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ABSTRACT

A conference on research to practice in adult, continuing and community education included the following papers: "Education as a Community Intervention Strategy" (Ashcraft, Andrews); "Assessing Educational Needs of Adults: An Ohio Extension Example" (Bratkovich, Miller); "Questions and Issues Related to a Lack of Multicultural Research in Adult Education" (Byndon); "Selection and Development of County Extension Directors: Community Leaders in Adult Education" (Cox et al.); "Ethical Development: An Integrative Model for Practice" (Ellis, McElhinney); "New York State Adult Life Management Program" and "Improving the Effectiveness of Staff and Organizations" (Ferro); "Investigation of Factors Contributing to the Use of Computers by Professors of Adult Education: A Path Analysis" (Harold); "Using Adult Learning Techniques in Adult Education Conferences" (Henschke); "Distance Education and Interactive Video" (Hope); "Strategies for Improving Instructional Delivery in Distance Education Programs" (Husmann, Miller); "Role of Training Needs Analysis in Organizational Development" (Hynes); "Investigation of a Proposed Model of Audio-Teleconferencing Instruction: Paradigms in Conflict" (Kirby, Chugh); "Need Motivation and Mentorship Experiences of National and State Nursing Leaders" (Lee); "Competing from a Research Base: Market Analysis of Adult Students" (Littrell, Cupp); "Survey Research to Profile the Andragogically Oriented Instructor" (Matthews); "Assessment of Women's Cardiac Risk Factors and the Relationship of Lifestyle Habits for Development of Health Promotion Education" (McKillip); "Description of Learning in a Group of Well Elderly over the Age of 75" (Michael); "Perceptions of Leadership and Culture in the Public Community Colleges in Kansas" (Moore); "Human Resource Development through Distance Education: A Case Study of Guided Didactic Conversation" (Niemi et al.); "The Idea and Adult Education" (Penrod); "Restructuring Cooperative Extension from Single into Multiple Country Units to Facilitate Delivering Educational Programs" (Rockwell et al.); "Position Assignment and Learning Styles of Extension Agents" (Rollins, Yoder); "Proactive Management in Adult Education" (Sandmann, Granger); "What Do Adults Gain from Taking Part in Educational Programs?" (Steele); "Using Concept Mapping Research to Identify Factors that Enhance Coalition Development in Rural Areas" (Stevens et al.); "Linking Formal and Informal Support Systems to Enhance the Success of Low-Income Women in Traditional and Nontraditional Education" (Thurston et al.); "Faculty and Student Perceptions of Distance Education Using Television" (Wallace); "Focus Group Study Guides Strategic Plan and Reorganization for Iowa State University Extension" (Wiley-Jones); and "From Young Rogues to Old Fogies: How Did We Get Here? Can We Get Out?" (Zelenak). (YLB)

ED 361 532

Eleventh Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

A Conference in Adult Continuing,
and Community Education

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Conference Proceedings

October 8-9, 1992

KSU Student Union
Kansas State University
Manhattan, Kansas

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October 5, 1992

Dear Research to Practice Conference Participant:

Welcome to the Eleventh Annual Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education and to Kansas State University.

Since its founding in 1981, the Midwest Conference has provided an opportunity for graduate students, faculty, and practitioners from the broad field of adult education to critically explore ideas, innovations, and principles exemplified in the research-to-practice challenge.

The conference steering committee and local arrangements committee have worked diligently to provide general and concurrent sessions that are contemporary, provocative, and that enhance the exploration of the linkage of research and practice in our field. The researchers and practitioners have also worked hard to bring us quality papers. We extend our deepest appreciation to the committees, writers, proposal reviewers, and co-hosts, as well as the cooperating groups who helped sponsor all aspects of this conference.

We encourage you to take advantage of the rich learning environment associated with Kansas State University, the College of Education, and the Manhattan community. We hope you were able to participate in this years pre-conference site visits which highlighted research and practice actually occurring in nationally recognized adult education settings.

Enjoy the conference, the Kansas State University Campus, and the "Little Apple" Manhattan community.

Cordially,

Charles R. Oaklief
1992 Conference Chair

Jeanette Harold
Conference Arrangements Chair

MISSION STATEMENT

MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE IN ADULT, CONTINUING AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to meet and discuss practices, concepts, evaluation and research studies and related issues in order to improve practice in adult education. It encourages, fosters and facilitates dialogue and the initiation and pursuit of projects among individuals and groups working in the various fields of adult education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
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By Boyd Rossing
May 28, 1991

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Kansas Association for Hospital Education Coordinators

Kansas Center for Rural Initiatives

Kansas Community Education Association

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Learning Resources Network, LERN

Missouri Association for Adult, Continuing and Community Education

University of Nebraska-Adult Education Department

Missouri Valley Adult Education Association

Nebraska Adult Education Association

University of Missouri, Kansas City-College of Education

University of Oklahoma-Adult and Continuing Education

**MIDWEST RESEARCH TO PRACTICE CONFERENCE
KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
October 7-9, 1992**

Wednesday, October 7

- Pre-Conference Tours** 2:00-4:00 p.m.
- American Institute of Baking is a non-profit organization dedicated to education, research, and training for the baking, food processing, and allied industries for adults around the world.
 - Flint Hills Job Corps serves Kansas young adults, offering courses in Basic Skills, GED, Occupational and Vocational Exploration.
 - LERN is an international Learning Resources Network in adult education offering courses, videos, and consulting services to adult educators.
 - UFM is a free university in the Manhattan community offering over two hundred courses that are taught by volunteers.

Registration and Reception	7:00 - 9:00 p.m.	Landon Room Ramada Inn
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Thursday, October 8

Registration	9:00 - 10:00	K-State Union, Little Theatre
	10:00 - 12:00	K-State Union, Second Floor Concourse

COFFEE	8:30 - 9:00	Little Theater
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Opening Session	9:00 - 10:30 a.m.	Little Theater
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Welcome

Charles Oaklief, Professor Adult and Continuing Education, Kansas State University

Greetings

Michael Holen, Dean, College of Education
Jon Wefald, President Kansas State University
Stephen Scheneman, Coordinator, Extension Professional and Organizational Development

Panel

DIVERSITY IN GLOBAL AWARENESS: RESEARCH DIRECTIVES FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Moderator, W. Franklin Spikes

Panel Members:

Sharan Merriam -- University of Georgia, Athens, GA
Harriet Ottenheimer -- Kansas State University
Bunny McBride -- Lecturer, Author, Manhattan, KS
Larry Martin, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

Announcements

COFFEE BREAK

10:30 - 10:45 a.m. Little Theater

SESSION I

10:45 - 11:45 a.m.

Room 206 *Georgia Stevens, University of Nebraska; Wesley Daberkow, University of Nebraska; S. Kay Rockwell, University of Nebraska; Jack Furgason, University of Nebraska.* USING CONCEPT MAPPING RESEARCH TO IDENTIFY FACTORS THAT ENHANCE COALITION DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS.

The identification of factors useful for developing educational materials to assist organizations/agencies to build and maintain coalitions that address community issues.

Room 207 *A'Jamal-Rashad Byndon, Omaha, Nebraska.* QUESTIONS AND ISSUES RELATED TO A LACK OF MULTI-CULTURAL RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION.

This paper is focused on questions regarding the lack of inclusion of People of Color in the literature of Adult Education. Moreover, it proposes solutions for reversing this serious omission as to help address many social anomalies confronting People of Color.

Room 208 *Trenton Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.* NEW YORK STATE ADULT LIFE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM.

Highlights of the report prepared for the New York State Education Department about the New York State Adult Life Management Program are reviewed from the perspectives of student reactions, teacher reactions, coordinator reactions, instructional content, the instructional process and the theoretical rationale undergirding the entire enterprise.

Room 212 *Geraldine Hynes, University of Missouri-St. Louis.* THE ROLE OF TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

The Training Needs Analysis step in the process of designing corporate training programs. Various theories about who should make this determination are discussed. TNA has a role in organizational development. The discussion proposes that theories of adult learning can emerge from actual practice.

Room 213 *Patricia McKillip, Kansas State Board of Nursing.* ASSESSMENT OF WOMEN'S CARDIAC RISK FACTORS AND THE RELATIONSHIP OF LIFESTYLE HABITS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTH PROMOTION EDUCATION.

A study of the cardiac health risks of women in the workforce and a measurement of the relationship of identified risks with health-promoting lifestyle behaviors. The results suggest adult health education specific to assessed learning needs.

LUNCH ON YOUR OWN

11:45 - 1:00 p.m.

SESSION II

1:00 - 1:50 p.m.

Room 206

Nicholie Ashcraft, Athens, Georgia; Mary Andrews, Michigan State University, Shawn Lock, Michigan State University. EDUCATION AS A COMMUNITY INTERVENTION STRATEGY.

A look at developing strategies that will lead to more effective use of education in the community. Strategic development is examined by looking at participant culture, involvement of participants past and present, and the educational environment.

Room 207

Michael Penrod, Special Education Outcomes Team, Kansas State Board of Education. THE IDEA AND ADULT EDUCATION.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 presents a challenge for adult educators to meet the needs of this unique population.

Room 208

John Henschke, University of Missouri-St. Louis. USING ADULT LEARNING TECHNIQUES IN ADULT EDUCATION CONFERENCES.

A discussion of concerns and suggestions for conducting adult education conferences through using adult learning techniques which are consistent with what is known about how adults learn. "Why don't we practice on ourselves what we say we believe about adult learning?"

Room 212

D. M. Kirby, University of Calgary; J. Chugh, University of Calgary. THE INVESTIGATION OF A PROPOSED MODEL OF AUDIO-TELECONFERENCING INSTRUCTION: PARADIGMS IN CONFLICT.

A report on the latest phase of an ongoing research program to investigate a proposed model of audio-teleconferencing instruction. This presentation examines the perceptions of distance students of elements in the global instructional environment and the congruency of their perceptions with those of instructors who teach through audio-teleconference.

Room 213

Carla Lee, Fort Hays State University. NEED MOTIVATION AND MENTORSHIP EXPERIENCES OF NATIONAL AND STATE NURSING LEADERS.

This study investigated the comparison of need motivation, mentorship experiences, and selected demographic variables from a randomized sampling of 150 registered nurses in leadership service at the national and state levels.

SESSION III

2:00 - 2:50 p.m.

Room 206

Stephen Bratkovich, Ohio Cooperative Extension Service; Larry Miller, The Ohio State University. ASSESSING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ADULTS: AN OHIO EXTENSION EXAMPLE.

A survey to assess educational needs of innovative Ohio sawmill operators. Specific recommendations transfer the research results to practice.

Room 207

Dann Husmann, University of Nebraska, Michael Miller, University of Nebraska. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY IN DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMS.

Strategies for improving instructional delivery in distance education programs were identified using a Delphi approach. Eight critical strategies were identified and are discussed.

Room 208

Timothy J. Rollins, Pennsylvania State University; Edgar P. Yoder, Pennsylvania State University. POSITION ASSIGNMENT AND LEARNING STYLES OF EXTENSION AGENTS.

Differences were found in the learning style preferences of four groups of extension personnel. The Converger learning style was preferred by agriculture agents and county extension directors and least preferred by family living agents.

Room 212

Ruth Michael, Ball State University. A DESCRIPTION OF LEARNING IN A GROUP OF WELL-ELDERLY OVER THE AGE OF 75.

A study describing the learning process as practiced by a particular group of 15 well-elderly adults over the age of 75. A six step model was developed to describe the learning process in this particular group of older learners.

Room 213

Jeanette Harold, Kansas State University. AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE USE OF COMPUTERS BY PROFESSORS OF ADULT EDUCATION: A PATH ANALYSIS.

Research survey using path analysis to determine the direct and indirect effects of age, perception of need, value, support and anxiety on the amount of use made of computers by professors of adult education. Implications and recommendations for adoption are discussed.

REFRESHMENT BREAK

2:50 - 3:10 p.m.

Second Floor Concourse

SESSION IV

3:15 - 4:15 p.m.

Room 206 *Stephen Matthews, Moffett Field, California.* SURVEY RESEARCH TO PROFILE THE ANDRAGOGICALLY ORIENTED INSTRUCTOR.

A study of Army National Guard Instructor attitudes and beliefs about andragogical principles. The objective was to determine if there was a significant correlation between these instructor andragogical beliefs and the success of their instructors.

Room 208 *Norman Hope, Tabor College.* DISTANCE EDUCATION AND INTERACTIVE VIDEO.

This project addresses some of the issues surrounding distance education and the use of television (interactive television) as the transmission media.

Room 212 *Doris Littrell, University of Missouri-Columbia; Linda Butterfield Cupp, University of Missouri-Columbia.* COMPETING FROM A RESEARCH BASE: MARKET ANALYSIS OF ADULT STUDENTS.

Extension Teaching combined in-house demographic analysis with contracted demand analysis from the College Board Office of Adult Learning Services to provide valuable data upon which to plan program development. This information gives education providers a way to improve the cost effectiveness of their programs.

Room 213 *Sara Steele, University of Wisconsin-Madison.* WHAT DO ADULTS GAIN FROM TAKING PART IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS?

An identification of gains which adults may secure from participating in an educational program other than the common transfer of new knowledge. This list of generic gains can be developed from any of several bases including critical thinking or executive processes.

RECEPTION

4:30 - 6:30

Landon Room
Ramada Inn

Hosted by: American Association for Adult & Continuing Education

EVENING ON YOUR OWN

Friday October 9

Steering Committee Breakfast

8:00 - 8:45 a.m.

Cottonwood Room

Registration	8:30 - 10:00 a.m.	Second Floor Concourse
COFFEE AND HOSPITALITY	8:30 - 9:00 p.m.	Second Floor Concourse

SESSION V 9:00 - 10:00 a.m.

Room 206 *Rhonda Wiley-Jones, Iowa State University.* FOCUS GROUP STUDY GUIDES REORGANIZATION AND LONG-RANGE PLAN FOR IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

Iowa State University Extension used the focus group process to gather key perceptions from current and potential clients to help make better decisions in how to meet and exceed clients expectations. The results guided a strategic plan and total reorganization.

Room 207 *Timothy Ellis, Ball State University; James McElhinney, Ball State University.* ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT: AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL FOR PRACTICE.

A synthesis of research and theory on adult development proposes a model illustrating how adult education professionals may align their own perspectives and actions with maturity in the ethical arena.

Room 208 *Carol Moore, Hutchinson, Kansas Community College.* PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE IN THE PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES IN KANSAS.

Research survey using the Competing Values model as a guide to determine faculty perceptions of the leadership style and the culture of their community college.

Room 212 *Lawrence Berlin, University of Michigan.* ADULT EDUCATION AND SCHOOL REFORM.

This session argues that there is a tradition of adult education research and practice which can illuminate important questions in the school reform debate and contribute directly to the realization of meaningful school reform.

Room 213 *Joanna R. Wallace, Ball State University.* FACULTY AND STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION USING TELEVISION: THE BALL STATE UNIVERSITY M.B.A. MODEL.

A study of reasons students participated in the MBA/TV program and an assessment of the quality of that program based on the judgment of faculty and student responses.

SESSION VI 10:10 - 11:10 p.m.

Room 206 *Linda Thurston, Kansas State University; Shirley Marshall, Kansas State University; Joni Allison, Roan Community College, Joan Alpaugh, Sherman Adult Education Cooperative, Sherman, TX.* LINKING FORMAL AND INFORMAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS TO ENHANCE

THE SUCCESS OF LOW-INCOME WOMEN IN TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION.

A discussion of the Survival Skills for Women program which demonstrates the practical application of sound learning principles, the characteristics of personal empowerment, and the combined strength of informal and formal helping systems to promote educational goals of low-income women and to improve their capacity to utilize traditional educational systems.

Room 207

David M. Cox, University of Nevada-Reno; Timothy J. Rollins, Pennsylvania State University; Edgar Yoder, Pennsylvania State University. **SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTY EXTENSION DIRECTOR: COMMUNITY LEADER IN ADULT EDUCATION.**

Job knowledge and skills, resource availability and organizational constraints have a direct link to the effectiveness of the person in the CED managerial role. Extension organizations need to provide structured development programs to assist people moving into the CED role.

Room 208

Bonnie Zelenak, University of Missouri-Columbia. **FROM YOUNG ROGUES TO OLD FOGIES: HOW DID WE GET HERE? HOW DO WE GET OUT?**

An actual account of a university program that is undergoing some substantial changes. Revitalizing a group of very capable people and dealing with significant staff dissatisfaction by using current theory about program administration, adult learning and development and corporate cultures to redesign and improve the way of doing things.

Room 212

S. Kay Rockwell, University of Nebraska; Jack Furgason, University of Nebraska; Connie Jacobson, University of Nebraska; Dave Schmidt, University of Nebraska; Lila Tooker, University of Nebraska. **RESTRUCTURING COOPERATIVE EXTENSION FROM SINGLE INTO MULTIPLE COUNTY UNITS TO FACILITATE DELIVERING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS.**

A description of the implementation and reaction to multi-county Educational Programming Units through Nebraska Cooperative Extension. Recommendations for smooth transition from single-county to multi-county units are suggested.

Room 213

John Niemi, Northern Illinois University, Geraldine Lea, Adult Education Consultant, Harry Ridge, United States Army. **HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF GUIDED DIDACTIC CONVERSATION.**

Holmber's theory of guided didactic conversation was applied in an audio-conferencing course on human resource development (HRD) delivered simultaneously at Northern Illinois University and three other sites. This study demonstrated the value of Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation for older students.

BANQUET LUNCHEON

11:30 - 1:00 p.m.

Union Ballroom

Presider

Charles Oaklief, Kansas State University

Special Guests

Michael Holen, Dean, College of Education
W. Franklin Spikes, President American Association of Adult and Continuing Education
Richard Wootton, Associate Director, Division of Cooperative Extension
Sue Maes, Associate Director, Division of Continuing Education
Jan Stotts, State Director of Adult Education
Joe Mildrexler, Past President Missouri Valley Adult Education
Bill Draves, President LERN
Gerry Winters, President Kansas Adult Education Association

Speaker

"Writing Up and Publishing Your Research"

Sharan Merriam, Professor of Adult Education
University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia

Presentation

Graduate Student Research Award
John Dirkx, University of Nebraska

Drawing

Grace Kannady

Invitation to the 1993 Conference

David Boggs, The Ohio State University
Trenton Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Farewell

Charles Oaklief, Kansas State University

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EDUCATION AS A COMMUNITY INTERVENTION STRATEGY Nicholie Ashcraft and Mary Andrews

ABSTRACT. The use of education as a strategy for community intervention has become a way of life in America. But, in many instances these strategies may not be reaching the audience they are intended, and educators are left struggling to find ways in which to implement programs that would address the needs of these new audiences. Interviews with community participants and program implementors have provided the data to take a new look at developing strategies that will lead to more effective use of education in the community.

To include these components in strategic development, educators need to consider the **CONTEXT** of the projects' needs very carefully. It can be looked at in more detail by dividing it into 3 parts: 1) the participant culture, 2) the involvement of participants past and present, and 3) the educational environment.

INTRODUCTION

Continuing education has gained momentum in recent years. One of the reasons is that many new participant populations with specific identities have emerged. However these new populations are in many instances appearing without available strategies for educators to provide them with continuing education. The participation of these audiences has been the focus of many articles and conferences, but there is still little evidence of the actual application of lessons that have been learned by educators targeting these populations.

The focus of this study is on 28 rural development projects sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation across the United States. 5 of the 28 projects are directly aimed at a minority audience. Within this cluster of projects, these new populations are represented by people from the Hispanic, Black, Mung, Native American and Appalachian target audiences. The primary methodology for many of these special target audiences has been observation and interviews with participants and implementors of specific programming. Included in the research effort are compilation statements by various participators within these projects (presented as "lessons learned") with respect to the education\training itself, and to the direct involvement of the target audiences in the planning and implementation of the programming. There were a total of 475 such comments. Of those, approximately 300 were used as a basis for this paper in the categories of education/training, involvement, diversity and project faculty.

Nicholie Ashcraft
Manager, Rural America Cluster Evaluation
165 Avaion Drive
Athens, Georgia 30606

Mary Andrews
Associate Dean
College of Human Ecology
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

This research reveals that there is essentially no distinction between the strategies that are effective with the various audiences, whether they are considered "minority" or "majority". Understanding of value systems, prejudices, and perspectives is necessary, regardless of the audience. Beyond that, however, the effective strategies for the various audiences/communities are the same.

However, it is important to define the context of the community/target audience by categorizing interview results and describing the components that make up that context. (The word CONTEXT refers to that which "leads up to or follows and often specifies the meaning of a particular experience.") (Am Heritage Dictionary, p.288) It is the context that makes each situation, individual, and community different and distinct. The educators' understanding of this context has been identified by participants and implementors over and over again as the element that makes or breaks a community program. Under the context umbrella, the comments fell into 3 distinct components.

It is essential, therefore, for the educator 1) to have a profound understanding of the culture of the participants 2) be aware of the importance of and encourage involvement by the participants, and 3) create an environment within the educational setting in which this involvement can take place. Each component places a great deal of responsibility on the educator to become keenly aware of their own perceptions and biases, to study and learn about the culture within which they will be working and be confident not only of their knowledge of content, but of their skills in community group process as well.

THE CULTURE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Knowing the culture of the participants is without a doubt the most important detail that an educator can learn. In this study that point was mentioned repeatedly by participants and implementors alike. Local people not only want to know that an outsider is familiar with their culture, but they also expect an outside person to team with locals to illustrate not only the cultural knowledge, but a genuine interest in the community, as well. They expect the outside person to be sensitive and sincere about their feelings, not patronizing. They also expect the outsider to be familiar enough with their culture that they can make necessary connection between the teaching/learning process and their particular surroundings. It can be disastrous for an educator to doubt the competence of the people with whom they are working. There is often no one more qualified to solve a problem than those actually affected by that problem. Interviewees have provided statements that describe characteristics that can be applied to any targeted audience. Many target audiences do not want to be described as minority, but at the same time, they want to maintain an identity unique to them. Perhaps it is because the word "minority" immediately identifies the audience with many stereotypes that may or may not be applicable. The irony is that such stereotypes exist for and within virtually every group of people, and are commonplace within minority groups concerning other minority group! That

same target audience wants to be accepted and respected for their difference and keep their identity. **Groups DO NOT WANT TO BE STRIPPED OF THEIR CULTURE.**

Audiences have a need to communicate initially in the language that makes them the most comfortable, but they do not wish to be patronized. Community groups need a reason and a place to talk about things that are happening in their community. Many of these new audiences have not taken the opportunity to affect the decisions being made concerning them and therefore, they are not familiar with the process. Consequently many of the difficult issues facing a community have not been discussed among the residents before a decision is made.

The assumption is often made that people in the same community, especially in a rural community, or a specific minority group know each other. In truth, people may not know each other and often have no idea what another can offer to a specific situation. Many people believe that they have nothing worthwhile to contribute to their community and have not considered being involved until they get a one-on-one invitation to participate in some activity from someone they know in their community.

What does all this mean for the educator? Our interviews provided some very useful information. The following facts were gleaned from interviews with participants and implementors from 25 Kellogg Foundation-funded rural development projects across the United States. They reflect the opinions expressed most often in this survey.

1) It is imperative that the educator adapt the curriculum to fit the audience, and role model the concepts that need to be learned (such team work and empowerment). Often, educators develop workshops, training courses, and other community development activities which are held on campus in a standard classroom where community participants are expected to attend and conform to that teaching methodology. But the community learner should not be expected to adapt to a "standard format".

2) Educators cannot assume that the connection that seems obvious to them between the content of the program and the specific community situation will be made by the participants. For example, the common belief that technology is important to every target group community may not have been accepted by the target audience.

3) Isolation is a major problem with certain targeted audiences and therefore long range communications may be a major challenge for the educator. The educator can also not assume that people from relatively small groups know each other. Minority groups for instance gain self-esteem in like groups, but need to graduate to where they can learn and contribute to a diverse group.

4) Networking is an important part of learning, sustainability, and motivation. And the follow-up and support of these activities are also important. Ownership of these activities and others often initiated by the educator and can be fostered by giving responsibility, and visa versa.

INVOLVEMENT

Getting a target audience directly involved in the education process is almost always one of the first challenges an educator faces. The following points were mentioned repeatedly by participants in follow-up interviews as keys to this involvement process. The number of times each point was raised is given in parentheses.

- 1) Have the "right" faculty. FACULTY THAT UNDERSTAND THE CONTEXT, CULTURE AND ENVIRONMENT. (25)
- 2) The process by which the environment is created. Discussed below in III. (22)
- 3) Identify and bring in all of the stakeholders at the beginning. (12)
- 4) DO NOT take people out of their context. Take the education to them (4)
- 5) Give people the time to network and have the faith that they can do the work (8)
- 6) Know the culture of the participants (11)

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Environment is one of those words that means different things to different people. But it is clear that the kind of environment created by the educator must include some very specific elements if the program is to be successful. They are not specific to any cluster, such as minority groups, but have been reported throughout this research as imperative to assure the involvement of all audiences. Each of these elements should be talked about up front, and cannot be assumed or taken for granted.

ACCEPTANCE - People want to be accepted where they are at any point in time. It is important that a person not feel embarrassed about their present position.

RESPECT - People not only want to be accepted, but they want to be respected for their position.

LISTENING - Communication is by necessity a two-way process, and listening is half of it. The educator must hone his/her listening skills to the point that they can really "hear" what target audiences are saying, not what they believe they should say. Only after it has been established that the educator can genuinely listen to the

participants, will the target audience be able to truly listen themselves. It is impossible for anyone to alter their position on anything if they do not first listen.

CONNECTION - People often do not make the connections between content and context that may seem so obvious to the instructor. On the other hand, community participants can make connections that educators may have never dreamed about.

TIME TO NETWORK - Participants in any new program need time to make connections, form friendships, etc., in order to bond the group into a cohesive team that can seriously address the various issues before them. The respect necessary between and among fellow participants and the educator cannot happen effectively without this networking time.

OTHER FACTORS

Two institutional barriers were identified for universities. Both have a negative effect on the use of education as an intervention strategy for community development activities. ¹¹ (1) The structure of the university institutions that provide this service and (2) the adjustment that professionals within that university structure must make to meet community expectations. Project directors have commented repeatedly that the community population is much easier to work with than the faculty and administration of the institution.

The interviews reveal that there is a basic philosophical difference in the way that university faculty and target audiences regard education itself. Simply said, it is the debate over the relative importance of content and process. More over, to successfully use education as a community intervention strategy, one must understand that each of these methodologies, when used independently or in unison, generates different outcomes. The content of the subject matter, and the process by which this information is delivered are EQUALLY important. In order to be effective with new audiences at the community level, each strategy must be understood, appreciated and delivered in a fashion that creates a balance for the participant. This need for balance was referred to repeatedly by participants and implementors of these programs. An example of this balance is created when people are attracted to a training session because it provides them with specific skills necessary to do a specific job, but as the training progresses it becomes evident to the participant that there is other information that is needed in order to do the job effectively. Though an awareness may exist of the need for additional skills training, it may not exist with regard to the necessity for people skills/group process skills. The right environment must exist to demonstrate this need. The educator in this instance needs to recognize and understand the individual needs of the target audience and be flexible enough to move comfortably from content to process as necessary.

There is another important factor that has often been missed when implementors try to use education as a community intervention strategy. Many educators have made the assumption that education of the individual will provide some measurable community benefit. However, in order for the community to benefit

from individual educational activities, an action component must be added to bridge individual education with community action.

There is a progression that **MUST** occur before any significant community change can be affected by individual educational activities. Figure 2. illustrates the hierarchy that must be created before actual community effects can be measured. Training is at the bottom of this hierarchy. It represents the instruction that one needs in order to carry out a very specific job. Above this comes individual capacity building to better understand and carry out some undetermined future goal. At the top is the community capacity building which allows for better collective decisions that effect the quality of life.

CONCLUSION

The context of a community is very complex. Using education as an intervention strategy can very effective. However, understanding and clarifying the community context in terms of the culture of the participants, their previous involvement, and the environment in which the education takes place is necessary to achieve positive outcomes.

ASSESSING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ADULTS:
AN OHIO EXTENSION EXAMPLE

Stephen M. Bratkovich and Larry E. Miller

ABSTRACT. An educational needs assessment of innovative Ohio sawmill operators was conducted utilizing survey research methods. Selected results and conclusions from this study were: (1) importance and knowledge scores differed from perceived educational needs as computed with the Borich needs assessment model; (2) the majority of innovative operators preferred a non-formal educational delivery method; (3) older operators and operators with a low educational level preferred the educational delivery method of one-on-one contact; (4) younger operators tended to prefer either group education or the self-study delivery method; and (5) the relationship between age and participation in adult education may impact the success of sawmill operators' educational programs in Ohio. A major recommendation of this study was that educational needs assessment results should be utilized in conjunction with the characteristics and preferences of the adult learner when planning, developing, and delivering educational programs. A second recommendation was that educational programmers can speed the transfer of research results to practice by targeting innovative individuals in an educational needs assessment.

The authors are Assistant Professor/District Extension Specialist, Forestry, Ohio Cooperative Extension Service, P. O. Box 958, Jackson, Ohio, 45640 (614/286-2177), and Professor, Department of Agricultural Education, 204 Agricultural Administration Building, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 43210 (614/292-6671). (All correspondence should be sent to Stephen M. Bratkovich.)

INTRODUCTION

The Ohio Cooperative Extension Service (OCES), The Ohio State University, is moving in new directions to address the needs and concerns of Ohio's citizens. During 1990 and 1991, every Ohio county reviewed societal, economic, demographic, and cultural changes to determine needs for programs. A variety of methods, including community "speak out" meetings, advisory committees, and surveys were used to gather information from local citizens. More than 8400 Ohioans participated in the statewide needs assessment effort. This study focused on a needs assessment of innovative Ohio sawmill operators and was conducted within the OCES program area of Community and Natural Resources Development.

The sawmill operator needs assessment described in this paper was atypical of other OCES assessments in that the former needs assessment studied "innovative" members of the target audience (sawmill operators) and collected data on demographic and related characteristics of the subjects. Historically, Extension personnel have collaborated with local opinion leaders and role models (via on-farm demonstrations for example) to assist with the diffusion of new ideas or practices (innovations). Since opinion leaders and role models tend to be more innovative than the average individual in a social system (Rogers, 1983), an educational needs assessment targeted at innovative members of an OCES clientele group (sawmill operators) was justified. The sawmill operator needs assessment was structured to facilitate and speed the implementation of the findings by extension faculty and other natural resources' educators in the state.

METHODOLOGY

This study was a descriptive correlational study which utilized survey research methods. The 32 innovative sawmill operators selected for this study were a purposive sample, nominated by a panel of six experts who were knowledgeable of the Ohio sawmill industry. The nomination criteria used by the expert panel were based upon innovator and early adopter definitions (first or near-the-first individuals to adopt new ideas or practices) as described by Rogers (1983).

A researcher-developed instrument was used in data collection. The instrument was tested for content validity by a panel of 12 experts (including Agricultural Education and Forestry faculty) and pilot tested on sawmill operators with similar demographic characteristics as the target population. Based upon the results of the pilot test, the instrument was revised slightly to ensure that the items were internally consistent with one another. Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates of the final instrument ranged from .69 to .93.

The data collection instrument was developed as a mail questionnaire. Part one of the instrument, which utilized a summated (Likert-type) scale, collected data on perceived importance and perceived knowledge of 67 sawmill operator job competencies. Part two of the instrument collected data on characteristics of the subjects. A 100% response rate was achieved with the questionnaire.

The Borich Needs Assessment Model (discrepancy analysis) was used to compute perceived educational needs from importance and knowledge scores (Borich, 1980). An alpha level of .05 was selected a priori. Results were generalizable only to the innovative Ohio sawmill operators investigated.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The following are selected results and conclusions from this study.

1. Importance and knowledge scores differed from perceived educational needs as computed with the Borich Model. For example, the "exporting lumber" competency had mean score ranks of 39 for importance, 59 for knowledge, and 3 for perceived educational need. Therefore, the use of only importance or knowledge scores to assess perceived educational needs of innovative Ohio sawmill operators would be misleading but was consistent with the findings of other educational researchers (Alnassar, 1981; Barrick, Ladewig, and Hedges, 1983; Ilkiuyoni, 1984; Shibah, 1983; Uko, 1985).

2. The majority of innovative Ohio sawmill operators preferred a non-formal educational delivery method (72%: one-on-one contact and self-study) as compared to a formal method (28%: group education). This result was consistent with the findings of studies that investigated North Carolina forestland owners (Richardson and Mustian, 1988), Idaho farmers (Riesenberg and Gor, 1989), Virginia beef producers (Obahayujie and Hillison, 1988), Wisconsin adults (Nichols et al., 1981), Pennsylvania homemakers (Ferry and Kiernan, 1989), and New York small business owners (Hester and McDowell, 1987).

Older sawmill operators (age \geq 45 yrs.) and operators with a low educational level (education \leq high school graduate) preferred the educational delivery method of one-on-one contact (personal visits to mill for example); younger operators (age \leq 44 yrs.) tended to prefer either group education (meetings, tours, etc.) or the self-study delivery method (listening to educational tapes, reading newsletters, etc.). Therefore, educational programs that can be offered by a variety of delivery methods may prove to be the most successful.

3. Sawmill operators that resided in the 28-county Appalachian region of Ohio were older than non-Appalachian operators ($p < .05$). Since age and

participation in adult education are inversely related (Cross, 1978; Cross and Zusman, 1977; Lovell, 1979), Appalachian Ohio sawmill operators may be less likely to participate in educational programs than non-Appalachian operators.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPORTANCE

This study supported the results and conclusions of other researchers by demonstrating that the use of perceived importance or knowledge scores may not be valid in determining educational needs. A recommendation, therefore, is that educators exercise caution in interpreting needs assessment results if a Borich-type model (discrepancy analysis format) is not used.

The Borich Model utilized in this study sought formal input from innovative sawmill operators. This approach is typical of needs assessments in adult education which frequently rely on formal input from only one planning partner or stakeholder. Needs assessment scholars, however, argue that the process should be based on a consensus approach (Kaufman, 1987). Adult, continuing, and community educators should seek formal input from education providers, education receivers, and other stakeholders before selecting a need for resolution.

In this study, educational program delivery method preference and sawmill operators' age could impact upon an individual's participation in adult education programs. Educational needs assessment results, therefore, should be utilized in conjunction with the characteristics and preferences of the adult learner when planning, developing, and delivering educational programs.

Sociological research has found that the majority of innovative individuals in a social system (i.e., sawmill operators) are (1) considered by their peers as role models and opinion leaders and (2) communicate by interpersonal networks. Education providers, therefore, that deliver new ideas and practices to an "innovative audience" (based on needs assessment results) will benefit from the audience informally diffusing the program results to other social system members. Adult, continuing, and community educators utilizing this approach will find it not only cost effective since a study of innovative individuals will comprise a small sample of the population, but an excellent method of efficiently transferring research results to practice.

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QUESTIONS AND ISSUES RELATED TO A LACK OF MULTICULTURAL RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

A'Jamal-Rashad Byndon

ABSTRACT. In the literature there is a noticeable absence of articles which focus on people of color. In spite of the increased demographics of people of color, adult education have ignored issues confronting various racial groups. Some believe the omission is incidental and that ultimately adult educators will address those topics. Other believe it is systemic and reflective of the hegemony of racism. White educators cannot, nor will they address issues which are uncomfortable to them because it implicitly implicates them as part of the insidious conspiracy to maintain the status quo.

Are adult educators a pack of academic gatekeepers whose directive is to soliloquize for the next wave of adult educators? This paper posit the questions regarding the omission of people of color in the literature. Moreover, it offers pragmatic solutions as to reverse this paradigm of paternalism and pacifying treatment.

2417 Burdette Street, P.O. Box 20055, Omaha, NE 68120, (402)341-113
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In a review of the literature in adult education there is a notable deficiency of studies related to people of color. The increase in the U.S. population during the 1990's occurred primarily because of explosive birth rates of African-Americans and Hispanics. Also, the immigration of Latino groups to the U.S. contributed to this increase. Such influx of groups have changed the urban educational system. The Supreme Court ruled in case of *Hosier V. Evans* (1970) that children from undocumented families have a right to elementary education. Similar challenges have compelled many, including educators to include diverse groups within this society.

Nevertheless, as reflected in the literature, adult educators have been slow, dubious, sporadic, if not negligent in addressing educational issues and problems confronting people of color. Redding and Dowling (1992) believe that it is out of ignorance that adult educators fail to ask inclusive questions related to race, class and gender in their research. Yet, with the increase of racial indifference and hostility, many adult educators cannot afford to ignore multicultural themes. In most academic disciplines, the omissions are similar.

QUESTIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

Michael L. Williams, Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights in the Department of Education raised a controversial and critical question for the Bush's administration last year by challenging the criteria of race specific scholarships. However, in effect, he raised secondary issues for adult educators. For example, are educators responsible for exploring the issue of race and insuring multicultural research? Should that become the goal of adult educators? Do practitioners have an obligation to become involved in the social and political arena of race? Should there be an affirmative action or reward policy regarding educational research? Should the government or private foundation adopt preferential treatment for funding research which will address issues related to improving racial relations and increasing the inter-communication between groups?

There are questions adult educators must confront in addressing this omission. Does the absence of professionals of color in the field contribute to this omission? Is race or race relations an inflammatory topic for adult educators? Moreover, can current studies be generalized to other groups? What are the implications, necessary questions and procedures that should be adopted to include more people of color in the research? Should adult educators (institutions) and practitioners actively propose and strongly encourage research and studies on adult education and people of color? Can one utilize the context or content of existing adult education research to make generalization to people of color?

How can adult education which is devoid of significant studies related to people of color be made palpable or universal to their experiences is a necessary one for adult educators? Can one go from the 'universal' of European or white cultural experience to the particular experience of people of color?

Research does not occur in a vacuum. It is part and parcel of the homogeneity of society. What are the main culprit of this omission? Can we label it as precepts of the racism in society? Adult education purports to be concerned with the education of all adults. However, it is apparent that is not the case. Although, it is logical that in a subjective, incorrigible structure, it is not in the interest of others to examine the mazes or omissions which reflect those vast anomalies. It could be argued that the absence of graduate students and practitioners of color in adult education reflects part of this paradox. Therefore, it should not come as a surprise the lack of a focus on people of color.

