Younger people tend to challenge you. Trainers need to be prepared for that and shouldn't get offended. Sometimes, [those young] trainees will look at you as if you're from Mars."

Make it fast-paced. Nierenberg advises. "You must go faster than you even thought possible."

Says Richardson. "Gen Xers have been bombarded with messages while growing up," Therefore, they process information more quickly. Often, he says, older people interpret that propensity as a short attention span, but it's not. "It just appears that way."

Make it involving. "On television, you have a change of scenery every 20 seconds," Richardson says. "Traincrs need

Overcoming Resistance : Training That Counts

Before introducing a new training program, make sure that you can answer *yes* to all of these questions :

❒ Has the need for the new system been explained in terms of the organization's business strategy and future goals?

❒ Has the workload of employees involved in skills training been adjusted to allow for training time?

❒ Do training schedules take concurrent initiatives into account?

❒ Is the training tailored to different learning styles, or does one size fit all?

❒ Is the relationship clear between the training curriculum and trainees' jobs?

❒ Is the equlipment used in technology training ergonomic?

From *Age Works : what Corporate America Must Do to Survive the Graying of the Workforce,* by Beverly Goldberg (The Free Press, 2000).

to change their delivery, message, or activity every eight, 10,or 15 minutes-maximum.

Make it chunky. Richardson recommends chunking information into small bits, as the average Gen Xer reportedly processes a message in just 20 seconds.

Make it safe to participate. "No one wants to be first," says Richardson, noting that Gen Xers are reluctant to participate. He recommends that instead of calling on people, you structure discussions so that trainees pick each other by passing around a talking stick or ball.

Make it yours. Keep learners involved while still holding the reins, cautions Richardson, or your training session could turn into a social activity. He recommends setting ground rules and expectations clearly at the beginning of the session. Stillman and Lancaster suggest setting more ground rules than you would for other age groups.

Make it theirs. Richardson also recommends letting learners themselves discover the aha! moments. "Young talent typically views internal people with some skepticism". Nierenberg adds that trainers of the baby boom generation shouldn't try to identify with Gen X trainees too much:

"Don't try to be their age. Be accepting, and ask for their help in keeping the session on track and relevant."

Stillman points out the increasing reliance on CBT, WBT, and self-paced learning for younger workers, which suits their learning style well. However, he cautions, "Be careful that Xers' love of technology doesn't cause you to overlook the interaction and collaboration that everyone needs in order to learn."

Auld land syne

Twice a year, the New York City Board of Elections employs 26,000 temporary workers at 1,300 voting sites. Many of those workers are retirees. Due to frequent changes in rules and regulations, Hochberg and his staff retrain the temps for each election regardless of whether they have operated a voting site before. Workers for the six positions at each site attend a three-hour course that covers such subjects as

- ❒ an overview of the electoral process
- ❒ how to interact with candidates and poll watchers

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- ❒ communication and customer service skills
- ❒ electoral and assembly districts
- ❒ legalities
- ❒ logistics
- ❒ the steps in servicing a voter.

Hochberg characterizes his mostly older employees as dedicated and concerned about getting things right. He also notes that they take their political affiliation and the electoral process very seriously. So, what do he and other experts recommend for training older workers?

Make it learner-centered. Hochberg conducts much of his training through role plays, demonstrations, and hands-on activities. He says, "Trainees must get in volved or they become remote." Nierenberg, who works with all age groups, finds that her older trainees prefer interaction and discussion. "Don't play games," she cautions. "Older people typically don't like being put on the spot."

Make it positive. Nierenberg says that you can counter the change-averse attitude found among some older workers if you emphasize the positive and explain the benefits of the change.

Make it matter Lancaster says, "Trainers need to get away from the mindset that training for older workers is remedial. It seems we're always playing catch up. Instead, training should be strategic and proactive." Retaining older workers (and by this we mean anyone on the far side of the baby boom) is becoming more important as the birth dearth is felt in the workplace. Companies need to keep more experienced employees from retiring and can do that. Lancaster explains, through "careering"

"Assuming a company can identify who it wants to keep," she says, "it needs to determine what kind of training it has to provide so that employees can keep recareering within the company." In that scenario, the purpose of training is to stimulate and educate.

Stillman concurs : "Remedial training assumes that an employee wants to keep

doing the same job. Maybe there's a completely different role for that person. There's no magic age at which you stop talking about a person's career path."

Make it comfortable. Nierenberg recommends calling participants in advance if possible. "I introduce myself, briefly explain what I'll be doing in the session, and invite them to call me if they have any questions or suggestions." Even if you can't call all of the trainees in advance, call at least a few. Those early contacts can also make the training more comfortable for the trainer.

Physical comfort is also important, points out Beverly Goldberg, author of *Age Works : What Corporate America Must Do to Survive the Graying of the Workforce* (The Free Press, 2000). Her suggestions :

- ❒ Make sure that the seating is comfortable.
- ❒ Allow trainees to adjust the distance of the chairs from the computer monitors.
- ❒ Check the lighting. Too much dimness or too much glare can be hard on older eyes.

Goldberg also suggests that training for older workers is best done "on the floor"- that is, informally *before* a formal classroom session. Let trainees have a half hour or so before a technology session to get acquainted with the equipment.

Make testing less stressful. Trainers need to remember that older workers may have been out of a classroom for a long time, says Goldberg, and can be uncomfortable with tests and grades. Although Hochberg's trainees must pass a ecrtification quiz, it's open - book.

Make trainees' experience count. Nicrenberg notes that some older workers can suffer from "know-it-all ayndrome, which is really collective wisdom and experience. Ask older trainees to contribute their anecdotes and success stories. "You're there to enhance skills they already have," she says. "Don't tell them what to do" Lancaster also recommends teaching techniques that evolve from what trainees already know. "Be respectful of their credentials," she says.

Many senior employees fear looking dumb or outdated, especially when an

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executive is sitting in on the session. Lancaster suggests that you can draw out their sense of pride by asking them to tell stories about when they did something well or solved a problem. If an executive *is* sitting in, Lancaster suggests coaching him or her in advance about creating a safe environment and praising people for dissent.

Make it safe to disagree. Goldberg urges us not to forget downsizing, the quality movement, and many other management fads that have "tiptoed away quietly," as she puts it. "Trainees are going to be skeptical. Let them express that skepticism, listen, and then show where the differences are between past efforts and what you're trying to do now."

Lancaster recommends creating exercises in which you give permission for trainees to dissent and that you reward them. She notes that it can work especially well if you group trainees in pairs and let them rehearse before reporting to the class.

Although you may feel as if you're trying to be all things to all people, take heart. Nierenberg says, "People are people. Trainees of any age will respond well if you're gracious and open."

Or you can do as Lancaster and Stillman recommend : Mix trainees of all age groups. "Although that's harder for the trainer," admits Lancaster, "the richness of that interaction can be wonderful." She thinks that organizations are already too stratified by age and recommends that companies encourage employees from different cohorts to talk together about how they view the world.

"That causes people to learn from each other," she concludes, "and that's great for the company."

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5. Some Thoughts On Adult Learners And Life-Lone Learning

Ines A. Kraft Ph.d.

There are some fundamental differences in the way learning takes place for adult learners, for what we call "non-traditional" students, compared to the way in which, say, 18-year-olds process information, gain knowledge and apply theories. Because only about two million of today's roughly 12.5 million college students are 18-to-22-year-olds on campus, we must give a lot of thought, as well as resources and recognition, to the vast majority of millions of adult learners.

For adult learners, learning is not a function of "seat time." It is not a function of the amount of time students and instructors spend interacting in the classroom. For adults, learning is a function of the life experience of the student. It is a function of the student's willingness to take an active part in and full responsibility for his or her education. It is a function of the motivation of the student, not the motivation of the instructor.

Adult learning, or any form fo life-long learning, is called "self-directed" learning. It puts the responsibility for achievement on the student, not the instructor. Whether in a classroom setting, training situation or pursuing a new interest, self-directed learners are typically willing and able to do a great deal of work independently, according to their own schedule and geared to their personal needs at the time of learning. Because of this, adult learners are highly motivated, take their education or training seriously and have very focused goals. The time adults have available for learning is limited and they do not want to waste it. Their role of learner is typically one of multiple roles they are carrying, all of them with serious, often competing obligations and all equally important.

On the other hand, many things important to 18-year-olds in college have disappeared. Adult learners do not ask to have the meaning of life explained to them in cluss and they are not looking for a social life or a winning basketball team on campus. Above all, they ask to know why what they are learning is important and now it can help them solve a specific problem, here and now.

Adult learners then, need a substantially different learning delivery system. Part of that delivery system is the instructor. Educators trained in the traditional model fo college instruction are sometimes less successful with adult learners because they may not be familar with the different strengths and needs of their students. If teaching stands for providing information, then facilitating learning (as the instructor of adult students must) stand for integrating, applying and contextualizing information. It stands for applvina theory to practical situations, for linking the abstract with the concrete and for learning by doing.

Successful facilitation of learning allows students to share what they know. It uses a variety fo processes and materials to accommodate different learning styles. It takes advantage of cooperative goal structures to meet learning objectives and maximize retention of the material.