Ross-Gordon (1991) raises some interesting polemics regarding the need for multicultural perspective in adult educational research. Notwithstanding, her concerns tend to stop short in explaining the historical context of the lack of inclusion of multicultural research in adult education. She cites a plethora of reasons for the absence of focus on adult education in the literature. However, she failed to examine the context, social and political void in adult education. For people of color, educational opportunities have been fragmented. Yet, her arguments does not directly address that issue.

A mainstream model does not address the serious inequities in society. It tends to offer a self-help explanation (for adult educators) by positing a number of questions or factors which should be included in major research studies. Ross-Gordon's premise is that adult educators are blindly unaware of ways of making their research pluralism. Namely, by reviewing her questions or suggestions the implications are that many will rush out and posit those questions in their upcoming research. Such logic is tantamount to an apologist posture for the status quo.

Adult education that is multicultural is a derivative of a pluralist society. However, the prevailing practice is to focus on adults from one group--the dominant group in this society--white people. Ross-Gordon (1991) says: While it might be hypothesized that research on minority populations has been systematically or inadvertently excluded from major publications in adult education, an equally plausible explanation for the lack of such report is a paucity of research conducted in this area by scholars in the field of adult education (pg 3).

Researchers could include many questions or add more than a few token factors as to make their studies more inclusive. Nevertheless, it is apparent that adult educators cannot focus on the racial aspect of adult education if they are uncomfortable with the topic. As cited, too many assume a smug, if not cliché' posture by citing or recommending that others should focus on those marginal groups. Yet, who are those others since few have followed their suggestions?

Ross-Gordon in her search of dissertation abstracts on racial and ethnic groups and review of publications noted this absence as reflective of the paradigm of non-multicultural focus or the failure to include adults who are diverse in ethnicity. Practitioners and students traditionally focus on what they are familiar with in their educational endeavors.

MULTICULTURAL IS IMPORTANT IN OUR SOCIETY.

As the plethora of social problems confronting this nation increase, adult educators must help address those multifaceted issues. Many entail from the disintegration of the American family, crime, drug abuse, affirmation action, lay-offs of workers, and adequate health care. It is imperative that adult education must take a reality grounded stance if educators are going to address serious social issues.

Little (1992) believe that adult education must become critical and explicitly search the social inequities which is found in the intellectual reproduction of society. Namely, adult educators must become engaged in collective action which can help in this endeavor toward collective action (pg.239). According to the U.S. Census Bureau (1990), there are about 6.3 % of the college professors in this country are African-Americans. In recent years, half of all advance degree awarded to African-Americans were in the field of education. The demographics of research by and about people of color does not reflect the plurality in adult educators. According to Gordon (Ibid.) from the Current Index of Journal in Education illustrated that only 15 articles out of the 'fifteen hundred' indexed since 1985 alluded to people of color. The question becomes why?

There has been considerable debate regarding multicultural education. Proponents argue regarding the validity and significance of multicultural education. In recent years there have been problems with programs developed in many educational systems. Mattai (1992) says that the deficiencies are endemic and attributed to it omission and lack of addressing the issues of eliminating racism and vestiges related to those problems. Moreover, he argues that a corollary exists due to an absence of multicultural studies which is reflective of a lack of commitment by higher educational institutions to directly address this topic. Mattai (Ibid.) three pivotal questions to addressing the lack of multicultural education are: 1) The question of

definition. 2) The question of potency or efficacy of multicultural education, and 3) Does it focus on the issue of racism in America (pg 67)?

REASONS FOR AN ABSENCE OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Are there reasons for an absence of research on people of color? There are a number of vested reasons why academicians do not conduct research or study people of color. Many lack any grounding or experience in working with people of color. Therefore, they chose to avoid developing the wherewithal to learn about those respective groups. Rubenson (1989) says: . . . the sociology of adult education is not an established scholarly field with a well-defined body of knowledge. In fact, only recently has the North American adult education literature moved to discuss the sociological aspects of the field. Compared with their European colleagues, North American adult educators, to a larger extent, have defined and conceptualized their research problems within a predominantly psychological framework (pg 52).

Brookfield (1992) says: At present there is no shared analytical framework or set of intellectual standards which can be applied to gauging whether or not particular formal theoretical efforts are worth pursuing. Possessing common criteria for formal theory building would make it easier for researchers within protectively delineated paradigmatic bunkers to speak to each other across what is, in effect, an intellectual No Man's Land (Pg. 81).

Baskett and Garrison (1988) study exemplify a framework must exist which provides the codes and interest center paradigms for the 17 most prolific adult educators to center on specific aspects of "the literature". Moreover, most of them avoid topics related to the lives of a significant number of adults in our society.

Stubblefield and Rachal (1992) illustrates that adult education proponents in the field find it difficult to arrive on central themes and philosophy of linking plurality to adult education. They call it a "gestational period" yet, would this be a safe assumption why many have not arrived at the difficult or tough issues of social justice? Adult education as is practiced today is a formal extension of the university or secondary school--to those who integrate a hodgepodge of learning by all adults or the masses. Many critics in the field do not have a definitive concept of what adult education really is in this society. Therefore, no comprehensive focus on who should be included inversely lead to who should not be included. Too many adult educators are caught in the proverbial maze of replication studies of the same old dead white males. Frequently, there is a need to branch out, focus on social conditions and ask tough questions. Similar to other academic fields. The status quo becomes the norm by which other measure their significant.

As Ross-Gordon (1991) review of the literature demonstrates there are 17 prolific adult educator researchers who control (the elites of publication) the

literature. Nevertheless, when one examine the role of each discipline, there appears to be official gatekeepers and regulators of what is acceptable or not. Adult educators would vehemently disagree a schematic pattern exist. However a sagacious person looking at the absence of research on race or ethnicity can deduce that education is not neutral. A bigger question is how does one make sense of this monolithic omission and why have many chose to ignore this pattern?

IMPLICATION FOR THE FIELD

In spite of the social problems in our society, adult education research have become lifeless, if not irrelevant to issues related to the underclass and people of color. The rigidity of the research is encourage by those few gatekeeper who sanitize and study the semantic of who first coined the term adult education. Moreover, the absurdity is mirrored by those who replicated and replicate studies and in turn suggest more bland studies.

Many cannot take adult education seriously until practitioners address themselves to meaningful and relevant issues. It is not accidental that Ross-Gordon citation of over 1500 articles index in Current Index to Journal in Education, she found only 15 related to ethnic minority groups. In the ivory towers of academic, there is a proclivity by many to search for amicable topics which are devoid of substance. However, when one is called to practice and integrate the concept of true education, it compels one to confront those difficult issues which many wish we would avoid. Adult education is in an embryonic stage. Too much effort is expended on developing the foundation and structure of the field. Brookfield (1992) define those micro-theories which attract a lot of attention as self-directed learning, critical reflection, participation and motivation theories. Yet, many are not focused on gender or racial issues.

Connelly and Light (1991) argues for a code of ethics for adult education. Should a similar code of inclusion be promulgated as to help adult educators become adept in multicultural areas? They state a code would address principles which foster democratic ideas. Yet, in a multiracial society, a multicultural theme would also contribute to addressing democratic themes. Darkwnwald and Valentine (1985) provided a deterrent to participation scale (DDS) for why adults did not participate in adult education. In a subsequent study Valentine and Darkenwald (1990) refined their scale for use in surveying the public (DDS-G). This survey used Likert-type items to ascertain the factors which deterred adults from continuing education. Such a model or scale could be utilized to ascertain why practitioners and adult educators tend to avoid race specific issues in adult education.

CONCLUSION

There are implications for inclusion of topics or research that is germane to people of color. Adult educators must promulgate or encourage inclusive research and studies which are cultural or racially (inclusive) focused on people of color. In the notion of addressing the issues of multicultural education, there are many issues and the premises which are pivotal to understanding how multicultural is defined. A cultural inspection provides the blueprint that determines the ways an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in society. Therefore, if adult educators are going to ascertain why adults of color learn in an unique fashion then those questions which are directed by the traditional adult educators must be reworded as make adult education inclusive for all adults.

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SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF COUNTY EXTENSION DIRECTORS: COMMUNITY LEADERS IN ADULT EDUCATION

David M. Cox, Timothy J. Rollins, and Edgar P. Yoder

CEDs have the responsibility to provide leadership for and coordinate the efforts of county-based staff in developing effective local programs addressing the needs of adults and youth. The primary CED functions may be generally described as relating to serving as a catalyst in discerning and influencing the development of program policy and goals; coordinating the local extension organization regarding program implementation and assessment; and securing and managing financial and human resources. It has generally been accepted that the success of the CED in fulfilling his/her role may be examined in the context of apparent leadership effectiveness and real effectiveness. It is important for an organization to examine how the CED is selected and what specifically is done to assist the CED become an effective manager at the local level in terms of apparent and real leadership effectiveness. An important link for a CED management development program is to examine the link between management style and the use of power. That link provides an important basis for considering how we design CED management development programs designed to assist CEDs to become more effective in serving as an important local leader in adult education. Programs designed for CED management development must be targeted to the development of specific behaviors related to a job analysis of the CED role.

The Cooperative Extension System represents the third component of the teaching, research and extension triad comprising the land grant system. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 was the enabling legislation creating this three-way, educational partnership between federal, state and local governments. Warner and Christenson (1984) documented that the extension system was established, in part, to facilitate the transfer of information and technology to the people in a manner they could understand and use. Knowles (1977) noted that the three-way, educational partnership of the Cooperative Extension System makes available an informal educational system which represents to some the most extensive adult education program in existence. Apps (1987) noted that changing societal forces, a changing global situation, changing technology and changes in the land grant system are among the factors which influence the role of this extensive system of adult education. Van Tilburg Norland, SeEVERS and Smith (1990 specifically examined the extent extension personnel understand the general concepts of adult education and the adult learner.

From an organizational perspective, approximately two-thirds of extension's personnel are based at the county or regional level (Warner & Christenson, 1984). These local and regional educational agents are key personnel in designing, implementing and assessing programs for adults and youth. A key actor in the delivery of local programs is the county extension director (CED). This position has a variety of titles across states (county chair, extension leader, county extension chair, etc.); however, it is generally accepted that the person in the position of CED regardless of the specific title is the first-line or front-line manager for extension. Brown (1991) reported the CED is the first-line manager and is "generally recognized as the lowest level of the management team of an organization. Because they supervise all staff employed in the county, and are responsible for all administrative and management at the local level, their role is a critical one" (p. 6). Brown further suggested that the "total effectiveness of the system, below the central staff level, rests on the ability of individuals assigned the CED position to perform their role in an effective manner" (p.6).

The CED appointment at the county level is important business (Cox, 1989). The CED appointment represents the highest management level within the county. Additional responsibilities and authority are associated with the CED position. Information in the *CED Issue Committee Report* (1985) revealed CEDs were perceived to be responsible for performing a variety of management functions including leadership for program development, implementation and assessment; facilitating and promoting a supportive work environment for program and office staff; recruiting, developing, supervising and evaluating office and program staff; coordinating and maintaining planning groups including county extension boards; administering personnel policies and procedures; coordinating development of the county extension budget including procurement of funds; and

promotion and public relations of extension efforts. Similar general responsibility areas have been identified by others for both extension and other public agency front-line managers (Whiteside, 1985; Rodgers, 1977; Whetton & Cameron, 1984).

Cox (1989) reported the emerging CED responsibilities, the diversity of personnel in the CED position and the varied managerial experiences of the people in the CED position have contributed to an increasing number of extension personnel raising questions regarding the process used to identify and select personnel to assume the CED position. Whiteside and Bachtel (1987) asked, "County extension director, chairman, leader or coordinator--how are they selected?" O'Neill, Tomasino and Barbour (1987) addressed the CED assignment issue indicating agents are asking, "Who's in charge now?" Brown (1991) summarized the current situation regarding the selection and appointment of the CED indicating, "Ultimately the quality and effectiveness of the cooperative extension program in the state will depend upon the ability of the individual appointed as CED to perform the responsibilities delineated. It is no longer appropriate to assume that the individual with the longest tenure, or who is highly competent in a technical subject matter area, is necessarily the individual who can most effectively fulfill the responsibility of administering and managing the total county extension program" (p. 12).

PURPOSE

This paper examines the managerial development and training provided for CEDs in selected states which served as part of an information base for making general recommendations for CED development in Pennsylvania. Within that overall purpose, the following general questions were identified to provide a structure for presenting the results and subsequently making recommendations for the Pennsylvania setting.

1. What is the process used for selection/appointment of the CED?
2. What procedures are used to prepare and further develop personnel for the CED role?

INFORMATION SOURCES

The information represents a synthesis of two studies (Cox, 1989; Rollins & Yoder, 1992). The information for the Cox study used a multi-site, case study approach as described by Denzin (1970). In the Cox study 45 persons were interviewed (39 in a face-to-face setting and 6 via telephone) representing five different sites (states) identified by extension administrators as leaders in CED development. The 45 people interviewed in the five sites were regional or district extension personnel with responsibility for the supervision of CEDs; personnel specifically responsible for the managerial development of CEDs in

the sites; and CEDs themselves. An interview schedule was developed, tested and revised prior to use in the collection of information.

Information for the Yoder and Rollins (1992) study was collected via a mail questionnaire. This information was collected from all Pennsylvania extension agents (usable response rate of 71%) in late 1991. The instrument was designed to collect information pertaining to the locus of control orientation for county extension directors. The locus of control section was adapted from the earlier work of Rotter (1966) and Lefcourt (1976).

The authors acknowledge there are limitations to the information collected, especially with regard to the generalizability of the information. The interview information obviously reflects the opinions of the people interviewed. The investigators did conduct within site analyses to examine the consistency of the information provided by multiple informants representing various levels of the extension organization within each site.

THE PROCESS FOR CED SELECTION/APPOINTMENT

In examining the information for the five sites we found that in four of the sites the person assuming the role of CED was viewed as filling an appointment. This perception translates into the person in the CED role having assumed CED responsibilities in addition to the specific extension program responsibilities he/she had previously. In those four sites the general message conveyed was that normally when the "CED role is vacant", the organization first hires a person to fill the vacant program aspect and the person to assume the CED role is appointed when the full complement of local agent positions is intact. In the other site the CED role is considered a position rather than an appointment. In this site, although it is considered a position, as in the other four sites the person in the CED role has multiple assignments often related to a specific program.

There has been some innuendo that the process used to identify potential personnel and the actual selection of personnel to fill the CED role is not clearly defined and may be reflective of a "closed process." In all cases we did not find an individual who felt the appointment to CED was an "inherited right" of the next most experienced agent with respect to seniority. Leaders in extension indicated they were looking for the best qualified individual. The perceptions of a "closed process" may be the result of the process used in four of the sites where CED positions are not advertised within or outside the state unless special conditions warrant such, and then a specific agent position is advertised with the potential assignment of CED responsibilities.

In none of the sites was there a formal process to identify a pool of potential candidates for consideration in filling CED vacancies. Personnel in two of the case study sites reported that an "informal" pool is developed. Personnel at

one of those two sites indicated they were in the process of developing a system for identifying a formal pool of potential CED candidates. In two of the sites educational/training programs existed which informally served as a mechanism for identifying individuals with leadership and CED potential.

The actual appointment of the person to assume the role of CED in all cases relied extensively on the input from regional administrators. Regional administrators were actively involved in initiating, identifying and following through with the hiring of the individual. Generally the process began in a county with the vacancy. In two of the five case sites there was a formalized process of seeking input from the county staff in the CED appointment process. This formalized procedure amounted to county staff providing individual recommendations via a "secret advisory ballot" to the regional administrator for consideration in his/her deliberations. In two sites the outcomes of the candidates participation in formalized educational/training programs are considered in making a final decision.

PREPARATION/DEVELOPMENT FOR THE CED ROLE

In none of the sites was there a requirement for special inservice or prior management or administrative training before a person may be considered for appointment to the CED role. No formal training (formal in the sense that this type of training was deliberate and required) to prepare staff for potential CED assignments was conducted. In all cases there was reported "incidental" training available to prepare CEDs in advance of the assignment.

After a person was appointed to the CED role, personnel in four of the five sites reported, formalized training programs existed and the appointed CED was expected to participate (Table 1). Personnel in those sites where formalized training and development programs existed for CEDs reported a higher degree of satisfaction with the preparation provided for CEDs. In addition to the formalized programs there were numerous examples of other potential sources of training and staff development activities for CEDs. In examining the content of the formalized training programs, in four of the five sites the content of those programs reflected a specific job analysis of the CED role and an examination of the critical skills for the effective performance of the job.

Table 1. Training and Inservice Education Provided to the County Extension Director.

Site	Type of Preparation Provided for the CED Role		
	Formal Training Prior to Assignment	Formal Training After Assignment	Formal Orientation After Assignment
#1	No	No	No
#2	No	Yes	No
#3	Optional	Yes	Yes
#4	Optional	Yes	No
#5	No	Yes	No

IMPLICATIONS

A variety of organizational blockages or constraints influence the efficiency and effectiveness of public agencies and organizations. These organizational blockages may include inadequate recruitment and selection of personnel, inadequate preparation of individuals for their role, confusing or unclear management philosophy and structure and a lack of succession planning and management development. These types of blockages contribute to ineffective job performance. Job knowledge and skills, resource availability and organizational constraints have a direct link to human job performance. Walman and Spangler (1989) implied these direct links to job performance are the key to performance in a managerial role such as the CED.

The behaviors associated with effective CED management are learned, and we therefore make the assumption that most behaviors which are learned and developed may be changed or influenced through educational programming. The increasing demands on the CED in terms of management expectations and expanded responsibilities necessitate that specific, structured educational training programs/activities be provided CEDs. In some states this becomes even more important when one examines the demographics of the people currently in the CED role or position. For some of us there is the potential for substantial numbers of our CEDs to, in the very near future, enter into retirement. Thus there is the potential for an increasing number of people new to the CED role being asked to assume the increased responsibilities we are expecting the CED to complete.

The structured CED management development program the authors recommend for Pennsylvania should be based, in part, on the job analysis of the CED. In addition the research suggests that the link between management effectiveness, the use of power and locus of control is important in helping people to understand their management style and relationships with the people they supervise and their superiors. Thus, in addition to components

of a CED management development program which relate to the specific organizational responsibilities of the CED, we recommend that a more global perspective be added to management development which examines management philosophy and orientation from an industrial psychology and organizational behavior perspective. It is this perspective which the authors believe provides the basis for the development of visionary leaders effectively completing CED responsibilities. Such an approach requires a long-term organizational resource commitment to management development which reflects an integrated approach involving multiple disciplines.

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ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT: AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL FOR PRACTICE

Timothy J. Ellis and James H. McElhinney

ABSTRACT. A sensitivity to, and understanding of, ethical issues in the field of Adult Education is an important element of an adult educator's professional growth. However, minimal attention has been given in Adult Education literature to the actions a professional needs to take to progress toward ethical maturity. Through a synthesis of research and theory on adult development, this paper proposes a model illustrating how adult education professionals may align their own perspectives and actions with maturity in the ethical arena.

INTRODUCTION

During the last several years, there has been a noticeable increase of attention to ethical issues in adult education literature. Arising from perceptions that adult educators are now ready to take further steps in establishing the field's professional identity, Brockett (1988), Merriam and Cunningham (1988), Merriam and Cunningham (1989), and most recently, Connelly and Light (1991) have issued calls for professionals in adult education to form their own professional code of ethics. Connelly and Light (1991) have gone further to outline five principles to serve as a ground for such a code.

These developments raise important and challenging issues for adult educators. What new responsibilities would such a code place upon the adult educator as a professional? How might adult educators go about integrating their individual professional practice with such an ethical code? Are there strategies available for the practitioner to use to avoid or mitigate pressures, conflicts, and dilemmas that may arise in connection with adherence to such a code?

The purpose of this paper will be to begin a discussion of these applicational issues. The paper presents a developmental framework that adult educators may use to examine the nature and scope of their ethical responsibilities as professionals. In addition, the paper discusses how to undertake a process of individual alignment with professional maturity in the ethical arena.

Doctoral Student, Adult & Community Education, Dept. of Educational Leadership, 915 Teachers College, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306; Professor of Curriculum, Dept. of Educational Leadership, 915 Teachers College, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306.

RATIONALE

During the last several decades, many thoughtful scholars, working independently, have developed complex ethical constructs worth consideration by adult educators as we meet our daily professional responsibilities (see Figure 1). As they developed their theories, these scholars applied them on a variety of groups of individuals including children, college students,

Harvard students, and women. Their work with these diverse groups was valuable in that their experiences stimulated revisions and extensions of their thinking. Study of these scholars writing can also form the basis for understanding the importance and complexity of the task of developing comprehensive ethical principles.

There is a need, however, to distill the essence from this developmental research to make the concepts readily available for consideration and application by adult educators. This paper presents, examines, and synthesizes some of these concepts.

THE PROPOSED MODEL

ASSUMPTIONS

The Professional Ethical Development (PED) Model (see Figure 2) builds upon many of the assumptions of the developmental research known as "stage" theory (Cross, 1981; Merriam, 1984; Ferro, 1991). Like stage theories, the model assumes that development proceeds through identifiable stages based upon internal changes in a persons cognitive and value orientations. The model assumes that each stage builds upon the previous stage in a sequential and inclusive manner, and represents a gradual increasing of cognitive complexity, a broadening of perspectives, and an increase of task difficulty. The model also assumes that professionals progress through the stages at their own individual pace, may stop at any particular stage and never progress further, or may even regress. Another assumption is that development in the ethical arena is perhaps better portrayed by a "spiral" metaphor than a "ladder" metaphor (Gilligan, 1981). As adults move into differing arenas of life or into new areas of professional or practical endeavor, it is assumed that they must, to a certain extent, "retrace" the stages ethical development.

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

Adopting (Appropriation)

At the adopting stage, the professional senses the importance of ethical issues to their success as a professional, but lacks understanding. Their understanding of the ethical implications of their actions as a professional, and experience in applying ethical principles in practice is limited.

Learning tasks at this stage are to strengthen and mature a personal interest in, and commitment to, ethical integrity as a professional, to develop awareness and sensitivity to the ethical implications of one's actions as a professional, and to practice aligning one's actions with a code of ethics. It is important at this stage for the professional to experience the internal satisfaction of knowing that they have committed themselves to a set of principles and are abiding by these convictions.

Helpful resources to consult at this stage might include a code of ethics of an employing organization or professional association, articles on ethical issues pertinent to one's area of professional responsibility, and literature that outlines basic steps for applying ethical principles in practice. Examples of these types of resources are: "The Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education" (In Brockett 1988, pp. 203-204); "An Interdisciplinary Code of Ethics for Adult Education" (Connelly & Light 1991); *Ethical Issues in Adult Education* (Brockett, 1988); "Ethical Dilemmas in Teaching and Learning" (Merriam & Caffarella 1991); "Questions of Values and Conduct: Ethical Issues for Adult Education" (Singarella & Sork 1983), "Ethical Considerations in Distance Education" (Reed & Sork 1990); "A Psychologist Looks at the Teaching of Ethics" (Rest 1982).

Adapting (Individuation)

As the professional's sensitivity to the ethical component of their actions increases, and the professional gains experience in applying ethical principles in practice, the professional will grow in understandings that do not necessarily fit nicely into their adopted ethical code. At this point, the professional must grapple with revising or adapting their adopted code in order to not compromise new understandings.

Learning tasks at the adapting stage are to carefully examine one's own beliefs and to form a solid philosophical rationale for own's own ethical identity as a professional. These tasks require careful introspection, and a willingness to consider alternative philosophical perspectives.

Helpful resources to consult at this stage might include literature that outlines, contrasts and compares differing world views, and articles that discusses how to develop one's own philosophy. Examples of these types of resources are: "Translating Personal Values and Philosophy into Practical Action" (Hiemstra 1988), "Ethics in Professional Practice: Some Issues for the Continuing Educator" (Adelson 1990), *Selected Writings on Philosophy and Adult Education* (Merriam 1984), "Resolving Ethical Concerns in Clinical Practice: Toward a Pragmatic Mode" (Woody 1990).

Accommodating (Contextualization)

Once the professional has come to grips with what values and ethical principles they will adopt to guide their actions as a professional, and has a clear understanding of

why they hold these convictions, the professional is now ready to try out this new found identity in their work. As this is undertaken, new skills and understandings are needed. The professional must learn how to contextualize their values, and how to flexibly accommodate others while still not compromising personal ethical convictions.

Learning tasks especially relevant to this stage include developing respect and sensitivity for values and ethical convictions of others that differ from one's own, to learn the complex art of negotiating ethical conflicts and pressures, and to develop skill at adapting ethical principles to unique situational problems and complexities.

Learning resources that the professional may wish to consult at this stage include case studies which examine the consequences of particular ethical decisions in practice, literature that discusses ways to navigate various ethical conflicts which may be faced by a professional, and conflict management literature. Several examples of articles addressing these issues are: "Gamesmanship for Internal Evaluators Knowing When to "Hold'em and When to "Fold'em" (Adams 1985), "Analyzing Mental Health Evaluation: Moral and Ethical Dimensions" (Kirkhart 1985), "Ethical dilemmas in Evaluating Programs with Family Court Related Clients" (Johnson 1985).

Deliberating (Integration)

At the "adapting" stage the professional may have had a tendency to view ethical issues and principles in a rather inflexible, wooden, theoretical manner. The professional may have had somewhat of an "ivory tower" mindset--perceiving their values and beliefs as harmonious, neat, tidy, free from exceptions or inner contradictions. However, as the professional undertakes the difficult task of contextualizing these values in the "accommodating" stage, this "tidy" perspective is quickly lost. The professional begins to see that inner value conflicts exist within their ethical framework that cannot be easily resolved. This realization prepares the professional to undertake the learning tasks of the final "deliberating" stage of development.

At the deliberating stage, the professional lacks skills in dealing with the tensions and ambiguities of competing values. They also need to develop skills in critical reflection about their ethical decisions in practice, and to learn how to effectively balance their values in the face of multiple and often conflicting roles and responsibilities.

Learning resources that the professional may find particularly helpful at this stage include critical thinking literature, and articles that grapple with complex ethical issues and dilemmas. Several examples of these types of resources are: "A Model for Ethical Problem Solving in Medicine, with Practical Applications" (1987) "Ethical Practice in an Unjust World: Educational Evaluation and Social Justice" (Weiner 1990), "Being Ethical: Professional and Personal Decisions in Practice" (Smith 1985).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

At a time of growing interest and concern about ethical issues in adult education, and in all fields of public responsibility, this paper is intended to stimulate discussion, spark ethical inquiry, and expand awareness among theoreticians and practitioners. For research, the paper hopes to stimulate exploration into such issues as: the levels of ethical maturity of adult educators, and the nature of the developmental process involved in ethical maturation of adult education professionals. For practice, the model is intended to provide practitioners with a broader understanding of the maturational process involved in becoming an ethical professional in the field of adult education. It is hoped that discussion of the model will also inspire practitioners to assess their progress in their own individual journeys toward ethical maturity--translating personal and professional ethical convictions into practice in their professional lives.

(References will be provided upon request)

NEW YORK STATE ADULT LIFE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

Trenton R. Ferro

ABSTRACT. A comprehensive evaluation research study was conducted to determine how and why the New York State Adult Life Management Program has been so effective. Key findings were: 1) the change in learners' belief statements about themselves from "I'm a failure" to "I can"; 2) consistent utilization of learner-centered learning situations; 3) the central role of the teacher both in facilitating learning and in developing the learning modules, as well as the importance of on-going teacher support and teacher training; 4) the key concept of identifying and utilizing sensory learning styles; 5) the development of unit modules and lessons which fully utilize a) student potential, b) preferred learning styles, and c) understanding and insights gained from research into both (1) human development and (2) cognitive science and mind/brain research; and 6) practice based on a new educational paradigm which, although discussed in the adult education literature, is rarely applied. This paper, which contains highlights of the full report prepared for the New York State Education Department, looks at these key findings from the perspectives of student reactions, teacher reactions, coordinator reactions, instructional content, the instructional process, and the theoretical rationale undergirding the entire enterprise.

INTRODUCTION

The statewide leadership initiative of the New York State Adult Life Management Program has consisted of a massive instructional program development effort concentrating on staff development, curriculum development, and innovative instructional delivery systems. Teachers who have been trained in the program, who have assimilated its concepts and processes, and who have implemented them in their classrooms have shown dramatic results. Remarkable progress has also been made by students of the teachers who have grasped and utilized these procedures. How and why have these teachers been so effective? Why have their students demonstrated such notable growth and learning? What can be learned from these efforts which can be transferred to other programs and to the field of adult education? What can be used for staff development efforts? What can be used in curriculum planning? This paper summarizes the full report of this evaluation research project (Ferro, 1992).

Trenton R. Ferro, Assistant Professor, Adult and Community Education, 231 Stouffer Hall, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA 15705, Phone: (412) 357-2470; FAX: (412) 357-7822; Bitnet: TRFERRO@GROVE.IUP.EDU

METHODOLOGY

Because of the comprehensive nature of the program and the type of questions being asked (*how* and *why* the program has been working as it has), qualitative approaches were utilized. Data collection occurred through a series of interrelated phases and activities designed to provide the researcher as thorough a coverage of, and insight into, the Adult Life Management Program as possible. 1) An initial, three-day series of planning sessions was held with the state director and her assistant, at which time the entire project was developed and prospective resources and participants identified. 2) An introductory letter and reaction sheet were mailed to a select group of teachers and coordinators in the Adult Life Management Program. 3) A Life Management Project Evaluation Team was developed. This group of teachers and coordinators was the heart of the project. 4) The Life Management Project Evaluation Team held three, day-long sessions with the researcher over a three-month period. 5) Each team member, utilizing prepared sets of questions, interviewed two other teachers, five students, and one coordinator and sent the tapes of the interviews (or, in some cases, written responses to the questions) to the researcher for transcription and analysis. 6) While the interviews were being conducted, the researcher made observational site visits to several Adult Life Management classes throughout the state. 7) The third, day-long gathering of the Project Evaluation Team served as a debriefing session in which the researcher sought to draw upon a combination of the members' expertise and experience and of the insights they had gained during the interviews to develop composite depictions of the descriptions of, and feelings about, the Adult Life Management Program as provided by the teachers, students, and coordinators. 8) The researcher also conducted two, one and one-half day interviews with the state director, one of which also included her assistant. 9) Finally, an initial summary of the findings was presented in a workshop at the New York State Education Department.

OVERVIEW OF FINDINGS

The key findings of the evaluation research project which was conducted throughout New York state between March and August, 1991, were:

- * The change in learners' belief statements about themselves from "I'm a failure" to "I can."
- * Consistent use of learner-centered learning situations (unfortunately, words such as "teaching" or "education," although perfectly legitimate, still convey too many traditional, and often negative, meanings and memories).
- * The central role of the teacher both in facilitating learning and in developing the learning modules, as well as the importance of on-going teacher support and teacher training.
- * The key concept of identifying and utilizing sensory learning styles.

- * The development of unit modules and lessons which fully utilize 1) student potential, 2) preferred learning styles, and 3) understanding and insights gained from research into both a) human development and b) cognitive science and mind/brain research.
- * Practice based on a new educational paradigm which, although discussed in the adult education literature, is rarely applied.

What makes the Adult Life Management Program work so well are the various levels of human interaction, support, and caring. Learners are held up and treated as persons of worth and value; teacher/facilitators, modeling behaviors as people who care, commit themselves to drawing out the human potential in the learners; coordinators and directors at both the local and state levels, in turn, hold up and treat these teacher/facilitators as persons of worth and value.

STUDENT REACTIONS

Attitudes and actions noted by the researcher as he visited classes and talked with learners and teachers include:

- * Acceptance of the teacher and of each other by the learners.
- * Sharing of personal experiences without reticence.
- * Active participation, usually without prompting by the teacher.
- * Openness on the part of the learners in their responses to teachers, fellow students, and course content.
- * Bonding, as witnessed by numerous verbal expressions and physical actions.
- * Growing self-esteem; internalization of the IALAC ("I am lovable and capable") principle.
- * Responding to the love showered on them by the teachers, demonstrating that, although they are capable of and desire affection, they have been hurt to the extent that they have often withdrawn from intimacy for self-protection.

Any number of participants were beginning to reveal potential and capabilities which, until now, they have not realized. These are learners who are 1) recognizing and verbalizing both the blocks to developing their own potential and the dreams which will make tapping that potential possible and 2) developing the attitudes and strategies they can utilize in bringing about the change they desire in their lives. Many demonstrate that they are struggling against, and overcoming, the negative behaviors (for example, using drugs and alcohol, exhibiting abusive behaviors, etc.) which they have adopted to escape life situations with which they could not, until now, deal and cope. However, because of the positive atmosphere and accepting behaviors of the Life Management classes, learners are internalizing and responding to subject matter and activities. They are personally identifying

with and applying those attitudes and strategies which are being presented and discussed.

TEACHER REACTIONS

Teacher behaviors can be summed up in the word "LOVE" (yes, with capital letters). They are open, accepting, and positive; they treat their learners with respect, honor, and esteem. They are truly interested in their learners; they are facilitative; they respond to the moment, to what comes from the group, to--in terms of the jargon of the day--"where the students are." They are walking, breathing exemplars of what they teach. They demonstrate by their own behaviors those skills they encourage learners to develop and use:

- | | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| *Listening Skills | *Recognition of persons | *Dealing with anger |
| *Reflective feed-back | *Recognition of each positive step | *Coping with stress |
| *"I" messages | *Communication Skills | *Time management |

These facilitators have overcome the perceptions which students, especially those who participate in the Adult Life Management program, have developed of teachers as insensitive, judging, not caring, unresponsive, and unhelpful. Even though these characterizations may not be true, they are still the honest perceptions of students who have been turned off by their previous school experience which was usually content-centered and driven by behavioral objectives. The consequence of education thus organized is the treatment of students as objects, however unintentional such a consequence might be.

Life Management classes and teachers are person-centered. They regularly invite student input: "Be specific"; "Give us an example." They are constantly personalizing the learning; they "go with the flow." They share themselves by citing examples and experiences from their own lives. Because they are willing to risk by baring themselves and by holding up their own mistakes and follies for examination, they set the example for their learners to do the same. Nothing students say is wrong or attacked. Teachers demonstrate a continual concern for understanding the individual learner; they look constantly for the positive, for successes, for "pluses"; they help the learners get in touch with themselves. Thus encouraged, the learners gradually let down their defenses and begin to blossom and flower. Under the nurturing tutelage of dedicated and committed teachers, the learners begin to grow into their possibilities and dreams.

Life Management teachers know where they are going. They have a global perspective, a commitment to life skills education that is larger than the subject matter and larger than themselves. In fact, as interviews with teachers around the state attest, it would not be an inappropriate metaphor to say that those who have become involved in the full training,

developmental, and teaching processes connected with the Life Management program have experienced a "conversion." They are truly committed; they believe in what they are doing. They are people on a mission.

COORDINATOR REACTIONS

The role and function of coordinators in relationship to the Adult Life Management Program varies considerably. Some have been closely connected with the program since--and even before--its inception. Others, while having administrative and supervisory responsibilities for the program and the teachers in it, have not been very well acquainted with the actual contents and processes involved. More recently, Life Management teachers have moved into the position of coordinator. All in all, there has been a general growing awareness of the potential and possibilities of not only the Life Management program itself but of integrating it into other adult education (ABE/GED, literacy, homeless, etc.) programs as well.

THE CONTENT

The Adult Life Management Program is based on a sequence of "modules." Utilizing a series of needs assessment meetings held throughout the state, seven areas were identified as being both most important and most basic for inclusion in the program. Writing teams, composed of teachers and coordinators, developed and field-tested pilot editions of seven modules relating to life skills which are not limited to specific socio-economic or educational backgrounds. These seven modules are:

Communications--Students learn to accept their own potential for success.

They practice and master new techniques for listening and being heard.

Activate Your Learning Potential--Learners discover their preferred styles of learning and take responsibility for their own learning.

Parent Power--Through telling their stories and healing, adult learners break through the dysfunctional patterns that do not work for them.

They get to select alternative patterns that produce better results with their children.

Dual Roles--Learners are given an opportunity to acquire those skills necessary to manage multiple roles in life.

Relationships--Learners discover that by understanding their needs they are happier and better able to relate positively with others.

Eating Habits--Learners strive to reach their potential for balance, harmony, and health by learning about both the need to feed and how to provide adequate nutrition for themselves.

Making More "Cents"--Learners take a look at their attitudes about money and develop strategies for controlling their spending rather than have their spending control them.

There is a difference between the use of these modules and most other educational programs. They are not treated just as content. They are tools, means, vehicles for achieving a greater goal--that of activating the potential of each participant. Therefore, only possessing the modules is not sufficient for duplicating the success of the Adult Life Management Program. It is still necessary first to train--maybe a better word would be "sell"--teachers in the philosophy, concepts, and strategies which give the modules their strength.

THE PROCESS

How the content described above is handled is a matter of importance equal to, if not greater than, the content itself. The skills which the modules are designed to develop must be personalized. They need to touch each participant where that participant is. Setting the tone, the atmosphere, becomes a major concern, as does the identification of individual learning styles. The process is interactive and facilitative and is designed to establish belief in the self and to raise self-esteem. A number of the major components of the Adult Life Management Program are:

- * teacher involvement in program development as well as in the instructional process;
- * teacher support through modeling, networking, and training;
- * identification and utilization of sensory learning styles (auditory, visual, and kinesthetic);
- * the "Dance of Learning," a 9-step instructional delivery system developed by the state director, Alice Dyer (1987) and utilized in the development of the course modules;
- * the subject matter (see "Content" above); and
- * methods and devices which emphasize the affective domain and kinesthetic style of learning, including:

Think-and-Listen--In pairs, one person looks into the eyes of the other and concentrates on what the second person has to say without interruption for two minutes. At the end of that time period, the two persons change roles. This activity emphasizes the need to listen, even when we want to talk.

Guided Imagery--The teacher creates positive images that the listener can visualize, suggesting to the mind what is possible and inspiring and giving confidence to the listener.

Concerts--Based on the work of Lomanov, the teacher reads to music a fascinating story or play that incorporates the key concepts of the lesson. The concert helps bring information together by introducing it quickly and enjoyably to the long term memory.

Birthday Circle--A learner is chosen as the "birthday" person and placed in the center of a circle formed by everyone else. Each person in the circle then gives the birthday person a positive affirmation, beginning with the words, "I'm glad you were born because . . ."

Mind Mapping--This strategy is used for generating, organizing, and remembering many ideas and details and seeing how they relate to each other. It looks like the nub of a wheel with spokes radiating out from it, with the hub being the main idea of the map and the sub-ideas coming out of it like spokes.

Human Sculpture--In this strategy the bodies of the learners illustrate, visually and kinesthetically, the concepts being learned. For example, they form the shape of letters in a literacy class or demonstrate reaction to change in an interpersonal relations class.

Ball Toss--With the group in a circle, a ball (usually a koosh ball) is tossed from member to member. Only the person holding the ball may speak; other members may not interrupt. If a person wants to speak, she signals for the ball. However, she must wait until the person currently holding the ball has finished and tosses the ball to her.

Symbols--This strategy helps focus thinking, creating, and remembering. Learners are asked to think of and share a symbol that would most represent them.

THEORETICAL RATIONALE

The program works because the various elements which went into the design and development of the New York State Life Management Program were purposely selected and constructed. The program works because it:

- * Is grounded in human development research and concepts;
- * Utilizes adult learning principles;
- * Is holistic and humanistic;
- * Relates to the full taxonomy of educational objectives; and
- * Possesses the development and theoretical support of current research into
 - 1) cognitive science, especially the theory of multiple intelligences developed by Howard Gardner (1983);
 - 2) mind and brain research, especially the concept of the triune brain (see Sagan, 1977); and
 - 3) learning styles (discussed briefly above).

SUMMARY: WHAT IS LIFE MANAGEMENT?

This is both an easy and a difficult question. The program brochure states: "An extensive research and development effort integrating the concepts of human potential, human development, self-healing and literacy has produced a dynamic program model that

- * activates the unlimited potential of learners and teachers
- * transforms the classroom culture for learning and teaching
- * generates consistently bottomline results, where learning is evidenced by dramatic changes in behavior."

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IMPROVING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STAFF AND ORGANIZATIONS SUPPORTING ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS

Trenton R. Ferro

ABSTRACT. In response to a request for proposals issued by the Center for Rural Pennsylvania, and investigation was undertaken to determine the level of skills, understanding, and training needed by volunteer staff members in local, rural economic development councils. However, an extensive review of the literature and a statewide investigation conducted by means both of mail surveys and in-depth interviews throughout the state revealed that the problem is not what volunteer staff need to know in order to serve the inquiring public; the problem is that there are few volunteer staff who serve in this capacity. The problem is exacerbated by lack of full-time economic developers, lack of finances, lack of purpose and definition, and lack of support.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Rural communities traditionally rely more on part-time employees and volunteers to support economic development efforts than do metropolitan areas. State policymakers lack objective information about the skills of part-time staff and volunteers--what skills volunteers and part-time staff already possess and what skills must be developed. This information is needed to address complex economic development issues. In addition, there are many local economic development organizations. These organizations often do not coordinate their economic development efforts, and isolated rural areas often remain unserved. State policymakers need a thorough assessment of these issues to formulate effective policy supporting rural economic development. They need to know the nature of local organizations: what are their goals, what are the services they provide, and what are their accomplishments. Although rural areas have much to offer, the information currently available is insufficient for determining either the current level and type of need or the present activities, contributions, and interrelationships of these local economic development agencies. Are these resources being used to their fullest capacity? If not, why not? How can the potential of these agencies be enhanced? Research can target the existing needs, strengths, and opportunities. Out of this research can come appropriate recommendations for growth, development, adaptation, dissemination, and replication.

Trenton R. Ferro, Assistant Professor, Adult and Community Education, 231 Stouffer Hall, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA 15705, Phone: (412) 357-2470; FAX: (412) 357-7822; Bitnet: TRFERRO@GROVE.IUP.EDU

SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

The original purpose for undertaking a review of the literature (Ferro, 1992c) was to discover what research had been conducted, and what writing had been done, on the subject of the role and function of volunteers and part-time staff for rural economic development councils. Since there was a complete lack of any material on that topic, the search was expanded to include references to the volunteer in local, rural governments. Even here little of use came to light. Most of the literature which addresses the topic of volunteers in local (sometimes rural) government discusses the volunteer leader: the elected volunteer or part-time official, the business person serving on a local board or commission, and the like. Or the literature addresses issues related to citizen involvement (usually in community, not economic, development projects)--but not in the role of volunteer staff members working under a board and/or an executive. Even where the existence of such persons is recognized, little is said about them.

It was, therefore, necessary to cast a broader net and then to extrapolate material which might prove applicable to the development of volunteer programs in support of rural economic development. Still nothing was found which dealt with volunteer or part-time staff in economic development agencies, even in urban or large settings. However, some more general studies were found which describe the work of volunteers in community development and in local, urban government settings. This introduces a new set of concerns. How closely related are community development and economic development? Are models, skills needed, and approaches used sufficiently similar so that what is learned about volunteer roles and functions in the one can be transferred to the other? How transferable to rural areas is research done in urban areas? How transferable are studies of, say volunteer firemen and auxiliary police, to persons doing volunteer work in economic development agencies?

Even the little writing that does exist raises concerns about its usefulness. One concern deals with methodology. Very few of the reports were based on any form of reliable research. Most pieces were prescriptive (telling what should be done) or descriptive (talking about what has been done, sometimes in a self-congratulatory manner) rather than analytical (investigating how effective current practice is or potential practice might be). The prescriptive/descriptive materials can be useful because they are often grounded in (sometimes extensive) experience. It's "what works." However, without conscious attempts to investigate in a reliable manner what is being done or to test new ways of doing things, practice is still based on untested theory. Fortunately, some recent efforts have been made to alter this situation, as the work of Silver (1988) and Ilsley (1990) attest.

A second concern is focus. Although supposedly about volunteers, a fair amount of the literature actually deals with the management (i.e., control) of volunteers. In other words, a fair portion of what little literature there is does not address the concerns and needs of volunteers themselves. Rather, the true topic is the *use* of the volunteer by the organization: How can we get more of them? What can we get from or out of them? How can we keep them? The whole issue of whether volunteers are unpaid staff (Chambré, 1992) focuses on the organization, not on the volunteer. Hopefully, fully addressing these questions will force those asking them to start looking at the volunteers first: What motivates volunteers? Why do they volunteer? What do they expect to get out of the experience? How can the organization meet these needs? Again, some of the more recent pieces are concerned about these matters (Clary et al., 1992; Ilsley, 1990; Silver 1988; Story, 1992).

These concerns lead to other issues and questions, more closely related to the initial topic, that need to be addressed and would prove fruitful ground for further research efforts. There is a need to clarify the various roles in which volunteers do or might function in the public sector. These include, but may not be limited to: citizen volunteers who a) serve as board members (involved in making policy); b) serve as members of advisory councils, committees, etc., with input but not decision-making powers; c) perform a series of more specific tasks in the regular operation of programs and agencies (i.e., serve as staff, not board members or management); and d) fulfill a combination of these functions. What do volunteers need to know in order to carry out any of these roles? What areas of knowledge are generic, and what are specific to particular agencies and programs? Can a person who successfully volunteers in one capacity, function, and/or agency do so with equal success in another? More specifically, what is the relationship between community development and economic development? Are the skills acquired in one setting transferable to the other? Because of the paucity of current research, the field is open for the interested investigator.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A number of related research efforts and approaches were undertaken in order to address the issues raised in the problem statement. First, a review of research and literature discussing staff and volunteers in rural economic development councils was undertaken. The information found as a result of this search is presented in Ferro, *Staffing of Rural Economic Development Councils: A Review of the Literature* (1992c), summarized above.

Second, an attempt was undertaken to identify and list rural economic development councils in Pennsylvania. The research utilized informal contacts, both local and throughout the commonwealth, to begin the development of a list of persons or groups who might be able to identify such councils. A letter and an information request form were developed and sent

to the list of names generated in this fashion. Eventually 310 agencies were identified. This effort is described more fully, and the agencies listed, in Ferro, *Economic Development Organizations in Pennsylvania: Part I* (1992a).

This effort led to the discovery of two other statewide projects aimed at collecting data on economic development organizations: the Economic Development Directory (EDD), part of the Economic Development Information Network developed by the Pennsylvania State Data Center, and the Census of Economic Development Providers conducted by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Commerce. These projects, however, are not limited to economic development councils; they are attempts to identify *all* agencies--public and private, profit and non-profit--which are related in some way to economic development. Furthermore, these projects are not limited to rural areas; they are attempting to gather complete information on *all* identified economic development efforts throughout the Commonwealth. These projects are referenced more fully in Ferro, *Economic Development Organizations in Pennsylvania: Part II* (1992b).

Next, an in-depth investigation of the economic development council in Indiana County, Pennsylvania, was conducted, for the purpose of looking at the nature and mix of full- and part-time staff and volunteers; their knowledge, attitudes, and skills; and agency interrelationships. The purpose of this investigation was to provide a basis and framework for extending the study of rural economic development councils to the state level. This step in the project was carried out by conducting in-depth interviews with key persons involved with the county council.

The statewide investigation was conducted at two levels. On the basis of information and data collected through the literature search and the in-depth study of the economic development council in Indiana County, a cover letter and three survey forms were developed. A letter and a set of survey forms was sent to the complete list of economic development organizations which resulted from the organization identification stage described above, as well as to additional appropriate organizations in rural counties which are listed in the Census of Economic Development Providers and were not previously identified in the organization identification stage of this project.

The second level was to select a representative sample of rural counties for conducting on-site interviews. Two parameters were utilized in this selection process. One was to choose at least one rural county from each of the six regions organized by the Department of Community Affairs (DCA) (Department of Community Affairs, 1991). Because there are no rural counties in Region One--Southeast, rural counties were selected from the other five regions.

The other parameter was to select counties with varying percents of rural residents as identified by the Center for Rural Pennsylvania (Center for Rural

Pennsylvania, October, 1991). A county is considered rural if at least half (50%) of the residents live in municipalities (boroughs and townships) with a population of less than 2,500 and which are not contiguous to built-up, urbanized areas. By using a simple random drawing, and making some minor adjustments to accommodate driving time, the following counties were selected (with the percent of rural residents and the DCA region given in parentheses): Butler (67.5%; Southwest), Clearfield (77.2%; Northwest), Forest (100%; Northwest), Mifflin (79.8%; North central), Perry (94.1%; South-central), and Schuylkill (58.4%; Northeast), in addition to Indiana (79.1%; Southwest).

RESULTS

The analysis of the data has not been completed when this paper was written. However, some observations, generalization, and conclusions can already be drawn. The most striking finding of all, especially in light of the problem statement and the impetus lying behind this initiative, is that in *none* of the rural economic development agencies visited were there any part-time or volunteer staff. There are volunteers, but they primarily serve on the boards or as elected officials. In the former case, these are active and busy people involved in business and other civic pursuits who do not have the time or inclination to receive training in the intricacies or nuances of economic development. They depend on the local manager, director, or executive to take care of that. In the latter case, elected officials are not only part time; they are also shoulder a number of responsibilities, one of which might be activities related to economic development. The problem, then, is not the composition of the staff in rural economic development councils, but the *lack* of staff.

The problem--and there is a *big* problem--is that the person most responsible for economic development does so part time. This part-time responsibility takes two forms. One is a full-time employee of the county who does economic development along with several other duties. The other is that the person responsible for economic development only works in the county on a part-time basis, either as a consultant who has other accounts to attend to as well or as one who works in more than one county. In either case, that person's responsibilities may not be totally in rural counties; the economic developer may also work in urban areas.

Summary of other findings:

- lack of clear and common economic development purpose or mission. A diversity of perspectives exist. Some are broad (and in these cases local economic developers usually have a much clearer concept of their mission and purpose): to improve the quality of life; job creation and retention. Others are narrow, seeing as their tasks tourism, industrial development, etc. In fact, these persons often contrast their responsibilities with economic development. They do not see theirs as an economic development task. (The EDD questionnaires and Census of Economic Providers bear this out with the wide list of activities from which respondents might choose).
- Lack of definition. What is an economic development council!? This investigator though he knew until recipients of the original letter and survey form called and asked what was meant by an economic development council. Is there a clear conception and definition at the state level? This warrants investigation. The approach taken here is to define an economic development council as a not-for-profit private or public organization, composed of a volunteer board representative of the

community and an executive, director, or manager, whose chief aim is the economic improvement of the community. Not included in such a definition are utilities, governmental agencies concerned solely or primarily with infrastructure (although, to be sure, infrastructure is an important component of an economic development plan), groups with a limited scope or purpose (e.g., a tourism council), and the like.

--lack of technical knowledge and expertise. In most cases not only is there no part-time or volunteer staff. What staff there is is often clerical, and this person (or, in some cases, these persons) do not possess the technical knowledge or expertise required to assist individuals with questions. Only one or two persons in most cases possess sufficient knowledge to carry out economic development initiatives--and the extent of this knowledge and expertise varies greatly.

CONCLUSIONS

No common denominator among the various efforts toward economic development in the rural counties studied--each effort is unique. Similarities among programs due primarily to attempts at meeting demands of funding agencies at the regional and state level.

However, rural economic development councils share similar problems:

- lack of funding;
- lack of staff--of any sort;
- lack of technical support and expertise;
- on-the-job learning; and
- part-time leadership. In many cases managers/executives/directors are:
 - 1) consultants with other accounts as well, 2) responsible for several tasks or play several roles in the county, or 3) work in more than one county. (1) and (3) may only be involved part-time in rural (vs. urban) work as well.
- Many of the good ones move on to better paying positions once they learn the ropes.

More often than not economic development activities are reactive rather than proactive--persons responsible deal with requests as they might come, but they do not have the time or wherewithal to actively develop opportunities or seek out potential clients.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE USE OF COMPUTERS BY PROFESSORS OF ADULT EDUCATION: A PATH ANALYSIS

Jeanette Harold

ABSTRACT. This ex post facto research was conducted, using path analysis, to determine the direct and indirect effects of Age, Degree Age, a perception of Need, Value, Support, and Anxiety with respect to computer Use among members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. A survey was sent to 307 active and affiliate members of the Commission. Analysis of variance was used to compare levels of various demographic variables to Need, Value, Support, Anxiety, and computer Use. A recursive model of these Factors was subjected to path analysis in order to partition the correlation that existed between the various Factors. Conclusions were based on the direct effects and the total effects (direct and indirect) of one Factor on another. Results indicated the total effect of a Commission member's age on each of the Factors: Value, Support, Use, and Need was negative. There was a positive indirect significant relationship between Age and computer Anxiety. A perception of Need and Anxiety both had a significant direct effect on computer Use. In order to advance the use of computers among members of this population, there should be an increase in awareness of the potentialities of the technology and a simultaneous effort should be made to reduce computer anxiety.

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of the microcomputer in the early 70s has had a dramatic affect on the way in which work is performed. One of the benefits of this technology has been the increase in productivity that can be accomplished. The university community, like the business community, has been under increased pressure to increase its output (Brucker, 1985). The availability of this technology has caused the university to seek ways to utilize and promote its adoption to better accomplish the research, teaching and service mission of the institution (Hoos, 1975). However, the university professor has had to rely, primarily on his own initiative to acquire computer skills to enhance his/her productivity.

Jeanette Harold, Computer Information Specialist, College of Business Administration, Calvin Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas 66502.

Personal adoption of an innovation is accomplished after an individual has initiated and completed five stages: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971). These stages are influenced by numerous Factors, of which the following are included: a perception of Need, perceived Value of the innovation to the client, perception of available Support, feelings of Anxiety, and various demographic characteristics.

The influence of these Factors on adults is addressed by various theories and models of adult education (Cross, 1986, Knowles, 1980). Adults seek learning experiences when they feel a need for that learning and with the expectation they can be successful in accomplishing a goal to which they attach significance. The models also suggest some of these Factors act as deterrents or barriers to that participation.

The focus of this investigation was to study the strength of these suggested Factors as they interacted with each other to influence the use of computer technology by adults.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The population investigated was the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. This group, formed in 1957, is influential in the development and monitoring of adult education curricula at institutions of higher education and has a history of commitment to the development of computer skills. The specific research hypotheses directed toward this population were as follows:

- (1) There is a positive relationship between the Age of members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education and the hours they spend using a computer.
- (2) The amount of computer anxiety experienced by members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education will have a positive relationship with the amount of time spent using a computer.
- (3) The perceived level of computer Support available to members of the Commission will have a negative relationship with the amount of time they spend using a computer.
- (4) The perceived level of Need for a computer by members of the Commission will have a negative relationship with their degree of use of a computer.
- (5) The hypothesized recursive model fits the data collected.

(6) Female members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education experience a lower degree of computer anxiety than do male members.

METHODOLOGY

A survey was sent to 307 active and affiliate members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education and 171 were returned. The first part of the survey requested demographic information. The second part consisted of a set of forty questions, each answered on a one to five point Likert scale, addressing the Factors mentioned earlier.

The statistical procedure used to examine the relationships in this study was path analysis, a multivariate method used to study patterns of causation among three or more variables. The advantage of path analysis over other multivariate procedures is its ability to decompose a correlational relationship between any two variables of a model. A model was developed relating certain "cause" variables with other "effect" variables. Once the direct and indirect effects between the Factors were determined, through multiple regression, a reduced model was created and the statistical process was repeated on the second model. Comparing the two models resulted in concluding that the hypothesized model did fit the data. Certain demographic data were examined using analysis of variance.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Hypothesis 1

The magnitude of the Direct Effect of Age on hours of computer Use was $-.10$ and the magnitude of the Indirect Effects were $-.09$ for a Total Effect of $-.19$ (Table 2). The negative relationship was significant at the $.05$ level. The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative accepted; older members of the Commission use a computer fewer number of hours per week.

Hypothesis 2

There was a significant Direct Effect of Anxiety on Use ($-.26$, $p < .01$) and an Indirect Effect of $.00$ for a significant Total Effect of $-.26$ at $p < .01$ (Table 2). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted; the number of hours spent on a computer decreases as the anxiety level increases.

Hypothesis 3

The magnitude of the Direct Effect of Support on Use was $-.11$ and the Indirect Effects were $.02$ for a Total Effect of $-.09$ (Table 2). None of the results were significant at the $.05$ level. The null hypotheses was retained; the number of hours of computer Use increases as a perception for Support decreases.

Hypothesis 4

There was a significant Direct Effect relationship between a perception of Need for a computer and the number of hours of computer Use ($.40$, $p < .01$). The magnitude of the Indirect Effects were $.06$ resulting in a significant Total Effect of $.46$ at the $.01$ level (Table 2). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative was accepted; a perception of increasing Need for a computer was accompanied by an increase in the number of hours spent using the computer.

Hypothesis 5

No significant difference was found to exist between the overidentified model and the reduced model at the $.05$ level. Therefore, the overidentified model cannot be rejected as to adequately portraying the data collected.

Hypothesis 6

Analysis of Variance (Table 1) supports the null hypothesis. The anxiety experienced by female professors of the Commission toward a computer was not significantly different from that experienced by male professors of the Commission.

TABLE 1

Computer Anxiety Experienced By Men and Women

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	1	.92	.92	1.31	.2544
Within Groups	163	114.07	.70		
Total	164	114.99			

OTHER FINDINGS

The average number of hours spent using a computer was not significantly different for male and female members of the Commission. The number of hours spent using a computer by an associate or an assistant professor was significantly more than for an emeritus professor ($p < .05$). There was also a significant difference in the time spent using a computer by an assistant professor and a full professor. The undergraduate major of a Commission member was not a significant indicator of the hours of Use a professor makes of the technology.

CONCLUSIONS

There are attitudinal constructs which impact the degree of Use a Commission member makes of a computer in the academic work place. It is important to recognize not all of these constructs have a direct effect on the number of hours a computer is used. This study has demonstrated a methodology for decomposing these relationships in order to consider component parts. Pearson correlation coefficients allow for the study of relationships between variables but represent the sum of the direct effects, indirect effects, spurious effects, and unexamined effects.

TABLE 2

Decomposition of Effects from the Path Analysis
of Overidentified Model

Causal Effects						
Effect	r	Direct	Indirect	Total	R ²	e
On Anxiety	.28	.85				
By Support	-.27**	-.09	.00	-.09		
By Deg_Age	.10	-.07	-.04	-.11		
By Need	-.43**	-.22**	-.19**	-.41**		

By Value	-.49**	-.33**	.00	-.33**
By Age	.19**	.06	.17*	.23**
On Value	.35	.81		
By Need	.57**	.56**	.00	.56**
By Deg_age	-.17*	.11	-.06	.05
By Age	-.26**	-.16*	-.13*	-.29**
On Support	.05	.97		
By Deg_Age	-.16*	.002	.00	.002
By Age	-.24**	-.23**	.00	-.23**
On Use	.29	.84		
By Support	.07	-.11	.02	-.09
By Deg_Age	-.25**	-.06	.02	-.04
By Anxiety	-.38**	-.26**	.00	-.26**
By Need	.48**	.40**	.06	.46**
By Value	.25**	-.11	.09	-.02
By Age	-.29**	-.10	-.09	-.19**
On Need	.10	.95		
By Deg_Age	-.24**	-.10	.00	-.10
By Age	-.29**	-.23**	.00	-.23**

* p<.05

** p<.01

Age is an important consideration in investigating why use of computer technology varies among people. The total effect of the Age of a Commission member associated negatively with hours of computer Use, perception of Value, perceived Support, and perceived Need for the technology. Viewing the Commission as a whole; as the age of the member increased the average weekly computer time decreased, perception of Value of the computer tended to decrease, perception of available computer Support diminished, and expressed Need for computer technology decreased. All of the total effects were significant at the .05 level. Similar findings were reported by Morris (1988), Jacobson & Weller (1987), Howard & Smith (1986). The total effect of Age on anxiety ($p < .06$) was positive, though not significant. There was a trend toward older members experiencing greater computer anxiety. This relationship was due to indirect effects, as Age influenced a perception of Value and Need for the computer.

The only Factors that significantly affected Use, directly, were a perception of Need and a feeling of Anxiety toward the technology. A perception of available Support and Age of the highest degree did not influence Use significantly. Age and Value had no significant direct effect, however, Age did have a significant total effect due to the indirect influence of Age on Need.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this study are applicable to a number of areas. First, a computer task force of the Commission can make use of the results to further its goals for that organization. Second, the results contribute to an already substantial amount of research on how it is people are affected by computer technology, by adding this adult component. Third, those who are responsible for training adults in the use of computer technology will find the strength of the factors important in developing effective training programs. Fourth, the statistical procedure (path analysis) used in this study should be considered in other behavioral investigations where partitioning direct and indirect influences is important.

Based on the results of this study, training efforts should be directed toward full and associate professors. A network for sharing applications of computer technology and support should be encouraged. The use of computer technology to increase productivity among adult educators of the future should be addressed in the adult education curricula of institutions of higher education.

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USING ADULT LEARNING TECHNIQUES IN ADULT EDUCATION CONFERENCES

John A. Henschke

ABSTRACT. Conversation abounds regarding the importance of conducting adult education conferences through using adult learning techniques which are consistent with what is known about how adults learn. Many professionals already successfully implement this naturally, and experience very positive feedback and results. But many still struggle with the question, "Why don't we practice on ourselves what we say we believe about adult learning?" The question this paper seeks to explore is: Since the field is not very systematic in this, what needs to happen if it is to change? Much published literature suggests various designs and techniques for making the transition, even in short conference sessions of less than an hour. However, most conference program committees are reluctant to insist on this as a requirement for presenting at the conference. Those seeing this as important need to make and sustain the commitment to accomplish this, using the suggestions of the literature to help follow through. The breakthrough will come as we crack the genetic code and awaken organizations of adult, continuing, extension and community educators (that's us!) to such a level we can't go back to the ruts of our proceduralized, anesthetized, sleep -- conducting conference sessions without using adult learning techniques to involve the participants.

INTRODUCTION

Conversation abounds on the importance of using adult learning techniques which are consistent with what is known concerning how adults learn. More specifically, some insist that an adult education conference session, above all, is the place where this practice needs to be most prominent. Theory says that the quality of the learning gained at conferences, institutes, workshops, etc., is in direct proportion to the quantity and quality of the interaction between the platform person(s), the subject matter content, and the audience as well as

John A. Henschke, Associate Professor, University of Missouri-St. Louis,
Continuing Education Specialist, University Extension- University of
Missouri / Lincoln University, 8001 Natural Bridge Road, St. Louis, Missouri
63121-4499

among the participants themselves. Research on how adults learn has confirmed their desire for: active participation in the learning process, being treated as "grown-ups" instead of as "children", engaging in a variety of experiential learning techniques, discussion time allotted in conjunction with a lecture if one is given, interaction with others in small groupings that helps them to internalize information, hands-on-practice, opportunity for each to share his/her expertise with others, raising questions about and exploring problems and various possibilities of practical application; in short, meeting their learning needs as they perceive and understand them.

A DESCRIPTION AND OUTLINE OF THE CONCERN

It hardly needs to be repeated that many conference sessions have all of this implemented very competently and successfully. There are those presenters who are "naturally talented" in this direction and adult, continuing, extension and community educators benefit as well as enjoy those times. This keeps us attending the myriad conferences we do. Nevertheless, this is more the exception than the rule. Each person has had his/her joy diminished, having participated in a large meeting of adults - conference, institute, workshop, seminar, etc., - and has said or heard someone else say, "Why do we violate everything we believe about how adults learn?" or, "Why don't we practice on ourselves what we preach about adult learning?" or, "Please, no more long lectures!" or, "Why should I stay in that session and be talked 'down to?'"

In addition, many have been presenters at conferences, etc., - concurrent sessions - and struggled with the dilemma of saying to themselves: "How can I get all of it said in the short time allotted?" or, "I don't have time in my session to engage the participants actively." or, "This interaction with conference participants is for other presenters, but I don't need to do it." or, "Having structured a lot of interaction, I still did not accomplish what I hoped to!"

The major concern is why, up till now, have we as professionals not been very systematic in practicing our adult learning principles in conference, institute, workshop, seminar, etc., settings, and, what needs to happen if we are to change?

IMPORTANCE OF THE CONCERN BOTH TO RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IN ADULT, CONTINUING, EXTENSION AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The most obvious aspect of all this concern about using adult learning techniques in adult education conferences is that we as teachers of adults or facilitators of adult learning are not practicing our own principles which we know and say we believe regarding helping adults learn. As a consequence, it raises some doubt regarding the value of the link from "research - to -

practice" in this field of study. Could it possibly be that it requires us to "think" if we are to link research and theory to practice and we prefer not to think of new ways to conduct our practice but stay in our familiar "I've always done it this 'other' way?"

If, on the other hand, practice has found, either intentionally or by accident, that participants do express satisfaction on increased learning results from their active participation, then, it seems very important, not only for the practice of involving adults actively in the learning process to be repeated again and again, but also for the research to continue, as well as linking the two more often and more consistently.

THE EXTENT TO WHICH VARIOUS APPROACHES HAVE BEEN ATTEMPTED TO DEAL WITH THE CONCERN

Numerous materials have been published which deal with this concern from a variety of perspectives and approaches. Although many suggestions are provided for presenters, participants will also be encouraged to become proactive in their participation, planners will also be enabled to improve conference designs, and administrators can also become more focused in their expectations of organizational benefit derived from their staff attending a conference.

Bedrosian (1991) suggests, that the ultimate checklist for affecting the audiences experience includes: setting the vision, being invited to speak, defining focus, shaping content, preparing materials and visuals, practicing, checking mechanics, and delivering the program.

Bellman and Kelly (1986) provide a workshop planner consisting of: Listing training needs, identifying objectives, describing the audience, knowing physical environment, describing limitations and how to overcome them.

Burke and Beckhard (1970) emphasize the process of planning various aspects of technology, suggested themes, and training of conference personnel in order to bring a conference to reality.

Cinnamon (1980) devotes 105 pages of narrative and forms to the participants perspective on effective participation, self-assessment, goal setting, learning/insights journal, active planning, skill development tracking system, resource identification and planning, and evaluation.

Davis (1974) presents 23 ideas on working with adults in planning, conducting and evaluating workshops, and includes 32 aids and a primer of 10 different methods for involving adults in the learning process.

Henschke (1992) edited the September issue of Adult Learning with each of four different authors providing an article focusing on practicing adult learning principles in conferences from the points of view of: administrator, presenter, participant, and planner.

Illesley (1985) offers ideas on planning, participation, and provocative and practical considerations regarding ideal conferences. The eight chapters include focus on: process, dealing with problems, environment, profit form attending, first-time participants, residential, design, and outcomes.

Jones (1982) focuses on issues, tips, tricks, selecting and using media and methods, insuring back-on-the-job performance, and interestingly enough, understanding the adult learner. He does all this through 56 short articles, including one on 30 things we know for sure about adult learning -- in motivation, curriculum design and learning settings.

Loughary and Hopson (1979) call for setting aside the false assumptions of: if you can do it, you can teach it; teaching is simply showing and telling; everyone learns at about the same speed; my subject is interesting to everyone; and everyone wants to learn what I have to teach. Conferences could be vastly improved if the presenters actually set these false assumptions aside when they planned and made their presentation.

Margolis and Bell (1986) target results by clarifying what training involves, making arrangements, learning climates, presentations, instructions, managing individual and group work, the reporting process, learning activities and after the session is over.

McLagan (1982, 1985) offers a virtual 70 page encyclopedia and 35 page workbook of tips for participants, aiming for results. Sections include planning for results, information handling, learning strategies, action planning, note-taking, and strategy suggestions.

Nadlers (1987), unfortunately only devoted 4 pages of instructions on 54 learning strategies and aids within what is supposed to be a comprehensive guide of detailed instruction and step-by-step checklists for everything involved in meetings and conferences.

Smith (1986) helps participants identify and analyze personal learning.

This (1972) helps identify human forces at work in a conference and presents extensive methods and techniques for dealing with those forces to enhance learning. He identifies and explains the use of 76 methods and techniques, 36 visual aids, and 15 audio-visual aids.

Wircenski and Sullivan (1986) plan for audience, topic and facilities, deliver verbal and non-verbal communication, questions and reinforcement, humor and follow-up during training, through instructional feedback, and in the workplace.

Despite all the rhetoric, research, theory and published instructions, there is still a very huge gap between principles and practice in our field, especially in conferences.

THE WAY THIS CONCERN RELATES TO CONFERENCE THEME OF LINKING RESEARCH / THEORY AND PRACTICE

The steering committee of this Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference has discussed this concern for a number of years. In fact, the idea of linking the two was part of the impetus for starting this kind of "get together" in the field eleven years ago. While some progress has been made to improve the situation, it remains largely in the talk stage. The format of the manuscripts to be published in the proceedings has strict guidelines to be adhered to: number of pages, spacing, margins, font style and size, title page, abstract, first page details, headings and sub-headings, tables and figures, pagination, printing, and most recently computer format to conform to the era of high-tech. However, there is no such strictness in the guidelines for oral presentations. Even though concern is expressed that every presentation maximize conference participation, only three alternatives for participant involvement are proposed, with the option provided for the presenter to check preference of method. They are: (1) Participant involvement in listening and feedback teams, (2) Panel of reactors, and, (3) Presentation with questions and answers. Pale and confusing by comparison are these guidelines provided for oral presentations. They are referred to on green colored paper as "oral presentation guidelines" and as being described further on more green colored paper, but are in fact described further on salmon colored paper which is labeled "steering committee proposal selection". Reluctance has been continuously expressed by the steering committee of this conference concerning requiring the addressing of this issue as one of the strict criteria for presenting at this conference.

Everytime this writer's effort has been focused on preparing to and practicing adult learning principles in any adult learning setting -- conference settings, credit courses, large meetings, small groups, workshops, seminars -- the resulting participant satisfaction, benefit, insight, interaction and feedback have far outweighed the energy required. Even with professional adult basic educators, who seem to be primarily concerned with participant subject matter acquisition, three different conference session groups totaling over one hundred persons affirmed the learning process as being a critical element in those conference sessions as well as in the adult basic education programs in which they teach. Furthermore, these sessions were designed to involve

them in a learning process to answer for themselves the question, "Is the learning process a critical element in adult basic educational programs?" and after they answered the question, then they were asked to evaluate the learning process they had just been involved in to answer the question.

While this writer was reflecting on reasons for his moving in the direction of modeling principles of adult learning and practicing the research findings of our field, the major reason which became apparent was the belief that this was important enough to make the commitment to do, no matter how long it took to refine the process in order to get past the "rough edge" stage and to be headed toward the "comfort zone" stage.

The literature availability cited above then became supportive, explanatory, suggestive, idea sparking and a help to follow through on the commitment. McLagan (1990) in Sustaining Change suggests that in changing any of our practices, we need to crack the genetic code and awaken organizations (and that means, we the professionals who are in them) to such a level they (we) can't go back to the ruts of our proceduralized, anesthetized, sleep -- and in this situation it means, we can't go back to conducting conference sessions without using adult learning techniques to actively and dynamically involve the participants. It may be well for us and, incidentally, an improvement for our field when we as professionals are preparing for and conducting conference presentations to ask and answer for ourselves the following three questions as guidelines for our practice of selecting and using learning techniques: (1) How does my selection and use of a particular learning technique for this conference session fit into my understanding of the way adults learn or change (learning theory)? (2) What position does this learning technique hold in the context of learning objectives toward which I am working in this conference session (learning design)? (3) What immediate and observable learning needs does this adult learning technique meet at this time with these conference participants (specific relevance)?

Further research on the above, on competencies necessary for conference presenters, additional questions for consideration, and discussion during this conference session on appropriate research topics could be beneficial. Questions may include, but not be limited to: To what extent is this issue important to the field and/or myself? Would it be a help or hindrance to the field that the link be closer and more consistent between the research and practice? Why or why not? If I as a professional were to reflect on the direction I need to move regarding this issue, which way would it be and what will it take to help me move forward?

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DISTANCE EDUCATION AND INTERACTIVE VIDEO

Norman Hope

ABSTRACT. This study is a synthesis of major issues surrounding distance education and the use of interactive video. It is designed to help the adult educator to avoid problems in the institution of an interactive video system for use in distance education.

This project focuses on distance education and interactive video. The project defines distance education, discusses learner related issues (course access, instructional quality, and learning support systems), instructor related issues (teaching strategies, faculty attitudes, and instructional skills), and institutional issues (institutional philosophy and institutional costs).

INTRODUCTION

Distance education is study which is not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students, however, students benefit from the tutors skill, experience and expertise. Distance education involves two way traffic between students and the learning organization by way of either telephone, written correspondence, or some other media (Holmberg, 1986).

As one can see from Holmberg's definition, distance education contains several key characteristics. First, distance education involves more than one person. Second, there is communication between the instructor and the learner. Third, the communication occurs through some media.

Sakamoto (1986) describes direct distance teaching as a process where the instructor is at a broadcast center and the learner is at a receiving site. Information is transmitted to the learner from the teacher through the media. The learner transmits their response through the media and the teacher makes the evaluation based on the media transmitted response. This pattern most closely represents what happens when the media used in distance education is interactive television. This project addresses some of the issues surrounding distance education and the use of television (interactive television) as the transmission media.

Norman Hope, Associate Professor Tabor College, 400 S. Jefferson, Hillsboro, Kansas 67063

ISSUES RELATED TO THE LEARNER ACCESS TO COURSES

One of the most critical issues in distance education is the concern over access to courses. Hazel and Dirr (1991) indicate that 84% of those participating in distance education programs said travel time is the most important reason for using distance education as opposed to attending on campus courses. The use of interactive television can ease this burden.

In testimony to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Services, Kitchen (1987) noted that interactive television systems are an effective alternative for delivering education to clustered educational systems. Kitchen went on to state that interactive systems would allow an increase in course offerings.

QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION

Assuming that interactive television can increase the access to adult education programs, then what about the quality of the educational experience. Whittington (1987) reported on three studies contrasting performance outcomes of students in interactive television systems and conventional classroom settings. Each of these studies showed no significant difference in course grade point averages when comparing students who were instructed using interactive television and students using conventional classroom instruction. Dillon, Gundwardena, and Parker (1989) indicate that 88% of students surveyed in the Oklahoma Regents Survey would recommend televised instruction courses to a friend. They go on to say that 66.67% of students didn't feel that the on campus students had an advantage when it came to learning outcomes.

While it appears that quality of instruction is comparable to traditional classroom situations, Garrison (1989) points out that in most instances, distance learners do not have the opportunity to participate in traditional classroom experiences. Consequently, any comparisons of outcomes is mostly meaningless.

SUPPORT FOR LEARNING

Support materials tutorial interaction and research availability are necessary for interactive television instruction to be effective. Oklahoma students found that print based support for telecourses was essential. It was important that the material be of good quality, it was also important that the material have timely delivery (Dillon, Gundwardena, and Parker, 1989).

Local site coordinators are a great help to interactive television distance education programs. Roberts and Foulds (1989) point out that community based site coordinators help students feel less isolated from the educational institution. Local coordinators can be used to make the local site a clearing

house for information about future course schedules, enrollment information, and information on financial aid. Site coordinators can act as a friend and counselor providing encouragement to frustrated students.

Dillon, Gundwardena, and Parker (1989) note that library access is a continual problem with distance education programs. They noted that students in distance education programs stated access to a research library was the largest advantage on campus students had over the off campus students.

ISSUES RELATED TO THE INSTRUCTOR TEACHING STRATEGIES

The interactive televised classroom creates new instructional challenges. Cyr (1989) notes eight factors which are needed for good telecourse teaching. The course and the materials must be better organized than in the regular classroom. Last minute preparation will not work as ancillary materials need to be at the various distance classrooms where televised instruction is received. Instructors need to be camera aware. Teachers will need to not only talk to the in class persons, they will need to look and speak into the camera. Teachers must articulate well. Their speech must be clear and crisp as audio problems tend to crop up with interactive television instruction. The use of expression and body language is important with camera eye contact being significant. Instructors should address questions to students in the televised classrooms. Getting them involved by increasing their interaction will make them feel even more a part of the course. Instructors should use interactive study guides. These help students in the field follow illustrations and examples which are presented as part of class lectures. All materials necessary for field students should be at the television classroom before the class starts. One of the biggest problems with any form of distance education are the logistical delays of inadequate field materials and delayed feedback to the learner. Lastly, there needs to be a customer assessment after each course addressing each of the above seven issues.