Adult learners want and need to see a connection between their lives and any course content or program requirements. Adult students need and deserve the sense that they are in the presence of people who make it worth their while to attend class or a given training session. They expect peers that are truly peers and an instructor who has something to ofter beyond the book. They expect to be respected, have their concerns taken seriously and be given opportunities for their voices to be heard If learning objectives do not match learning needs, learning cannot and will not take place.

There are other challenges adults face in a learning situation. Many of us have had less than perfect learning experiences in the past, and the burden of those negative experiences is a silent presence in every adult education situation. Especially at the outset of a program or course of study, anxiety or ambivalence about being in a learning situation again must be overcome. The successful adult learner will therefore often be a member of a sustaining peer support group. Cooperative learning not only serves to intensify the learning process, it also strengthens the adult learner's commitment by surrounding him or her with people who share similar goals, pressures and anxieties.

The University of Phoenix is an academic system that targets the adult learner. The University of Phoenix' unique teaching/learning model was developed in 1976 by the University's founder, Dr. John Sperling, and has helped to make the institution the largest private accredited university in the nation. The University of Phoenix has a current student population of about 40,000 at 18 campuses across the United States and in Puerto Rico and is committed exclusively to working adult learners and their educational needs.

The San Diego campus of the University of Phoenix currently serves 2,600 students in five undergraduate and six graduate degree programs with locations in Kearny Mesa, Vista, Chula Vista and Rancho Bernardo.

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6. 30 THINGS WE KNOW FOR SURE ABOUT ADULT LEARNING

By Ron and Susan Zemke

Innovation Abstracts Vol VI, No 8, March 9, 1984

A variety of sources provides us with a body of fairly reliable knowledge about adult learning. This knowledge might be divided into three basic divisions : things we know about adult learners and their motivation, things we know about designing curriculum for adults, and things we know about working with adults in the classroom.

Motivation to learn

1. Adults seek out learning experiences in order to cope with specific life-changing events- e.g., marriage, divorce, a new job, a promotion, being fired, retiring, losing a loved one, moving to a new city.
2. The more life change events an adult encounters, the more likely he or she is to seek out learning opportunities. Just as stress increases as life-change events accumulate, the motivation to cope with change through engagement in a learning experience increases.
3. The learning experiences adults seek out on their own are directly related-at least in their perception-to the life-change events that triggered the seeking.
4. Adults are generally willing to engage in learning experiences before, after, or even during the actual life change event. Once convinced that the change is a certainty, adults will engage in any learning that promises to help them cope with the transition.
5. Adults who are motivated to seek out a learning experience do so primarily because they have a use for the knowledge or skill being sought. Learning is a means to an end, not an end in itself.
6. Increasing or maintaining one's sense of self-esteem and pleasure are strong secondary motivators for engaging in learning experiences.

Curriculum Design

1. Adult learners tend to be less interested in, and enthralled by, survey courses, they tend to prefer single concept, single-theory courses that focus heavily on the application of the concept to relevant problems. This tendency increases with age
2. Adults need to be able to integrate new ideas with what they already know if they are going to keep-and use-the new information.
3. Information that conflicts sharply with what is already held to be true, and thus forces a re-evaluation or the old material, is integrated more slowly.
4. Information that has little "conceptual overlap" with what is already known is acquired slowly.
5. Fast-paced, complex or unusual learning tasks interfere with the learning of the concepts of data they are intended to teach or illustrate.
6. Adults tend to compensate for being slower in some psychomotor learning tasks by being more accurate and making fewer trial-and-error ventures.
7. Adults tend to take errors personally and are more likely to let them affect self-esteem Therefore, they tend to apply tried-and-true solutions and take fewer risks.
8. The curriculum designer must know whether the concepts or ideas will be in concert or in conflict with the learner. Some instruction must be designed to effect a change in belief and value systems.
9. Programs need to be designed to accept viewpoints from people in different life stages and with different value "sets."
10. A concept needs to be "anchored" or explained from more than one value set and appeal to more than one developmental life stage.
11. Adults prefer self-directed and self-designed learning projects over group-learning experiences led by a professional, they select more than one medium for learning, and they desire to control pace and start/stop time.
12. Nonhuman media such as books, programmed instruction and television have become popular with adults in recent years.

13. Regardless of media, straightforward how-to is the preferred content orientation. Adults cite a need for application and how-to information as the primary motivation for beginning a learning project.
14. self-direction does not mean isolation. Studies of self-directed learning indicate that self-directed projects involve an average of 10 other people as resources, guides, encouragers and the like. But even for the self-professed, self-directed learner, lectures and short seminars get positive ratings, especially when these events give the learner face-to-face, one-to-one access to an expert.

In the Classroom

1. The learning environment must be physically and psychologically comfortable ; long lectures, periods of interminable sitting and the absence of practice opportunities rate high on the irritation scale.
2. Adults have something real to lose in a classroom situation. Self-esteem and ego are on the line when they are asked to risk trying a new behavior in front of peers and cohorts. Bad experiences in traditional education, feelings about authority and the preoccupation with events outside the classroom affect in-class experience.
3. Adults have expectations, and it is critical to take time early on to clearify and articulate all expectations before getting into content. The instructor can assume responsibility only for his or her own expectations, not for those' of students.
4. Adults dring a great deal of life experience into the classroom, an invaluable asset to be acknowledged, tapped and used. Adults can learn well-and much-from dialogue with respected peers.
5. Instructors who have a tendency to hold forth rather than facilitate can hold that tendency in check-or compensate for it-by concentrating on the use of open-ended questions to draw out relevant student knowledge and experience.
6. New Knowledge has to be integrated with previous knowledge ; students must actively participate in the learning experience. The learner is dependent on the instructor for

confirming feedback on skill practice ; the instructor is dependent on the learner for feedback about curriculum and in-class performance.

7. The key to the instructor role is control. The instructor must balance the presentation of new material, debate and discussion, sharing of relevant student experiences, and the clock. Ironically, it seems that instructors are best able to extablish control when they risk giving it up. When they shelve egos and stifle the tendency to be threatened by challenge to plans and methods, they gain the kind of facilitative control needed to effect adult learning.
8. The instructor has to protect minority opinion, keep disagreements civil and unheated, make connections between various opinions and ideas, and keep reminding the group of the variety of potential solutions to the problem. The instructor is less advocate than orchestrator.
9. Integration of new knowledge and skill requires transition time and focused effort on application.
10. Learning and teaching theories function better as resources than as a Rosetta stone A skill-training task can draw much from the behavioral approach, for example, while personal growth-centered subjects seem to draw gainfully from humanistic concepts. An eclectic, rather than a single theory-based approach to developing strategies and procedures, is recommended for matching instruction to learning tasks.

The next five years will eclipse the last fifty in terms of hard data production on adult learning. For the pressent, we must recognize that adults want their learning to be problem-oriented, personalized and accepting or their need for self-direction and personal responsibility.

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7. MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Source Unknown

Abraham Maslow developed a theory of personality that has influenced a number of different fields, including education. This wide influence is due in part to the high level of practicality of Maslow's theory. This theory accurately describes many realities of personal experiences. Many people find they can understand what Maslow says, They can recognize some features of their experience or behavior which is true and identifiable but which they have never put into words.

Maslow is a humanistic psychologist. Humanists do not believe that human beings are pushed and pulled by mechanical forces, either of stimuli and reinforcements (behaviorism) or of unconscious instinctual impulses (psychoanalysis). Humanists focus upon potentials. They believe that humans strive for an upper level of capabilities. Humans seek the frontiers of creativity, the highest reaches of consciousness and wisdom. This has been labeled "fully functioning person," "healthy personality", or as Maslow calls this level, "self-actualizing person."

Maslow has set up a hierarchic theory of needs. All of his basic needs are instinctoid, equivalent of instincts in animals. Humans start with a very weak disposition that is then fashioned fully as the person grows. If the environment is right, people will grow straight and beautiful, actualizing the potentials they have inherited. If the environment is not "right" (and mostly it is not) they will not grow tall and straight and beautiful.

Maslow has set up a hierarchy of five levels of basic needs. Beyond these needs, higher levels of needs exist. These include needs for understanding, esthetic appreciation and purely spiritual needs. In the levels of the five basic needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied, nor the third until the second has been satisfied, and so on. Maslow's basic needs are as follows:

Physiological Needs

These are biological needs. They consist of needs for oxygen, food, water, and a relatively constant body temperature. They are the strongest needs because if a person were deprived of all needs, the physiological ones would come first in the person's search for satisfaction.

Safety Needs

When all physiological needs are satisfied and are no longer controlling thoughts and behaviors, the needs for security can become active. Adults have little awareness of their security needs except in times of emergency or periods of disorganization in the social structure (such as widespread rioting). Children often display the signs of insecurity and the need to be safe.

Needs of Love, Affection and Belongingness When the needs for safety and for physiological well-being are satisfied, the next class of needs for love, affection and belongingness can emerge. Maslow states that people seek to overcome feelings of loneliness and alienation. This involves both giving and receiving love, affection and the sense of belonging.

Needs for Esteem

When the first three classes of needs are satisfied, the needs for esteem can become dominant. These involve needs for both self-esteem and for the esteem a person gets from others. Humans have a need for a stable, firmly based, high level of self-respect, and respect from others. when these needs are satisfied, the person feels self-confident and valuable as person in the world. When these needs are frustrated. the person feels inferior, weak, helpless and worthless.