FACULTY ATTITUDES

The desire of faculty to participate in mediated education has consistently been a problem. According to Dillon, Hengst, and Zoeller (1989), most faculty would not choose to teach televised courses. Oaks (1986) notes that faculty must exert special effort to organize the courses allowing them to overcome television's impersonalness. These extra demands place a strain on faculty and require additional support services such as secretarial help. Gundwardena (1990) echo's their comments by noting that faculty have always been resistant to televised instruction. This reluctance is due to an unfamiliarity with the technology and the teaching techniques. She goes on to say that faculty need financial incentives to participate in these programs. Beaudoin (1990) states that faculty attitudes will change when administrators

show commitment to distance education programs by providing inservice training and faculty support services.

CHANGING NATURE OF INSTRUCTION

It is interesting to note that with the advent of televised instruction, there will be an increased need for tele-education specialists who are conversant with the concepts of adult learning theory, mediated instruction, and possessing the ability to use the technical media necessary to conduct telecourses. Strange (1981) believes that formal instruction in adult education will no longer be the result of an individually prepared program, it will be developed by a team of content and technical experts and delivered in a multitude of ways. Moore (1987) notes that course teams of academic media and adult education specialists will prepare and deliver instructional material. The advent of the team concept is because many of today's educators cannot think video. They do not operate comfortably in this type of environment. Telecommunications specialists and educators must integrate their talents to bring quality instruction to their clients (Grieve and Singer, 1984).

INSTITUTIONAL ISSUES INSTITUTIONAL PHILOSOPHY

Support for interactive television as a form of distance education is critical for its success. Gundwardena (1990) notes that before any hardware and software questions can be answered, the following issues need to be addressed. Does involvement in distance education fit the mission of the college and if yes, can the college best be served by using interactive video? Has the institution looked at the long-term as well as the short term costs of a system? Is there sufficient user density to make the system cost effective? Is there enough available programming and do we have the talent necessary to create sufficient programming for the system? Which budget will absorb the cost of operating the system? Do the executives and the board of directors support such an operation?

According to Kitchen (1991) institutions must be able to justify the use of interactive television on a cost/benefit basis. This is important given the political climate of many institutions. Roberts (1989) notes that constituents who are either for or against the use of this type of technology can play a major role in administrative decision making.

INSTITUTIONAL COSTS

Turnkey costs of systems varies based on required length of cable and complexity of the video classroom. Currently, fiber optic cable costs approximately \$1 per foot to manufacture (Kitchen, 1991). Video classrooms

which have the capability of handling regular teleconferencing run between \$15,000 and \$25,000.

As public utilities install more and more fiber optic cable, its availability for educational use will increase. Kitchen (1987) recommends a partnership between rural telephone cooperatives and providers of interactive television to upgrade the existing infrastructure. Gaudet (1989) suggests that cooperation between schools and government is necessary in order to upgrade infrastructure and develop a national telecommunications policy.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to Malcolm Knowles (1986,p.4) "By the end of this century most educational services will be delivered electronically by teleconferencing, cable and satellite television, computer networks and other means yet to be discovered." After reviewing the literature, I am not sure Knowles prediction regarding interactive television will become a reality.

Interactive television is a technology which will increase access to educational resources. It will allow students a much greater opportunity to interact with their instructors and other students.

Research concludes that interactive television does not decrease academic performance. If there is a flaw in this research, it is the fact that interactive television is the only option that the distance learner has. We have no way of knowing if these students would perform even better if they were in a traditional classroom setting. Further studies need to be done where exposure to both forms of instruction are available.

From my perspective the number one support issue as it relates to the adult learner and distance education using interactive television is research support. Effective research whether graduate or undergraduate cannot be accomplished without access to adequate library facilities. Equally important is the fact that distance education limits the use of laboratory research.

Due to the expense of interactive television, I am not sure that true learner autonomy (self-directedness) will ever be achieved. Until we have a national fiber optic network with in home audio and visual transmission/reception capabilities, costs will drive the use of the technology.

Individual instructors will not be in charge of creating course content. As the use of any form of televised instruction increases, there will have to be a combining of individuals with multiple sets of skills (media, technical, and educational). People will not settle for poor quality programming.

The use of television in instruction will call for greater organizational skills by instructional staff. Logistical problems are compounded by the distance

between the instructor and the learner. The importance of timely delivery of instructional materials and performance feedback gets magnified in distance learning situations.

Faculty must become involved in the process early on if the interactive television distance education program is to be successful. Training, additional compensation, or release time should be provided to faculty as incentives for involvement in distance education programs. As several researchers noted, an enthusiastic faculty can go a long way to making the distance education program a success.

Finally, the institution needs to support these types of programs if they are going to be successful. The program needs to be considered an integral part of the operating philosophy and mission of the college or university.

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STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY IN DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Dann E. Husmann and Michael T. Miller

ABSTRACT. The objective of this study was to identify strategies for improving instructional delivery in distance education programs. A three round Delphi approach was used to reach consensus on identified strategies. The study involved twelve professional faculty members teaching two-way audio one-way video distance education courses at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. A total of 47 priority statements were generated by study experts. Findings from this study indicate eight critical strategies were identified by the experts which would improve distance education programs are: 1) being prepared with visual material; 2) using only a small amount of information in each visual frame; 3) writing and/or using large letters for visual material; 4) writing legibly for visual presentations; 5) repeating or paraphrasing comments and questions from remote site, as needed, for clarification to other remote sites; 6) varying the presentation style, to include such items as video tapes, slides, lectures, note reviews, and discussion groups; 7) being available, as a faculty member, to students via the telephone; and 8) taking advantage of the maturity and insights of the working professionals to bring issues into the class.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the last decade, colleges and universities have begun to focus increased energies and resources to the offering of courses and programs at sites other than those traditionally defined by campus walls. Through varying instructional technologies and a renewed dedication to the service of potential learners off campus, academic planners have made abundantly more use of the concept of 'distance education.'

Distance education course offerings present an entirely new host of difficulties for college faculty. These difficulties lie not so much in content, but rather, in course delivery. Teaching has historically been considered an

Danny E. Husmann, Assistant Professor, and Michael T. Miller, Assistant Professor, Department of Vocational and Adult Education, 530 East Nebraska Hall, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68588-0553, (402) 472-3337.

"art," a process whereby learners can acquire new knowledge or transform existing experiences into a new or revived ability. In utilizing distance education technologies, ranging from satellite hook-ups to two-way audio transformers, however, college faculty trained in lecturing and guiding small group discussions are confronted with the challenge of a less-personalized instructional delivery experience.

There has appeared to be a common acceptance of quality education and learning via the involvement in learning concept, and this alone fosters the demand for a greater understanding of how instructional delivery can be improved in teaching which utilizes distance education technologies. Therefore, the purpose for conducting this study was to identify which teaching strategies hold the most potential for improving instructional delivery in two-way audio one-way video distance education courses.

PORTRAIT OF EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION

Effective instruction, effective teaching, and teacher effectiveness are just a few concepts which have been continually researched in the area of teacher education. With the development of distant education technology, research in effective instruction will become increasingly critical.

The definition of effective instruction and how one becomes an effective teacher are varied and often complex and difficult. Many studies center on what is happening in the classroom (Medley, Coker, & Soar, 1984) by the use of an observational instrument called the Classroom Environment Index (CEI) which is completed by teachers and students in measuring the psychological environment of the classroom. But typical classrooms are changing. With the development of technology within distant education, classrooms are separate from the regular classroom where the teacher is physically at one location while the student is at a site somewhere away from the instructional site. Still, an underlining critical component with education of any method is what is effective instruction.

Many studies over the past ten years have focused on either or a combination of the teacher, the student and the learning environment (Weber, 1971; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Good & Brophy, 1986). Cangelosi (1992) stated for instruction to be effective, three criteria need to be addressed. The three variables have been referred to as being: teaching competence, teaching performance, or student outcomes (Cangelosi, 1992). The area of teaching competence has often been cited as the first requirement in the development of effective instruction. Arends (1991) stated being competent within your

subject area is always one of the first requirements involved with effective instruction.

Effective instruction (Dick & Reiser, 1989) has been defined as that which allows a student to gain a specific attitude and skill or the development of an individuals' knowledge base. This focus on the student outcome is also reflected in the research of Cruickshank (1990) who put emphasis on the teacher as being responsible for academic achievement with their learners. The teacher determines the environment in which learning is to take place, and is often a critical factor in the short-term results of student learning (Cruickshank, 1990).

Davies (1981) stated effective instruction centers on the efficiency and effectiveness of the instructor. The efficiency deals with doing the right things within the learning environment, but it is the effectiveness which is the critical issue involved in teaching (Davies, 1981).

The key for effective distance education programs requires the implementation of effective instruction. The context of a course may be sufficient, but it is the content of the course which is critical. Distance education courses must involve effective instruction for the course to be effective (Willis, 1991).

DISTANCE EDUCATION: BARRIERS TO LEARNING

Educational technology is an area which has experienced extensive growth during the last two decades (Thomas & Kobayashi, 1987), and accompanying this growth has been a number of profiles and comparison of students involved in distance education course offerings. Several studies have revealed that distance education students are significantly older than their on-campus peers, but have taken some college-level classes (Brown & Wall, 1978). These learners have also been identified as possessing a real desire to upgrade skills and reduce feelings of geographically imposed isolation (UNESCO, 1990). As predominantly non-traditional students, however, the learners may suffer from the lack of confidence and familiarity with media, teaching, and course content often associated with returning to the classroom (Kaye & Rumble, 1981).

Distance education difficulties extend further than typical non-traditional learner apprehensions. The techniques utilized in instruction may impose an intimidating barrier which some learners may find impassable. Learners far from campus can feel isolated or intimidated by the media used in instruction, they may feel little peer support, and recognize limited student and faculty interaction as a difficulty in matriculation (Kaye & Rumble, 1981).

Many of the difficulties identified were the subject of the Involvement in Learning document developed in the mid-1980's (Astin, et al, 1984). The document provided an outline of the critical factors which impact, to varying degrees, the entire educational experience, particularly educational quality and satisfaction. Astin contended "the amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program" (p. 36). The same concerns of the "danger of depersonalizing education" were voiced by Houle (1974) a decade earlier. He illustrated through several case studies that many distance education programs have developed counseling centers to help students 'cope' with their removal from campus and the instructor.

Learners in distance education programs, often knowingly and with some support, face the extreme difficulty of the normal school-related burdens, including problems with studying, difficulty in expressing written work, reading and comprehension skills, understanding specific concepts, and reduced interaction, participation, and involvement.

Compounding the described issues relating to the learner, quality teaching may also be a factor to be considered in distance education course offerings. Many faculty may find it unusually challenging to teach using unfamiliar media, no facial or body reactions, and decreased reliance on visual presentations and student feedback (Keegan, 1990; Smith, 1984; Kaye & Rumble, 1981; Kolstoe, 1975).

PROCEDURES

The use and study of educational technologies is a relatively new phenomena, receiving additional attention from scholars and practitioners annually. Despite this sudden growth, few research based attempts have been made to identify specific strategies to improve distance education programs. With the lack of expert agreement and empirical research on improving instructional delivery techniques, the Delphi approach was selected for use.

The Delphi approach allows for experts to express their opinions and attitudes on a given subject or in response to a specific open-ended question (Borg & Gall, 1983; Rojewski, 1990). The technique has been especially lauded for allowing each expert equal access into defining responses, and provides for consensus building through a set of sequentially spaced and structured questionnaires (Sackman, 1975). The Delphi process has also been noted as an effective tool in profiling specific needs and desires (Miller, Spurgin, & Holder, 1991).

The sample utilized in this study consisted of 12 purposively selected faculty members teaching in distance education courses at the University of

Nebraska. The participants were selected based upon their length of service in teaching courses using two-way audio instruction. All participants implemented two-way audio instruction through the University's continuing education office, and had received literature from that office prior to the beginning of their teaching. Participants were surveyed during the fall semester, 1991.

FINDINGS

The first round of the Delphi procedure yielded responses from all 12 respondents, a 100 percent return rate. All of these participants in the study completed the next two Delphi rounds.

In response to the open-ended question which served as the base of the Delphi instrument, 67 strategies were identified. Checking for duplication decreased the number of strategies to 47. Participants were asked to rate each of the statements on a Likert (1-to-5) scale with five representing strongly agree.

The experts in the study identified 47 different strategies for improving distance education. The mean ratings of experts' final round responses ranged from a high mean rating of 4.67 to a low mean rating of 1.08 on the five-point Likert scale.

The item with the highest mean (4.67) rating was the need to "repeat or paraphrase comments and questions from remote site, as needed, for clarification to other remote sites," while the item with the lowest mean (1.08) rating was "trying to minimize questioning by students/participants." The following strategies were considered high agreement (mean of 4.0 or greater):

- Come with prepared visual material (4.58)
- Put only a small amount of material in each frame (4.42)
- Call on a specific remote site for someone to respond to a question or suggest an example (4.08)
- Write in large letters for visual material (4.50)
- Write legibly for visual presentations (4.33)
- Prepare lectures on individual sheets of paper using bold lettering (4.00)
- Use illustrations and drawings to explain material (4.08)
- Use jokes, cartoons, quizzes, etc. to keep the attention of the students (4.08)
- Use video cassettes with material that can not be shown on paper, such as robotics (4.00)
- Learn and use students' names, take attendance (4.25)
- Ask questions, even simple ones, to get the students to interact (4.08)
- Stop several times during each class to make sure each student is still 'with you' (4.17)

- Reinforce comments and questions of remote sites to illustrate your level of honest caring about their input (4.25)
- Vary the presentation style, to include such items as video tapes, slides, lectures, note reviews, discussion groups, etc. (4.33)
- Be available to students via the telephone (4.50)
- Take better advantage of the maturity and insights of the working professionals to bring issues into the class (4.25)

CONCLUSIONS

While a number of specific strategies were identified, teachers and researchers must continue to take learner needs into consideration for course delivery. In the changing environment surrounding higher education, professional development activities will be called upon to assure faculty assistance in what many have come to take for granted: "teaching." The following specific conclusions were drawn from the data, and as indicated by the strong level of agreement on the survey instrument, must be taken into account for distance education course delivery:

1. Faculty who conduct distance education courses need to prepare visual materials in a manner which represents the technology they are utilizing. When teaching from co-locations, considerable time must be spent in preparing for the various audiences within distance education courses.
2. When utilizing distance education technologies, use only a small amount of material in each frame of the presentation. Using the television as a visual aid restricts the amount of visual space available.
3. To increase participation in the course, it is suggested to call on specific people at the site locations to respond to questions or provide an example when necessary pertaining to the content of the course.
4. When utilizing distance education technologies, try to write in large letters for visual material. Teaching via the television involves planning how the frame will appear on television.

Faculty members on college campuses can be held responsible for many activities and actions. When teaching evaluations become crucial, especially in terms of education to co-locations via modern technologies, higher education administrators must take an active role in assuring quality education. Faculty were once responsible for chalk, erasers, and class notes, but times have changed. No longer can faculty be expected to prepare for every class in a technologically pervasive society without the assistance of administrators who consistently demand quality in the classroom.

The investigation yielded a number of results and findings of interest to many who participate in distance education programs, but if nothing else, this study calls attention to academic administrators and the need for their

attention in serving co-locations with the same quality, care, and content delivered to on campus students.

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THE ROLE OF TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Geraldine E. Hynes

ABSTRACT. Training needs analysis (TNA) is a critical step in the process of designing corporate training programs. The literature is inconsistent, however, about who should be consulted about training needs. On one hand, the theory of andragogy insists that self-directed learning is the most effective approach for adults, and that HRD practitioners should trust employee input. On the other hand, the literature calls for managers and HRD professionals to "weed out training wants" and direct the expenditure of resources themselves.

A second, related issue is the role of TNA in organizational development (OD). A narrow view limits opportunities to influence individual as well as organizational growth. A broader perspective recognizes that HRD practitioners can foster OD when they foster employee participation in training.

This paper encourages the adoption of qualitative descriptive methods when researchers address these two issues. Specifically, intensive study of cases in the field would prove useful in seeking answers to important questions about the relationships among learner-centered TNA practices, training effectiveness, and organizational development. This paper also proposes that theories of adult learning can emerge from actual practice, and that theorists should closely observe what is being done by successful organizations.

Traditionally, training needs analysis (TNA) has been described as a critical step in the process of designing company training programs. Textbooks and courses prescribe a sequence of planning and implementation activities that begins with an assessment of training needs (Goldstein 1986, Wexley and Latham 1991). Prescribed methods for determining training needs typically include person analysis, task analysis, and organization analysis. Training needs are defined simply as a discrepancy between desired knowledge, skills, or abilities (KSAs) and actual KSAs. The training function is a matter of eliminating these discrepancies, or "performance gaps" (McGehee and Thayer 1961).

Geraldine E. Hynes, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri-St. Louis, School of Business Administration, 8001 Natural Bridge Road, St. Louis, MO 63121

Among the diverse methods recommended for conducting a TNA is gathering data from the trainees themselves. The literature often attests to the importance of employee participation in needs analysis "because they know their own jobs better than anyone else" (Tollison 1988). However, other researchers warn that employees "often want training in areas that are irrelevant to their jobs or inconsistent with organizational objectives," and that it is the training professional's responsibility to "weed out training wants" and identify training needs (Nowack 1991).

THE PROBLEM

The literature offers inconsistent advice about the degree of trust that practitioners should place in trainee-perceived needs during TNA. On the one hand, the theory of andragogy insists that self-directed learning is the most effective approach for adults (Knowles 1975, 1984). Research on competencies for HRD practice also stresses the notion of respect for the learners (Henschke 1989). On the other hand, models of the TNA process call for managers and HRD professionals to provide training direction, since it is they who have the power and resources to implement solutions to performance problems (Lyden 1990). The dilemma for practitioners is one of determining to what extent trainee input should be considered when setting training objectives.

While the significance of TNA is undisputed, the conceptual framework gives practitioners mixed messages. As a result, HRD professionals may try to find the middle ground by circulating surveys to trainees and/or supervisors that ask for ideas on training topics. Then they juggle these "wish lists" with budget constraints, time limitations, and executive-level pressure to create a compromise training program that satisfies no one completely.

When HRD professionals take this approach, they limit their opportunities to develop employees to their full potential. Further, they limit their opportunities to participate in organizational development (OD). It is the purpose of this paper to suggest that HRD professionals should be concerned about their organization's goals and purpose during the TNA process and should try to apply the principles of andragogy in an effort to promote organizational development. This paper also sets an agenda for future research which will underpin the importance of employee-driven training in OD.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY CHOICES

The possibility of using TNA to promote organizational development as well as individual change calls for a unique research approach.

Experimental research is difficult to conduct in corporate settings. The classic experimental model uses paired groupings of subjects to allow the researcher to hold constant any factors that are not of concern. However, use of experimental and control groups is impractical, if not impossible, in a company training environment, and the dearth of empirical research in corporations, as reflected in the literature, attests to this fact.

Descriptive quantitative research is conducted more frequently. The strength of this strategy lies in its ability to statistically analyze the significance of observed behaviors in a sample. However, important factors may be overlooked in such investigations, and numerical descriptions may not examine the general nature of phenomena.

An alternative approach seems more appropriate. Conducting intensive field studies of organizations where TNA is an important factor in the company's attempts to reach its goals would allow us to trace interrelationships between facts. This kind of qualitative research could reward us with a deeper insight into how the theory of andragogy works not only at the trainee level but also at the organizational level.

Freud's case histories of his patients laid the foundations for theory in clinical psychology. The work of Jean Piaget on the higher mental processes and the studies of Arnold Gesell on the development of motor and perceptual skills were also qualitative in nature. In like manner, education researchers who intensively observe organizations that involve employees in training decisions could provide concrete foundations for andragogical theory. Thus, appropriate research methodologies would allow the theory to emerge from the practice.

Case studies need not be limited to direct observational methods. Interviews, surveys, photography, and studies of documents are all recommended strategies for discovering pertinent information. The more methods used by the researcher, the less danger there is of misinterpretation or even accusations of subjectivity and bias. Of course, investigators must guard against permitting personal expectations to influence judgments about events. Distortion is minimized when researchers report facts and evidence thoroughly before drawing inferences.

EXAMPLE OF A FIELD STUDY

One company where the training function contributes to organizational health is Sachs Electric Company, an electrical contracting firm headquartered in St. Louis. In August 1990 the 65-year old family business was sold to its employees, who restructured the management and operations to reflect their philosophy. A Training Committee was formed to govern the selection and direction of the training program. The Training Committee consists of

representatives from the clerical, accounting, sales, purchasing, estimating, and engineering departments as well as the company president and the personnel director. In March 1991 the Training Committee conducted a company-wide survey of all 638 employees, asking them for their training needs. From these results, the Committee identified four areas for training: corporate development, technical enhancement, personal development, and project management.

The Committee's mission statement is "to establish a comprehensive and continuing training program which will contribute to the success of Sachs Electric Company and the professional development of its employees." Monthly training sessions are offered during working hours, typically early morning or late afternoon, to all employees. Program objectives include standardizing procedures, building technical skills, improving office/field/customer communication, strengthening employee commitment and self-motivation, and enhancing teamwork. Every employee, from president to engineer to receptionist, is welcome to attend any session. And they do. Attendance at training programs is consistently high. During interviews, the Training Committee expressed surprise and pleasure in the level of interest they found across the board. For example, clerical staff have attended programs on design topics, and engineers have attended programs on billing procedures.

The results of this approach to training have been increased productivity, increased profitability, minimal employee turnover, and a responsiveness to the changing demands of a shaky economic climate. TNA is ongoing, democratic, and coordinated with other functions. It is clear from this example that at Sachs Electric TNA issues relate directly to organizational goals. Employee-ownership of the company may well be the key to employee-ownership of the training. If so, Sachs Electric offers an excellent field example worthy of further examination. This case provides evidence that training practitioners can significantly affect and improve organizational as well as individual functioning.

IMPLICATIONS

Practitioners look to research to provide guidance and support for their activities. When the literature is inconsistent, as it is concerning the importance of trainee input in the TNA process, then practitioners have to proceed on the basis of their own intuition. Their intuition usually tells them that off-the-shelf, attractive training programs bought from profit-seeking vendors are not the most effective way to train employees. But pressure from the corporate culture to save time and money may force them to act expediently.

Education researchers should recognize the validity of HRD practitioners' intuition and encourage them to follow it. Our research can provide evidence of the soundness of their preferences in practice.

Specific implications of this pro-active approach include the following.

1 - For Training Programs: All employees must be actively involved in planning and delivery of training opportunities. All employees must be given access to all training. Training must be offered during working hours.

2 - For HRD Competencies: Pro-active HRD professionals need a broad set of abilities, including participative leadership, communication, evaluation skills, strategic planning, and OD skills. HRD professionals must understand the contribution of various organizational functions to their company's goals. They must have the courage to integrate their function with others as a system.

3 - For Andragogical Research: We must broaden our methods to include qualitative studies. While research can enhance practice, research on practice enhances theory. The relationship among research, theory, and practice is not linear but symbiotic.

Important questions that need to be addressed by future research include the following:

1 - To what extent is employees' commitment to training related to their level of input during the TNA process?

2 - How many successful HRD professionals proceed on the belief that employees know best what training they need?

3 - What is the relationship between an organization's goals and its attitudes toward the training function?

4 - How clearly do HRD professionals see their potential impact on organizational growth and development?

5 - Most fundamentally, which brings better results for the organization - management-driven or employee-driven training?

It is true that training is an OD process (Camp, Blanchard, and Huszycz 1986). When identifying HRD professionals' important competencies, we should focus not only on knowledge and skills but also look at attitudes and values. Our conception of the dimensions of competency is reflected in practitioners' behaviors. Research-based guidelines for the important HRD competencies

will encourage practitioners to make a greater contribution to their companies.

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THE INVESTIGATION OF A PROPOSED MODEL OF AUDIO-TELECONFERENCING INSTRUCTION: PARADIGMS IN CONFLICT

D. M. Kirby and U. Chugh

ABSTRACT. The research reported in this paper is the latest phase of an ongoing research program to investigate a proposed model of audio-teleconferencing instruction. The model proposes that instructional strategies are, in part, determined by the instructor's perceptions of elements in the instructional environment. This paper examines the perceptions of distance students of elements in the global instructional environment and the congruency of their perceptions with those of instructors who teach through audio-teleconference.

The student's perceptions were determined through the administration of a Q-Sort, which had been constructed previously in order to ascertain the perceptions of instructors. The resulting data was analyzed by cluster analysis and the paper reports on this analysis and the comparative analysis of the data resulting from the instructors. This findings of the study suggests some directions for the practical aspects of training instructors as well as being of significance from a theoretical standpoint.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the widespread use of audio-technology for delivering education at a distance, little has been done to investigate it from the standpoint of educational theory. A model proposed by Kirby and Boak (1987) has served as a basis to investigate audio-teleconferencing as an instructional system, Kirby and Boak (1989), Kirby and Chugh (1992), in order to understand the factors which impact on distance learning. This model suggests that elements in the audio-teleconferencing environment interact with teacher pre-dispositions to, in part, determine teacher behaviors.

Previous research, Kirby and Chugh (1992), focused on the perceptions by audio-teleconferencing instructors of the relative importance of elements in the global instructional environment. This research identified two types of instructors, practically oriented and theoretically oriented, whose identifying characteristics lend support to the notion of the existence of two different paradigms of distance education, as suggested by Garrison and Shale (1990) and Holmberg (1990). The debate in the literature centers on whether new technologies have produced a paradigm shift, as suggested by Garrison and Shale (1990),

or whether they are simply an evolution of the correspondence model of distance education as suggested by Holmberg (1990). In the former case, because of technology's ability to facilitate a collaborative educational transaction, distance education can now be viewed as part of the mainstream educational field.

In this paper, the authors investigate the perceptions of students of the relative importance of factors in the audio-teleconferencing environment and explore those perceptions to see whether there is empirical evidence for the existence of the different paradigms of distance education suggested above.

METHODOLOGY

The principle instrument used to investigate the student's perceptions of environmental factors in audio-teleconferencing was a Q-Sort previously constructed for use with distance education instructors. The 79 item instrument was refined from a pool of items representing elements in the following categories; instructor characteristics, student characteristics, administrative factors, technological factors and goals and aims of education. The resulting instrument has a repeat reliability coefficient of 0.74 with a S.D. of 0.16. The forced choice procedure used to administer the Q-Sort asked subjects to sort the 79 items, written on cards, into a quasi-normal distribution along the continuum from 1 (least important) to 9 (most important), (Kirby and Chugh, 1992).

In addition to the Q-Sort instrument, a short questionnaire, entitled "Experience with Audio-Teleconferencing", was constructed for the purpose of this study. The questionnaire contained eleven Likert style statements on various aspects of teleconferencing as well as statements concerning experience with teleconferencing. The statements were portrayed on an agreement scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

SAMPLE

The principle subjects of the study were students enrolled in distance education courses at The University of Calgary and post-secondary distance education instructors who had been involved in a prior study. The 169 students enrolled in the Fall, 1991 audio-teleconferencing program at The University of Calgary were contacted and subsequently 88 completed the Q-Sort and the questionnaire. The questionnaire was also sent to each of the 87 instructors who had previously completed the Q-Sort with the 79 items, and 43 responded.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The mean rankings by the students of each of the 79 items of the Q-Sort were calculated. The Q-Sort data was further analyzed using the Clustan procedure contained in the Clustan software package (Wishart, 1987).

The data from the questionnaire was analyzed and mean values were calculated for each of the Likert items, differences between means of the different groups were tested by the T-Test. That is, T-Tests were conducted to determine the differences between the two student's clusters resulting from the cluster analysis and also to determine the differences between student's and instructor's responses.

RESULTS

As might be expected, there were substantial differences found between the mean rankings of instructors and students on many of the different items of the Q-Sort. 41 out of the 79 items yielded significant differences as determined by a T-Test. Predictably the students ranked many student characteristics such as family support and obligations as being more important than did the instructors, as well as administrative factors which impact directly on them such as library support and scheduling. The instructors, on the other hand, ranked instructor characteristics such as personality and aptitude for teaching, technical characteristics of the audio-teleconferencing system and the goals of education as being more important. See Table I.

TABLE I

Q-SORT ITEMS SHOWING SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT (T-TEST)
MEAN SCORES BETWEEN DISTANCE INSTRUCTORS AND STUDENTS

High Mean Scores: Students

- Student's Personal goal
- Instructor's teaching style
- Library support service
- Student's attendance
- Personal growth as one of the goals of education
- Instructor's knowledge of evaluation procedure
- Scheduling of teleconferencing
- Student's value
- Student's academic background
- Student's family support
- Student's family obligation
- Whether the course is required or not
- Attitude of Faculty/Department towards distant education
- Student's personality
- Perceived value of distance education
- Student's employment status
- Whether the course is an optional credit course or not

Higher Mean Scores: Instructors

- Instructor's aptitude for teaching
- Quality of sound
- Instructor's knowledge of the structure of the curriculum
- Attitudes towards learning as one of the goals of education
- Instructor's knowledge of student's motivation
- Instructor's knowledge of classroom dynamics
- Instructor's Personality
- Technical experience of the bridge operators
- Ease of use of equipment by the student
- Creativity as one of the goals of education
- Self expression as one of the goals of education
- Overall class size
- Degree of isolation from fellow students
- Group size per site

The data from the student Q-Sort yielded two clusters as shown in Table II. Cluster 1 students gave higher rankings to many of the factors which relate to student characteristics such as personality, age, gender, etc. This group could be typified as student centered. Cluster 2 students rank a number of characteristics which would be expected to rank directly to the ability to teach,

such as academic background of instructor, instructor's aptitude for teaching. This group could be typified as instruction centered.

TABLE II

CHARACTERIZING ELEMENTS RESULTING FROM
CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF STUDENT DATA

CLUSTER 1

- Student's Personality
- Student's Family Obligation
- Student's Family Support
- Student's Personal Interest
- Student's Age
- Student's Gender
- Student's Socio Economic Status
- Instructor's Gender
- Instructor's Family Background
- Student's Employment Status

CLUSTER 2

- Instructor's Academic Background
- Attitude of Faculty or Department towards Distance Education
- Instructor's Experience with Audio-Teleconferencing
- Instructor's Exposure to Orientation
- Instructor's Aptitude for Teaching
- Instructor's Verbal Skills
- Off-Air Interaction
- Quality of Sound
- Group Size per Site
- Instructor's Teaching Style

The data from the questionnaire showed instructors and students differed significantly on only two items. Instructors believed, more strongly than students, that audio-teleconferencing was as effective as face-to-face instruction. However, the students were less inclined to believe that the technology associated with audio-teleconferencing is a barrier to a true educational transaction, compared to the instructor. A similar analysis for differences between the clusters of instructors yielded two significant differences. Instructors who were typified as giving more importance to the abstract aspects of education believed more strongly that distance education qualifications were of a lesser standard than instructors who gave more

emphasis to the practical aspects of audio-teleconferencing. The former cluster of instructors also believed more strongly that the technology associated with audio-teleconferencing was more of a barrier to a true educational transaction than the latter cluster.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

There were two purposes to the research reported in this paper. The first was to investigate the perceptions of students, who study by audio-teleconferencing, of the relative importance of various factors in the instructional environment and to compare them with the relative importance of factors as seen by instructors. Of less practical significance was to examine the student's perceptions to see if support existed for the somewhat abstract notion of two different paradigms of distance education as discussed in the literature.

Significance differences were found to exist between the perceptions of students and instructors which have considerable importance for distance education instructors. The data suggests that the students are far more concerned with the pragmatic aspects of education and their own set of circumstances than are the instructors. On the other hand, the instructors give more attention to the more abstract aspects such as goals and motivation as well as factors more directly related to instruction. There are important lessons to learn from this data for orientation and training programs for distant education instructors, and from the data from the prior study which identified two types of instructors, practically oriented and theoretically oriented.

The clusters obtained from the student data did not parallel those found in the instructor data, and thus did not lend support to the paradigms described earlier, however, they do have possible implications for the support of students at a distance. Of particular concern was the stronger belief, as identified by the questionnaire, held by the theoretically oriented instructors that distance education qualifications are of lesser standard than those obtained by traditional methods. This is a perception usually associated with elitist academics with no experience of distance education and it is somewhat disturbing to find that reflected in those with experience of distance education.

In light of the above findings, it is clear that both the audio-teleconferencing instructors and students should be oriented in audio-teleconferencing and its factors to make it a successful mode of education. To this end, the Faculty of Continuing Education at The University of Calgary, is expected to conduct a one day workshop in October, 1992, to orient the instructors in teaching through audio-teleconferencing and its special circumstances.

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NEED MOTIVATION AND MENTORSHIP EXPERIENCES OF NATIONAL AND STATE NURSING LEADERS

Carla Lee

This study entitled "Need Motivation and Mentorship Experiences of National and State Nursing Leaders" investigated the comparison of need motivation, mentorship experiences, and selected demographic variables, including first birth order, from a randomized sampling of 150 registered nurses in leadership service at the national (n=75) and state levels (n=75).

Motivational needs, measured by the McClelland's Picture Story Exercise Tool (1961), were the need for achievement (Nach), affiliation (Naff), and power (Npow). Demographic variables collected by an investigator-developed questionnaire were: level of basic initial educational preparation, year of graduation, highest degree held, type of nursing position, national and state certification, area of certification by type of certifying agency, birthdate, first born order, and race/descent. The survey questionnaire also was employed to assess mentorship experiences by intensity, definition, role and professional phase utilizing a Likert-type scale.

Forty-two percent (42%) of the instruments were returned, 30% analyzable. A 10% random sample of non-respondents was conducted. An examination of demographic variables compared the descriptions of the sample nurse leaders at national and state levels with the majority of national leaders currently in administrative roles and state leaders in educator or practitioner roles. Frequency and Chi square tests were performed on each independent variable. Findings elicited a strong relationship between intensity of mentorship experiences by role, current position, level of education, and certification, with mentorship experiences and need motivations.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine interactions between demographic variables, mentorship experiences, and level leadership. A significant variance existed for mentorship experiences by intensity and role. The significant definition of mentorship for national leaders was one of "professional friendship"; state leaders' significant definition was a "pragmatic experience." Roles, tested by Chi square, for which national leaders were most commonly mentored were determined to be that of educator and consultant in contrast to practice roles for state leaders. Additionally a significant variance existed for the professional phase in which a mentor was utilized, most commonly accessed in the enhancement phase for national leaders and the transition phase for state leaders. Need motivation did not relate with level of leadership, but the achievement need was significantly related to academic completions, initial educational preparation and highest degree in nursing. Need for power was significantly related to first birth order.

Implications for future research are recommended with regard to relationship of profiles of need motivation to profile of all types of nursing positions held and mentorship experiences, utilization of nursing and non-nursing mentors and at which professional phases. Additional measures of achievement, such as scholarly work or academic achievement could be studied for relationship to mentoring experiences.

Additional research could address utilization of nursing versus non-nursing mentors in role development, including the specific professional phases in which a mentor is selected. Currently, the professional and educational methodology through which mentoring occurs is highly experiential and empirical. There is a need for further research in designing, implementing, and evaluating human resource development and career pathway programs applicable to the needs of nurses and the nursing profession as well as other health disciplines.

COMPETING FROM A RESEARCH BASE: MARKET ANALYSIS OF ADULT STUDENTS

Doris P. Littrell and Linda Butterfield Cupp

ABSTRACT. Because many continuing education programs are cost recovery units, the need for reliable data upon which to base program efforts is essential for the success of new programs. A demand analysis, rather than the more traditional needs assessment, is an appropriate methodology for evaluating geographic and academic areas of the greatest demand. The Office of Extension Teaching, University of Missouri-Columbia, initiated a new series of evening and weekend courses in the Fall, 1991, as part of its outreach mission. Extension Teaching combined in-house demographic analysis with contracted demand analysis from the College Board Office of Adult Learning Services to provide valuable data upon which to plan program development.

Results included identifying:

- Unmet demand for courses for mid-Missouri adults.
- A composite picture of adults most likely to enroll in courses.
- Positive faculty interest in teaching adult students.
- Positive administrator response to needs of adult students.

This information gives education providers a way to improve the cost effectiveness of their programs by enabling them to offer more relevant courses, improve marketing/advertising strategies, and develop and improve relationships with faculty, staff, and administrators.

INTRODUCTION

A major trend in higher education is the increasing number of part-time and older students entering or returning to college. Today more than one out of three college students is 25 years of age or older, and more than 40 percent of all college students study part time. In a rapidly changing society, providing

Doris P. Littrell, Ph.D. and Linda Butterfield Cupp, M.A., Office of Extension Teaching, 103 Whitten Hall, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO 65211. The authors acknowledge the positive working relationships and contributions of Carol Aslanian, Mitch Brickell and Jenni Lowry.

relevant educational programs for working adults is critical to meeting the educational needs of adults and to the financial viability of educational institutions.

Because many continuing education programs are cost recovery units, the need for reliable data upon which to base program efforts is essential for the success of new programs. A demand analysis, rather than a more traditional needs assessment, is an appropriate methodology for evaluating geographic and academic areas of the greatest demand. Traditional needs assessment has proved unreliable as a credible basis for program development. Because expressed need for a course does not necessarily transfer to enrollment in a course, other criteria are necessary for successfully predicting potential enrollment figures.

By including need, motivation, and income in its analysis of prospective students, the CAP uses demand theory to rank order which adults are most likely to participate in educational programs. The information obtained can be used in conjunction with other data to provide a broader and more reliable set of information upon which to build a program.

The Office of Extension Teaching, University of Missouri-Columbia (MU), initiated a new series of evening and weekend courses as part of its outreach mission in the fall of 1991. Extension Teaching decided to use its own in-house demographic analysis in conjunction with an outside contract to provide timely, sophisticated market research for program development. The College Board Office of Adult Learning Services (OALS) was chosen to conduct additional research through its Community Assessment Program (CAP).

DEMAND THEORY

Demand theory or analysis is an economics concept used often in the analysis of consumer behavior. Basic economic theory states that demand is a function of income and price. Eastwood (1985, p. 111) explains that "the demand for a good is defined as the quantity a consumer is able and willing to purchase."

The OALS interprets demand theory to mean that student demand for courses comes from a combination of motivation, need and income. In this analysis, the following hierarchy emerges: a) adults who possess all three factors are most likely to enroll, followed by those with b) motivation and income, c) motivation and need, d) motivation alone, e) income and need, f) income, g) need. Those with income who are motivated may enroll even if they don't have the need. Those with income who have a need to enroll can be coaxed into enrolling if the need becomes strong enough. When

prospective students have need and motivation, but not income, financial aid can provide the missing ingredient. Those with only need or income are unlikely to enroll.

THE RESEARCH

The research used by Extension Teaching includes: a) The Community Assessment Program (CAP) conducted by the OALS of The College Board, and b) an analysis of the demographics of students enrolled in the mid-Missouri series during the current academic year.

The College Board OALS was chosen to conduct the Community Assessment Program (CAP) for several reasons. It is viewed as an unbiased research operation; it has conducted many similar studies, and it could produce needed information within five months. The CAP included three parts:

1. A demographic analysis of a 10-county area and neighborhoods according to low, medium, or high demand for adult learning. This results in a "learning map" of the service area, suggesting where to concentrate recruiting efforts and marketing dollars.
2. A series of in-depth telephone interviews with adults who are currently in the learning market. The adults surveyed are treated as a sample to be analyzed for patterns that can be extrapolated to the larger population.
3. A printed questionnaire of faculty and administrators concerning values and views about admissions and academic standards, fiscal policy, and interest in teaching adults.

An in-house demographic form was distributed to students participating in the mid-Missouri series of courses offered through Extension Teaching in the Fall, 1991, and the Winter, 1992, semesters. This method was selected because it provides a vehicle for analyzing more specifically the students already participating in the mid-Missouri courses and for comparing students enrolled through Extension Teaching with students interviewed in the CAP study.

RESULTS

In the CAP study, in-depth telephone interviews were conducted with 200 adult students. Fifty-five of these were current and former MU students who were 25 years of age or older when they enrolled at MU. This allowed comparisons between University students and those enrolled in other institutions.

The CAP study revealed that 71% of current or former MU adult students and 66% of students at other institutions are studying for a bachelor's degree. Although a large number of the adults at all schools are part time students, this figure is much higher for other institutions than for MU. Only 21% of adults at other schools are enrolled full time (taking more than 12 credits per

term), compared to 40% of the MU students who are full time. Because MU has historically offered courses only during the traditional academic schedule, it has attracted a disproportionate number of affluent adult women who are able to attend classes during the day. Sixty-five percent of adults at other institutions, compared to 45% at MU are taking six or less credits per term.

In the in-house analysis, demographic forms were distributed to 431 students in the Fall and Winter semesters of the 1991/92 academic year. A total of 325 students, 75%, completed and returned the form to Extension Teaching. Although the demographic analysis differed somewhat from the CAP's, the overall picture revealed many similarities.

The typical Extension Teaching student participating in the mid-Missouri courses for the Fall, 1991, and Winter, 1992, is a white (90%), female (71%), 36 years of age, married (53%) and working full time (58%), with two children and an annual family income in the mid \$40,000 range. She is taking one course (60%) for credit (80%). Although she may not be pursuing a degree (55%) at the present time, she intends to pursue a master's degree (45%). She is interested in a variety of academic areas and took the present course because it was interesting and convenient. Very little (56%) has limited her participation in courses; but when there are obstacles (35%), time and money are the key issues.

The CAP study also revealed pertinent data about what students require. Adults need courses which they can apply to degree programs, and more than three times the number of students are demanding degree opportunities in career fields rather than in academic fields. Courses offered in academic fields should be those which fulfill general distribution requirements of degree programs. They want courses scheduled two to three times a week in the evening and show a slight preference for the winter semester. Although more intense shortened courses are appealing to school teachers, the majority prefer courses of a semester or half-semester length.

Services offered by educational institutions are an issue for adults as well. Of the services demanded by these adults, those which make the enrollment and study process more convenience are in the highest demand. Students need to be able to access bookstores, libraries, and administrative offices at times convenient for them, and they require the advice of staff and faculty in order to develop relevant degree programs. In addition, they need these services available in the evening, and they indicate that convenient parking and one-stop service are important considerations.

In addition to the student interviews, completed printed questionnaires were returned by 350 current faculty members, 52 retired faculty and 148 administrators in the CAP study. There were very positive responses about the need of the University to respond to adult students. Seventy-five percent

of the faculty, 85% of the retired faculty, and 80% of the administrators believe evening classes should be offered for adult students. Forty-five percent of the current faculty and 30% of the retired faculty are willing to teach adult students occasionally in the evenings; 30% of current faculty and 25% of the retired faculty are willing to do so regularly. One challenge which surfaced is the number of faculty (45%) and retired faculty (40%) who are reluctant to hold evening office hours.

Faculty and administrators believe adult education should be part of the University's mission. Faculty rank adult students higher than younger traditional-age students on several important variables, such as willingness to go beyond class requirements, participation and contributions to the course. In addition, half the administrators are willing to shift faculty and staff normal working hours to accommodate weekday evening classes and/or summer classes for adults regularly; most of the rest are willing to do so occasionally.

RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

The results of the CAP study completed in January, 1992, and the Extension Teaching demographic analysis completed in June, 1992, in conjunction with future in-house studies and environmental scanning will impact future programs in the following ways:

The results of the CAP study completed in January, 1992, and the Extension Teaching demographic analysis completed in June, 1992, in conjunction with future in-house studies and environmental scanning will impact future programs in the following ways:

1. Potential students will be more easily identified from the "learning map" providing by The College Board. Programming can be designed and courses be scheduled respond to student needs, both in content and scheduling.
2. Qualified instructors identified themselves. Many faculty, including chairpersons of academic departments and award-winning professors, have expressed interest in teaching continuing education courses.
3. More relevant courses will be offered. As part of the demand analysis, the need for courses in particular academic areas and career fields were identified.
4. Classes will be held in convenient locations. Students indicated locations they prefer for classes, and faculty indicated locations at which they would consider teaching.
5. External marketing strategies will be more effective. Identifying the profile of the typical student will assist in directing marketing efforts to reach that student.
6. Internal marketing efforts will be enhanced. A questionnaire of faculty and administrators concerning values and views about admissions and academic standards, fiscal policy and interest in teaching adults revealed very positive attitudes toward adult students and the University's mission to serve adults.
7. Cost effectiveness of programs is increased. Determining specific demand for courses has both educational and fiscal implications. Advertising and marketing expenditures can be more targeted.

SUMMARY

Educational institutions can no longer afford trial and error methods of recruitment. In a world of decreasing resources and increasing competition between educational institutions, the efficiency of the methodology employed to recruit students and faculty and to develop new programs is critical to the survival of continuing education units. By focusing on information which determines demand rather than need, the data obtained can produce more students for fewer dollars. In addition, the information can be very

important in garnering the supporting of administrators for program expansion to meet student demands.

The research conducted in this study by CAP and the demographic analysis conducted by Extensior Teaching both indicate that students overwhelmingly "demand" courses that can be counted toward degrees in career fields or more general courses which fulfill distribution requirements. Other institutions may want to consider conducting a demand analysis to explore what courses students have taken, when they attend courses, and the services they use. In addition, demographic data analysis of students participating in an institution's classes provides a more specific picture of current students and why they enroll as well as providing an opportunity assess whether there are additional courses appropriate for future students.

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SURVEY RESEARCH TO PROFILE THE ANDRAGOGICALLY ORIENTED INSTRUCTOR

Stephen A. Matthews

ABSTRACT. The objectives of this research were to determine if certain demographic characteristics of Army National Guard instructors had significant correlation to their attitudes and beliefs about andragogical principles, and, to determine if there was a significant correlation between these instructor andragogical beliefs and the success of their students in the officer candidate school program. A survey of 500 officer instructors nationwide resulted in survey data for 146 subjects who responded to a demographic questionnaire and an instrument to measure their andragogical-pedagogical orientation. Results revealed that there was significant correlation between four demographic characteristics and a higher andragogical orientation; teachers as an occupational group, teacher experience level, years of military instructor experience, and exposure to adult education principles. Results also revealed no significant correlation between instructor andragogical orientation (by state) and officer candidate school class success (by state). The value of this research was to determine instructor demographic characteristics which can be used to recruit future instructors with some reasonable expectation that they will approach officer candidate training with andragogical perspectives.

INTRODUCTION

As educators and administrators of adult education programs, we are constantly faced with the issue of recruiting, and often times training, those teachers we hope will be the most effective in our adult programs. The traditional method of selecting these teachers is to consider their experience with other adult programs, their educational background, their credentials, and their performance during interviews. But, there may be additional ways to assess a potential teacher on the basis of his/her profile and its proven relationship to attitudes about adult education principles and learner-centered education. Being able to use additional means to better assess potential teachers would help any administrator create the most learner-centered teaching force possible and reduce the amount of adult education orientation/training necessary to ensure learner-centered behavior by those teachers.

Group Engineer, Computer Technology Associates, FAA Field Office,
NASA/Ames Resident Mail Stop T-210-2, Moffett Field, CA 94035-1000,
(415)604-0112.

Since much research has shown that the tenants of andragogy ("the art and science of helping adults learn" Knowles, 1984) are applicable in virtually all

demographic adult education situations, the characteristics of the adult learner modeled by Knowles served as the basis for this research. By using these andragogical principles to assess an instructors attitudes toward the learner and learner-centered instruction, it can be determined how that instructor is likely to behave toward the adult learner. This research profiled the Army National Guard officer candidate school (OCS) instructor to determine which, if any, demographic characteristics had a significant correlation to the instructors beliefs about andragogical principles. Secondly, it attempted to determine if any significant correlation existed between instructors' andragogical-pedagogical orientation and their students' success in the officer candidate school program.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research project was designed and conducted as an ex post facto correlational study due to the uncontrollable nature of the variables and the exploratory nature of the research in a population where little (if any) research has been done (Borg & Gall, 1983). The survey population consisted of five hundred weekend, Army National Guard, officer candidate school instructors from a national population of about 750 from schools in each of the 50 states, three territories and the District of Columbia. Data were collected by use of a demographic survey response form, developed by the researcher, and an andragogical-pedagogical orientation survey instrument (entitled Personal HRD Style Inventory) developed by Dr. Malcolm S. Knowles (1978). Approval for the research and a letter of support were provided by National Guard Bureau, Washington D.C. Each school commandant was contacted initially to request his/her assistance in this research and was provided with a statement of confidentiality of information. Surveys were then distributed to each of the 54 schools with instructions to randomly distribute the instruments to as many assigned instructors as possible. Along with survey instructions, a statement of confidentiality of response information was provided for each subject. Each respondent was provided a stamped, self addressed envelope to return his/her survey directly to the researcher.

The research hypotheses addressed two basic issues; identify any demographic characteristics associated with andragogical tendencies and, measure the relationship between andragogical beliefs and student success. Thus two hypotheses were formed: H1: There will be a significant difference in the andragogy-pedagogy orientation of OCS instructors based on one or more of the demographic independent variables identified for research, and H2: There will be a positive significant correlation

between the mean academic class score of a state and the andragogy survey mean score of that state's instructors.

To research hypothesis H1, data were collected on a demographic survey form containing 13 independent variables. They were: age, gender, occupation, military rank, years of military service, years of civilian education, highest military education level, highest civilian degree achieved, method of achieving civilian degree, exposure to adult education principles, and, if the subject was a professional teacher, years of teaching experience, current teaching level, and level of most teaching experience.

The dependent variable for hypothesis H1 was level of andragogy-pedagogy orientation as measured by the Knowles instrument. The instrument collected responses in six areas defined as; training orientation, learning design, how people learn, learning methods, program development, and program administration. Subjects responded to a total of 30 paired statements, five pair in each area, to which there were five possible responses: I agree fully with A; I agree more with A than B; I do not agree with either A or B; I agree more with B than A; and, I agree fully with B. Possible scores ranged from 1 to 5 for each response, with cumulative scores used to determine andragogical (higher score) or pedagogical (lower score) orientation. The reliability of this instrument was tested to be r factor = .70 for $N = 100$.

To research hypothesis H2, two factors were selected for statistical analysis. One factor of mean level of andragogical-pedagogical orientation for instructors from each state was compiled by simple calculation of the mean of survey instrument scores for all instructors from a given state. The second factor of level of academic achievement of each state's officer candidate school class, as measured by class mean academic score, was data provided by National Guard Bureau for each state for the year in which the research was completed.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Using one-way analysis of variance and t-test, statistical analysis of data collected from 146 survey responses from 38 schools identified four demographic independent variables with significant correlation, at the .05 level, to the andragogy orientation instrument score dependent variable. Thus, hypothesis H1 was proved. The four demographic variables (of the 13 surveyed and tested) which proved significant were the following. First: teachers, as an occupational group, were more andragogically oriented than any of the other six occupational groups defined as; professional, white collar, blue collar, military, student and self-employed. Second: teachers with most of their experience at the elementary school level were much more andragogically oriented than

teachers with other experience (noticeably secondary or university level). Third: instructors with fewer years of military instructor experience were more andragogically oriented than those with many years of military instructor experience. Fourth: instructors who responded as having high or moderate exposure to adult education principles were more andragogically oriented than those who reported no exposure to adult education principles. This last finding seems to support the findings of other researchers (Beder & Carrea, 1987) that some andragogy training for instructors does translate into positive attitudes about learner-centered teaching. It also provides a positive check on the validity of the survey instrument. The other nine demographic variables surveyed and tested showed no significant correlation, at the .05 level, to andragogical orientation.

The Spearman Rank Correlation analysis (Glass & Hopkins, 1984) was used to test hypothesis H2. This analysis used the instructors' andragogy survey mean scores by state and student class mean scores by state as the two factors for comparison. Use of this formula was also intended to reduce the influence of outlier data which was considerable due to the broad range in numbers of responses (from 1 to 11) by instructors from each school. For this analysis the sample element was the 34 states for which both statistics were available to determine ranks. The numerical difference between rank values for each state provided the statistic which was applied in the Spearman formula to determine what correlation existed between the two factors. That result was then tested for significance by t-test. This analysis revealed no significant correlation, at the .05 level, between instructors' andragogical orientation and students' success, although there was some positive correlation. Therefore, hypothesis H2 was not proved.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the data analysis and its interpretation, the following profile of the ideal andragogically oriented officer candidate school instructor was developed. The ideal OCS instructor would be an elementary school teacher around the age of 45, and have 16-20 years of professional teaching experience. This individual probably earned their initial civilian degree by returning to college as an older adult and then accumulated 18 or more years of education in pursuit of their advanced degree. This instructor would have over 15 years of military service and between 6 and 10 years of military instructor experience which would include completion of the instructor training course. This instructor would also have gained a lot of exposure to adult education principles over their career. This demographic profile was the proposed model for comparison with a potential instructor's profile, in addition to other measures and judgments, to screen and select future instructors. If a potential instructor has a demographic profile which is a close match of this model profile, it suggests that they should be andragogically oriented.

This research into the teaching orientation of state Army National Guard officer candidate school instructors was the first of its kind. The findings are admittedly limited by the ex post facto nature of the research and the narrow population of state Army National Guard officer candidate school instructors. However, these results provided sound and scientific information upon which recommendations for screening and selecting state Army National Guard instructors were made.

Two findings were of special interest for future research. First: professional teachers with elementary school level teaching experience show a much higher belief in andragogical principles than secondary or university level teachers. LaBarr (1990) determined this same finding in a similar study, using the same instrument, among a large, state-wide group of community college faculty members. Second: these findings also provide a firm foundation upon which to base further experimental research into the assessment of the learning characteristics of the military student, and the effectiveness of andragogical methodology for improving military student learning. Research conducted by Cy Houle involving military learners after World War II led to many significant theories about adult learners which are still relevant (Houle, et al, 1947).

These research findings, although somewhat limited in their generalizability, certainly offer valid argument for being able to develop a demographic profile of the andragogically oriented teacher, as well as for the potential of using a demographic profile as an additional means in selecting prospective teachers for adult education programs. When we stop to consider that attitudes drive actions and attitudes are the hardest thing to educate, it appears sound to select teachers to fill adult education situations who have a demographic profile that matches one with a demonstrated pre-disposition toward adult education principles.

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ASSESSMENT OF WOMEN'S CARDIAC RISK FACTORS
AND THE RELATIONSHIP OF LIFESTYLE HABITS
FOR DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTH PROMOTION EDUCATION

Patricia L. McKillip

The purpose of this study was to identify cardiac health risks of women in the workforce and measure the relationship of identified risks with health-promoting lifestyle behaviors. This lifestyle appraisal will be used as a basis for implementation of adult health education specific to assessed learning needs.

Coronary heart disease affects approximately seven million Americans each year, causing 1.5 million heart attacks. For women over 40 years of age, heart disease is the number one killer (U.S. Center for Health Statistics, 1987). Cardiovascular disease alone costs the nation over 135 billion dollars in health care services and productivity loss. Much of this expense, both in terms of monies and human lives, is avoidable through positive lifestyle changes (Healthy People: Surgeon General's Report on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention, 1979). Health education programs and related educational activities facilitate health promotion in the work place through subsequent needs-based health education, and empower employees to choose health alternatives that enhance well-being and work productivity. A national agenda of health promotion through adult education could ultimately create a healthier nation (Healthy People 2000). Health promotion is a national goal that poses a challenge for health educators.

Yet today, neither assessment tools nor appraisal based education specific to women's cardiac health exists. Women's health and related issues which encompass research, education and services, have long been ignored by the medical world. The early feminist crusaders made a significant and pervasive impact on health promotion for women, instigating public and corporate policy, influencing research, education and health practice decisions (Fee, 1975; Mulligan, 1983). One contemporary move has been the Women's Health Equity Act of 1990, designed as a comprehensive measure to protect the health of American women. This act serves as an agenda for the improvement of women's healthcare into the next century (Women's Health

Patricia L. McKillip, RN., MN., Education Specialist, Kansas State Board of Nursing, Landon Building, 900 S.W. Jackson, Rm. 551, Topeka, Kansas 66612. PhD Candidate, Doctoral Dissertation, Adult and Continuing Education, Kansas State University.

Equity Act, H.R. 5397/S. 2857, 1990). Subsequently, the public focus on women's health has provided the impetus for government action in founding longitudinal studies of women's health.

Social and technological changes have revolutionized women's roles and lifestyles, providing new opportunities for work and education. The prevalent movement of women into the professions and labor force, and merging or deserting of traditional female roles, have created health problems for females once associated with males. Today, lifestyle related health problems have transcended the male gender and escalated as health risks for women (Zajac, 1983).

Mortality rates for women resulting from heart and respiratory diseases are projected to rise even higher by the year 2000. Yet at any level of combined cardiac risk factors, women have nearly half the risk of men of the same age. This fact suggests a biological protective mechanism from cardiovascular disease during the female reproductive years (Zajac, 1983). Research also validates this unique female protection against cardiac disease can be overridden by health-damaging lifestyle behaviors. Cardiac health risks factors of women are identified as: elevated level of blood cholesterol, smoking, postmenopausal status, elevated blood pressure, family history of heart disease, and diabetes (Kannel, Gagnon, & Cupples, 1990). Adult educators uphold a strong conviction that individuals in today's society must be prepared to make learning a lifelong activity to maintain the pace with escalating changes in the family, workplace, community and society. Health education is founded on the premise that health behaviors are learned, and highly influenced by one's culture and environment. Dignan and Carr (1987) propose a comprehensive concept of adult learning that incorporates personal-social contexts, and acknowledges complex lifestyle environments in which individuals exist. Our dynamic, societal environment makes lifelong learning both necessary, and increasingly possible for women (Cross, 1981).

Learner motivation is governed to the extent that education relates to real life problems. Research studies support the idea that individuals can promote and maintain their own health if provided relevant and meaningful education and assistance from caring and knowledgeable educators. Adult health education for women based on their specific and unique learning needs lends to the development of positive, decision-making skills and empowers women to take control of their own health and health care (Andrist, 1988; Dery, 1982). A conceptual framework of adult learning juxtaposed beside concepts of health promotion and women's health, forms the theoretical support for women's health education.

Health-promoting lifestyle behaviors are defined as being a "multidimensional pattern of self-initiated actions and perceptions that serve

to maintain or enhance the level of wellness, self-actualization and fulfillment of the individual" (p.77; Walker, Sechrist, & Pender, 1987). Women's health is defined by Andrist (1988) as holistic, incorporating interrelational phenomena of the entire being (spirit, mind, and body) in constant interaction with the environment. The health status of a woman becomes the consequence of her daily interaction with the environment and varies in accordance with her cultural, social, economic, political, and physical surroundings. Andrist (1988) emphasizes the importance of not misconstruing female health during normal life changes as illness or health deficits. Butnarescu (1983) distinguishes women-centered health as involving three perspectives: the health needs of the woman as a person (personhood), a woman (womanhood), and a mother (motherhood). Women's health is committed to health promotion, maintenance, and restoration of the whole person through identification with, and concern for women. Women's health today is a critical investment in the future of our nation. Adult educators hold the key to achieving national health promotion objectives by responding to the challenge of Healthy People 2000.

The following questions provided direction in conducting the study:

- 1) What are the major cardiac risk factors of the women participants?
- 2) What are the self-assessed health promotion lifestyle behaviors of the women participants?
- 3) To what extent do the demographic variables of age, ethnicity, marital status, education, income, employment status, and health education activities, influence the cardiac risk factors of the women participants?
- 4) To what extent does family health history influence the health promotion lifestyle behaviors of the women participants?
- 5) To what extent does personal health history influence the health promotion lifestyle behaviors of the women participants?
- 6) To what extent do the health promotion lifestyle habits influence cardiac risk factors of the women participants?
- 7) To what extent do the demographic variables of age, ethnicity, marital status, income, employment status, education, and health education activities affect the health promoting lifestyle behaviors of women?

METHOD

SETTING AND SUBJECTS

A population of 249 working women affiliated with three separate organizations in a midwestern, metropolitan setting were asked to take part in the study to maximize the possible range of socioeconomic status. The sample consisted of 174 working women above the age of 18 years who agreed to participate, representing approximately 70% of the potential population. The number of participants in each group were: Group I, n=51; Group II, n=63; and Group III, n=60. Non-random sampling procedures were appropriate for

the study based on the probability of representativeness of the accessible population. This sample size allowed for the detection of medium size effects with a power of .95.

The demographics of each of the three groups of working women were identified and compared. The ages ranged from 20-70 years. The highest age category was 30-39 years (40.2%), representative of Groups I and III. The next highest range was 40-49 years (29.3%), reflective of Group II. Sixty-four percent of the sample indicated they were married. Ethnicity showed 93.1% caucasian participants. The highest level of education achieved was at the college level, 13-16 years (50.6%). Total household income ranged from \$10,000-\$100,000 per year. The highest number of reported incomes across all three groups fell within the \$40,000-59,000 range (33.3%). The \$20,000-29,000 income range had 16.7% of the participants, and \$30-39,000 range (15.5%). Job positions described by participants were condensed into five categories: supervisor-manager, technical-professional, executive, clerical, and self-employed. The largest percentage (40.6%) were employed in clerical positions, highly representative of Group III participants (66.6%); technical-professional was next (24.2%), typical of Group II (25.4%); the supervisor-manager job category was the third highest (15.1%), and reflected Group I participants (31.4%).

PROCEDURE

The researcher contacted the director of each organization, explained the study and requested permission to survey their population of female employees. A survey procedure compatible to each organization was planned so as to best facilitate the study, yet meet with policies of the organization. Based on the implementation agreement, permission was granted by each director. Group I provided the researcher with a mailing list, and 83 questionnaires including an introductory letter explaining the study were mailed to all members. Group II invited the researcher to attend a regular meeting and personally introduce the study. Questionnaires were distributed to all members and participation was requested. Group III required distribution of questionnaires by the personnel director. An introductory letter from the researcher and one from the director indicating employer permission for participation were included with the questionnaires. The study was explained to all as a survey of heart risks and health-promoting habits of working women, and emphasized that participation was voluntary and anonymous. Participants were requested to return the survey tools within two weeks.

INSTRUMENTS

The survey instruments utilized were: the Women's Cardiac Risk Profile; Demographic Tool; and Health-Promoting Lifestyle Profile (Walker, Sechrist, & Pender, 1987).

Women's Cardiac Health Risk Profile (WCHRP)

The Women's Cardiac Health Risk Profile was developed by the researcher based on a comprehensive literature review of women's health, cardiac risks, and health promotion. A pilot test of the WCHRP tool was conducted with female nursing students (20), with modifications made based on objective feedback of pilot participants. Content validity was increased with review and evaluation by experts specializing in women's and cardiovascular health. The experts validated content accuracy and their suggestions resulted in the WCHRP tool utilized in the survey.

Health-Promoting Lifestyle Profile (HPLP)

The Health-Promoting Lifestyle Profile instrument developed by Walker, Sechrist, & Pender (1987), was used to measure health-promoting behaviors. The tool includes six subscales: self-actualization, health responsibility, exercise, nutrition, interpersonal relationships, and stress management. The total HPLP score and each subscale score are determined separately by summing responses. Possible scores range from 48 to 192 for the total HPLP, with the higher scores indicating more frequent performance of health-promoting behaviors. Alpha coefficients for this study were .939 for total HPLP. Subscale scores ranged from .772 to .919. Reliability, content, and construct validity values were reported by the instrument authors (Walker et al).

RESULTS

Both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were used to answer the research questions formulated for the study. Standard descriptive procedures were utilized to identify major cardiac risk factors and health-promotion lifestyle behaviors of participants. The five most prominent cardiac risk factors identified are ranked from highest to lowest: family history of heart disease, 93 (53.4%) participants; postmenopausal status, 45 (26%); obese body type, 40 (23%); smoking, 37 (21.2%); and elevated blood cholesterol, 18 (10.3%) participants. A proportional mean was calculated for comparison of groups on prevalence of risk factors. The proportional mean for Group I of 24.3 was the highest, Group II had a mean of 19.5, and Group III had the lowest proportional mean of the risk factors, 16.7. Cardiac risk factors were further categorized as to those changeable through positive lifestyle modification (smoking, elevated blood pressure, elevated blood cholesterol, and obese body type), and those risks beyond individual control (menopausal status, family and personal history of heart disease). Changeable cardiac risk factors

accounted for 42% of the total. Groups I (50%) and III (43%) had the higher percentage of changeable factors.

Analysis of variance procedures were performed to determine the effect of independent variables on the Health Promotion Lifestyle Profile scores to determine whether group differences existed. Overall, significant differences were noted in all the measured health promoting lifestyle scores among women of the three organization groups. Differences favored Group II on the total HPLP score ($p < .00001$), and on five HPLP subscales with the exception of Nutrition. Age had a significant influence on the HPLP score, Self-Actualization, and Nutrition ($p < .05$), and Health-Responsibility ($p < .0001$). Variation among age groups steadily increased as subjects increased in age. Of all age groups, the 60-69 years had the highest mean on the HPLP scores, except for the Self-Actualization score which favored the 70-79 age category. Years of education exerted a slight influence on health-promoting lifestyles with the 17-20 year group (Post Graduate Education) showing significantly higher Health-Responsibility scores ($p < .001$) than other educational groups. No significant difference was identified for ethnicity or marital status.

Chi-square was utilized to identify the influence of major demographic variables (age, ethnicity, marital status, education, income, employment status, health education activities) on the cardiac risk factors (menopause, family history of heart disease, personal history of heart disease, smoking, elevated blood pressure, elevated blood cholesterol, obese body type). Only employment status (employed or not employed) and cholesterol level had a significant effect on risk factors ($p < .05$). Family history of heart disease showed little influence on health promotion lifestyle habits, with only alcohol use significant ($p < .01$). Personal history of heart disease appeared to control frequency of physical examinations and blood pressure ($p < .001$), and hemoglobin checks ($p < .05$). The most significant lifestyle habits influencing cardiac risk factors were: smoking behavior and caffeine ($p < .01$) and alcohol intake ($p < .05$); frequency of exercise and elevated blood pressure ($p < .05$), and frequency of physical exams ($p < .05$); obese body type and alcohol intake, and frequency of electrocardiograms ($p < .05$); menopausal status was highly influential for frequency of cholesterol ($p < .01$), electrocardiograms ($p < .0001$), chest x-rays and hemoglobin tests ($p < .01$).

DISCUSSION

Demographics of the sample gave an overview of the working women as predominantly 30-39 years of age, married, caucasian, and working in clerical positions, especially reflective of Group III. The women were typically college educated and reported total household incomes of \$40,000-\$59,000 per year. The data noted significant differences between the three groups of women in regard to demographic background, cardiac risks and health promotion lifestyle profiles. The five prominent cardiac risk factors identified were

family history of heart disease, postmenopausal status, obese body type, smoking, elevated blood pressure, and elevated blood cholesterol. These results approximate those of the Framingham heart studies (Kannel, Gagnon & Cupples, 1990).

The most striking information resulting from the study were the high numbers of cardiac risk factors reported by the women demonstrated by the proportional means. Of particular interest, and with important implications for adult health educators, were the high proportion of changeable cardiac risk factors identified. Education can make the critical difference in terms of assisting individuals with positive measures for modifying damaging lifestyle habits, and by establishing effective monitoring systems for productive coping with nonchangeable cardiac risk factors. The adult health educator can make a personal impact, empowering high risk populations with an awareness of actual and potential cardiac problems, and assisting in structuring lifestyles that will ultimately result in a nation of healthy women and men. The task at hand involves radical changes in the American culture where excesses of lifestyle have become the norm, and specific populations have been ignored regarding health research and education. The work for adult health educators involves an intense social commitment to respond to Healthy People 2000 providing health promotion education for all people.

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A DESCRIPTION OF LEARNING IN A GROUP OF WELL ELDERLY OVER THE AGE OF 75

Ruth R. Michael

ABSTRACT. Identifying the process by which older adult learning occurs is important. In order to help understand this process, this study assumed that the self-reported learning experiences of older adult learners would impart clues to the process. This study describes the learning process as practiced by a particular group of 15 well-elderly adults over the age of 75. A semi-structured interview elicited responses in three areas that were determined to characterize learning: (1) the decision to start to learn, (2) awareness of individual learning process, and (3) evaluation of their own learning processes. The data demonstrated depth and comprehension in the learning experience. Data for the three learning characteristics revealed that there was an important relationship between life time experiences and three areas of learning preparedness, (1) alertness to new needs, (2) mental stimulation and (3) information gathering. A six step model was developed to describe the learning process in this particular group of older learners.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The process by which older adult learning occurs is important. Grabowski (1974) in discussing older adults and learning, suggested that educational researchers are interested, mainly, in two factors of learning. Those two factors are: (1) the structural or cognitive developmental process and (2) the control factors or non-structural factors; those factors that are modifiable. There is very little the educator can do about the structural process except to understand it. Grabowski states that the "... task for the educator is to optimize the older individual's use of the control processes". (p.67) In order to optimize control processes it is necessary to determine those processes. For the purposes of this study the control processes are the characteristic ways in which older adults learn, which also can be described as learning styles (Smith, 1982). A simple way to determine learning styles is to ask the learners themselves, how they perceive their own learning (Brookfield, 1987). Houle (1972) believed that "the realities of learning" were to be examined where learning takes place; in the learner's environment. Adult education researchers have assumed that the bulk of learning takes place in formal education situations.

Adjunct Faculty, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, Indiana Institute of Technology, Fort Wayne, IN, 5000 W 600N Huntington, IN 46750, (219)356-7624, FAX (219)356-7033.

There has been little research that has specifically focused upon developing an older adult learning theory based upon the self-reported experiences of the over 75 years of age well-elderly population. The well-elderly represent by far the largest and most diverse group of older adults, 85% of the over 65 year old population (AARP Bulletin, 1990). Research was needed to describe learning as experienced and described by older adults.

Learning has been defined as the acquisition of knowledge (Webster, 1986) and knowledge has been defined as the organization of information (Houle, 1972). There is a conceptual relationship between learning and knowledge and this relationship is separate from the notion of formal education. This study assumes that the concept of learning and the concept of knowledge are non-interchangeable parts of a whole, the whole being a process. In this assumption of process, knowing becomes the product of learning. Thus, learning is defined as the process of acquiring knowledge for the specific purpose of organizing useful information.

Formal education can be defined as a design system whereby knowledge is structured by a facilitator for learning (Houle, 1972). Adult educators investigating the learning of older adults have been concerned with inhibiting and facilitating conditions affecting participation in formal educational activities rather than focusing on non-formal learning processes. According to most surveys older adults participate much less than other age groups in formal educational activities. (Brockett, 1985; Harris, 1981; Heisel, 1985; Heisel, Darkenwald & Anderson, 1980; Hiemstra, 1975; and National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 1983). Older adults are continuously involved in learning in their later years in spite of low participation rates in formal education. (Brockett, 1985; Hiemstra, 1975, Harris, 1981). The documented continuation of learning in older adults necessitates the separation of the process of learning from the concept of formal education. When the concept of learning is separated from the concept of formal education, it becomes increasingly important to describe how learning occurs. This study describes how learning occurs in a particular group of over 75 year old adults.

METHODOLOGY

The case study method, which uses participant perspectives (Merriam, 1988), was used for this research. The characteristics of learning, for purposes of analysis, were determined to be: (I) the decision to initiate learning, motivation and participation; (II) the actual process of learning; and (III) the evaluation of the learning.

Fifteen well-elderly, over the age of 75, members of the Trinity United Methodist Church in Huntington, IN participated in the study. Each member was interviewed using a semi-structured question schedule. Although each

question was not specifically asked to each individual, content of all questions was covered somewhere in gathered information. The interviews were audio recorded. Five individuals from the initial group were chose to clarify concepts of the analysis.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

An analysis of the data demonstrated that there is adequate evidence in all three characteristics to describe learning. As expected, participation in formal learning activities was low. However, sufficient motivation to learn was present, whether caused by trauma, crisis, or as a result of membership in clubs. The learning experiences themselves were rich and expansive.

A wide network of resource information was available to all the participants. The resources can be described as having three areas: (1) interpersonal relationships, (2) printed, visual, and audio information resources, (3) expert advice. The participants did not hesitate to use any of the above sources when needing to make decisions. The information obtained was organized in ways that made it usable for decision making or problem solving. All of the participants believed that they reacted quickly and efficiently when confronted with a situation-demanding change.

The participants in the study were able to clearly describe their own systems of learning when asked to describe specific situations. This was true of the ability to remember information from specific situations and the importance of the role of experience in everyday living. All but two of the participants had clear strategies for remembering. Twelve of the participants volunteered that they had kept files of material on matters of continuing interest or had amassed large personal libraries that allowed them to find the answer to most of the things they needed to know.

The problem of memory is one that was discussed by each participant. All complained of an inability to memorize. However, everyone of them had devised some system to facilitate remembering the necessities of life. The information system devised was organized in ways that made the information immediately usable for decision making or problem solving.

The participants of the study innately understood the need for continual learning and had devised ways of checking and evaluating their own mental stimulation needs. All but one of the participants either watched television games shows, regularly worked crossword puzzles or played card games. They were satisfied that they were still alert by how many questions they answered. This information was volunteered and was only added to the interview questions after it began to follow a definite pattern.

CONCLUSIONS OF RESEARCH

The need to categorize seems to be part of people's need to bring order to a disorganized world. The very act of categorization facilitates planning for order. Fromm's theory of disequilibrium says that man is not instinctual. Perhaps this non-instinct deficiency in man is the motivation for developing a plan to bring order to his world. It follows then that, to plan, man must acquire knowledge. The acquisition of knowledge is learning. It is possible then to assume that to acquire knowledge one must be in a position to learn. The categorization of learning then follows the same tradition.

The categorizing of the learning process may satisfy an innate need of man to order his world. From this postulation is the assumption that learning is taking place continually throughout the life span. One assumption of adult education is the importance of experience in adult learning. However, the traditional view of adult learning has relied heavily upon the concepts of ability to learn, readiness to learn, and their relationships to developmental stage task theory. Therefore, the conclusion, based on the analyses of the data in this research, is that the concepts of the traditional view of adult learning cannot be relied upon when discussing a group of well-elderly adults. It is only when the assumption of experiential learning and the premise that continual learning in well-elderly adults facilitates the maintenance of autonomy, independence, and the development of wisdom can we begin to break from the traditional views of learning concepts. We, then, with this new view can move beyond traditional views of learning concepts. We can go beyond the concept of ability to learn and accept that learning, no matter what level or situation, is occurring. We can also accept that readiness to learn is not dependent upon a developmental task, but that readiness to learn is a part of a continuous process of independent living.

All learning in the group was experiential in nature. To use this experiential basis, requires a mental alertness and readiness for the learning experiences. Mental alertness and readiness for learning were demonstrated by the use of mental stimulation exercises, the development of extensive resource networks and the wide interactions with others. Mental alertness and readiness for learning results in the ability to make evaluations for decision making or problem solving. The situation for learning, whether learning is for an everyday skill or for health maintenance, etc., is incidental. The ability to acquire the knowledge or to master the skill is the result of continual mental alertness and readiness for learning. I have named this ability, The Learning Preparedness Factor.

There are three characteristics that are present in the Learning Preparedness Factor. They are: (1) a constant alertness to new needs, (2) mental stimulation, and (3) information gathering. This factor is different from Houle's (1961) typology of learning as based upon the educational tradition

that only a small proportion of the population are continual learners. It can be theorized that learning by older adults in this group followed a six step process. It involved the (1)integration of experience and (2)the learning preparedness factor, (3)the organization of information, (4)the evaluation of information, (5)the ownership and internalization of information and (5)the ability to apply to information.

This was a very small study. However, it can be suggested that future educational interventions for older adults can be developed on a new tradition, the Learning Preparedness Factor. If the Learning Preparedness Factor is absent, or if there is a barrier that inhibits any part of the Learning Preparedness Factor, then programs can be developed to re-institute that part missing. The fact that well-elderly older adults are continually learning and practicing learning skills allows educators to have a much more positive view of the learning potentials of older adults.

References available by request.

PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE IN THE PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES IN KANSAS

Carol L. Moore

ABSTRACT. The primary purpose of this study was to gather information on community college culture and leadership style. A second purpose was to determine if a relationship existed between the two concepts and the strength of the relationship.

The independent variables for this study were demographic data of each respondent and select community college characteristics. The dependent variables consisted of two in cumulative scores obtained from the two sections on the instrument that measured the community college culture and the community college president's leadership style. These two sections were titled Diagnosing Corporate Culture (by Dr. Kim S. Cameron) and Competing Values Instrument: Managerial Leadership (by Dr. Robert E. Quinn). Significance was found for each culture and actual leadership style used and with each culture and ideal leadership style desired. A two sample t-test was utilized for a statistical analysis of the perceived differences between each actual and each ideal leadership style. There was significance noted which is scarcely surprising since all respondents with the exception of one indicated the desire for more frequent observation of the identified behaviors from their president then were actually occurring.

Data was also obtained on cultural and leadership style support for adult education. No significance was found--there was no culture or leadership style that was more supportive. Of interest was the fact that 54% of the respondents indicated they modify their classroom presentations and activities when adult students were present and another 27% said they have never attended classes or seminars that focus on teaching adults.