Needs for Self-Actualization

When all of the foregoing needs are satisfied, then and only then are the needs for self-actualization activated. Maslow describes self-actualization as a person's need to

be and do that which the person was "born to do." "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, and a poet must write." These needs make themselves felt in signs of restlessness. The person feels on edge, tense, lacking something, in short, restless. If a person is hungry, unsafe, not loved or accepted, or lacking self-esteem, it is very easy to know what the person is restless about. It is not always clear what a person wants when there is a need for self-actualization.

MASLOW's HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

The hierarchic theory is often represented as a pyramid, with the larger, lower levels representing the lower needs, and ther upper point representing the need for self-actualization. Maslow believes that the only reason that people would not move well in direction of self-actualization is because of hindrances placed in their way by society. He states that education is one of these hindrances. He recommends ways education can switch from its usual person-stunting tactics to person-growing approaches. Maslow states that educators should respond to the potential an individual has for growing into a self-actualizing person of his/her own kind. Ten points that educators should address are listed:

1. We should teach people to be *authentic,* to be aware of their inner selves and to hear their inner-feeling voices.
2. We should teach people to *transcend their cultural conditioning* and become world citizens.
3. We should help people *discover their vocation in life,* their calling, fate or destiny, This is especially focused on finding the right career and the right mate.
4. We should teach people that *life is precious,* that there is joy to be experienced in life, and if people are open to seeing the good and joyous in all kinds of situations, it makes life worth living.
5. We must *accept the person* as he or she is and help the person learn their inner nature. From real knowledge of aptitudes and xlimitations we can know what to build upon, what potentials are really there.

6. We must see that the person's basic *needs are satisfied.* This includes safety, belongingness, and esteem needs.
7. We should *refreshen consciousnees,* teaching the person to appreciate beauty and the other good things in nature and in living.
8. We should teach people that *controls are good,* and complete abandon is bad, It takes control to improve the quality of life in all areas.
9. We should teach people to transcend the trifling problems and *grapple with the serious problems in life.* These include the problems of injustice, of pain, suffering, and death
10. We must teach people to be *good choosers.* they must be given practice in making good choices.

8. How People Learn

by Don Elkington

"How can you say that? How can you even think that?"

"You mean you study with the radio on? that would never work for me."

"Can you believe it? That guy didn't get our point at all!"

How often have you heard people question the ways in which other people learn? As a trainer have you ever caught yourself saying anything like the comments above? As Klas Mellander (author of "The Power Of Learning : Fostering Employee Growth") has said: "The purpose of training is to make learning possible." So, as trainers, we need to make sure that we understand how our adult students learn. The problem is, it isn't easy to quantify.

"Adults don't fit into neat categories... I never seem to fit tightly into any single box when I submit to those style assessments... I don't even look out of the same Johari window all the time." ...Ora A Spaid in the book "The Consummate Trainer : A Practitioner's Perspective" Try asking a group of people how to spell a difficult word. Watch what they do...some close their eyes and whisper ot themselves, some appear to be writing with an invisible pen, some hunt around for paper so they can write with a real pen or pencil. You see? Some people hear the spelling, some see it, and some feel it. So if adults learn differently, what should we, as trainers. do to help? How can we possibly serve the learning needs of our students? There are two common sense answers to the question.

The first answer is asking them. A good trainer can use activities, instruments, or discussion to discover how students prefer to learn. The second answer is to make sure that you have a solid understanding of the commonalties of adult learners. There are certain basic things that you can take for grandted when helping adults learn.

The Learning Process

Here's the learning process in a nutshell. Attention makes us receptive to infomation, which we process together with prior knowledge, until we arrive at conclusions and under-

standing, which we then apply and test for confirmation.

Attention

the first thing a trainer should do is get the learner's attention. I'm not talking about a joke or a shout, both proven attention-getters. I'm talking about helping the learner understand why today's training is important ot them. Why should the learner work hard to master this stuff? If you can answer that, you are well on your way information.

Since most groups of adults have a variety of learning styles, the training information needs to be presented in a variety of ways. Use written words. visuals, audio, live action, practice, etc. there needs to be a mixture within every session. If that were not the case, if everyone learned the same way, we could just give everyone a book and be done with it.

Process With Prior Experience

All adults compare new information with their previous knowledge and experience. As a trainer you need to give learners the chance to reflect, question, and compare. Perhaps you could use small group discussions to give learners the chance to draw from their past and link it to today's information. A smart trainer builds this step into the program, because the learners are going to do it anyway. How many times have you heard learners say things like : "This isn't the way we did it before." When I worked at Freddie's Fish House we did it this way." "I just wasn't raised to see things this way." It makes common sense that a trainer will allow the learners to discuss these thoughts in an open and supportive way.

Conclusions And Understanding

It is the learner's job to draw conclusions for themselves about how the training will be used. All learners have their own unique perspective, experience, and learning style, and that will affect how they finally understand the training. The trainer's job is help the learners move through the material in an orderly and effective way, giving them time to practice new skills, and draw their own conclusions.

Application And Testing

After training is over, the learners will go back to work and try to decide if the information

they received in training is worthwhile or just a pile of compost. No trainer looking over their shoulder, no flip charts, no videos, no prizes, and no doughnuts. The learner will experiment, test, and ultimately accept or reject the training. There is nothing the trainer can do to stop them. So, the common sense trainer builds this into the program. Encourage learners to experiment. During the follow-up phase of the program, the trainer can check on the experimentation and eventual application of the training.

Feelings

There is another issue that clouds the adult learning process...adults have feelings. Adults usually manage to look calm and rational, especially at work, but the prospect of training can stir deep feelings. For those of you who read. The Hobbit earlier in life, you may remember this quote : "He had a feeling that the answer was quite different and that he ought to know it, but he could not think of it. He began to get frightened, and that is bad for thinking."

When dealing with learning, especially with adults, it is important to address the feelings the learners may have. So, what feelings may be present? The long list could include :

Anger

Anxiety

Depression

Embarrassment

Excitement

Fear

Frustration

Happiness

Resentment

It makes sense, then, that a smart trainer will plan for the emotions that accompany learning. Plan for an environment that encourages, welcomes, and rewards the sharing of feelings.

Poetry As Summary

Looking at ourselves as trainers it is important to ask, "Why do I do what I do?" Here are some thoughts on teaching and learning from the Danish philosopher Soren Kierkegaard. The first time I read this poem I was disturbed that it didn't rhyme. I now realize that this is a traslation from the original Danish (I wonder if it rhymes in Danish?). Look at yourself. what is your motivation for being a trainer?

If we wish to succeed
in helping someone to reach a particular goal
we must first find out where he is now
and start from there.
If we cannot do this.
we merely delude ourselves
into believing that we can help others.
Before we can help someone,
we must know more than he does,
but most of all,
we must understand what he understands.
If we cannot do that, our knowing more will not help.
If we nonetheless wish to show how much we know.
it is only because we are vain and arrogant,
and our ture goal is to be admired.
not to help others.
All genuine helpfulness
starts with humility before those we wish to help,
so we must understand
that helping
is not a wish to dominate

9. What Is Andragogy?

Knowles, Malcoms.

The Modern Practice of Adult Education : From Pedagogy to Andragogy Revised and Updated. Chicago : Arsociation Press. Follett Publishing Company, 1980

In the Beginning Was Pedagogy

Until recently there was only one model of assumptions about learning and the characteristics of learners on which educators could base their curricula and teaching practices. It evolved in the monastic schools of Europe between the seventh and twelfth centuries and came to dominate secular schools when they were organized in the twelfth century and universities when they began emerging, first in Bologna and Paris, toward the close of the twelfth century. This was the model of *pedagogy*–a term derived from the Greek words *paid* (meaning "child") and *agogus* (meaning "leading"). So "pedagogy" means, literally, the art and science of teaching children.

The pedagogical assumptions about learning and learners were, therefore, based initially on observations by the monks in teaching very young children relatively simple skills–originally mostly reading and writing. With the spread of elementary schools throughout Europe and North America–and much of the rest of the world, especially by missionaries–in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries this model was adopted and reinforced. And when educational psychologists started scientifically studying learning around the turn of the twentieth century they further contributed to the enthronement of the pedagogical model by limiting their research mostly to the reactions of children and animals to didactic teaching. In fact, as we shall see later, we didn't get much knowledge about *learning* (in contrast to reactions to teaching) until studies on adult learning began to appear after World War II.

When adult education began to be organized systematically during the 1920 s, teachers of adults began experiencing several problems with the pedagogical model.

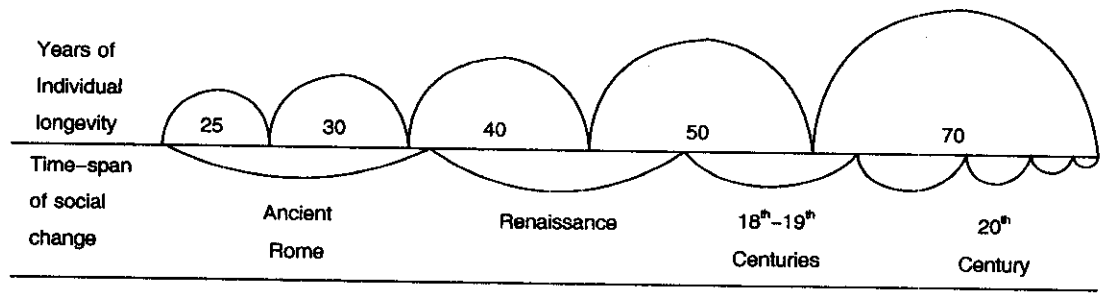
One problem was that pedagogy was premised on a conception of the purpose

of education–namely, the transmittal of knowledge and skills that had stood the test of time–that adult learners seemed to sense was insufficient. Accordingly, their teachers found them to be resistant frequently to the strategies that pedagogy prescribed,including fact–laden lectures, assigned readings, drill, quizzes, rote memorizing, and examinations. Adults appeared to want something more than this, and drop–out rates were high.