INTRODUCTION

The organizational life of a college or university can be compared to a theater in which there are multitudes of actions and perceptions that determine institutional performance on variety of stages. The actors in the collegiate culture have few, if any, scripts to follow. The porps most visible--roles and governance arrangements--are not the ones most often tripped over, but it is the least visible props of perceptions and attitudes that make up the fabric

Carol L. Moore, R.N., M.N. Hutchinson Community College, 1300 No. Plum,
Hutchinson, KS 67501

of daily organizational life that give us the most problem. Thus effective leadership has to deal not only with issues such as planning and adapting but also with interpreting and communicating institutional values and organizational processes (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988). The collegiate environment is not a two-dimensional entity, as an organizational chart, but is made up of a complex, highly interrelated collection of people.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE

Many times the question is asked "what holds this place up?" Is it the mission of the institution, the values, the bureaucratic processes, or the strong personalities? What is the driving force? What is expected of its leaders? These questions are often asked in frustration when seemingly well formulated plans fail or meet with unexpected resistance. And they are also asked by new comers to the organization who want to know "how things are done around her?" (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988). These are difficult questions to answer because there is no obvious one-to-one correspondence between actions and results. The same style of leadership can produce widely divergent results in two similar organizations, and two institutions with very similar missions and curricula can perform quite differently because of the manner in which their identity is communicated internally and externally. The perception that each individual holds in similar institutions can be an extremely important variable as well (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988).

Perception has been defined as "the process by which we select, organize, and interpret sensory stimulation into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world" (Sundee, Stuart, Rankin & Cohen, 1985, p. 106). Perception is selective and is based on past experiences and interpreted via observations, listening, and feeling (Bradley & Edinberg, 1986, p. 26). The individual's needs, beliefs, values, and self-concept are vital factors in determining how the individual views his life surroundings or space. Actions are a direct result of the individual's perceptions, or frame of reference (Long & Proffit, 1981, p.4). "Organizational culture exists... in part through the actors' interpretation of historical and symbolic forms. The culture of an organization is grounded in the shared assumptions of individuals participating in the organization" (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988, p. 7). Moreover, culture influences decisions, actions, and communication on both an instrumental and symbolic level.

Often, however, institutional leaders have only an intuitive grasp of the cultural conditions and influences that enter into their daily decision-making. They are not unlike most other individuals who have a dim awareness of cultural codes, symbols, and conventions that are present in society as a whole. Only when these codes and conventions are broken is the individual reminded of their presence and considerable power. Similarly, administrators are likely to recognize their institutions' culture only when

they have transgressed beyond its bounds and adverse relationships and severe conflicts ensue. the result is organizational culture in an atmosphere of crisis management, not consensual change based on reasoned neglection (Chaffee & Teirney, 1988).

When administration and faculty acknowledge the institution's culture, decisions can be made to contribute to an organization's or system's sense of purpose and identity. Leaders no longer need to make difficult decisions in a "trial-and-error" fashion. This awareness of culture will assist with the articulation of decisions in such a manner that it will speak to the needs of a variety of constituencies and obtain their support.

Leadership is the fundamental process by which organizational culture is formed and changed. Schein (1985) says that an analysis of organizational culture makes it clear that leadership is intertwined with culture formation, culture evolution, culture transformation, and culture destruction. Therefore, there is a need to study the two concepts, culture and leadership, because they are central to understanding organizations and making them efficient.

The primary purpose of this study was to gather information on community college culture and leadership styles. A second purpose was to determine if a relationship existed between the two concepts and the strength of the relationship. The model that was used was the Competing Values Model developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh in 1981.

Four types of cultural orientations are identified: a group culture, a developmental culture, a rational culture, and a hierarchical culture. The group culture has a primary concern with human relations, emphasizes flexibility, and maintains a primary focus on the internal organization. Its emphasis tends to be group maintenance--trust, belonging, and participation--reflecting core values. The primary motivational factors include cohesiveness, attachment, and membership. Leaders tend to be considerate, supportive, and participative, and they facilitate interaction through teamwork. The leaders roles are either group facilitators, also called mentors. The criteria for effectiveness include the development of human potential and member commitment (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991, p. 5; Quinn, 1988, p. 86).

the developmental culture also emphasizes flexibility and change, but its primary focus is on the external environment. The orientation emphasizes resource acquisition, creativity, growth, and adaptation to the external environment. Growth, stimulation, creativity, and variety are the key motivating factors. Leaders tend to be entrepreneurial and idealistic, are willing to take risks, and are able to develop a vision of the future. Leaders in this culture also concentrate on acquiring additional resources, as well as

achieving visibility, legitimacy, and external support. The leaders' roles are those of innovator or broker. Criteria for effectiveness include growth, the development of new markets, and resource acquisition (Dennison & Spreitzer, 1991, p. 5; Quinn, 1988, p.86).

The rational culture emphasizes productivity, goal fulfillment, performance and achievement. The emphasis is on the pursuit and attainment of well-defined objectives. Competition and the successful achievement of predetermined ends are the motivating factors. Leaders tend to be goal orientated, directive, instrumental, functional, and they are constantly providing structure and encouraging productivity. Leaders play the producer role and the director role. Planning, productivity, and efficiency are the effectiveness criteria (Dennison & Spreitzer, 1991, p.6; Quinn, 1988, p.86).

the hierarchical culture emphasizes internal uniformity, efficiency, coordination, and evaluation. The focus is on the logic of the internal organization with emphasis on stability. The purpose of this type of culture tends to be the execution for regulations. Security, order, rules and regulations. Security, order, rules, and regulations are the motivating factors. Leaders tend to be cautious, conservative, and pay close attention to technical matters. Thus in this culture, they assume the monitor role and the coordinator role. Control, stability, and efficiency are the effectiveness criteria (Dennison & Spreitzer, 1991, p. 6; Quinn, 1988, p. 86).

Several assumptions can be made about the competing values model. First, the cultures described above should be considered ideal types. Organizations are not likely to reflect only one culture, but combinations of each cultural type with some types being more dominant than others.

The second assumption of the competing values model is the importance of balance. An organization becomes dysfunctional if one quadrant (culture) is over-emphasized. The strength of the quadrant may become the organization's weakness. The model recognizes that balance represents the capacity to respond to a wide set of environmental conditions (Dennison & Spreitzer, 1991; Quinn, 1988).

RELATIONSHIP TO THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Data were collected from a stratified random sample of faculty from 15 public community colleges in the state of Kansas. The instrument was composed of four sections. The first section asked respondents to evaluate on a Likert-type scale the leadership style of the president of their community college--shy the perceive as the actual leadership style and what they wish for the ideal leadership style. The second section of the instrument was designed to identify the culture of each community college by having the respondents distribute 100 points within each scenario as they perceive the situation

describes their college. The scores could then be summed and averaged to obtain an overall cultural profile for the college. The third section elicited information about adult education and the perceptions of the faculty regarding the degree of support received from administration. The final section of the instrument dealt with the demographic data of each respondent.

Significance was found for each culture and actual leadership style used and with each culture and ideal leadership style desired. A two sample t-test was utilized for a statistical analysis of the perceived differences between each actual and each ideal leadership style.

Do the faculty perceive the community college leadership style to be supportive of adult education? Seventy-six percent indicated a high level of support with the producer style being the most supportive. The facilitator style was cited as being the least supportive. The p-value of .084 from an ANOVA indicates a lack of significant difference between the rankings at the .05 level of significance. Do faculty perceive culture of the community college to be supportive of adult education? Eighty-five percent ranked cultural support high. The oneway ANOVA indicates that there is no significance at the $p = .907$ level in the mean Lickert scores between the identified culture and support for adult education. The mean scores of the community college culture are within .10 of each other with the group culture being the highest and the rational culture being the lowest.

To what extent do faculty feel that administration provides guidance to faculty for dealing with adult students? Slightly over 34% felt they received a high degree of guidance while 29% felt they received less than a moderate amount of guidance from the administration. Fifty-four percent of the faculty modified to a high degree their class presentations or activities when there are adult students present. The option of "no modification" was not given which would have been appropriate. Less than 8% indicated a low degree of modification. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents indicated they have not attended any classes, inservice, seminars, or conferences that focus on teaching adults. Twenty-three percent say they attended many, while the remaining 50% say they attended a few such sessions. These findings certainly have implications for faculty development.

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH DISTANCE
EDUCATION:
A CASE STUDY OF GUIDED DIDACTIC CONVERSATION

John A. Niemi, Gerladine A. Lea, and Harry Ridge

ABSTRACT. Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation was applied in an audio-conferencing course on human resource development (HRD) delivered simultaneously at Northern Illinois University and three other sites. With the assistance of site coordinators and multiple activities, students were introduced to basic HRD concepts. A key activity was the instructor/student interaction through journals, which students recorded their experiences and the instructor responded in writing to their comments. The students entries represented a distillation of insights gained through participation in the group process, readings, lectures, case studies, field trips, and interaction with HRD experts.

Although Holmberg's research on his theory of guided didactic conversation showed more success with younger students, this study demonstrated its value for older students as well, perhaps because of these multiple activities that were featured in this distance learning course.

INTRODUCTION

Some characteristics of Holmberg's theory of "guided didactic conversation" were applied in an audio-conferencing course on human resource development (HRD) at Northern Illinois University. Here, HRD is an inter-professional field of study; students who major in it may initiate their study through adult education, counseling, or instructional technology. In this course, which was offered in the 1991 Fall semester, the content consisted of an overview of research, theory, and practice relating to individual development (training), career development (education), and organization development (change). The course was delivered simultaneously at three sites in northern Illinois: on the main campus of Northern Illinois

Presidential Teaching Professor, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL
(815)753-9328, Consultant in Adult Education, Illinois and Florida. Doctoral
Student in Adult Education, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL.

University in DeKalb, with graduate students at master's and doctoral levels, full-time and part-time, American and foreign nationals; at the College of Lake County in Grayslake, with a similar contingent, including a substantial number of full-time military personnel; at the College of DuPage in Glen Ellyn, with a similar contingent; and at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, with a single student. In all, there were 52 students with varying amounts of HRD experience ranging from little or no experience to vast practical experience in business, industry, government, and the voluntary sector.

In planning this course, we realized that, for many students, the audio-conferencing format would be an innovation for which they were unprepared. In order to reassure them, and to apply Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation, the course was carefully designed to include a course outline, a book of readings to supplement the text, paper copies of transparencies on which students could make notes during class, the development and distribution of study questions that served as advance organizers for the next week's class, the design of case studies and simulations to relate theory and research to practice, and the selection of HRD experts to address the students from distant locations. It should be pointed out that Holmberg's theory had been hitherto applied to individual students studying at a distance.

One potential problem was that students might find it difficult to attend to audio presentations for three hours. (Research shows that attention begins to wane after 20 or 30 minutes of a formal presentation.) One compensatory strategy was to deliver a short lecture, using transparencies to highlight important principles. Another strategy was the selection of coordinators at each of the three sites, with responsibility for preparing the classroom, including setting up equipment, distributing materials, showing transparencies on an overhead projector, and facilitating discussion. This discussion took place in small groups, where students focused on study questions that had been distributed at the previous class as advance organizers of materials appearing in the text, the book of readings, and the lecture. Another group activity involved case studies that prompted students to apply theory and research to practice. Finally, individual students interviewed the HRD director of a business, an industry, a government agency, or a voluntary organization and wrote reports, and shared salient information with other students in class. Emphasis was placed on the class as a social system. Personal data were collected from students for the purpose of linking content to their prior knowledge and experience. In order to become personally acquainted with all of the students, the instructor moved from one site to another each week. To put into practice some elements of Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation, students compiled a journal to be

handed in every two weeks, and the instructor responded to their entries with written comments in the journals.

Holmberg's theory (1988), exhibits the following characteristics:

Easily accessible presentations of study matter; clear, somewhat colloquial language, in writing easily readable; moderate density of information.

Explicit advice and suggestions to the student as to what to do and what to avoid, what to pay particular attention to and consider, with reasons provided.

Invitation to an exchange of views, to questions, to judgments of what is to be accepted and what is to be rejected.

Attempts to involve the student emotionally so that he or she takes a personal interest in the subject and its problems.

Personal style, including the use of the personal and possessive pronouns.

Demarcation of changes of themes through explicit statements, typographical means or, in recorded, spoken communication, through a change of speakers, e.g., male followed by female, or through pauses. (p. 117)

METHODOLOGY

In this case study, data were collected to determine whether guided didactic conversation could be applied successfully in group settings with middle-aged adults. The data analysis consisted of examining students' weekly journals and the instructor's responses to journal entries. Triangulization of these data was accomplished by analyzing the site coordinators' perspectives, as reflected in their annotated journals, as well as the instructor's journal. Confirmation of the findings was sought in audiotapes of the classes made available by the audio system vendor. The results of two types of evaluation were studied. One was the students' appraisal of the course and the instructor. The other was the instructor's evaluation of each student through the grading process.

FINDINGS

The site coordinators utilized a set of questions to ascertain whether a guided didactic conversation or relationship had been achieved between instructor and students. One element of Holmberg's theory focused on the presentation of the subject matter and the accessibility of the instructor and the site

coordinators. In 51 of the 52 journals studied, positive comments appeared on such aspects of the course as readings, texts, handouts, guest speakers, case studies/simulations, field trips, and the instructor and site coordinators. As for characteristics of guided didactic conversation, the journals reflected a lively exchange of views between instructor and students, students' emotional involvement in issues important to them, and a distinct personal style based on idiosyncratic knowledge and experience. With respect to classroom interaction, the site coordinators recorded initial negative comments toward the audio-conferencing format. However, in nearly every case, positive responses were substituted as the problems and distractions were overcome. In addition, the students praised the value of their interaction with HRD experts in both Canada and the United States. One guest speaker was the textbook's author, who received beforehand a list of 50 questions posed by students at the four sites. His answers to those questions generated other questions in a stimulating three-hour dialogue that supplied both author and students with a greater appreciation of the text.

Through the various activities that have been described, important concepts were not mere abstractions, but came alive to students, who, in effect, became reflective practitioners, as their journal entries indicated. This fact was confirmed in journals kept by the instructor and site coordinators. Three student entries appear below:

I worked for McDonald's headquarters for only six months. I wasn't there long enough to understand it. I didn't know anything about their HRD program. Now I am reflecting and integrating knowledge that I previously absorbed. I must say that this process has been enlightening.

Class was very interesting tonight. When we broke into groups, it was really beneficial to me because I was able to grasp the difference between Theory X and Theory Y. I also realized that the organization I worked for uses Theory Y. This was interesting to me, because I am an individual who feels more comfortable with Theory Y. I guess this is one of the reasons why I fit so well into the system in which I work.

What a great class! In fact, I will be using much of what was said when I end my Motivation and Leadership class. I think that mentoring would be an appropriate topic with which to end.

This concept of mentoring and the concepts of "learning how to learn" and "organization development (OD)," are three specific concepts chosen to illustrate how Holmberg's theory helped students to grasp the elements of a concept. Their comments are illuminating:

Mentoring

"Mentoring" - I love this concept. I wish there were a way to do some formal mentoring programs, but this would probably be difficult to implement because, often, mentors are chosen based on commonalities between personalities and some basis of friendship. I have mentors in both the department where I am a T.A. and in the organization where I am an intern. What a great way to learn!

I found the readings and discussions on mentoring interesting, but some of the really sticky issues were left out. Cross-gender mentoring can create some very real and very serious problems for women, as there are very few women to mentor other women.

I really enjoyed the dialogue with our expert on mentoring. I work with women, one-on-one, who have been abused. I am pondering the idea of matching these women with individuals like myself who have been abused and survived. Abused women are unable to visualize how they might get better.

Learning How to Learn

I understand the difficulty in motivating others so as to create the desire to take responsibility to learn and learn more. At the Dairy Council, we have a learning environment that offers trust and open communications. We now work as a team. We are quickly unlearning our previous actions that served to protect positions. We feel secure in reaching out to test the waters with new ideas, ready to fail without judging.

I specially liked our speaker, who talked about one competency as "knowledge of self as learner." I fear that is where many of my younger, traditional students are missing the boat, but where many of my non-traditional adult students are directing their efforts.

I was extremely excited to hear our expert. At my organization, we used his concept of learning how to learn in our methods of resume writing and preparing to enter the job market. We can't teach students to get a job, but we can introduce ideas to help them explore directions and learning paths to take. If the learning how to learn concept relates to the type of employee that organizations attempt to attract, then employees of the future should be strategists and problem-solvers, not just methodical followers.

Organization Development (OD)

In reading about OD, the section that is disturbing is the system-wide processing of data collection. Having worked in personnel, I found that this is the extent of OD--collect data that go nowhere because the

organization often changes its goals in mid-process. Organizations end up with data that were collected with no change in the organization.

This theory has a similar version in Chinese business management called "triple combination team" (TCT). Top management engineers are technicians and first-line workers comprise the TCT. It can be organized at any level of the organization and in any branch of its operation. The TCT pyramid works the same way and fosters organization re-development. The benefit of TCT to employees is that, through participation, they have an opportunity to voice their ideas, comments, and needs.

In reading about OD, I was struck by the similarities with my own field of community development. In community health, the reality is that we must assume that there will be some unhealthiness within an organization, and therefore we must create channels for dissatisfaction and appropriate ways for an individual to become healthy or to be able to intervene to correct the problem.

IMPLICATIONS FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation proved to be an excellent means of involving students in a close examination of major HRD concepts, while at the same time overcoming the problems of reaching out to a large number of students at four different geographic locations. One implication for distance education is that, Holmberg's theory of guided didactic conversation can be fruitfully adapted to both individual and group learning. The comprehensive planning inherent in Holmberg's theory led to a multiplicity of activities that culminated in an intense learning experience for students, one that transcended the problems created in reaching a large number of students at four locations. Although Holmberg's own research revealed that guided didactic conversation is more successful with younger students, the catalytic effect of the group process demonstrated the value of guided didactic conversation for older students as well. This combined with instructor/student interaction by way of the journals, benefited students by impelling them to engage in reflective practice.

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THE IDEA AND ADULT EDUCATION

Michael R. Penrod

ABSTRACT. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 (IDEA) contains a major challenge to practitioners in adult and continuing education. With the implementation of IDEA, a requirement now exists for the individual education program team (IEP team) to address, as appropriate, each special education student's "continuing and adult education" needs. IDEA requires that this be done as part of the transition process which supports the students' exit from school to adult life (IDEA 1990).

Clearly, this will result in more young people with disabilities exiting school aware of continuing and adult education opportunities. By extension, it should result in more young people with disabilities seeking to participate in continuing and adult education activities. The challenge to practitioners is to be prepared to appropriately meet the needs of this unique population. Obviously, achieving this goal will require review and probably revision of existing programs and practices.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Before adult educators begin changing programs and practices, they must understand what the status quo is. Only by understanding the status quo will the profession develop a perspective on what needs to change and, hopefully, how to change it. Initial efforts in this area should be aimed at identifying how consumers with disabilities use existing post-high school education services. Current research suggests the place to start is with the following questions:

"In what numbers do special education exiters actually participate in post-high school education programs?"

"Are gender and type of disability predictors of participation?"

Michael R. Penrod, Ph.D., Special Education Outcomes Team, Kansas
State Board of Education, 120 SE 10th Avenue, Topeka, KS 66612

HYPOTHESIS

Research conducted over the last eight to ten years suggests that people with disabilities do not routinely participate in educational opportunities beyond high school. This research also suggests that participation will vary by gender and type of disability. We anticipate these conclusions will hold true for Kansas.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT RESEARCH

At the national level, the SRI National Longitudinal Study supports the variation by disability. Funded by the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, this study represents a benchmark attempt to examine a national sample of special education exiters. Data collected between 1987 and 1989 shows that 14.6% of all sample group members with disabilities participated in some type of formal post-high school education within two years of graduation. This group included only high school graduates. Of this sample, 8.1% were enrolled in vocational or trade school programs, 5.9% were enrolled in 2-year college programs, and 2.1% were enrolled in 4-year college programs. Individuals with mild cognitive disabilities were more likely to be part of this group than individuals with moderate to severe cognitive disabilities.

Table #1 illustrates this relationship.

ENROLLMENT IN POSTSECONDARY SCHOOLS BY YOUTH WITH DISABILITIES 1 TO 2 YEARS AFTER LEAVING HIGH SCHOOL

<u>Disability Category</u>	<u>Percent Taking Courses From:</u>				<u>Sample Size</u>
	<u>Any Postsecondary Institution</u>	<u>Vocational/ Trade School</u>	<u>2-Year College</u>	<u>4-Year College</u>	
All conditions	14.6	8.1	5.9	2.1	1,265
Learning disabled	16.7	9.6	6.9	1.8	245
Emotionally disturbed	11.7	8.8	4.1	1.3	131
Mentally retarded	5.8	4.3	1.2	.6	164
Speech impaired	29.3	7.0	19.3	8.3	83
Visually impaired	42.1	2.9	15.2	27.5	110
Deaf	38.5	7.0	19.0	15.2	154
Hard of hearing	30.1	11.6	12.7	7.0	101
Orthopedically impaired	28.0	9.0	10.4	9.5	108
Health impaired	30.7	13.2	12.1	7.6	65
Multiply handicapped	3.8	.9	4.0	.2	77
Deaf/blind	8.3	8.8	0.0	0.0	27

(Source: *National Longitudinal Study of Special Education Students*. SRI, Stanford, CA.)

By contrast 55% of the control group of individuals without disabilities reported participating in formal post-high school education within two years of graduation. This group also included only high school graduates and enrollment patterns were the reverse of that noted for the group with disabilities. Vocational and trade school enrollment accounted for 10% of the sample, 18% were in 2 year colleges, and 27% were enrolled in 4-year colleges. (SRI, 1991).

This data implies that individuals with disabilities have limited access to post-high school education opportunities. If we assume that such opportunities represent one significant mechanism through which typical people acquire the skills and competencies necessary to participate in modern society, then one dimension of the problem comes sharply into focus. Obviously, high school completion does not insure individuals with disabilities access to postsecondary training programs, and without such access their ability to compete effectively in modern society is limited (Daggett, 1991; White, 1990).

However, continuing to focus on severity of disability as a discriminator, U.S. Department of Education data suggests that a significant number of individuals with disabilities never finish high school (U.S. Dept. of Ed., 1991). School exit data for the past several years shows about 26% of secondary students with disabilities drop out prior to completing high school (U.S. Department of Education 1991; U.S. Department of Education, 1988). Supplementing this data, the SRI study concluded that about 5% of high school dropouts with disabilities go on to participate in any type of post-secondary education. This is contrasted with 21% participation rate for all high school graduates with disabilities and a 56% participation rate for youth in the general population. (SRI, 1991). Thus, not only is their access to higher level education limited, they most likely lack the basic academic skills necessary for effective participation in modern American society (White, 1990).

The significance of the gender issue is less clear. Neither the SRI study nor the U.S. Department of Education data addresses gender issues. However, studies conducted by local Kansas school districts and by the Kansas State Board of Education suggest that such differences may exist. Data collected at the local district level reveals gender differences in postsecondary enrollment patterns and in employment patterns (Shawnee Mission, 1990; Greenbush 1985). Regional studies supported by KSBE show gender differences in work history, but did not address postsecondary enrollment (KSBE, 1991).

ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The generalizability of these studies is questionable. The SRI study had significant attrition from their sample while the Kansas studies were done on very small sample groups. The U.S. Department of Education study relied on data reported by the states with little standardization in methodology or process. Additionally, all these studies looked only at participation in traditional postsecondary opportunities. They did not actually address continuing education concerns and addressed adult basic education only by inference.

What we can say is this: the findings hold true for the populations and variables examined. Clearly, they highlight the need for further study, but they do not provide the answers needed by adult educators. In order to find these answers Kansas' needs to undertake a statewide study addressing the questions identified previously.

ANTICIPATED RESULTS

Using data from such a statewide study, Kansas adult educators can begin to understand how their services and programs are utilized by the State's young people with disabilities. However, this only represents the first step. With this baseline data to work from, adult educators must then examine program completion rates and perhaps look at life adjustment of former students.

Only then will the profession have a valid and reliable picture of its impact on people with disabilities. Once a valid and reliable picture exists, then it will be possible to go about the business of revising policies and programs to better address the needs of people with disabilities.

Another related area that adult and continuing education ought to address is professional development programming for individuals who provide post-school services to the more severe members of this population. The movement towards community integration means that both professional and paraprofessional staff must acquire new skills. Often these individuals are located in the rural areas of the state where they may not have ready access to training and educational opportunities. Thus professional development becomes a major problem. Outreach efforts could easily be integrated into existing delivery systems and programs.

CONCLUSION

Adult education must respond to the IDEA challenge. Whether that response is reactive or proactive will be determined by the profession itself. A reactive response accomplishes nothing; a proactive response accomplishes much. By

being proactive, in the manner described here, adult education can play a vital role assisting young people with disabilities to more fully and completely participate in adult life.

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RESTRUCTURING COOPERATIVE EXTENSION FROM SINGLE INTO MULTIPLE COUNTY UNITS TO FACILITATE DELIVERING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

S. Kay Rockwell, Jack Furgason, Connie Jacobson,
Dave Schmidt, and Lila Tooker

ABSTRACT. In the mid 1980s, multi-county Educational Programming Units (EPUs) were developed throughout Nebraska Cooperative Extension. The EPUs supported greater depth in programs and allowed agents to respond more pro-actively to critical issues. Major staff changes included having one EPU agent coordinator, assigning agent responsibilities according to training and special interest areas, and employing Extension assistants for youth responsibilities.

Focus group interviews with citizens in five pilot EPUs confirmed that agent specialization and multi-county programming provided more in-depth educational programs with less duplication of effort. Extension agents indicated that EPUs divided responsibilities according to agent's subject matter interests and provided more program flexibility. Open communication and teamwork occurred in successful EPUs. Logistical problems needed attention and symptoms indicating agent burnout needed watching.

Two years after state-wide reorganization, surveys of Extension board members and Extension staff supported the pilot EPU findings. Board members considered EPUs to be a positive, futuristic approach that is beneficial in their county; they also expressed a strong desire to maintain organizational decision making with county Extension boards, especially in regard to budgets and facilities. Agents saw EPUs providing an improved basis for participatory planning and being a future oriented approach for Extension programming.

INTRODUCTION

Cooperative Extension, established early in the twentieth century, is a county, state and federal partnership that transfers University research into educational opportunities throughout every community across the nation. This county-based educational network has been the foundation for Extension's program delivery from the University Land Grant system. However, major changes in transportation, along with changes in communication, computer, and satellite technology, provide the opportunity to enhance the program delivery system to gain greater efficiency, but still serve people with quality educational opportunities.

People wanting information are often well educated in their special area of interest. Consequently, Extension staff need to be able to provide in-depth information. At the same time, programs are expanding for high priority

societal needs that relate to agriculture such as environmental concerns, nutrition and health issues, waste management problems, and concerns related to youth-at-risk. Programs using modern delivery methods to address these issues require Extension staff with skills and expertise that are much more focused than the traditional generalist of past decades. However, it is unrealistic to expect extension field staff to be an expert in a number of programming areas, and county budgets and allocations cannot support a number of specialized agents within one specific county.

The compelling needs for Extension field staff to be specialized for more in-depth programming, along with limitations imposed with county boundaries forces Extension to become more serious about multi-county programming possibilities. Past Extension experiences provide a foundation for moving into multi-county programming. Johnson (1966) attempted to develop some guidelines to implement area Extension work in the 60s. Barnett and Louderback (1971) looked at how organizations can be adjusted to meet needs of clientele and what effect these changes have on job satisfaction. Hutchins (1992) concluded that county clustering may be one approach to help develop more effective strategies for issues-based programming.

Based on others' past experiences, Nebraska Cooperative Extension started exploring methods whereby the organization could gain greater efficiency, but still serve Nebraskans with quality programs. This exploration resulted in developing multi-county educational programming units (EPUs) to replace single-county programs. EPUs, a plan to support greater depth in programming, were designed to (a) increase Extension agent's role as educators within their specialized area, and (b) create a situation in which agents could to be more proactive in responding to critical issues. Major staff changes implemented in the EPUs included (a) having one EPU coordinator for a program unit, (b) assigning agents according to their area of special interest and dividing program responsibilities accordingly, and (c) employing Extension Assistants for 4-H responsibilities.

Five pilot sites were targeted in 1986 to test the feasibility of implementing EPUs across the state. After the pilot EPUs were tested for approximately two years, 21 EPUs were formed. These five pilot EPUs established in 1987, and the 16 EPUs established in 1989, replaced 87 single-county program units (Figure 1

ASSESSING THE REORGANIZATION

Four assessments conducted over a 6-year period (a) tracked citizen concerns about reorganizing into EPUs and (b) identified citizen and staff reactions about the strengths, weaknesses, and effectiveness of EPUs in delivering the educational programs. The time frame and focus of each assessment was:

1. 1986 and 1988 -- Pre and post focus group interviews with local citizens identified (a) expectations and concerns as the EPU's were planned and initially implemented, and (b) reactions to program quality along with their continuing concerns two years after the pilot EPU's were operational.
2. 1988 -- Focus group interviews with staff in the five pilot sites identified staff feelings about program delivery and quality two years after the pilot EPU's became operational.
3. 1991-- A mail survey of Nebraska Association of County Extension Boards members identified their reactions to, and concerns about, the EPU's' impact on delivering educational programs two years after all 21 EPU's became operational.
4. 1992 -- A mail survey of Extension administrators, specialists, and agents identified staff feelings about the state-wide EPU design two years after all 21 EPU's became operational.

Taken together, these four studies describe how a major structural reorganization in Cooperative Extension improved program delivery to life-long learners in Nebraska.

AGENTS' AND ASSISTANTS' REACTIONS AFTER TWO YEARS OF PILOT TESTING

Reorganizing into EPU's presented new roles and new time demands for staff. Extension agents became more specialized as they focused on their specific area of expertise, and they did more direct teaching. Agents spent more time planning and less total time preparing programs because they taught the programs throughout the unit rather than in just one county. Office service staff became more a part of the unit team as their roles were also targeted toward more specific tasks within the unit.

Advantages in the EPU's were: (a) changes allowed agents to divide their work according to subject matter areas, (b) audiences were larger, (c) programming was more flexible, and (d) different types of program delivery methods could be tried resulting in a wider variety of programs.

Matters needing attention and concentrated effort during the reorganization process were: (a) the development of open communication and teamwork among the EPU staff, (b) agents feeling excessive time pressure in new roles, (c) logistical problems in keeping all county office sites open, and (d) public concern about the possibility of less emphasis on 4-H, eliminating county fairs, losing county identity, and losing offices and services.

CITIZEN'S REACTIONS AFTER PILOT PROJECTS WERE IMPLEMENTED FOR TWO YEARS

Two years after the pilot EPUs were implemented, restructuring supported clientele expectations that (a) agent specialization in their interest areas would provide better quality programs with less duplication of effort and (b) agents working across county lines would result in more in-depth programming. Extension clientele no longer were concerned about (a) agents having less time to offer the same types of services they had offered in the past, (b) it taking longer for clientele to obtain information, (c) there being a decrease in audience participation, and (d) agents duplicating roles of specialists and clientele by-passing the local agent.

Travel time for Extension staff was still a concern two years after restructuring. However, it emerged as a somewhat major problem in only one of the five pilot EPUs--the most sparsely populated one.

REACTIONS TO THE STATE-WIDE REORGANIZATION

County Extension Board Members had a favorable reaction to the state-wide EPU system after it was operational for two years. They felt that (a) EPUs were a positive, futuristic approach to programming that was beneficial in their county, (b) program depth had improved, (c) EPUs made better use of the agent's knowledge and skills, (d) agents should give the overall direction for the youth program but have assistants run most of the youth programs, and (e) county costs had not been affected since the conception of the EPUs.

Board members had a strong desire to keep organizational decision making, especially budget and facilities, with county Extension boards. There was strong support for maintaining an office in each county. They also felt that EPUs could function best with one EPU Extension board along with individual county boards.

Extension agents and assistants indicated that EPUs were a future oriented approach for Extension programming. They felt that (a) program quality and quantity increased, (b) EPUs provided an improved basis for participatory planning, (c) sharing responsibilities for implementing programs with co-workers in other units improved programming, (d) EPU programming made better use of staff knowledge, skills and training, and (e) EPUs allowed them to personally make better use of their individual talents. However, opinions about clientele having opportunities for program input in the EPUs were mixed--about half agreed while the other half disagreed.

Administratively, paperwork had increased but duplication of effort was reduced. Staff did not feel that agent time was distributed equitably among

the counties. They believed the EPUs could function better with individual county boards in conjunction with an EPU issue advisory committee.

CONCLUSIONS

Reorganizing a state-wide Extension system into multi-county EPUs rather than single county programming units:

1. Is viewed as a positive and futuristic approach to programming that is beneficial in the county.
2. Strengthens the quality of the programs, increases the quantity of programs available, and uses mass media more effectively.
3. Allows for agents to focus on specialized areas of interest, creates new roles and time demands for agents, makes better use of agent's knowledge and skills, and creates possible burnout situations for agents.
4. Does not make substantial decreases in budgetary requirements; rather funds are typically redistributed yielding decreases in some areas and increases in others.
5. Provides a structure in which agents can direct the 4-H and youth programs but delegate coordination and operational details to assistants and volunteers.
6. Creates clientele concerns about possibly having less emphasis on 4-H programs, eliminating county fairs, losing county identity, and losing local offices and services.
7. Requires teamwork and communication among EPU staff, and requires good public relations with local leaders and Extension users.
8. Must recognize the strong desire to keep organizational decision making with county Extension boards, especially in regard to budget and facilities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

To make a smooth transition from single-county programming units to multi-county units, it is recommended that organizations:

1. Choose a team leader who can work effectively with staff and with agency boards, and emphasize that all staff members must learn

how to communicate effectively with all others in a multi-county unit.

2. Encourage boards to form one multi-county board that will work cooperatively with individual county boards. However, any merging process needs thorough discussion prior to taking action; as much as two years needs to be allowed for implementing a joint board.
3. Keep office sites open within each county as multi-county units are formed. Staff may need to establish one of the county offices as their "home office" and rotate to the other county offices. In counties that are not an agent's "home office," agents may need to commit a proportionately higher share of agent attention so clientele do not feel neglected.
4. Divide staff responsibilities according to special areas of interest and hire new staff accordingly; employ assistants to organize and conduct routine activities; be alert for signs of staff burnout as they cover multiple sites.
5. Provide special opportunities for office service staff to adjust to changing roles and learn new specialized tasks for their own changing role.
6. Carefully plan for travel needs because dollars needed for mileage reimbursement appear to create the most concern, especially in sparsely populated counties.
7. Provide opportunities for staff to gain additional information on how to effectively use alternative delivery methods.

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POSITION ASSIGNMENT AND LEARNING STYLES OF EXTENSION AGENTS

Timothy J. Rollins and Edgar P. Yoder

ABSTRACT. Adult educators need to know how adults learn and how to modify the learning environment for adult learners. The learning preferences of adults, their learning style, reflect their characteristic ways of processing information, feeling and behaving in learning situations. State-level extension personnel need to be cognizant of the learning preferences of extension agents in developing and designing educational programs for local agents. The four groups of local extension agents in this study prefer to learn by doing, referred to as active experimentation. More than half (55%) of the agents were classified as having a Converger or Accommodator learning style or preference where the teacher is a role model showing agents how to do things. Some differences were found in the learning style preferences between agents in the four major areas of responsibility--agriculture, family living, 4-H youth and county extension director. The Converger learning style was more frequently preferred by agriculture agents and county extension directors, but it was least preferred by family living agents. The results provide a base of information for state-level extension faculty to examine and incorporate in developing educational programs and learning strategies designed for agents. From a more global organizational perspective, the study provides information for enhancing the capacity for teamwork and staff development.

INTRODUCTION

Adult learning includes the acquisition of knowledge and skills essential to learning effectively in whatever situation is encountered. Recognizing these demands and requirements is the responsibility of the learner, the facilitator or instructor, the program designer, and the educational agency (Smith & Haverkamp, 1977). Programs in adult education should show adult learners how to diagnose their learning needs, plan their learning program, and evaluate their progress. Adult educators attest to adult learners' diversity. Individual differences in motivation, goals, intelligence, cognitive development and academic preparation, employment background, experience, skill level, and initiative become increasingly differentiated as adults grow older (Haverkamp, 1983). If one accepts the premise that information processing skills are needed by educated adults, then education should focus on helping adults diagnose their own situation, organize and process information, and assess what and how much they have learned.

Timothy J. Rollins, Assistant Professor, and Edgar P. Yoder, Associate Professor, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16802.

Adults who perceive, think, and respond to stimuli use a variety of resources and methods while learning. They develop personal tendencies and preferences, or learning styles that are characteristic ways of processing information, feeling, and behaving in learning situations. An important element in facilitating learning is helping learners become aware of their own learning styles. Once learning styles are identified, adult educators may help learners determine which methods and learning activities are best suited to their styles of learning (Brookfield, 1990). Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory included the concept of learning styles and the more basic concepts of learning and individual development. Kolb's theory included major tenets of Dewey (1938) who emphasized the need for learning to be based on life experiences, Lewin (1951) who espoused an active role for the individual while learning, and Piaget (1952) who described intelligence as primarily the result of interaction between a person and the environment. Kolb presented two fundamental elements in the learning process. The first element is accumulating experience or taking in information in concrete or abstract ways. The second element is transforming the experience or reflecting upon information essentially as it is or changing the information or oneself to fit one's thinking.

The usefulness of learning-style diagnosis in postsecondary formal and nonformal education has been clearly demonstrated (Smith, 1982). Despite failing to discover any relationships between learning style preferences and educational techniques used by Kentucky extension agents, Pigg, Busch, and Lacy (1980) concluded that a learning style inventory may be useful. Diagnosing learning styles may help adult educators understand adults' assumptions about teaching and learning, and their behavior in instructional situations.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

State-level extension staff desire to deliver in-service programs for county staff which incorporate the learning style preferences of agents as the programs and instructional activities and materials are designed. The problem is that no empirical assessment of agents' learning style preferences has been completed. State-level staff thus rely on their knowledge of the agents and make judgmental decisions regarding the agents' learning style preferences. This study empirically documented the learning styles of The Pennsylvania State University Cooperative Extension county staff members. The two objectives were to (1) describe the learning style preferences of county staff members and (2) examine the relationships between staff members' learning style preferences and variables associated with staff assignments.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The population for this study consisted of all 299 Cooperative Extension county staff members in Pennsylvania. The number of usable responses was 211 (71%).

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) designed by Kolb (1985 R.) was used to assess an individual's preferred learning style for dealing with ideas and day-to-day situations. Each of the 12 items requires respondents to rank-order four sentence endings in a way that best describes their learning style. One ending in each item corresponds to one of four learning styles. Cronbach's alpha for the four basic orientations and the two combination scores of the LSI range from .73 to .88.

Abstract Conceptualization (AC) is a conceptually-based, analytic approach to learning. People with an orientation toward abstract conceptualization focus on logic, ideas, and concepts, and emphasize thinking and ideas. People with this orientation are good at systematic planning, manipulating abstract symbols, and have a scientific, not an artistic, approach to problems. Concrete Experience (CE) is an experience-based approach to learning. People with concrete experience preferences focus on being directly involved in experiences, dealing with human situations personally, are good at relating to others, and are good intuitive decision makers. They emphasize feeling as opposed to thinking, have an intuitive, artistic approach as opposed to a systematic, scientific approach to problems, and are open-minded. Active Experimentation (AE) is an action-based approach to learning. An orientation toward active experimentation includes practical applications, looking for what works and doing, as opposed to reflective understanding and observing. These people enjoy and are good at getting things accomplished, are willing to take some risk to achieve objectives, and value having influence on the environment around them. Reflective Observation (RO) is an observation-based (watching), impartial approach to learning. Individuals with a reflective observation style focus on understanding meanings of ideas by observing and describing them. They emphasize understanding as opposed to practical application, are concerned with truth or how things happen as opposed to what will work, and emphasize reflection over action. They appreciate different points of view, rely on their own feelings to form opinions, and value patience and thoughtful judgment (Kolb & Smith, 1986).

FINDINGS

Data indicated that 57% of the staff members participating in the study were male; a large majority of them (81%) had major program area assignments in agriculture. For purposes of this study, the major program area was defined

as one of the four major extension program areas--agriculture, family living, 4-H/youth, or extension director--in which agents were assigned more than 50% of their time. Persons with responsibility as a county extension director were primarily males (70%). About 59% of the 4-H/youth agents were male, whereas 93% of the family living agents were female. There was relative similarity in the years of extension experience for agents in the three program areas of agriculture, 4-H/youth and family living. County extension directors averaged about 21 years of total extension experience, 4-H/youth and agriculture agents averaged 15 years experience and family living agents averaged 13 years experience.

Data in Table 1 reveal the relative proportion of extension county staff members for each learning style by program area assignment. Family living agents had the smallest percentage of staff members (16%) assessed as having a Converger learning style. Forty-four percent of family living agents had an Accommodator learning style, more than twice as many as in any of the Table 1.

Distribution of Extension Personnel by Area of Assignment and Learning Style.

Program Area	Learning Style		
	Accommodator	Diverger	Assimilator
Agriculture (N = 75)	20%	31%	32%
Four-H/Youth (N = 46)	17%	28%	24%
Family Living (N = 45)	44%	20%	16%
County Director (N = 33)	20%	24%	30%
All Agents (N = 199*)	27%	27%	26%
	18%		

*Other agents (12) did not have one major program area commitment.

other learning style categories. Agriculture agents were identified most frequently as having the Assimilator (31%) or Converger (32%) learning styles. County directors were almost evenly split between Converger (30%), Accommodator (27%), and Assimilator (24%) learning styles, with the Diverger (18%) learning style occurring the least. The 4-H/youth agents came closest to mirroring the collective group in terms of percentages of agents across the four learning styles.

DISCUSSION

The Converger learning style was most frequently preferred by both agriculture agents (32%) and county directors (30%), but was the least preferred by family living agents (16%). The two dominant learning strengths of a convergent learner are abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). The strengths of this learning style are individual problem solving, decision-making, and practical application of ideas. Hypothetical-deductive reasoning allows the person to focus on specific problems. Convergents are controlled in their expression of emotion and prefer dealing with technical tasks and problems, not social and interpersonal issues.

The Diverger learning style was least preferred by the total staff (18%) and least preferred within program assignment areas by agriculture agents, 4-H/youth agents, and county directors. This learning style has the opposite learning strengths from the Converger. Divergers emphasize concrete experience (CE) and reflective observation (RO) and adaptation by observation rather than action. A Diverger is feeling oriented, interested in people, and imaginative enough to view concrete situations from many perspectives to generate alternative ideas and implications.

An Assimilator learning style was the second most-preferred style (27%) by the total staff and accounted for almost one-third (31%) of the agriculture agents' learning styles. These individuals prefer abstract conceptualization (AC) and reflective observation (RO), using inductive reasoning and creating theoretical models. An Assimilator's orientation is less focused on people and more concerned with judging ideas by theoretical precision, not by practical value.

The Accommodator has the opposite strengths from assimilation--doing things, carrying out plans and tasks, and getting involved in new experiences. Accommodators emphasize concrete experience (CE) and active experimentation (AE). This adaptive orientation provides an opportunity for risk taking and action and for those situations that require changing immediate circumstances. Accommodators tend to solve problems in an intuitive, trial-and-error manner and rely on others for information who may see them as impatient and pushy. This learning style was most-preferred by the total staff (29%), 4-H/youth agents (30%), and by 44% of the family living agents. It was not as preferred by agriculture agents (20%) or county directors (27%).

How do the current results compare to earlier studies of extension personnel? In a study of Kentucky county extension agents who were administered Kolb's learning style inventory, the relative positions of the agriculture and 4-H/youth agents were similar; however, they were placed in the Accommodator quadrant rather than in the Converger quadrant (Table 2; Pigg,

Table 2.
Distribution of Agents in Various Program Area Assignments by Learning Style Types.^a

Program Area	Learning Style Type		
	Accommodator Converger	Diverger	Assimilator
Agriculture (N = 112)	37%	17%	24%
Four-H/Youth (N = 105)	22%	8%	15%
Home Economics (N = 110)	51%	8%	15%
All Agents (N = 327)	46%	11%	19%
	31%		
	44%		
	27%		

^a Table adapted from Pigg, Busch, and Lacy (1980)

Busch, & Lacy, 1980). Kentucky home economics agents occupied the same relative position but in the Diverger quadrant. In the Pennsylvania study, the locations of each of these groups was such that agriculture and 4-H/youth agents are in the Converger learning style quadrant and the family living agents are in the Accommodator quadrant. In both studies however, the total populations of extension agents (all agents) from each state occurred within the Accommodator learning style. County directors were not identified in the Kentucky study.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

All four groups of agents identified in this study--agriculture, 4-H/youth, family living, and county directors--preferred to learn by doing, or active experimentation (AE). More than half (55%) of the agents in these groups were either Convergents (26%) or Accommodators (29%) who preferred a learning situation where the teacher is a role model to show them how to do things. Despite being risk takers and extroverted, they prefer small group discussions and individualized, self-paced, learning activities and projects with opportunities to practice and receive feedback while getting things accomplished.

Almost two of every three (64%) family living agents, on the other hand, were Accommodators (44%) or Divergers (20%) and were more inclined to learn from concrete experience (CE). They see the teacher as a helper for learning by intuition and, being sensitive to peoples' feelings, prefer role playing, learning from new experiences and like personalized feedback and discussion. Almost one-half (47%) of the 4-H/youth agents prefer this learning situation.

Although one-half (48%) of the agriculture agents were Assimilators (31%) or Divergers (17%), less than half (45%) of the total staff members were in these two groups. Individuals in these groups learn by perception or reflective observation (RO), by looking inward for meaning from many different perspectives before making considered judgments. They prefer lectures from a teacher who is both a guide and will observe different perspectives of an issue.

The majority of agents in each of three groups--agriculture, 4-H/youth, and county directors--preferred to learn by thinking or using abstract conceptualization (AC). They choose systematic learning situations, such as reading about theories, with an instructor or teacher who can communicate clear, well-structured information allowing them to analyze ideas in a systematic method. Almost two of every three agriculture agents (63%) were either Assimilators (31%) or Convergents (32%) and almost equal percentages of county directors (54%) and 4-H/youth agents (52%) had the same learning styles. Although there are differences in the proportion of agents with various assignments across the learning styles, from a practical perspective the authors do not consider these to be substantial differences.

Questions are raised by this study related to the inservice education of extension staff. Will educators responsible for staff development take into account the complexities associated with learning style preferences of agents? Will subject matter be designed and presented to accommodate agents' preferences for learning? What will be the most educationally efficient method to teach to state-level staff how to use individual learning style preferences of agents? Regardless of vastly different teaching responsibilities with diverse learners, professional educators must be able to recognize and be sensitive to individual clients with various learning styles. It would seem incumbent upon adult educators to incorporate into their style of teaching information regarding their clients' learning styles. From a total organization perspective, individual learning style preferences need to be aggregated in a meaningful manner to enhance the organization's capacity and effectiveness.

One of the goals for using information from this study was to increase the capacity for teamwork from an organizational viewpoint. When individuals bring different learning styles to a team, advantages, as well as problems, may be created. Problems attributed directly or indirectly to these differences in learning style do not occur randomly. Much the same way as one's body has evolved specialized organs for special purposes, organizations relate to the environmental context much the same way by specializing into units that deal with that external environment. Careful observation of the strengths inherent in each of the learning styles leads one to conclude there are major differences. But agriculture agents do what they do for many of the same reasons that youth agents do what they do--they just do "their things" in

different ways and accomplish their mission along different routes. There is, indeed, strength in diversity.

From a philosophical management perspective, although these agents need to remain differentiated when relating to their clientele, at some point in time they need to be integrated into and coordinated with the internal organizational environment. Unfortunately, one way this can happen is through the domination of one learning style over another in less adaptive, inflexible organizations. The preferred method is to integrate and adapt to various learning styles which results in an organization that is greater than the sum of its parts. For an organization to pass the test of time and remain flexible and adaptable, all of the diverse, yet subtle, differences in learning styles—action and reflection, concrete and abstract—are needed, if not desired.

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PROACTIVE MANAGEMENT IN ADULT EDUCATION

Lorilee R. Sandmann and Larry Granger

ABSTRACT. Organizations large and small--adult, continuing, and community education notably included--are scrambling to adapt to unforeseen changes in their environments. The pace and complexity of these changes is only likely to increase in the years ahead. As a result, educational administrators and program managers are groping for better forecasting capabilities to anticipate emerging issues and future learner competencies, to avoid wasting scarce resources, and to move away from the dominance of crisis management activities. This paper reports on two promising proactive management strategies, Environmental Scanning and Knowledge Match Dialogues, and their results in action-learning projects.

INTRODUCTION

Rapid changes in demographics, economics, technology, and community attitudes are severely testing societal systems--especially the educational system of all industrialized countries. The test for the educational systems is to:

- 1) anticipate how and when emerging issues will require different learner competencies,
- 2) avoid organizational contentment that comes from full enrollment or use of educational programs,
- 3) incorporate skillful anticipation of future changes into the planning of educational programs,
- 4) model throughout an educational organization the future anticipation and response skill being expected of learners and befitting a world-class organization.

Lorilee R. Sandmann, Director, Michigan State University-West; Commerce Building, Suite 750, 5 Lyon Street, NW, Grand Rapids, MI 49503-3123 and Larry Granger, President, Granger and Associates, Inc.; 10817 Johnson Ave. S., Bloomington, MN 55437.

Where do educational practitioners--managers and programmers--seeking better forecasting capabilities find models and guidance in developing a proactive approach? Part of the answer exists in business management writings, which, despite the use of different theories, phraseology, and prescriptions, are converging around the need for organizations and managers to anticipate change and address it in an optimistic and effective way. One example is Morgan's (1988) suggestion that managers develop proactive mindsets "from the outside in" and cultivate positioning and repositioning skills.

Another answer comes from taking advantage of access to research and instructional faculty within the total educational community who generate knowledge, and linking them with individuals who have a strong need to know about the future. This matching can be ongoing as well as episodic on specific issues of knowledge fields.

The field of adult, community, and continuing education, as reflected by its literature and practice, does not provide ready applications of proactive planning. It is moving from the primary use of needs assessment techniques to encompassing strategic planning, market surveys, situational analysis, and the use of advisory groups as means of determining direction and educational priorities. The next step in the maturity of the adult education field will be to move even further from reactive programming (reading and reacting to existing conditions) to proactive programming (Kowalski, 1988).

SOCIAL CHANGE THEORY

It should be noted that organizations, their leaders and members may espouse being anticipatory in their orientation, but theories-in-use usually indicate otherwise (Argyris 1990, Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992, Senge, 1990). Preoccupied with immediate demands, organizations and individuals resist fundamental change. Stability, in the white water of change, is sought.

Overcoming institutional inertia and timidity, especially in mature adult education organizations, requires improved management and planning. Angel and DeVault (1991) call this improved management "fourth generation planning" characterized by being proactive. For planning to be proactive, it must

- be conceptual
- anticipate/accommodate rapid change
- be inclusive
- include a call to action
- change the institutional culture
- recognize environmental conditions
- recognize dependency
- be an open process
- be value-based
- help institutions reach a level of distinction (pg. 8)

The step to proactive management in adult education is as much a change in practitioner beliefs as it is a change in organizational structure and operations. The cornerstone of a proactive style could be the use of at least the two anticipatory techniques described here. This paper draws on the results of action-learning projects and presents two anticipatory management program planning approaches in adult, continuing, and community education settings. One approach is Environmental Scanning, the other approach is Knowledge Match Dialogues. Each approach will be briefly described, including their planning assumptions, utility, strengths, and limitations.

ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

One strategy that can lead to more proactive management is Environmental Scanning. Environmental Scanning, a planning model that has emerged from futures research (Coates, 1986; Morrison, 1984), is the systematic, rapid review of selected information sources that test signs of change against set criteria. This process serves as a kind of radar--spotting emerging issues when they are weak signals of change and then tracking them as they evolve and become more clearly defined.

Environmental scanning is based on the assumptions that:

- issues have a cycle, and early identification can bring strategic advantage;
- in an information age, there exists a vast amount of data on trends, emerging issues, and critical events in almost every field;
- a purposeful and systematic scanning effort can identify and make available data most relevant to an organization's decision making;
- scanning is a straightforward and adaptable process that can be undertaken by any organization, organizational division, or unit.

We have been involved in a number of scanning processes within diverse settings from national organizations, from profit and not-for-profit institutions to local community groups. The following two examples illustrate the application and utility of the process. The Grand Rapids Community College Environmental Scanning Process was specifically established to anticipate future occupational and training needs in a community college service area. A three-tier structure, including a project coordinator, a seven-member steering committee, and a faculty scanning board, work well in implementing the process, in integrating the results into the college's decision making, and in institutionalizing the process into the college's overall planning process.

Advisory committees often find themselves making decisions based on their own personal experience or from narrow and select input sets. Charged with

making program recommendations, the Southeastern Minnesota Extension Service Advisory Committee expanded their responsibilities to include environmental scanning, and find their discussions have a broader perspective. Scanning changed people's thinking and what they thought about. Members also find a carryover into their work lives as well.

In addition to the uses cited, scanning can inform long-range and operational planning, marketing, accreditation reviews, proposal writing, fund raising, lobbying, and public relations efforts. The strength of this proactive management strategy is that it can provide past, present, and future examination of issues. It organizes and focuses information of value to organizations, and many people can be involved in the process. Benefits of an environmental scanning process will not be realized, however, if the data generated are not useful for individuals and the organization. There must be perceived benefits to the scanners, otherwise, sustained motivation will be difficult. Likewise, to maintain the process, administration must be committed to using the information in decision making. There are other critical concerns that need attention in the process. Staffing and support activities are required. Analysis and utility of data are only as good as the data collected. Analysis can be trivialized or over-analyzed. Finally, a useful, credible reporting mechanism is needed.

KNOWLEDGE MATCH DIALOGUES

A communication and analysis process that connects generators and users of knowledge from education, business, government, community and students, we have called Knowledge Match Dialogues. The purpose of such dialogue is to identify new knowledge needs for users and new knowledge development agendas for educational institutions. This process is based on the assumption that continuous face-to-face dialogue between knowledge users and generators will create useful new knowledge or refocus existing knowledge for both participants, and will stimulate each to become more proactive and future focused. It is also based on the belief that knowledge users and knowledge generators have different perspectives on knowledge needs that are typically inadequately conveyed to each other.

We joined in a Knowledge Match Dialogue with community pediatricians, county and state health department members, medical school and hospital research faculty, and representatives of juvenile court systems around the topic of community models to reduce the number of infants who are born suffering the effects of prenatal substance abuse. Pediatricians, frustrated by current practices of the social service and legal systems, turned to "knowledge generators." In this case, the knowledge generators were researchers. Assistance was sought in framing the problem and in generating new knowledge; that being the results in the intervention trials that would be credible and convincing for policy makers. Spirited discussions have ensued

around ethical and legal intervention strategies. The dialogue and supporting actions are still continuing. However, the presence of such dialogue has already prompted the Department of Social Service to more closely monitor their handling of drug-exposed infant cases.

Such Knowledge Match Dialogues are useful because they:

- create new forms of dialogue about the status of knowledge and its application;
- facilitate different disciplines and points of view being brought together in a less threatening manner;
- expand the number of people who get involved in future-focused knowledge generation activities and it becomes a personal development experience;
- involve a team approach where all participants are seen as peers and where knowledge users are equal partners in problem finding, problem solving, and design of research projects;
- expedite research on applied topics, and are cost effective;
- are not one-time events, or crisis oriented, but can be customized to be short term or continuous.
- can be combined with organizational planning or strategic planning processes.

If this process is perceived as "more talk" or "one more meeting," the potential will not be realized. The group needs to check periodically for agreement of purpose because the process does not require direct action unless participants agree to do so. Those not willing to enter an open dialogue can stifle the process as well as those without developed group process skills.

TOWARD FOURTH GENERATION PLANNING

Being relevant and proactive is a persistent adult education practitioner concern. We have tried the two approaches above, and from diverse case examples, recommend their application. Environmental Scanning and Knowledge Match Dialogues can be implemented in a formal or informal manner, and in large and small scale. They can also be used in a connected way, in that, Environmental Scanning may identify the need for Knowledge Match Dialogues on particular topics. Conversely, Knowledge Match Dialogues may identify topics on which an Environmental Scanning effort

should begin or be intensified. While there are many proactive management models evolving, these two show promise in being continuous, anticipatory, qualitative and quantitative, localized, relevant, engaging, and cost effective.

General Electric Chairman, Jack Welch, made what was perceived as a shocking statement by saying, "I've abolished strategic planning, not strategic thinking." An important effect of these anticipatory processes is not only the outcomes, that is, the plans, data sets, research projects, etc., but the infusion of strategic thinking in the individuals and the organizations involved. Arie de Geus (1988), in his article on *Planning As Learning*, explains that planning means changing minds, not making plans. Planning is learning for individuals and organizations. The thinking and decision-making process that results from the use of Environmental Scanning and Knowledge Match Dialogues and other future study techniques should not only be practiced or taught, but modeled or reflected daily in the work habits of proactive educational programmers as we expect our learners and students to use them.

Collaborative work among researchers and practitioners is needed to address two clusters of questions that demand longer term and systematic review. First, do these proactive models provide useful information in organizational and program decision making? In essence, do these models work? Second, are the opportunities identified actually seized or acted upon by the organization, and, as a consequence, are the potentially problematic issues resolved? That is, do these processes really make a difference? It is hoped that the presentation of these proactive management strategies will cause deliberation on the topic, prompt further trials and development, and build toward informed theory regarding a strengthened forecast function in adult education.

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WHAT DO ADULTS GAIN FROM TAKING PART IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS?

Sara M. Steele

ABSTRACT. This paper looks beyond the traditional view of the value of educational programs as that of transferring new knowledge from an expert to a program participant and identifies other kinds of gains which adults may secure from participating in an educational program. Examples of generic gain indicators the author has used are given with the percent of the respondents who recognized securing such gains. Generic gains indicators are not content specific and include such results as: greater understanding, new questions, stimulated to think, reinforcement, comfort in knowing what others are doing. A list of generic gains can be developed from any of several bases including critical thinking or executive processes.

CONCEPTUAL BASE

Many areas of adult education take their perspective on how to look at results of programs from a traditionally held view of learning which comes from formal educational agencies ranging from first grade to Ph.D. Many confine themselves to looking at the extent to which program participants appear to have mastered (learned) the content the teacher/agency set out to teach and have used it in ways that the teacher/agency expected it to be used. The focus is on the major objectives established by the teacher for the learners with or without the learner's input.

A TRADITIONAL VIEW

However, in this era of paradigm shifts, the established paradigm, sometimes called information transfer, needs to be expanded. The basic assumptions of this focus include:

1. program participants do not already know the material. They are viewed as blank slates or empty jugs in relation to what the teacher is presenting.
2. most of the information is relevant and important in real life situations.
3. the information will fit every participant's life in the same way.
4. information can not have value to individuals unless it is new.
5. experts hold all of the knowledge that is important.

Sara M. Steele, Professor, Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

6. learning is primarily the intake of information.
7. agencies define education and learning in such a way that they have to have a role for learning to occur. Much of our adult education literature is written from the agency's point of view rather than the perspective of the program participant.

Many of us take this conceptualization of learning for granted. As Rich says:

Theorists simply assume that information will be collected, transmitted, and used; thus it is not necessary to devote a great deal of attention to the topic [information utilization]. Likewise, practitioners assume that information will be used to help solve problems; they too, feel that knowledge utilization is not a significant field of inquiry. (Rich, 1991)

However, both common sense and a knowledge of the multiple information sources which actively bombard the kinds of people who voluntarily come to adult education programs challenge many of the assumptions which support an information transfer approach to adult education.

EMPHASIS ON USE RATHER THAN RECEIVING INFORMATION

Over the past few years I've been exploring the concept of use of information. (The agency I work with, Cooperative Extension, is keenly interested in use of information.) As a result, I see learning as having three stages: intake, integration, and utilization.

The first stage, intake, occurs when something new enters the mind. That "something" could be any of the following: 1) information from an external source, 2) insight and new knowledge gained from experience, 3) a trigger stimulus which causes us to activate and transform information already stored in our mind and to process it in a new way.

The last stage, utilization, may take place in several ways. Perhaps the most frequent way is that of our heeding and "spinning through" a conscious thought that shows us how we have integrated the new and the old or reassembled pieces to meet a new challenge. Utilization is reinforced if we orally present the product to someone else. Reinforcement may or may not occur when we attempt to put new information into practice. Sometimes we prove that the way we have integrated the new information is not right and the result is not useful to us.

But intake and utilization are very shallow if the main process, integration, doesn't occur. In this middle stage, one of two processes occur. If the new element entering from an external source is content, that new content has to

interact with what the mind already holds about the topic and become integrated in some form. If integration does not occur, the new information is not likely to remain in storage. The second process, which occurs when a trigger other than new knowledge enters our mind (for example, a crisis situation), is that of search and synergy in which our mind finds various bits and pieces that are in storage and integrates them into a product which appears in our thoughts. To me, real learning does not occur unless this integration stage at least partially occurs. However, most agency personnel are primarily concerned with the intake stage - how well does the learner receive the expert's meaning.

Rich (1991) describes this whole process somewhat differently. He points out that transmission is the trigger step and that pickup refers to "the process through which the information is retrieved or received." His next stage is information processing which includes "several distinct" sub-processes. Those sub-processes include "understanding the information, testing it against one's own intuition and assumptions, testing it for validity and reliability, and transforming the information into a form that is usable.

Although there some cognitive psychologists may be studying the integration stage, most appear to be focused on the intake or pickup stage. My interest in the area that I call integration and that Rich calls information processing is taking me into the work of Michael Polyani who speaks of personal and expert knowledge, Jack Mezirow who speaks of meaning perspectives and reflection, Albert Bandura who explores the social origins of thought, theorists working in the third world who are concerned with indigenous knowledge, and into terms coming out of business in relation to tacit and explicit knowledge.

And this whole area interfaces with another keen interest in relation to the thinking processes involved in learning and in evaluation. When it comes to program evaluation, it is my view that in addition to finding out about program participants' intake or pickup of information, we also need to understand how that new information contributes to what they already know. We should see the acquisition of new information/ideas as adding to a bank vault rather than filling a jug.

A RELATED LINE OF EMPHASIS

This conceptual base has been on the back burner of my mind "simmering away" as I work with a variety of routine program evaluations. So far I have not taken time to explicitly work from this theoretical framework in developing response items to examine what people gain. However, from a different perspective as I work with program evaluation I have been primarily interested in how one helps people to define and identify the value they received from taking part in a program. I believe that the agency's

concept of value of new information is some piece of overall value, but having been mightily struck by Cy Houle's work on reasons why people take part in adult education, I have never believed that the acquisition of knowledge is the sole, or even in many cases, the main gain or kind of value that people achieve through participation in educational programs. Thus I've tried to identify other kinds of gains. I call these aspects generic gains in that sense that any program might produce them and they are not content specific.

Next you will find a short list of quickly developed "generic gains" used in end-of-session reaction sheets for several satellite television programs. The sheets also included questions which asked the participants to rate the amount of help they had received related to the program's objectives and to give examples of information which was especially useful. (I prefer to ask for ratings on "helpfulness" rather than on the amount learned because I believe that you can learn things that are not helpful or are neutral. Not helpful learning has less immediate value than helpful learning.)

GENERIC GAINS

During the past two years, I've encouraged production and content people planning evaluation to include a question which explores generic gains. Here are a few examples of phrasing of gains and how people responded to them. In terms of context, it may be useful for you to know that each program had at least an hour of local guided discussion as well as a video presentation via satellite of at least an hour.

EXAMPLES OF GENERIC GAINS

Responses to Biotechnology. One session designed to help influentials consider pros and cons of biotechnology. 91 professionals and community leaders completed end-of-session forms.

8. Check any answer below which indicates what you gained from the program.

- | | |
|-----|---|
| 82% | better understanding |
| 71 | new questions |
| 60 | new ideas |
| 39 | feeling of support from meeting with other people interested in Biotech |
| 31 | more confident to moderate discussions |
| 27 | more awareness of local resources |
| 22 | willing to work on community education project |
| 10 | answer to a specific question |

Dairy Live. Second program in a series. 91 dairy producers and professionals completed end-of-session forms.

- 82% better understanding
- 52% A challenge to think about some aspect of my feeding program
- 68 Reinforcement for what I already knew
- 46 Better understanding of something I already knew or was doing
- 32 New information about feeding
- 23 New ideas that I will try
- 8 An answer to a question or solution to a problem
- 6 Nothing much that seemed valuable to me

Responses to Economics of Divorce. Program for professionals working with divorced people. 121 completed end-of-session forms.

2. Check any answer below which indicates what you gained from the program:

- 75% better understanding
- 66 more awareness of Extension resources
- 50 new ideas
- 29 new questions
- 28 meeting/networking with other professionals
- 27 desire to change or try something suggested
- 17 help with specific problem
- Other, please specify _____

Responses to Each of Four Sessions in the First Parenting Teen Series. Series for parents; the number of respondents ranged from 393 for the program on Alcohol and Drugs to 750 for the first program on Teen Development

	Develop't	Sexuality	Drugs & Alcohol	Depress'n
desire to change or try something	70%	59%	51%	58%
new ideas	63	66	64	61
better understanding	63	58	62	73
reinforcement and reassurance	56	56	53	46
feeling of support from other parents	49	52	50	42
awareness of symptoms of problems	27	25	46	55
new questions	20	33	31	29
help with a specific problem	12	11	11	19
more awareness of local resources	10	26	42	46

REFLECTING ON THE EXAMPLES

Although there was a good deal of similarity in the items used, some were tailor made to a particular program. For example two programs involved local resource people and local resources.

One pattern that emerged across the four examples is that new information/ideas usually appeared someplace about the middle of the list. Better understanding usually came higher or as high. At this point we could get into a semantics debate. For example, is new information and new ideas the same gain, or two different gains? I assume that "new ideas" is a better clue to value because it implies that people integrated the new material with their own beliefs system and are ready to accept the result as an idea. In the same way I feel that greater understanding refers more to completing an integration process and supplementing what one already knows than it does to new learning. Both positions certainly could be argued. It is not my intent to provide you with a validated list of generic gains, but simply either to reinforce your own work or to start you thinking about whether there are some generic gains in relation to the programs with which you work.

You will notice that in one or two lists I included reinforcement. I also could have used the term validation, but I'm not sure that people would have known what I meant. Both of these kinds of gains relate to how the program affirmed information and beliefs that the participants already had. In areas where retaining a desired attitude or action is hard, it is as important to reinforce as it is to introduce new ideas. In my mind the two terms differ slightly, in that to me validation occurs when the content of a program matches what the person has already pieced together from experience or other sources. Hearing an "expert" helps the person relax and say, "well I was right about that." It is my view that many of the people we attract to our meetings usually know a good deal about the subject and either come for validation or to interact with others who have a similar experience and/or interest. They are open to new information, but learning something new is only one or several reasons for coming to a session.

The list certainly is not complete. You may want to take a sheet of paper and do some brainstorming about the kind of valuable gains you feel may come from adult education programs. For example, if we go back to the framework which sees learning as involving an integrating or processing component, what kind of gains are likely to come out of that process? We might, for example, use the item, "helped me reconcile something new with what I already believed," or "helped me put pieces of information/ideas together in a new way."

We could also phrase a whole set of gains working from a different starting point. For example, one could take executive thinking processes and explore

the extent that the session had helped participants: plan, make decisions, manage, or evaluate. Or we could phrase a set of gains in relation to attitudes or beliefs. For example, "made me question an attitude I had accepted," "reinforced an attitude I had," "made me think about what my attitude toward X really is."

If you are a follower of Brookfield or Apps you might develop a set of indicators which identify the extent to which the session fostered certain elements of critical thinking. For example, "helped me identify assumptions I hold." (However, such gains might not be in harmony with an information transfer view of education. I've felt a need to keep the list comfortable to information transfer people so haven't dared out into some of these other areas). Or, if you feel, as I do, that creative thinking is imperative if we are to cope with the problems of a complex future, we could build a set of generic gains exploring the extent to which a session "helped me synthesize, synergize, and create."

You will note that most of these generic gains have one thing in common. Most of them are not content based. Now we are back to the beginning of the paper. The information transfer model is primarily content centered. When one steps outside of that paradigm and asks what in addition to specific content may be valuable, one begins to see many other potential gains. It has long been known that content can be a vehicle for developing processes as well as an end in itself.

IN CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I hope that my experience with generic gains is expanding your thinking about how your programs can be valuable to adults. You may or may not find a list of generic gains useful in your own evaluation activities. Perhaps you will take a step out of the traditional circle in a different direction and devise another way of examining value of programs which goes beyond looking at new knowledge gained.

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USING CONCEPT MAPPING RESEARCH TO IDENTIFY FACTORS THAT ENHANCE COALITION DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS

Georgia L. Stevens, S. Kay Rockwell, Wesley D. Daberkow,
and Jack Furgason

ABSTRACT. This paper identified factors useful for developing educational materials to assist organizations/agencies to build and maintain coalitions that address community issues. Coalition building factors were identified by 12 coalition members after the successful coalition met eight times over 10 months. A concept mapping computer program analyzed the ratings and the groupings of the factors. Fifty-nine items identified as important formed 13 clusters that grouped into three logical themes. The first two themes occur in time sequence phases:

- (a) *Foundation building*--time for getting acquainted and providing base for functioning.
- (b) *Implementation*--time for putting plans into action.

The third theme, *process*, is ongoing and includes factors that enhance coalition formation and program implementation as the coalition members work together. *Foundation building* includes five clusters: building relationships, respecting each other, identifying central issues, embracing common commitment, and building upon a common need. *Implementation* includes four clusters: transforming individual creativity into action, sharing leadership, building the partnership, and communicating and networking. *Ongoing processes* includes four clusters: a supportive administration, planning each agenda, planning meeting sites, and scheduling working meetings.

INTRODUCTION

Coalitions can be an effective means for agencies and organizations to work together to identify and address community problems. However, research is limited on the factors that enhance developing these coalitions in rural areas. Schermerhorn (1975) notes that motivating factors promoting interorganizational cooperation are derived from potential benefits associated with the activities. Rogers and Mass (1977) list factors that promote greater interagency interactions. Halpert (1982) extracts two lists from the literature--facilitators and inhibitors for interagency coordination. Hoban (1986) looks at barriers to interagency interactions. Although studies address factors that promote greater interagency interactions or barriers that inhibit these interactions, no one addresses the factors that actually enhance building

coalitions among a number of agencies/organizations to address common problems. This research was conducted with coalition members in Western Nebraska to identify the factors that brought them together as a successful coalition.

This paper identifies factors that provide a foundation for developing educational materials to assist organizations/agencies to build and maintain coalitions to address community issues. This information can be used by all community education organizations, including Extension, to help rural community organizations/agencies work together to build and maintain their own coalitions to make the most effective use of their dollars in meeting the needs of their community.

METHODOLOGY

The target audience for the case study, 12 coalition members of the Nebraska Community Youth Advisory Committee, coordinated a USDA funded project titled KIDS' TEAM. The coalition building factors were identified by the 12 coalition members after the successful coalition met eight times over 10 months. A concept mapping computer program developed by Trochim and Linton (1986) was used to analyze items into factors considered helpful in building coalitions. Maps show the relationship of these factors to each other and their perceived degree of importance in the coalition building process.

In the concept mapping process, three steps were used to arrive at factors that contributed to building the successful coalition in central Nebraska. Step 1 was a brainstorming session addressing the primary question: What factors do you believe enhanced the development of this coalition? Two follow-up questions for in-depth probing were (a) What factors have enhanced building the eight area youth committee coalitions? and (b) What factors have enhanced building other coalitions in which you are a participant? In Step 2, coalition members individually (a) rated each item from the brainstormed list on a Likert scale that identified its importance in the coalition building process and (b) grouped all the brainstormed items into logical theme clusters. The program used multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis to form groups of ideas (clusters) that were pictorially illustrated through concept maps (Figure 1). The computer program also (a) produced bridging indexes for each cluster and (b) calculated means from the Likert scale importance ratings. The cluster shape results from connecting the individual items on a scatter plot. Closely related clusters neighbor each other. Higher walls on a cluster indicate a higher importance ranking. These clusters illustrate the factors, and their degree of importance in building the central Nebraska coalition. In Step 3, the 12 coalition members reconvened to review the concept maps that reflected a composite of the manner in which they ranked

and grouped the individual items. Through a group consensus process, the factors were identified by naming each cluster.

Closely related clusters neighbor each other. The cluster shape results from connecting the individual items on a scatter plot. Higher walls on a cluster indicate a higher importance ranking.

Figure 1. Concept map of clustered items.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In the brainstorming process, 59 items were identified as being important for building coalitions. Using the concept mapping analysis program, these 59 items formed 13 clusters that grouped into three logical themes (Figure 2). The first two themes occur in time sequence phases:

- (a) Foundation building--a time for getting acquainted and providing a base for functioning.
- (b) Implementation--a time for putting plans into action.

The third theme, process, is ongoing and includes factors that enhance coalition formation and program implementation as the coalition members work together over a period of time.

Foundation Building		Implementation		Process	
FB-1	Building relationships	I-1	Transforming individual creativity into action	P-1	A Supportive Administration
FB-2	Respecting each other	I-2	Sharing leadership	P-2	Planning the agenda
FB-3	Identifying central issue(s)	I-3	Building the partnership	P-3	Planning meeting sites
FB-4	Embracing common commitment	I-4	Communicating and networking	P-4	Scheduling working meetings
FB-5	Building upon a common need				

Figure 2. Factors basic to coalition operations

Foundation building is the theme that constitutes the initial phase in coalition building. It includes five clusters: building relationships, respecting each other, identifying central issues, embracing common commitment, and

building upon a common need. *Relationship building* is enhanced when persons with common interests effectively listen to the concerns that each bring to the discussion. Trust of each other and commitment on each person's part are essential in building good relationships. Maintaining open-mindedness and valuing differing opinions, experiences, and contributions help in building *respect for each other*. Each partner needs to be willing to negotiate ideas and compromise on the strategies they will use. *Identifying clear central issues* is rated as the most critical activity for a coalition. It includes identifying a real need and coming to a common understanding of the surrounding issues. Focusing on a common purpose makes possible the establishment of clear expectations. An effective coalition will employ its common purpose to develop and *embrace a common commitment*. This includes maintaining an intentional openness to all ideas, while at the same time working with a focus on identified issues. *Building upon a common need* is more likely to happen when participants learn to talk an inclusive, common language. Coalition members can then better comprehend each other's agency goals and priorities. They also learn about one another's previous successes that can benefit the new mutual effort.

Implementation is the phase that moves the ideas and planned activities into action. It includes four clusters: transforming individual creativity into action, sharing leadership, building the partnership, and communicating and networking. *Transforming individual creativity into action* depends upon recognizing talents and varying strengths of members. The process is made stronger when the coalition includes persons who are visionary, as well as those who are both process-oriented and action-oriented. *Shared leadership* includes a flexible structure in which responsibilities are coordinated and distributed across coalition membership. All participants need to be actively involved. The coordinating leader must avoid creating a power structure within the group. A clear definition of project goals and coalition member roles helps *build the partnership*. Members feel a vested interest in their coalition roles when the assigned tasks (a) evolve from their contribution in the planning stage and (b) appeal to their talents and strengths. *Communication* that flows freely and recognizes the contributions of coalition members enhances *networking* opportunities. Resource sharing increases when members feel a bond between each other and communicate openly in a comfortable, nonthreatening environment.

Ongoing processes relate to management factors that may be important at any point in coalition building and implementation. It includes four clusters: a supportive administration, planning each agenda, planning meeting sites, and scheduling working meetings. *A supportive administration* is vital for coalition member participation. The most critical elements within this factor include administrative support from the coalition member's boss and recognition of time designated to participate in the coalition activities. Providing fiscal resources is also important; it may include in-kind

contributions from the participating agencies or organizations. *Planning each meeting agenda* insures that meetings focus on issues needing attention. Agenda planning helps participants feel their contribution in time and effort is respected. At the same time, coalition members appreciate the opportunity to vary the agenda, if circumstances merit, and all agree. Members absent from a given meeting must be promptly informed about group decisions and actions. Choosing central coalition meeting locations within manageable distances, or rotating meeting sites, are critical factors in *planning meeting sites*. Normal personal comforts, including barrier free facilities, are also important as the meeting location is selected. *Scheduling working meetings* incorporates flexibility into the dates and length of coalition meetings. Working meetings also incorporate group dynamic principles--group size may need to be adjusted to conduct business in the shared leadership environment.