Although the teachers were not aware of it, one of the great philosophers of this century, Alfred North Whitehead, was suggesting what was wrong. In an obscure footnote he pointed out that it was appropriate to define education as a process of transmittal of what is known only when the time–span of major cultural change was greater than the life–span of individuals. Under this condition, what people learn in their youth will remain valid and useful for the rest of their lives[1]. But, Whitehead emphasized, "We are living in the first period in human history for which this assumption is false...today this time–span is considerably shorter than that of human life, and accordingly our training must prepare individuals to face a novelty of conditions.[1]" An attempt is made in Exhibit 3 to portray Whitehead's concept graphically.

Exhibit 3

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE TIME–SPAN OF SOCIAL CHANGE TO INDIVIDUAL LIFE–SPAN



[1]Alfred N. Whitehead. "Introduction," **Wallace B.** Donham, *Business adrift* (New York : Mc Graw–Hill Book Co., 1931), pp.viii–xix.

Note that up to the early part of the twentieth century the time-span of major cultural change (e.g., massive inputs of new knowledge, technological innovation, vocational displacement, population mobility, change in political and economic systems, etc.) extended over several generations, whereas in the twentieth century several cultural revolutions have already occurred and the pace is accelerating. Under this new condition, knowledge gained at any point of time is largely obsolete within a matter of years; and skills that made people productive in their twenties become out-of-date in their thirties. So it is no longer functional to define education as a process of transmitting what is known; it must now be defined as a lifelong process of continuing inquiry. And so the most important learning of all-for both children and adults-is learning how to learn, the skills of self-directed inquiry.

Another problem the teachers of adults experienced with the pedagogical model was that many of the assumptions about the characteristics of learners did not seem to fit their adult students. And so they began experimenting with different assumptions and found out that they often produced better results.

Then Came Andragogy

Between 1929 and 1948 the *Journal of Adult Education,* published by the American Association for Adult Education, carried articles by successful teachers of adults[2] describing ways in which they were treating adults that deviated from the pedagogical model. Frequently the authors of these articles expressed a sense of guilt for violating academic standards (such as substituting interviews for quizzes). Obviously, they were feeling guilty because they had no theory to support their practices; they were simply being pragmatic and following their intuitions.

During the 1950s there began appearing books which analyzed these teachers'

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[2]"Successful teachers of adults" is operationally defined as teachers who can retain their students; note that this is not a criterion of success for teachers of children under compulsory attendance.

reports and extracted principles that were common to them–my first book, *Informal Adult Education,* published in 1950, was just such a listing of principles, but it made on attempt to envelop them in a unifying theory.

Then, in the 1960s, we began getting findings from scientifically designed research that focused on the internal processes of adult learning. The seminal study that launched this direction of movement was Cyril O. Houle's *The Inquiring Mind,* published by the University of Wisconsin Press in 1961. Houle found, through in–depth interviews with twenty–two "continuing learners." That his subjects fell into three subgroups:

> The first,...the *goal–oriented,* are those who use education as a means of accomplishing fairly clear–cut objectives. The second, the *activity–oriented,* are those who take part because they find in the circumstances of the learning a meaning which has no necessary connection, and often no connection at all, with the content or the announced purposes of the activity. The third, the *learning–oriented,* seek knowledge for its own sake. These are not pure types, the best way to represent them pictorially would be by three circles which overlap their edges. But the central emphasis of each subgroup is clearly discernible.[3]

One of Houle's students, Allen Tough, extended this line of investigation from his position on the faculty of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education later in the same decade. Tough's research question was, paraphrased: "How do adults learn naturally–when they are not being taught." His first findings, reported in two reports, *Learning Without a Teacher* (1967) and *The Adult's Learning Projects* (1917), showed that 1) almost all adults engage in from one to twenty major learning projects each year–with the average number being around eight; 2) only about 10 percent of the learning projects were associated with educational institutions; 3) there is a fairly universal "natural" process of learning–adults who undertake to learn something on their own go through a similar

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[3]Cyril O. Houle, The inquiring Mind (Madison, Wis. : University of Wisconsin Press, 1961). pp. 15–16.

sequence of steps; 4) adults almost always turn to somebody for help at one or more points in this sequence; 5) usually they go to "helpers" who have not been trained as teachers, but frequently when they go to teachers the teachers interfere with their learning by substituting their own pedagogical sequence of steps rather than flowing with the learners' natural sequence.

A great deal of other knowledge about adult learning was accumulating during the sixties from related disciplines–clinical psychology, developmental psychology (especially the new group of life-span developmental psychologists), gerontology, sociology, and anthropology–both in North America and Europe. By and large, this research-based knowledge supported the intuitions of the earlier teachers, and theorists began fitting the knowledge drawn from both sources into a comprehensive, coherent theory of adult learning.

Early in this process European adult educators felt the need for a label for this new theoretical model that would enable them to talk about it in parallel with pedagogy. They coined the label "andragogy," which is based on the Greek word *anér* (with the stem *andr-*), meaning "man, not boy" or adult. I first learned of the new label from a Yugoslavian adult educator in the mid-sixties and used it in an article in *Adult Leadership* in 1968. Since that time it has appeared with increasing frequency in the literature around the world, and presumably will be listed in the standard dictionaries before long.[4]

Originally I defined andragogy as the art and science of helping adults learn, in contrast to pedagogy as the art and science of teaching children. Then an increasing number of teachers in elementary and secondary schools (and a few in colleges) began reporting to me that they were experimenting with applying the concepts of andragogy to

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[4]For a detailed description of the evolution of the term "andragogy," see my *The Adult Learner.* A Neglected Species (Houston : Gulf Publishing Co., 2nd ed., 1978), pp. 48-51; and for further elaboration on the etymology of "andragogy" see the correspondence between the author and the publishers of Merriam-Webster dictionaries in Appendix A.

the education of youth and finding that in certain situations they were producing superior learning. So I am at the point now of seeing that andragogy is simply another model of assumptions about learners to be used alongside the pedagogical model of assumptions, thereby providing two alternative models for testing out the assumptions as to their "fit" with particular situations. Furthermore, the models are probably most useful when seen not as dichotomous but rather as two ends of a spectrum, with a realistic assumption in a given situation failing in between the two ends. For example, taking the assumption regarding dependency versus self-directedness, a six-year-old may be highly self-directing in learning the rules of a game but quite dependent in learning to use a calculator; on the other hand, a forty-year-old may be very dependent in learning to program a computer but completely self-directing in learning to repair a piece of furniture. As I see it, whenever a pedagogical assumption is the realistic one, then pedagogical strategies are appropriate, regardless of the age of the learner-and vice versa. But I would like to make one caveat : an ideological pedagogue-one who has a deep loyalty and commitment to the pedagogical model-may be tempted to underrate the extent to which an andragogical assumption may be realistic and may, for example, want to keep a learner dependent long after the learner has become able to be self-directing.

Assumptions of Pedagogy and Andragogy

Exhibit 4 portrays how I see the difference in assumptions between the two models:

Exhibit 4

A COMPARISON OF THE ASSUMPTIONS OF PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY

Concept of the learner	The role of the learner is, by definition, a dependent one. The teacher is expected by society to take full responsibility for determining	It is a normal aspect of the Process of maturation for a person to move from dependency toward increasing self-directedness, but

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	what is to be learned, how it is to be learned, when it is to be learned, how it is to learned and if it has been learned.	at different rates for different people and in different dimensions of life. Teachers have a responsibility to encourage and nurture this movement. Adults have a deep psychological need to be generally self-directing, although they may be dependent in particular temporary situations.
Role of learners' experience	The experience learners bring to a learning situation is of little worth. It may be used as a starting point, but the experience from which learners will gain the most is that of the teacher, the textbook-writer, the audiovisual aid producer, and other experts. Accordingly, the primary techniques in education are transmittal techniques-lecture, assigned reading. AV presentations.	As people grow and develop they accumulate an increasing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasingly rich resource for learning-for themselves and for others. Furthermore, people attach more meaning to learnings they gain from experience than those they acquire passively. Accordingly, the primary techniques in education are experiential techniques-laboratory experiments, discussion, problem-solving cases, simulation exercises, field experience, and the like.
Readiness to learn	People are ready to learn whalever society (especially the	People become ready to learn something when they experience

Regarding:	Pedagogy	Andragogy
	school) says they ought to learn, provided the pressures on them (like fear of failure) are great enough. Most people of the same age are ready to learn the same things. Therefore, learning should be organized into a fairly standardized curriculum, with a uniform step-by-step progression for all learners.	a need to learn it in order to cope more satisfyingly with real-life tasks or problems. The educator has a responsibility to create conditions and provide tools and procedures for helping learners discover their "needs to know." And learning programs should be organized around life-application categories and sequenced according to the learners' readiness to learn.
Orientation to learning	Learners see education as a process of acquiring subject matter content, most of which they understand will be useful only at a later time in life. Accordingly, the curriculum should be organized into subject-matter units (e.g.,courses) which follow the logic of the subject- (e.g., from ancient to modern history, from simple to complex mathematics or science). People are subject-centered in their orientation to learning.	Learners see education as a process of developing increased competence to achieve their full potential in life. They want to be able to apply whatever knowledge and skill they gain today to living more effectively tomorrow. Accordingly, learning experiences should be organized around competency-development categories. People are performance-centered in their orientation to learning.

To summarize, andragogy is premised on at least these four crucial assumptions about the characteristics of learners that are different from the assumptions on which

traditional pedagogy is premised. These assumptions are that as individuals mature:

1) their self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward being a self-directed human being; 2) they accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasingly rich resource for learning; 3) their readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of their social roles; and 4) their time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly, their orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of performance-centeredness.

Some Implications of the Assumptions for Practice

I would like to explore these assumptions a little more fully and suggest some of their implications for educational practice.

Self-Concepts and Teachers' Concepts of Learners

Children enter this world in a condition of complete dependency. Their needs, except for purely biological functions, must be taken care of by someone else. The first image children get of themselves as separate entities is that of dependent personalities whose lives are managed for them by the adult world. At home, often at play, in church, in the community, and in school, they expect the will of adults to be imposed on them. That is what life is like when you are a kid.

This self-concept of dependency is encouraged and reinforced by the adult world. In fact, society defines the appropriate role of children as that of learners; this is their full-time occupation, the source of their rewards and self-fulfillment. And on the whole, this role is defined as the more or less passive one of receiving and storing up the information adults have decided children should have.

As children's self-identities begin to take shape, they begin to see themselves as having the capacity to start making decisions for themselves, at first experimentally and in

small matters that do not impinge on the adult world. But increasingly, as they mature, children's self-concepts move in the direction of greater self-direction, and during adolescence their need to take significant responsibility for managing their own lives becomes so strong that it often puts them in open rebellion against control by the adult world. The tragedy is that in our culture the adult world tends to hold onto its concept of the child as a dependent personality until the last possible moment.

Although this cultural lag between children's capacity to take responsibility and the freedom the adult world allows them to take responsibility applies to almost all aspects of their lives, it is especially evident in regard to their education. Interestingly, in the kindergarten and early primary years our teachers typically involve students in planning and conducting learning activities to a considerable degree. But as children move up the educational ladder, they encounter more and more of the responsibility for their learning being taken by the teachers, the curriculum planner, and their parents. The net effect is to freeze them into self-concepts of dependency.

But something dramatic happens to their self-concepts when people define themselves as adults. They begin to see their normal role in life no longer as being full-time learners. They see themselves increasingly as producers or doers. Their chief sources of self-fulfillment are now their performances as workers, spouses, parents, and citizens. Adults acquire a new status, in their own eyes and in the eyes of others, from these noneducational responsibilities. Their self-concept becomes that of a self-directing personality. They see themselves as being able to make their own decisions and face the consequences, to manage their own lives, In fact, the psychological definition of adulthood is the point at which individuals perceive themselves to be essentially self-directing. And at this point people also develop a deep psychological need to be seen by others as being self-directing.

This fact presents a special problem to teachers of adults. Adults have been so deeply conditioned by their previous schooling (under the pedagogical model) to perceive

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the appropriate role of learner ot be that of a dependent, more or less passive recipient of transmitted content, that even though they may be completely self-directing in all other aspects of their lives, the minute they enter into any activity labeled "education," they sit back, fold their arms, and say. "Teach me." The problem arises when teachers take this stance at face value and start treating adult learners as if they were dependent personalities, for this induces an inner conflict within the adults between this preconditioned intellectual model of the role of learner and the adults' deep psychological need to be self-directing. Hence there is the need to build into our program designs some preparatory experiences that will help adults get a new way of thinking about the role of learner and some new skills in self-directed learning.[5]

Ofter there is another ingredient in the self-concept of adults that affects their role as learners. They may carry over from their previous experience with schooling the perception that they are not very smart, at least in regard to academic work. This fact about the adult psyche has several consequences for adult education. In the case of some adults the remembrance of the classroom as a place where one is treated with disrespect and may fail is so strong that it serves as a serious barrier to their becoming involved in adult-education activities at all. This barrier can be reduced by interpreting adult learning activities as being different and enjoyable and perhaps by having the meetings in nonacademic locations. In the case of other adults, simply providing them with some early success experiences that will help them build positive self-concepts as learners will be sufficient.

Fortunately, once adults make the discovery that they can take responsibility for their own learning. as they do for other facets of their lives, they experience a sense of release and exhilaration. They then enter into learning with deep ego-involvement. with results that are frequently startling both to themselves and to their teachers, Teachers who

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[5]My Self-Directed Learning : A Guide for Learners and Teachers (Chicago : Association Press/Follett, 1975) was written as a resource for this purpose.

have helped their adult students to achieve this breakthrough report repeatedly that it is one of the most rewarding experiences of their lives.

Implications for Practice

Several implications for practice flow from this difference in assumptions about learners.

1. *The learning climate.* The self-concept of being an adult has several consequences regarding the requirements of an environment that will be conducive to adult learning. It suggests that the physical environment should be one in which adults feel at ease. Furnishings and equipment should be adult-sized and comfortable; meeting rooms should be arranged informally and should be decorated according to adult tastes; and acoustics and lighting should take into account declining audiovisual acuity.

Even more importantly, the psychological climate should be one which causes adults to feel accepted, respected, and supported, in which there exists a spirit of mutuality between teachers and students as joint inquirers; in which there is freedom of expression without fear of punishment or ridicule. People tend to feel more "adult" in an atmosphere that is friendly and informal, in which they are known by name and valued as unique individuals, than in the traditional school stmosphere of formality, semianonymity, and status differentiation between teacher and student.

In andragogical practice, care is taken to determine what are the symbols of childishness to particular groups of adults, and to remove them. For some-particularly undereducated adults-it is a school building, in which case social-agency facilities, churches, commercial properties, or living rooms would probably be environments more conducive to learning. For others a podium on a stage makes them feel that they are being talked down to, in which case a small table on the floor would provide a more appropriate work space for the teacher. Many adults associate rooms in which chairs are placed in rows with childhood regimentation and passivity, and find rooms in which participants are seated in small groups in circles or around tables more conducive to adult-type relationships. A few

adults report that chalkboards are a symbol of childishness to them, which may help to explain the growing popularity in adult education of newsprint-pads on easels.

The behavior of the teacher probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor, however. Teachers convey in many ways whether their attitude is one of interest in and respect for the students or whether they see the students essentially as receiving sets for transmissions of wisdom. Teachers who take the time and trouble to get to know their students individually and who call them by name (especially by first name) obviously convery the first set of attitudes. But probably the behavior that most explicitly demonstrates that a teacher really cares about students and respects their contributions is the act of really listening to what the students say.

The notion of a climate of adultness can be extended beyond individual classrooms and applied to total institutions. Indeed, such a climate is likely to be established in classrooms if it pervades the whole institution and is reflected in its architecture, decor, policies, procedures,leadership style, and human relations. One can sense rather quickly on entering an institution, for example, whether it cares more about people or things, whether it is concerned about the feelings and welfare of individuals or herds them through like cattle, and whether it views adults as dependent personalities or self-directing human beings.

2. Diagnosis of nees. The adult's self-concept of self-directivity is in direct conflict with the traditional practice of the teacher telling the students what they need to learn. Indeed it is even in conflict with the social philosophy that society has a right to impose its ideas about what they need to learn on them. Of course, adults will learn what others want them to learn if their power to punish them for not learning is strong enough. But they are more deeply motivated to learn those things they see the need to learn.

In andragogy, therefore, great emphasis is placed on the involvement of adult learners in a process of *self-diagnosis* of needs for learning. As will be described in greater detail in Chapter 11, this process consists of three phases: 1) constructing a model

of the competencies or characteristics required to achieve a given ideal model of performance, so that the learner has some vision of the "good" supervisor, the "good" public speaker, the "good" parent, and the like–and of the competencies required to become "good," It is in this model-building phase that the values and expectations of the teacher, the institution, and society are amalgamated with those of the learner into a composite picture; 2) providing diagnostic experiences in which the learners can assess their present level of competencies in the light of those portrayed in the model; this is an underdeveloped area of andragogical technology but one in which there is currently a ferment of invention. Such techniques as critical incident processes, sociodrama, computerized games. laboratory methods, and simulation exercises are being developed to enable learners to perform and then to get feedback that helps them in objectively assessing the strengths and weaknesses of their performance: 3) helping the learners to measure the gaps between their present competencies and those required by the model, so that they experience a feeling of dissatisfaction about the distance between where they are and where they would like to be, and so are able to identify specific directions of desirable growth. This experiencing of self-induced dissatisfaction with present inadequacies, coupled with a clear sense of direction for self-improvement, is in fact a good definition of "motivation to learn."

3. *The planning process.* There seems to be a law (or, at least, a tendency) of human nature that goes like this : human beings tend to feel committed to a decision (or an activity) to the extent that they have participated in making it (or planning it). Teachers of adults who do all the planning for their students, who come into the classroom and impose preplanned activities on them, typically experience apathy, resentument, and probably withdrawal. This imposition of the will of the teacher is incongruent with the adult's self-concept of self-directivity.

Accordingly, a basic element in the technology of andragogy is the involvement of the learners in the process of planning their own learning, with the teacher serving as a

procedural guide and content resource. When the number of students is small enough, they can all be involved in the planning directly; when the number gets much over thirty, adult educators make use of representative councils, committees, task forces, teams, or other devices through which the learners feel that they are participating in the planning by proxy.

The function of planning, with which the remainder of this book is largely concerned, consists of translating diagnosed needs into specific educational objectives (or directions of growth), designing and conducting learning experiences to achieve these objectives, and evaluating the extent to which these objectives have been accomplished. In andragogy, responsibility for performing this function is a mutual one between the learners and the teacher.

4. *Conducting learning experiences.* In traditional pedagogical practice (and in contemporary programmed instruction) the function of the teacher is defined as "to teach." The teacher is expected to take full responsibility for what happens in the teaching learning transaction. The learner's role tends ot be that of a fairly passive recipient of the teacher's instruction.

In contrast, in congruence with the adult's self-concept of self-directivity, anddragogical practice treats the learning-teaching transaction as the mutual responsibility of learners and teacher. In fact, the teacher's role is redefined as that of a procedural technician, resource person, and coinquirer; more a catalyst than an instructor, more a guide than a wizard. Andragogy assumes that a teacher connot really "teach" in the sense of "make a person learn," but that one person can only *help* another person learn. (In my own practice, when I succumb to the compulsion to teach my students something I know they ought to know but that they do not yet know they ought to know, which I sometimes do because bad habits take time to break, they report that it gets in the way of their learning. My practice has improved since I adopted the policy of authorizing them to signal me when they sense this happening.)

Later chapters describe procedures by which learners can responsibly share in taking responsibility for their own learning. Suffice it to say at this point that an andragogical learning situations, whether it be a course, an institute, a training program, or a conference, is alive with meetings of small groups–planning committees, learning–teaching teams, consultation groups. project task forces–sharing responsibility for helping one another learn.

5. *Evaluation of learning.* Probably the crowning instance of incongruity between traditional educational practice and the adult's self–concept of self–directivity is the act of a teacher giving a grade to a student. Nothing makes an adult feel more childlike than being judged by another adult; it is the ultimate sign of disrespect and dependency, as the one who is being judged experiences it.

For this reason, andragogical theory prescribes a process of self–evaluation, in which the teacher devotes energy to helping the adults get evidence for themselves about the progress they are making toward their educational goals. In this process, the strengths and weaknesses of the educational program itself must be assessed in terms of how it has facilitated or inhibited the learning of the students. So evaluation is a mutual undertaking, as are all other phases of the adult learning experience.

In fact, what is happening in practice is that precisely the same procedures that are used for the diagnosis of learning needs are being employed to help the learners measure gains in competence. For instance, by comparing their performance in solving a critical incident at the end of a learning experience with their performance in a similar critical incident at the beginning of the experience, learners can quite precisely measure the changes produced by the experience. Because of the similarity of these two processes, I find myself now thinking less and less in terms of the evaluation of learning and more and more in terms of the *rediagnosis* of learning needs. And I find that, when my adult students perceive what they do at the end of a learning experience as rediagnosing rather than evaluating, they enter into the activity with more enthusiasm and see it as being more constructive. Indeed, many of them report that it launchers them into a new cycle of learning, reinforcing the notion that learning is a continuing process.

This shift from evaluation to self-evaluation or rediagnosis places a heavy burden on teachers of adults. They must set the example of being open to feedback regarding their performance. They must be skillful in establishing a supportive climate in which hard-to-accept information about one's performance can be looked at objectively. And they must be creative about inventing ways in which students can get comprehensive data about their own performance. Some of the techniques available in carrying this burden are explored in later chapters.

My own feeling is that the single most critical difference between children and adults as learners is the difference in assumptions we make about their self-concepts, and this is why these assumptions and their technological implications have been dealt with in such detail. But there are other important differences.

The Role of Experience

Adults enter into any undertaking with a different background of experience from that of their youth. Having lived longer, they have accumulated a greater *volume* of experience. But they have also had different *kinds* of experience. Children have not had the experience of making their own living, marrying, having children, taking real community responsibility, or being responsible for the welfare of others (although they have observed all these things in their families and on television!).

There is, it seems to me, another subtle difference between children and adults as regards their experience. To children, experience is something that happens *to* them; it is an external event that affects them, not an integral part of them. If you ask children who they are, they are likely to identify themselves in terms of who their parents are, who their older brothers and sisters are, where they live, and what school they attend. Their self-identity is largely derived from external sources.

But adults derive their self-indentity from their experience. they define who they are in terms of the accumulation of their unique sets of experience. So if you ask adults who they are, they are likely to identify themselves by describing what their occupations

are, where they have worked, where they have traveled, what their training and experience have equipped them to do, and what their achievements have been. Adults *are* what they have *done*.

Because adults define themselves largely by their experience, they have a deep investment in its value. And so when they find themselves in situations in which their experience is not being used, or its worth is minimized, it is not just their experience that is being rejected–they feel rejected as persons.

These differences in experience between children and adults have at least three consequences for learning: 1) adults have more to contribute to the learning of others; for most kinds of learning they are themselves a rich resource for learning; 2) adults have a richer foundation of experience to which to relate new experiences (and new learnings tend to take on meaning as we are able to relate them to our past experience); 3) adults have acquired a larger number of fixed habits and patterns of thought, and therefore tend to be less open-minded.

Implications for Practice

Several implications for practice flow from these differences in experience.

1. *Emphasis on experiential techniques.* Because adults are themselves richer resources for learning than is true of children, greater emphasis can be placed on techniques that tap the experience of the adult learners, such as group discussion. the case method, the critical-incident process, simulation exercises, role playing, skill-practice exercises, field projects, action projects, laboratory methods, consultative supervision, demonstration, seminars, work conferences, counseling, group therapy, and community development. There is a distinct shift in emphasis in andragogy away from the transmittal techniques so prevalent in youth education–the lecture, assigned readings, and canned audiovisual presentation–toward the more participatory experiential techniques. Indeed, "participation" and "ego-involvement" are boldfaced words in the lexicon of the adult educator, with the assumption often being made that the more active the learner's role in the process, the

more they are probably learning.

2. *Emphasis on practical apptication.* Skillful adult educators have always taken care to see that new concepts or broad generalizations were illustrated by life experiences drawn from the learners. But numerous recent studies on the transfer of learning and the maintenance of behavioral change indicate the desirability of going even further, and actually building into the design of learning experiences provision for the learners to plan–and even rehearse–how they are going to apply their learnings to their day-to-day lives.

3. *Unfreezing and learning to learn from experience.* A growing andragogical practice is to build into the early phases of a course, workshop, conference, institute, or other sequential educational activity an "unfreezing" experience, in which the adults are helped to be able to look at themselves more objectively and free their minds from preconceptions. Many of the diagnostic procedures and structured exercises described in Chapter 11 help to serve this purpose.

Readiness to Learn

It is well accepted in our culture now that children learn best those things that are necessary for them to know in order to advance from one phase of development to the next. These have been dubbed "developmentall tasks" by developmental psychologists;

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individaul, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks.[6]

Each of these developmental tasks produces a "readiness to learn" which at its peak presents a "teachable moment." For example, parents now generally accept the fact that they cannot teach children to walk until they have mastered the art of crawling, their leg

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[6]Robert J. Havighurst. Developmental Tasks and Education (New York : David Mckay Co., 1961), p. 2. By permission.

muscles are strong enought, and they have become frustrated at not being able to stand up and walk the way everybody else does. At that point, and only then, are they able to learn to walk; for it has become their developmental task.

Recent research suggests that the same phenomenon is at work during the adult years. Adults, too, have their phases of growth and resulting developmental tasks, readinesses to learn, and teachable moments. But whereas the developmental tasks of youth tend to be the products primarily of physiological and mental maturation, those of the adult years are the products primarily of the evolution of social roles. Robert J. Havighurst, one of the pioneers in this area of research, divides the adult years into three phases–"early aduthood," middle age," and "later maturity"–and identifies ten social roles of adulthood: worker, mate, parent, homemaker, son or daughter of aging parents, citizen, friend, organization member, religious affiliate, and user of leisure time. The requirements for performing each of these social roles change, according to Havighurst, as we move through the three phases of adult life, thereby setting up changing developmental tasks and, therefore, changing readiness to learn.

For example, in a person's role of worker, the first developmental task is to get a job. At that point individuals are ready to learn anything required to get a job, but they definitely are not ready to study supervision. Having landed a job, they are faced with the task of mastering it so that they will not get fired from it; and at that point they are ready to learn the special skills it requires, the standards that are expected, and how to get along with fellow workers. Having become secure in a basic job, the next task become one of working up the occupational ladder. Now they become ready to learn to becomes a supervisor or executive. Finally, after reaching their ceiling, they face the task of dissolving the role of worker–and to learn about retirement or substitutes for work.

Havighurst illustrates the changes in developmental tasks during the three periods of adult life as follows:

Early Adulthood (ages 18 to 30):

- Selecting a mate
- Learning to live with a marriage partner
- Starting a family
- Rearing children
- Managing a home
- Getting started in an occupation
- Taking on civic responsibility
- Finding a congenial social group

Middle Age (ages 30 to 55):

- Achieving adult civic and social responsibility
- Establishing and maintaining an economic standard of living
- Assisting teenage children to become responsible and happy adults
- Developing adult leisure-time activities
- Relating to one's spouse as a person
- Accepting and adjusting to the physiological changes of middle age
- Adjusting to aging parents

Later Maturity (ages 55 and over):

- Adjusting to decreasing physical strength and health
- Adjusting to retirement and reduced income
- Adjusting to the death of a spouse
- Establishing an explicit affiliation with one's age group
- Meeting social and civic obligations
- Establishing satisfactory physical living arrangements[7]

As Havighurst concludes, "People do not launch themselves into adulthood with

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[7]Ibid.,pp. 72-98.

the momentum of their childhood and youth and simply coast along to old age... Adulthood has its transition points and its crises. It is a *developmental period* in almost as complete a sense as childhood and adolescence are developmental periods."[8]

Since Havighurst's foundational work on developmental tasks, a number of other investigations of the life stages, transitions, passages, crises, and transformations of the adult years have been published; they are listed in the suggested readings at the end of this chapter. I have included my own list of "Life Tasks of American Adults" in Appendix C. The chief value of these lists for the adult-educational practitioner is to stimulate ideas as to what adults at different stages of development are ready to learn. But one word of caution about them : most of the lists are based on studies of middle-class Americans.

Implications for Practice

At least two sets of implications for practice flow from this difference in readiness to learn:

1. The timing of learnings. If the teachable moment for particular adults to acquire a given learning is to be captured, it is obvious that the sequence of the curriculum must be timed so as to be in step with their developmental tasks. This is the appropriate organizing principle for an adult-education program, rather than the logic of the subject matter or the needs of the sponsoring institution. For instance, an orientation program for new workers would not start with the history and philosophy of the corporation, but rather with real-life concerns of new workers: Where will I be work-ing? With whom will I be working? What will be expected of me? How do people dress in this company? What is the time schedule? To whom can I go for help?

There have been some classic examples of the consequences of violating this organizing principle. One was the introduction of courses on supervision in trade schools,

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[8]Robert J. Havighurst and Betty Orr, *Adult Education and Adult* Needs (Bostion : Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1956), p. 1

nursing schools, and other preservice vocational programs after World War II, when there was a great shortage of experienced supervisors. The courses were plagued with absenteeism, flunkouts, and drop-outs-simply because it was not yet a developmental task of people who have not become secure about doing a job themselves to learn how to supervise others in doing the job. Other examples of failure of programs resulting from violation of the readiness-to-learn principle are the several attempts by corporations and at least one national social agency to institute programs on "preparation for retirement" that are geared to people in their forties. Almost universally these programs have resulted in low enrollment, for the simple reason that people whose eyes are still set on going up the occupational ladder are not ready to invest energy in studying how to get off the ladder.

2. *The grouping of learners.* The concept of developmental tasks provides some guidance regarding the grouping of learners. For some kinds of learnings homogeneous groups according to developmental task are more effective. For instance, in a program on child care, young parents would have quite a different set of interests from the parents of adolescent children. For other kinds of learnings, heterogeneous groups would clearly be preferable. For instance, in a program of human-relations training in which the objective is to help people learn to get along better with all kinds of people, it would be important for the groups to cut across occupational, age, status, sex, and perhaps other characteristics that make people different. In my own practice, I have adopted the policy of making provision in the design of any adult-learning activity for a variety of subgroups so as to give the students a flexibility of choice; and I find that they quickly discover colleagues with similar developmental tasks.

Orientation to learning

Adults enter into education with a different time perspective from children, which in turn produces a difference in the way they view learning. Children tend to have a perspective of postponed application on most of their learning. For example, most of what I learned in elementary school I learned in order to be able to get into high school; and

most of what I learned there I learned to prepare me for college; and most of what I learned in college I hoped would prepare me for a happy and productive adult life. To a child, education is essentially a process of the accumulation of a reservoir of subject matter-knowledge and skills-that might be useful later in life. Children tend, therefore, to enter any educational activity in a *subject-centered* frame of mind.

Adults, on the other hand, tend to have a perspective of immediacy of application toward most of their learning. They engage in learning largely in response to pressures they feel from their current life situation. To adults, education is a process of improving their ability to cope with life problems they face now. They tend, therefore, to enter an educational activity in a *problem-centered* or *performance-centered* frame of mind.

Implications for Practice

Several implications for practice flow from this difference in orientation to learning.

1. *The orientation of adult educators.* Just as adults have a different orientation to learning from that of children, so it would seem to follow that a different orientation toward learning is required on the part of educators of adults from the orientation traditionally inculcated in educators of children. Where youth educators can, perhaps appropriately, be primarily concerned with the logical development of subject matter and its articulation from grade to grade according to levels of complexity, adult educators must be primarily attuned to the existential concerns of the individuals and institutions they serve and be able to develop learning experiences that will be articulated with these concerns.

2. *The organization of the curriculum.* The original basis of organization for the curriculum of youth education was the seven subjects-the trivium (grammar, rhetoric, and logic) and quadrivium (arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy) of the medieval schools. Although the number of subjects has proliferated since the Middle Ages, the subject-matter concept of curricular organization still remains relatively intact. But with the emergence of the insights of andragogy the curriculum-which, incidentally, in adult education is increasingly referred to as "program"-of adult education is coming to look less and less like the curriculum of youth education.

Because adult learners tend to be problem-centered in their orientation to learning, the appropriate organizing principle for sequences of adult learning is *problem areas*, not *subjects.* For example, instead of offering courses on "Composition I" and "Composition II," with the first focusing on grammar and the second on writing style, andragogical practice would put in their place "Writing Better Business Letters" and "Writing Short Stories." In the adult courses, matters of grammar and style would be treated in the context of the practical concerns of the learners. Even the broad curricular categories used to describe what adults study have departed from the traditional categories of the academic disciplines. In the *Handbook for Adult Education,* for example, such labels were given to the "Program Areas" as "Education for Family Life," "Education for Social and Public Responsibility," and then "Education for Self-Fulfillment."[9]

3. *The design of learning experiences.* The problem-orientation of the learners implies that the most appropriate starting point for every learning experience is the problems and concerns that the adults have on their minds as they enter. Whereas the opening session of a youth-education activity might be titled "What This Course Is All About," in an adult-educational activity it would more appropriately be titled "What Are You Hoping to Get Out of This Course? Early in the session there would be a problem census or a diagnositc exercise through which the participants would identify the specific problems they want to be able to deal with more adequately. This is not to suggest that a good adult-learning experience ends with the problems the learners are aware of in the beginning, but that is where it starts. There may be other problems that the teacher or institution expects to be dealt with, and these are put into the picture along with the students' problems for negotiation between teacher and students.

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[9]R.M. smith, George Aker, and J.R. Kidd. Handbook of Adult Education (New York : Macmillan, 1970).

Some Other Assumptions about Learning and Teaching

The critical element in any adult-education program is, of course, what happens when a teacher comes face-to-face with a group of learners. As I see it, the andragogical approach to the learning-teaching transaction is premised on three additional assumptions about learning and teaching:

1. *Adults can learn.* The central proposition on which the entire adult-education movement is based is that adults can learn. One of the great moments in the history of the movement occurred at the annual meeting of the American Association for Adult Education held in Cleveland in 1972, when Edward L. Thorndike reported for the first time his findings that the ability to learn declined only very slowly and very slightly after age twenty. Until that moment adult educators had bassed their whole work on blind faith, in direct opposition to the prevailing belief that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks." But now their faith had been vindicated, there was scientific proof that adults can learn.

Actually, Thorndike's early studies did seem to indicate a decline in learning capacity of about I percent per year after age twenty-five. But later studies, especially those of thorndike's colleague Irving Lorge, revealed that what declined was the speed of learning, not intellectual power-and that even this decline was likely to be minimized by continued use of the intellect.

The research to date of adult learning clearly indicates that the basic ability to learn remains essentially unimpaired throughout the life span and that therefore, if individuals do not actually perform as well in learning situations as they could, the cause must be sought in such factors as the followings:

-Adults who have been away from systematic education for some time may underestimate their ability to learn, and this lack of confidence may prevent them from applying themselves wholly.

-Various physiological changes occur in the process of aging, such as decline in visual acuity, reduction in speed of reaction, and lowering of energy levels, which operate as barriers to learning unless compensated for by such devices as louder sound, larger printing, and slower pace.

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- Adults respond less readily to external sanctions for learning (such as grades) than to internal motivation.

2. *Learning is an internal process.* In our inherited folk wisdom there has been a tendency to look upon education as the transmittal of information, to see learning as an almost exclusively intellectual process consisting of the storing of accumulated facts in the filing drawers of the mind. The implicit assumption underlying this view of learning is that it is essentially an external process in the sense that what the student learns is determined primarily by outside forces, such as the excellence of the teacher's presentation, the quality of reading materials, and the effectiveness of school discipline. People holding this view even today insist that teachers' qualifications be judged only by their mastery of subject matter and clamor against their wasting time learning about the psychology of learning. For all practical purposes this view defines the function of the teacher as being to teach subject matter, not students.

A growing body of research into what really happens when learning takes place has put this traditional conception of learning in serious jeopardy. Although there is not yet agreement on the precise nature of the learning process (in fact there are many theories which seem to explain different parts of it), there is agreement that it is an internal process controlled by the learners and engaging their whole being–including intellectual, emotional, and physiological functions. Learning is described psychologically as a process of need-meeting and goal-striving by the learners. This is to say that individuals are motivated to engage in learning to the extent that they feel a need to learn and perceive a personal goal that learning will help to achieve ; and they will invest their energy in making use of available resources (including teachers and readings) to the extent that they perceive them as being relevant to their needs and goals.

The central dynamic of the learning process is thus perceived to be the experience of the learners; experience being defined as the interaction between individuals and their environment. The quality and amount of learning is therefore clearly influenced by the quality and amount of interaction between the learners and their environment and by the educative potency of the environment. The art of teaching is essentially the management

of these two key variables in the learning process-environment and interaction-which together define the substance of the basic unit of learning, a "learning experience." The critical function of the teacher, therefore, is to create a rich environment from which students can extract learning and then to guide their interaction with it so as to optimize their learning from it.

The important implication for adult-education practice of the fact that learning is an internal process is that those methods and techniques which involve the individual most deeply in self-directed inquiry will produce the greatest learning. this principle of ago-involvement lies at the heart of the adult educator's art. In fact, the main thrust of modern adult-educational technology is in the direction of inventing techniques for involving adults in ever-deeper processes of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning, in formulating their own objectives for learning, in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives. The truly artistic teachers of adults perceive the locus of responsibility for learning to be in the learner; they conscientiously suppress their own compulsion to teach what they know students ought to learn in favor of helping students learn for themselves what they want to learn. I have described this faith in the ability of individuals to learn for themselves as the "theological foundation" of adult education, and I believe that without this faith a teacher of adults is more likely to hinder than to facilitate learning. This is not to suggest that teachers have less responsibility in the learning-teaching transaction, but only that their responsibility lies less in giving ready-made answers to predetermined questions and more in being ingenious in finding better ways to help students discover the important questions and the answers for themselves.

One of the clearest statements of this insight about adult learning was made in 1926 by the great American pioneer adult-education theorist, Eduard C. Lindeman:

I am conceiving adult education in terms of a new technique for learning, a technique as essential to the college graduate as to the unlettered manual worker. It represents a process by which the adult learns to become aware of and to evaluate his experience. To do this he cannot begin by studying "subjects" in the hope that some day

this information will be useful. On the contrary, he begins by giving attention to situations in which he finds himself, to problems which include obstacles to his self-fulfillment. Facts and information from the differentiated spheres of knowledge are used, not for the purpose of accumulation, but because of need in solving problems. In this process 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 relevancy of his facts and experiences. In short, my conception of adult education is this: 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 preconceptions 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.[10]

3. *There are superior conditions of learning and principles of teaching.* It is becoming increasingly clear from the growing body of knowledge about the processes of adult learning that there are certain conditions of learning that are more conducive to growth and development than others. These superior conditions seem to be produced by practices in the learning-teaching transaction that adhere to certain superior principles of teaching as identified below:

Conditions of Learning	**Principles of Teaching**
The learners feel a need to learn	1) The teacher exposes the learners to new possibilities for self-fulfillment. 2) The teacher helps the learners clarify their own aspirations for improved behavior. 3) The teacher helps the learners diagnose the gap between their aspirations and their present level of performance.

[10]Robert Gessner (ed.), *The Democratic Man : Selected Writings of Eduard C. Lindeman* (Boston : Beacon Press, 1956), p. 160. By permission.

Conditions of Learning	Principles of Teaching
The learning environment is characterized by physical comfort, mutual trust and respect, mutual helpfulness, freedom of expression, and acceptance of differences.	4) The teacher helps the learners idetify the life problems they experience because of the gaps in their personal equipment. 5) The teacher provides physical conditions that are comfortable (as to seating smoking, temperature, ventilation, lighting, decoration) and conducive to interaction (preferably, no person sitting behind another person). 6) The teacher accepts the learners as persons of worth and respects their feelings and ideas. 7) The teacher seeks to build relationships of mutual trust and helpfulness among the learners by encouraging cooperative activities and refraining from inducing competitiveness and judgmentalness.
The learners perceive the goals of a learning experience to be their goals.	8) The teacher exposes his or her own feelings and contributes resources as a colearner in the spirit of mutual inquiry. 9) The teacher involves the learners in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives in which the needs of the learners of the institution, of the teacher, of the subject matter, and of the society are taken into account.
The learners accept a share of the responsibility for planning and operating a learning experience, and	10) The teacher shares his or her thinking about options available in the designing of learning experiences and the selection of materials and methods and involves the learners in deciding among these options jointly.

Conditions of Learning	Principles of Teaching
therefore have a feeling of commitment toward it. The learners participate actively in the learning process.	11) The teacher helps the learners to organize themselves (project groups, learning-teaching teams, independent study, etc.) to share responsibility in the process of mutual inquiry.
	12) The teacher helps the learners exploit their own experiences as resources for learning through the use of such techniques as discussion, role playing, case method, etc.
The learning process is related to and makes use of the experience of the learners.	13) The teacher gears the presentation of his or her own resources to the levels of experience of particular learners.
	14) The teacher helps the learners to apply new learnings to their experience, and thus to make the learnings more meaningful and integrated.
	15) The teacher involves the learners in developing mutually acceptable criteria and methods for measuring progress toward the learning objectives.
The learners have a sense of progress toward their goals.	16) The teacher helps the learners develop and apply procedures for self-evaluation according to these criteria.

Some Implications for Youth Education

The differences between children adn adults are not so much real differences, I believe, as differences in assumptions about them that are made in traditional pedagogy. Actually, in my observation (and retrospection), the children start fairly early to see themselves as being self-directing in broadening areas of their lives; they start accumulating experience that has increasing value for learning; they start preparing for social roles (such as through part-time jobs) and therefore experiencing adultlike readinesses to learn; and they encounter life problems for which they would like some learnings for immediate application. Therefore, many of the principles of andragogy have direct relevance to the education of children and youth.

The fact is that many of the new developments in the curricula of our elementary and secondary schools have some of the flavor of andragogy. The "new math," "new biology," and linguistics programs start with the concerns of the students and engage them in a process of largely self-directed discovery. Some of the products of today's schools who become adults in the 1980s and 1990 s will, therefore, presumably be better equipped to continue a process of lifelong learning than are today's adults.

But these developments are quite piecemeal, and the practitioners have lagged far behind the curricullum theorists in helping students learn how to learn rather than just teaching them what they "ought" to know. What is required, if youth education is to produce adults who are capable of engaging in a lifelong process of continuing self-development, is a whole new set of assumptions about the purpose of youth education and a new technology to carry out that purpose. I can foresee that the result would be a more andragogical approach to the education of children and youth. As my contribution toward movement in this direction I am presenting in Appendix D a schema I prepared for UNESCO, "Toward a Model of Lifelong Education."

The Andragogical Process of Program Development

When the principles of andragogy are translated into a process for planning and operating educational programs, that process turns out to be quite different from the

curriculum planning and teaching procsses traditionally employed in youth education. The rest of this book is concerned with describing this process as it applies to the planning of comprehensive programs of adult education (Chapters 5 through 10) and to the management of specific learning experiences (Chapter11).

As I see it, this andragogical process involves the following phases consistently in both levels of application (total programs and individual learning activities):

1) The establishment of a climate conducive to adult learning;
2) The creation of an organizational structure for participative planning;
3) The diagnosis of needs for learning;
4) The formulation of directions of learning (objectives);
5) The development of a design of activities;
6) The operation of the activities;
7) The rediagnosis of needs for learning (evaluation).

How Do We Know That It Is Better?

People frequently ask me what research has been done vis-a`-vis the andragogical model that supports the proposition that it is superior to the pedagogical model. My automatic-reflex response is. "That is not the question; nobody—at least, not I—is saying that."

This kind of question arises from a curious disease that seems to be endemic in the world of learning theory. It might be called panacea-addiction. Philosophers call it either-or thinking. It is a compulsion for neat, simple, single solutions to complex problems.

As I said in an earlier chapter, I have the impression that many traditional teachers (and learning theorists, for that matter) have an almost ideological attachment to the pedagogical model. It is something they have to be loyal to, enforce with sanctions (like normative grading), and protect from heresy. I don't see andragogy as an ideology at all, but a system of assumptions about learners that needs to be tested out for different learners in different situations. In a sense, it is a system that encompasses the pedagogical model, since it makes legitimate the application of pedagogical strategies in those situations in which the assumptions of the pedagogical model are realistic.

The appropriate question to ask, I think, is "What research has been done to indicate under what conditions the andragogical model is appropriate, in whole or in part?" And to satisfy the curiosity of those of you who are asking that question, I am including in Appendix E a list of the papers, research reports, books, and experiments regarding andragogy that I know about.

For Your Continuing Inquiry...

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