APPLICATION OF FINDINGS TO PRACTICE

The target audience in this study is responsible for facilitating 5 to 10 local area youth committees through the federally funded project. The findings from this study identify important factors as they develop local coalitions in rural Nebraska.

However, the findings from this study apply beyond the immediate target audience for the research. Educational materials can be developed that delineate the enhancers of coalition development and assist facilitators in other settings develop and maintain coalitions that address common community concerns/issues.

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LINKING FORMAL AND INFORMAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS TO ENHANCE THE SUCCESS OF LOW-INCOME WOMEN IN TRADITIONAL AND NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION

Linda P. Thurston, Shirley Marshall, Joni Allison,
and Joan Alpaugh

ABSTRACT. Social isolation is often a characteristic of low-income men and women. Poverty is associated with many physical and mental health problems. Depression, low self-esteem, and stress related problems are prevalent in low-income women (Belle, 1990). In addition, research shows that they face extreme social isolation and despite extended kinship patterns for some, social contacts prevalently carry a negative valence (Belle, 1990; Thurston, 1989). These problems exacerbate the difficulties faced in providing traditional educational support for this population. These female learners may be criticized or ridiculed for attempting to get a G.E.D. or for going to college. In fact, their efforts to continue their education may be undermined by others in their family or their group of friends. Adding informal support, missing in the lives of many low-income women, adds a powerful mechanism to formal educational programs. It provides the acceptance, motivation, reinforcement, and encouragement which are characteristic of informal social support systems and it has proven to be a powerful augmentation to formal educational systems which serve low-income women.

Low-income women often view education as an avenue for advancement and for escaping from the limitations of their educational and social history. In addition, community and continuing education agencies are increasingly providing special programming for unemployed or underemployed women

Linda P. Thurston, Associate Professor, College of Education, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506; Shirley Marshall, Director, New Directions Displaced Homemaker/Single Program, Bluemont Hall, Manhattan, KS 66506; Joni Allison, Director of Continuing Education, Roan State Community College, Harriman, TN, 37748; Joan Alpaugh, Director, Sherman Adult Education Cooperative, P.O. Box 1156, Sherman, TX 75091.

who are reentering education or the workforce to enhance their skills for economic independence. Many state and federal programs for low-income families are increasingly emphasizing education as part of their overall plans to promote family self-sufficiency and independence from such programs as food stamps, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, and public housing.

Research suggests that linking formal support systems, such as traditional education and employment training, with informal support networks, such as peer groups, is important in developing competencies and capabilities which lead to success in educational endeavors (Rappaport, 1981; Schiamburg, 1982; Dunst, Trigette, and Deal, 1988). Not only are informal systems useful in providing for the generalization and maintenance of learning, they are also a powerful tool for motivating non-traditional students who may have had a history of failure in formal educational settings. When educational programs consider this link in program development and implementation, success is possible for their students and also for the agencies which serve them.

Community and continuing education agencies in several states are using a life skills training program, *Survival Skills for Women*, to provide this link and to assure the acquisition of basic skills and peer support for their female clients (mainly single mothers receiving government assistance) (Thurston, Dasta, and Greenwood, 1984). *Survival Skills for Women*, a series of 10 prescribed workshops, is based on sound learning principles and has been shown to be successful at increasing the life competencies of low-income women. When linked with traditional educational systems, the positive effects of both are multiplied. *Survival Skills for Women* demonstrates two ways of linking formal and informal support systems for the benefit of low-income women and their families.

First, the program itself combines the attributes of both formal and informal support systems. *Survival Skills for Women* incorporates sound educational principles applied to teaching such basic skill areas as assertiveness, child management, goal setting, decision making, money management, personal health management, and coping with crisis. Principles such as opportunity to respond, positive reinforcement, shaping, fading, and errorless learning are the basis for the scripted program which uses flip charts, workbooks, and other materials such as role playing cards and games. With these successful traditional and empirically-based educational strategies, the program utilizes the dynamics of a group by providing the program to groups of up to 15 women at a time. The women themselves become peer tutors, reinforcing agents, prompters, and they carry out a multitude of roles which enhance, promote, and support learning. They provide advice and suggestions to each other, thus they become an integral part of the learning program. In addition, they learn that their own ideas are important, that they can support others,

and that they are already in possession of many important skills and much knowledge. Thus, the formal support system of traditional adult education in the form of life skills classes or workshops, is combined with the informal support system that is vital to generalization and maintenance of skills and to the lives of the women who are enrolled in the program.

The principle players in this program which combines formal and informal support strategies are the group participants and the group facilitator. These roles are keys to the personal empowerment attained. The Facilitator is a trained individual whose role in the group is to provide opportunities for participants to interact with the others in the group and with the program material for the purpose of learning and developing peer support. She provides the kind of leadership which is designed to help make groups perform more effectively by soliciting and reinforcing the leadership skills, expertise, experience, and potential of all participants in the group. She is a resource person, a reinforcer, and a model. She is not a therapist and she does not use her role to control the group or direct participants' goals. She is democratic and egalitarian and assures that everyone has an opportunity to respond and to contribute.

Thus, the participants, the members of the group, have the role of learners, achievers, peers, and friends. They share the responsibility for what happens in the group and they are the recognized "experts" of the program. They set their own goals and make decisions about the application of new skills learned in the workshops. Their authority is derived from their membership in the group and from personal experience and knowledge they already possess.

The combination of these two types of roles, which are not common in traditional formal educational systems, have proven to be very successful for changing behavior, improving knowledge about survival skills, for increasing self-esteem, and for decreasing depression. Participants also increase their "supportive" behaviors such as initiating conversations, advising, questioning, volunteering to help, and reinforcing self-affirming statements and use of survival skills.

There is a second way that *Survival Skills for Women* demonstrates the combination of formal with informal support systems. Traditional educational systems are combining *Survival Skills for Women*, which teaches basic life skills and develops peer support and motivation, with their ongoing programs such as G.E.D. classes, literacy classes, job training, and community college programs. When offered to students in front of formal training, drop-out rates are reduced and completion rates and percentages are improved. In addition, follow-up studies have shown that women who do not have high school diplomas complete *Survival Skills for Women* (SSW), they complete their GED's in half the time as those who do not complete

Survival Skills for Women. Eighty percent of the SSW graduates without high school degrees go on to complete their GED's and 60% of them go on to a two- or four-year college. Other research shows that 60% of graduates keep in touch with the members of their groups; some groups continue to meet as a support group.

A follow-up study in one Service Delivery Area in Tennessee, demonstrated that 76% of SSW graduates were in school full time or employed full time 3 months to 1 year later. All of that group, 86% of which returned their surveys, reported using skills learned in SSW workshops, and 76% reported continuing to work on or having met the long-goal they set during the goal-setting workshop and all those who had completed their goals had set new ones. Finally, 86% reported evidence of increased personal and economic independence. Examples are moving out of parents' house and into her own apartment, making up back payments for a car, obtaining child support payments, and getting a raise and benefits at current employment.

The Survival Skills for Women program demonstrates the practical application of sound learning principles, the characteristics of personal empowerment, and the combined strength of informal and formal helping systems to promote educational goals of low-income women and to improve their capacity to utilize traditional educational systems.

The program is currently being offered by community colleges, extension service, and adult basic education programs in several states and is being linked with more formal education services such as college and technical training. The success of these programs, which link formal and informal support systems to serve low-income women, demonstrates the potential of this linkage in adult education. Research has demonstrated the efficacy of *Survival Skills for Women* in eliminating barriers to educational success and in developing informal support networks of program participants. The strategy of linking informal and formal systems of support and education have proven successful for the students and for the educational agencies which serve them.

When students are motivated and when they learn the skills and materials presented in the educational setting; when they transfer those skills to employment or employment training opportunities; and when they are satisfied with the education and services they receive, educational agencies improve their credibility, achieve their mission, and are able to meet the demands set by governmental organizations which contract for their services.

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FACULTY AND STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF DISTANCE
EDUCATION USING TELEVISION: THE BALL
STATE UNIVERSITY M.B.A. MODEL

Joanna R. Wallace

ABSTRACT. The purpose of this study was to: (a) determine why students participated in the MBA/TV program; and (b) assess the quality of this program based on the judgments of faculty and perceptions of students participating.

Two surveys (faculty and student) were designed to collect data. Faculty responses included their perceptions of student performance, student inquiries and participation, administrative and logistical support services, technology (performance and limitations), and program strengths/limitations. Student responses included their motivations for participation (logistical, personal, and career); and perceptions of the program strengths/limitations, faculty, technology, and administrative support services.

The student survey revealed that nearly all (96.1%) had experienced good TV reception at their site. Issues such as receiving the program in their hometown(s) (71.1%) and offering it at convenient times (80.8%) were rated as important. Additional issues rates as important included the opportunity to: (a) earn an MBA (90.9%); (b) upgrade work skills (75.1%); and (c) learn more about business concepts (83.2%).

The faculty reported that most students (75-100%) demonstrated understanding and resourcefulness in completing class assignments (78.9%). Nearly seventy nine percent (79.9%) of the faculty reported that less than fifty percent of the students contributed to the quality of class discussions. Finally, mail communication with students had either minor problems (solved) or had always gone smoothly (78.9%).

Joanna R. Wallace, Assistant Dean (Acting), Business and Economic Development Services, School of Continuing Education and Public Service, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306, (317) 285-1588. Presented at The

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research study was to assess the perceptions of both students and faculty regarding Ball State's distance education program known as the MBA/TV. In addition, an attempt was made to identify the student's motives for participating in the Ball State televised distance education program and compare those with motives identified in the literature for participating in similar distance education programs.

Previous evaluation of the MBA/TV program was limited. Information gathered from this research provided a measure of performance to gage "how they're doing." Knowledge of the "problem areas" assisted faculty and administrators in making program changes or refinements that better served the interests of both students and faculty.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Selected literature related to televised instruction and distance learning was reviewed. The literature revealed the characteristics of typical students enrolled in distance education programs. Students were generally between the ages of 20 and 40; from both urban and rural areas; employed full- or part-time; unable to attend traditional programs because of restraints of time, location, disability, work, or home commitments; unable to afford to attend the traditional college or university; and/or were unable to meet entrance requirements for traditional universities or colleges (Stanford, 1980; Woodley, 1981; and Naylor, 1985).

Related literature also revealed that students enrolled in distance education programs frequently were working toward upgrading certification or job qualifications. Distance learners included individuals such as mothers who were home with children; defense force personnel; and students seeking subjects that were unavailable in a particular geographic region. Students enrolled in distance education programs were motivated by reduced commuting costs (in terms of time and money), work or home schedules, and personal preference for independent study (Stanford, 1980; Woodley, 1981; and Naylor, 1985).

Logistical services were cited repeatedly as critical to the success of distance education. One important element noted was the length of time which elapsed between when students submitted their assignments and those assignments were returned to the student with the instructor's corrections and comments. Access to libraries necessary to complete student research was another element cited. A final logistical concern was the ability to test for learning at remote sites with proctors or monitors (Barker, 1986; Asch and Smith, 1988; DeLoughry, 1988; Collins and Murphy, 1987; Hanson, 1987; Wagner and Craft, 1988; and Palomba, 1989).

The literature provided comparative data to show how residential students compared with distant learners. The general finding was that there were no significant differences in terms of outcome measures (comprehensive examination scores and course grades) (Holden and Vivian, 1988; Collins and Murphy, 1987; and Coggins, 1988).

Administrative support and facilitation were repeatedly mentioned in the literature, by faculty and students alike, as important for the success of a distance education program (Barker, 1986; Asch and Smith, 1988; Deloughry, 1988; Collins and Murphy, 1987; Hanson, 1987; and Wagner and Craft, 1988).

Other authors investigating this subject reported that student reactions to televised courses were generally positive. Courses taken by students were reportedly interesting. Also, students would not have taken the courses through any other medium. Another interesting point gleaned from the literature was that students who participated in televised courses were busy people, so the efficiency of a televised program was appealing (Holden, and Vivian, 1988; Collins and Murphy, 1987; and Coggins, 1988).

A minimum quality was required of the technical facilities used to deliver distance education. The adequacy of the picture and the quality of voice transmission were also considered to be important. Finally, students tended to maintain interest longer at remote sites if they had access to a large TV screen (Collins and Murphy, 1987).

According to the literature, faculty who were most effective in presenting televised instruction gave clear and logical presentations and possessed an ability to present materials in a flexible and varied manner. Other important characteristics included the presenter's voice quality, facial and bodily expressions, eye contact, projection, knowledge of and interest in the material being presented, enthusiasm for teaching, interest in students, and pacing (Collins and Murphy, 1987).

Finally, an orientation program emphasizing survival skills and learning how to learn at a distance and assistance with initial course selection were reportedly helpful to distance learners (Palomba, 1989; DeLoughry, 1988; and Coggins, 1988).

METHODOLOGY

To solicit responses from both faculty and students regarding this study, two separate surveys were designed. Due to the geographic dispersion of the student population, the need for anonymity, and the nature and length of the survey, written surveys containing both open- and closed-end questions were used to collect data.

FINDINGS

STUDENT SURVEY

Of the participants responding, 141 (67%) of them were male, 67 (32%) were female, and one person did not respond to this question. Male participants outnumbered female participants by two-to-one. Over seventy-one percent (71.3%) of the participants responding were between the ages of 22 and 32. Nearly fifty-eight percent (57.9%) were between the ages of 26 and 32 years. Twenty-eight percent (28.3%) of the participants were over 35 years of age. Married student participants outnumbered singles by nearly two-to-one. Nearly seventy-nine percent (78.9%) of the participants were married compared to just over twenty percent (20.1%) who were either single or divorced.

Over fifty-seven percent (57.3%) of those responding to the student survey lived more than twenty-five miles from a university offering a graduate business degree. Nearly a quarter (24.8%) of those responding lived over fifty miles from a university offering a graduate business degree. Nearly forty-two percent (41.7%) lived over twenty five miles from a university library. Nearly seventy-two percent (71.1%) rated the fact that the MBA/TV program was received in the respondent's hometown on the high end of the importance scale. Over eighty percent (80.8%) considered the fact that the MBA/TV program was offered at convenient times to the participant to be important to extremely important.

Over seventy-five percent (75.1%) of those responding to the student survey rated the opportunity to upgrade his/her work skills to be important. More than eighty-three percent (83.2%) rated the opportunity to learn more about business concepts to be important. Over ninety percent (90.9%) considered the opportunity to earn an MBA to be important. More than seventy-two percent (72.2%) of those responding considered accreditation of the MBA/TV program by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) to be important. Over forty-seven percent (47.4%) of the students responding rated their last professor as either good or superior. Nearly thirty percent (29.7%) rated their last professor as average. Over sixty-one percent (61.8%) found their last class to be somewhat to very challenging.

FACULTY SURVEY

Over sixty-eight percent (68.4%) of those responding to the faculty survey reported that 75-100% of their students demonstrated mastery of the subject matter. Nearly seventy-nine percent (78.9%) indicated that 75-100% of their students demonstrated understanding and resourcefulness in completing class assignments. Nearly seventy-nine percent (78.9%) indicated that less

than fifty percent of their students contributed to the quality of class discussions.

Seventy-nine percent (79%) of those responding to the faculty survey indicated that their experience with MBA/TV curricular advising had either minor problems solved) or had always gone smoothly. Over ninety-four percent (94.2%) of those responding indicated that communication with the graduate coordinator had either minor problems (solved) or had always gone smoothly.

RECOMMENDATIONS

If the MBA/TV program is to succeed as an alternative to campus-based education, administrators must address the problems associated with interaction between staff and students, group interaction between students, and access to library and computer facilities. Networking library resources via computer for access at remote sites would allow students to use these resources more readily. Providing a list of appropriate resources in advance of class may allow time for students to search out sources of information prior to needing them for a particular assignment. Providing books of readings appropriate to specific courses to students at remote sites (at a fee) would help alleviate the problem. Perhaps a library van stocked with appropriate business information resources could travel from site to site on a regular basis to provide access to materials necessary for graduate research assignments. It is these issues on which a distance-learning program such as the MBA/TV can founder, resulting in disillusion and disappointment in students and loss of credibility in the institution.

More than seventy-two percent (72.2%) of the students responding to the survey rated AACSB accreditation of the MBA/TV program on the high end of the importance scale. Therefore, maintaining AACSB accreditation is vital to the continued success of this program. Continued collaboration between the university and this accrediting body is recommended. In addition, MBA/TV program administrators may wish to conduct follow-up studies of graduates and employers of graduates to further assess the significance of this issue.

The research showed that significant problems exist with the talk-back capability of the tele-response mechanism. Therefore, the MBA/TV model does not facilitate student interaction. Improvements in this component of the technology are recommended. Interactive computer capabilities at each of the sites would allow almost instantaneous participation from students. Students could communicate and confer with one another and/or with the instructor in immediate "real time". Small group assignments requiring applications of course concepts may also increase student participation at sites where there are multiple students. Use of an electronic mail system to

facilitate communication between students and faculty would also enhance the program.

It is recommended that the study be replicated with a different televised MBA program model to determine the validity of the findings. Finally, further research is needed on the absence of interactions with other students; ways to evaluate learning beyond tests; and follow-up of how these students perform on the job compared to face-to-face class students.

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FOCUS GROUP STUDY
GUIDES STRATEGIC PLAN AND REORGANIZATION
FOR IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

Rhonda Wiley-Jones

THE QUESTION AND ITS IMPORTANCE

The focus group study posed the question, "How do clientele, both current and potential, want to do business with ISU Extension?" The answers to this question have guided ISU Extension in developing a strategic plan and reorganizing campus and field operations, while maintaining the four basic tenets of ISU Extension, satisfying clientele, respecting people, continuously improving and making rational decisions. Administration envisioned this fundamental redesign as an opportunity 1) to reposition ISU Extension for future funding potential, 2) to reallocate current funding to show funding sources Extension's ability to redirect resources to high priority issues, and 3) to take ISU Extension into the 21st century as a viable organization meeting the needs of Iowans.

METHODOLOGY

Using ISU Extension's six major clientele groups – agriculture enterprises, business and industry, campus clientele (ISU departments and center of excellence), communities, families, and youth – Extension conducted twenty-four focus groups in twenty-one locations across the state. The four youth focus groups consisted of young people ages 11-17. For each clientele group there were two Extension frequent user focus groups and two non-user or limited user focus groups. Each focus group consisted of 4-12 people, with an average of eight people per group interviewed. A total of 198 people participated in a focus group.

ISU Extension used the talents of its own staff to serve as moderators and assistant moderators. Moderators facilitated each focus group by asking the questions, keeping the group on track, and administering the brief paper-and-pencil survey. Assistant moderators helped set up, took back-up notes, ran the equipment, summarized the session, and debriefed with the moderator. Both were trained at the same time by the project consultant.

Rhonda Wiley-Jones, Staff Development Specialist, 109 Curtiss, ISU, Ames,
IA 50011

The questionnaire asked for a range of responses concerning ISU Extension's general image, their perception of current programs and services, how Extension is different from other providers, and how Extension can best deliver programs and services to them in the future. As a part of the interview, moderators asked each participant to complete a short survey during the focus group and then discuss any items that were of interest to them.

Each focus group was tape recorded, the tapes transcribed for analysis, and then used only by the project consultant.

RECRUITMENT

ISU Extension administration and project manager, Rhonda Wiley-Jones and project consultant, Dr. Richard Krueger defined different groups by unique characteristics, such as types and size of agriculture enterprises, families, or communities. They sought a balance between males and females, urban and rural representation, and age distribution in the groups.

Each field office (a total of 107 offices) provided a list of names of people within their geographic area that fit the specified characteristics for the focus group planned in their vicinity. From that extensive list of 1090 names, project staff called 539 names from the list, recruited 228 people of which 198 actually participated in a focus group.

Four campus staff members on a part-time basis conducted the recruitment. They began recruitment one to three weeks before each group was to meet. Recruitment consisted of an initial phone call, followed up by a letter of explanation, and confirmed with a phone call the day before or day of the focus group.

ISU Extension offered a financial incentive of \$50.00 to each participant. This was particularly critical for recruiting non-users or limited users of ISU Extension programs and services. For equity purposes, the \$50.00 incentive was offered to all participants, both adults and youth, except to campus clientele. (The incentive was not allowable under ISU policies for faculty and staff on campus.) Fewer than five people refused the incentive. The \$50.00 incentive was an issue due to budget constraints, but was deemed to be an investment in the success of the study. That proved to be true in recruiting limited and non-users.

PROJECT CONSULTANT ROLE

Dr. Richard Krueger, from the University of Minnesota and author of *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*, served as consultant and trainer of the focus group moderators and assistant moderators.

Krueger worked closely with the administration, project manager, and staff to design the study and develop the questionnaire. He trained staff, then conducted the analysis and wrote the report.

PROJECT SCHEDULE AND BUDGET

Staff initiated the project in early spring of 1991. Training of moderators occurred in March. Recruitment started in May and continued through late July. Staff conducted focus groups from late June through early August. Dr. Krueger submitted a final report in September of 1991.

The focus group study generated \$31,330.00 in direct costs and an estimated \$80,350.00 in indirect costs, totaling \$111,650.00.

FOCUS GROUP RESULTS

- Focus group participants clearly stated that ISU Extension retains a high reputation among both frequent and limited users. Extension's image was creditable, reliable, responsive, and caring in their view. However, both types of users were not familiar with all the programs and services offered. Increased promotion efforts are likely to increase demand; therefore, identifying market niches and narrowing the programs and services were suggested.
- Participants indicated that user fees for some programs and publications would be reasonable. Care is recommended to explain to clientele the change from no-cost to fee-based opportunities and to ensure that these programs and publications are available to those with limited resources.
- Focus group members encouraged ISU Extension to clarify its mission and some of its program areas, particularly with business and industry, and community clientele. Related to this issue was the concern that ISU Extension is too broad and unfocused. Clarifying its mission and programming focus is crucial.
- Participants expressed a clear preference for individual, one-on-one contact from Extension staff, who help them solve their problems. Sympathetic attention to individual problems of local residents is the most important attribute of Extension workers. This is where people dub ISU Extension as a caring organization, based on the staff's person-to-person contact.

- Focus group members differed on how they view access to ISU Extension programs and services. For some it means having a local office and staff they know; whereas, for others it means obtaining a solution to a problem.
- Focus group participants indicated that ISU Extension must be more visible and be able to provide accurate, up-to-date help in an area of immediate concern. It's a plus for Extension to be recommended by a trusted person.
- Farmers want help in decision making rather than general educational opportunities in agriculture. They want rapid, expert advice. There is an inherent dichotomy of wanting unbiased, researched information, which is a slow process, in an environment of rapid-turn-around needs.
- Though Extension efforts in business and industry are appreciated when people are aware of them, these efforts are rarely seen as a part of ISU Extension. This link needs to be built.
- ISU Extension services to communities are not clearly understood. ISU Extension should clarify and specialize in what it can do for communities, then work more closely with other local agencies, universities and community colleges.
- Topics of concern to Iowa families are broad and include health care, child development, nutrition, and low income families.
- New approaches, strategies, and methods in youth programming should reach beyond the traditional 4-H program to reach older youth, especially those in towns and cities.
- Campus services relating to conference services and off-campus credit courses need administrative attention to organizational problems. Conference services unit should offer a menu of services with varying charges. Credit courses should become a University priority.

USE OF THE FOCUS GROUP RESULTS

4-STEP PATH TO EXCELLENCE

As ISU Extension strives for excellence, a four-step path has been set which reflects the organizational values and points the way by which we will achieve our vision. The focus group study inherently responds to each of the steps.

1. Satisfy clients (exceed client expectations). By using the focus group process ISU Extension is able to better know the expectations of clients. Only then can we strive to satisfy and exceed their expectations.
2. Respect people (practice the golden rule). Everyone wants to be heard, to be listened to. Systematically listening through the use of focus groups expresses an organizational respect to individual clients and groups of clients. Even those not participating in the study may experience a sense of respect for their ideas, because ISU Extension took the time and effort to systematically listen to others.
3. Improve continuously (do it better today). ISU Extension can only improve if we know how our clientele perceive our programs and services. Having a baseline of perceptions will help us measure improvements in the future. For the present we can take specific suggestions and make immediate improvements.
4. Decide rationally (get the facts). ISU Extension is in a better position to make rational, deliberate decisions when we know how Iowans think and feel about our programs and services. This type of data collection provides one more source for rational decision making.

LONG-RANGE STRATEGIC PLAN

The focus group study results have been used by ISU Extension administration, County Councils (legal governing bodies), and staff to guide their decision making in developing a strategic long-range plan. Items that are a direct or indirect result of the focus group study are listed below.

- Reduce \$1.2 million of campus operations to balance the budget and reallocate funds for priority program development.
- Identify and eliminate programs and services adequately available from other providers.
- Institute fee-based educational programs and fees for services provided to targeted user groups.
- Maintain an office in every county in the field operations.
- Improve cooperation with community colleges by including this responsibility in the Area Extension Education Director's position description.
- Increase Extension's capabilities in information and communication technologies, by mandating and budgeting for a FAX machine and

telephone answering machine in every county office. Other technologies that are encouraged include: the installation of a computer on every desk, mobile phones for every field specialist, and 1-800 numbers for every county office.

- Add four FTEs, which is eight half-time media relations specialists, in the field operations to better communicate to the public what ISU Extension offers.
- Make reductions proportionally between campus and field operations and among client-focus areas, when necessary.

INDIVIDUAL UNIT ACTIONS

Individual units have used the results to take action, pursue further study or make changes in their operation or their programs and services.

- The Continuing Education unit on campus conducted an in-depth review of operations, resulting in a reorganization of functions and restructuring the funding base.
- Increased fee-based programs in agriculture and business and industry.
- Reallocated funds for priority program development in each unit.
- Reduced or eliminated specific programs, such as livestock programs for producers and veterinarians, architecture, music, adult art and design, textiles and clothing, food and nutrition, journalism, and international activities.

The focus group study posed the question, "How do clientele, both current and potential, want to do business with ISU Extension?" The answers to this question have guided ISU Extension in developing a strategic plan and reorganizing campus and field operations, while maintaining the four basic tenets of ISU Extension, satisfying clientele, respecting people, continuously improving and making rational decisions. Administration envisioned this fundamental redesign as an opportunity 1) to reposition ISU Extension for future funding potential, 2) to reallocate current funding to show funding sources Extension's ability to redirect resources to high priority issues, and 3) to take ISU Extension into the 21st century as a viable organization meeting the needs of Iowans.

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MAJOR FINDINGS

- Focus group participants clearly stated that ISU Extension retains a high reputation among both frequent and limited users.
- Participants indicated that user fees for some programs and publications would be reasonable.
- Focus group members encouraged ISU Extension to clarify its mission and some of its program areas, particularly with business and industry, and community clientele.
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- Focus group participants indicated that ISU Extension must be more visible and be able to provide accurate, up-to-date help in an area of immediate concern.

USE OF MAJOR FINDINGS

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3. Improve continuously (do it better today). ISU Extension can only improve if we know how our clientele perceive our programs and services. Baseline perceptions will help us measure improvements in the future. Today we can take specific actions for improvement.
4. Decide rationally (get the facts). ISU Extension is in a better position to make rational, deliberate decisions when we know how Iowans think and feel about our programs and services. This type of data collection provides one more source for rational decision making.

Iowa State University Extension used the focus group process to gather key perceptions from current and potential clients to help make better decisions in how to meet and exceed clients expectations. The results guided a strategic plan and total reorganization.

FROM YOUNG ROGUES TO OLD FOGIES:
HOW DID WE GET HERE?
CAN WE GET OUT?

Bonnie Zelenak

ABSTRACT. In these times of budget cuts and "down sizing" of education programs, administrators are challenged to keep their staff and faculty members fresh, with enthusiasm and commitment in tact. Furthermore, many programs are faced with aging staffs due to reduced mobility within education circles and insecurity in the job market. We find ourselves looking around only to find that we and the people with whom we work have suddenly grown weary; our ideas and attitudes have become rigid. From the young rogues of the past come the old fogies of the present. The questions explored in this paper are: Can research and theory serve as guides to help us--administrators of education programs and other managers of corporate cultures--find ways to truly understand and improve what is happening within our work settings? Can we use this knowledge to energize ourselves and the people with whom we work? I began this inquiry because I wanted to gain a better understanding of how I might bring about fresh or renewed enthusiasm within the units I supervise. I wanted to learn about strategies that might influence positive change. The paper reviews selected research in the field of adult education that may help practitioners understand both the changes that occur within their programs and how they can influence positive change within those programs. The topics reviewed are: program administration, adult learning and development, and corporate cultures. A description of how this author attempted to "manage the culture" of the program she supervises is also provided.

INTRODUCTION

In these times of budget cuts and "down sizing" of education programs (right sizing according to my university's president), administrators are challenged to keep their staff and faculty members fresh, with enthusiasm and commitment in tact. Furthermore, many programs are faced with aging staffs due to reduced mobility within education circles and insecurity in the job market.

Zelenak, Bonnie, Director, Learning Center, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO 65211. I wish to thank the hard-working, extremely competent, always challenging, and often fun staff with whom I work.

We find ourselves looking around only to find that we and the people with whom we work have suddenly grown weary; our ideas and attitudes have become rigid. From the young rogues of the past come the old fogies of the present. My question is, can research and theory serve as guides to help us--administrators of education programs and other managers of corporate cultures--find ways to truly understand and improve what is happening within our work settings? Can we use this knowledge to energize ourselves and the people with whom we work? I began this inquiry because I wanted to gain a better understanding of how I might bring about fresh or renewed enthusiasm within the units I supervise. I wanted to learn about strategies that might influence positive change. Finally, if research and theory serve as guides to our professional development, is it instructive for a practitioner to understand the forms of relationships that exist between theory and practice? Does one's understanding of those relationships affect the way one behaves on the job, the way one comes to understand his or her responsibilities?

I will begin this paper exploring the last question first. Ron Cervero (1991) maintains that, within the field of adult education, there are four different viewpoints about the relationship between theory and practice and that the "positions people take on this relationship have profound implications for the study and practice of adult education" (pp. 20-21). Briefly stated, these viewpoints are: 1) Practice occurs without regard to an organized body of knowledge and theory. 2) Knowledge gained through the scientific process should be used to guide practice. 3) Researchers should find ways to uncover the informal theories by which practitioners operate and use that knowledge to improve practice, and 4) a fundamental unity exists between theory and practice and the knowledge gained through this unity should be used to foster emancipation. As a practitioner I can see quite plainly that one unifying viewpoint is not available to tell me whether theory automatically helps practice. As an adult, I'm quite happy that such diversity of opinion abounds but quickly recognize that I've got my job cut out for me if I expect to understand how theory may help to guide my practice.

This paper is an actual account of a university program that is undergoing some substantial changes. I am the director of a program that assists undergraduate students with their academic performance. I have been in my position for fifteen years and have nine professional staff members who work with me. Five of these people have been with the program for ten or more years. In any given year we hire approximately 200 tutors and assist 8,000 students. Our program has a reputation as being dynamic and is widely recognized on campus as a unit that gets the job done. Our data indicate that when students come to us for assistance their academic performance is measurably improved and both they and faculty recognize our contributions to their development.

THE SITUATION

At the close of the semester last winter it became all too clear that several of the "old guard" and two new staff members had become disenchanted with one of our career staffers. Their group interpretation was presented to me in unequivocal terms--both in writing and verbally. The level of dissatisfaction was such that it could not be ignored. In addition to this situation it appeared to me that our unit was changing in substantive ways--long term staff members were exhibiting signs of growing weary, insular and grumpy. It seemed to me that five of our five long-term staff had staked out their territory within the larger operation and were committed to performing their tasks well--but in isolation from each other. They were exchanging few ideas with their colleagues and there appeared to be a diminished sense of the collective whole as had existed in years gone by. One individual had directed several emotional outbursts my way and I was beginning to feel challenged beyond anything I had experienced before. My dilemma was tripartite, as I conceptualized it: how was I to revitalize this group of very capable people, how was I to deal with significant staff dissatisfaction, and could I use some of the current theory about program administration, adult learning and development, and corporate cultures to redesign and improve the way we do things?

It is because I believe that there is a relationship between theory and practice that I turned to the literature to help find ways of dealing with a work-related situation that needed improvement. I identified the types of information that I thought would be instrumental in aiding my response to the problem and I began to read. I admit, however, that my initial responses to the problem were based on my tacit knowledge of how people and organizations operate. I responded to the problem with an intuitive resolve to rectify negative and detrimental interpersonal interactions. I felt that my knowledge base was insufficient, however to provide me with the best solution to the problem. The events that were unfolding were new to me and I had to find a way to understand what it was that was occurring. I began to review theory and research findings to see if I could form the link between the professional literature in the field and my needs as an administrator.

LINKING RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION. Much of the work on program administration reveals that effective administrators are leaders who attain results in cooperation with other people. They encourage agreement on desirable goals, they communicate enthusiasm about their organization, they create a sense of trust and organizational integrity and they recognize the strengths of individuals and their programs while compensating for the weaknesses of their employees. They strive to improve the fit between the abilities and roles that their employees fill (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Knox

(1991, p. 227) indicates that "recent writings about reflective practitioners, organizational development, and action science have included specific concepts and procedures that adult education administrators can use to specify positive and negative influences on organizational change". A review of some of these writings reminds me that organizations do have their own culture and that this culture influences change efforts. I therefore need to be aware of both the informal and the formal norms that can help or hinder any effort to change the way we have been operating.

In calling for executive appreciation in the work force Srivastva, Fry and Cooperrider (1990) suggest that executives need to merge reality judgments with judgments of value. They describe the benefits of transorganizational systems--"systems whereby single organizations [in this case my unit coordinators] join together for common purposes such as sharing information, carrying out joint research, coordinating services, understanding complex projects beyond the capacity of any one organization alone, joining R&D forces, and solving communal problems" (pp. 19-20). In reviewing this work it occurred to me that in years past we seemed to fit the description of a transorganizational system. We had a common purpose--to help students achieve. Our joint research consisted of determining whether our interventions positively influenced students' grades and overall retention. We coordinated our services in a minimal fashion since each unit was and is responsible for assisting students within the confines of specified academic disciplines (e.g. English, math, science). Our communal problems have and still are our efforts to get on board as a "real" university program. (We are primarily funded with grant dollars.) These were unifying efforts in years past and they were of great importance. It seems that they've lost their glow of late, however. Perhaps this work won't serve as well as I had hoped. It seems like we had what it took but we had the same thing for so long that we don't see it as a unifying theme any longer.

ADULT LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT. What about adult learning and development? Will this knowledge base help to revitalize my gang? Tough's work on intentional changes proved to be somewhat useful (1982). I was reminded that individuals need to assume and understand their potential for change. This, of course takes a different slant than the previous direction I was following. Here I'm reviewing what individuals can do to change. This assumes that they want to...not necessarily an assumption I could make based upon the behaviors being exhibited by the staff. For example, Tough reviews some of the possible tasks and steps at which people might become more competent as making changes. These include: "(a) sorting out one's own interests, needs, problems, action goals, preferences, and priorities; (b) establishing the costs and benefits of potential change; (c) setting goals or targets or directions for change, when appropriate, in various areas of life...; (d) self -assessment, estimating one's desired level, and seeking and accepting feedback; (e) making the necessary plans, decisions..., and

arrangements; (f) dealing with problems, difficulties, turmoil, sense of loss, pain, unanticipated side effects, and obstacles along the way; (g) obtaining encouragement and support when needed, but avoiding undue influence from the expectations of others; (h) time and money management; (i) actually implementing the change" (p. 80).

In trying to determine where my program was headed I was forced to think about works I had read over the years that review how people view the world. I was reminded of Perry's model on cognitive and ethical development (1970), Gould's (1972) and Havighurst's (1972) reviews of the life cycle. These models proved to be of little value to me as an administrator in this particular situation. Yes, I realized that all of us "old timers" were close in age. We share many of the same personal values but our political views are quite different. As it turns out, most of us are facing that good old phase known as the "mid-life transition" (Gould 1972, Levinson 1978). So--what to do with that one? I think there's something here but for the sake of brevity, I'm going to leave it out of the confines of this paper.

Mezirow's book, *Fostering Critical Reflection in Adulthood* (1990) proved to be intellectually satisfying. I was reminded that Dewey defined reflection as " 'assessing the grounds [justification] of one's beliefs' (Dewey as cited in Mezirow, p. 5), the process of rationally examining the assumptions by which we have been justifying our convictions" (Mezirow, p. 5). I realized that I had been using my beliefs and feelings to make interpretations about the events unfolding in my program. The question that still needs answering is, what do I do with my beliefs? Do I feel strongly enough about what is happening to inject my values into the process that is taking place and to alter the way that people are behaving? It seemed to me that I needed to merge my understandings of a variety of theoretical and research based articles and books together if they were to be useful to me as an administrator. I had to determine if the existing culture within my program was such that people would interpret my direct intervention as a wedge that would separate them from me...staff from administration.

CORPORATE CULTURES. Why would an administrator first stop to consider whether he or she should proceed with caution before intervening into an internal squabble? My rationale was based on the fact that I have long seen myself as a player on the team, a colleague who interacts with others in the program in an effort to guide our overall efforts toward a positive course. I have attempted to identify the course we will take through collaborative efforts. I have seen my role as mentor, facilitator and guide, consensus builder, mediator and standard barer of values. For over a decade I basked in the belief that our program was dynamic and that the staff was highly motivated as well as happy to be a part of this enterprise. Of late I've come to doubt the final element of that formula--was the staff happy to be a part of this effort? Or were they merely tolerating the day in and day out existence of

their jobs? It's actually more complicated than those choices, but we seem to have fallen somewhere in between the extremes. Fortunately, we're still a highly charged and extremely capable group of folks. However, we're not as good as we could be because the "old timers" have closed ranks. They don't share many ideas among themselves. They see their units as disparate, unique entities. And, in some cases they don't appreciate the qualities that some of their colleagues bring to the total effort.

A PLAN OF ACTION

What to do? Deal and Kennedy's book, *Corporate Cultures* (1982) proved to be of great help to me in considering my course of action. They speak of the manager's responsibility to spell out for his or her employees the cultural norms and expectations. Accordingly, strong corporate cultures spell out exactly how they want their people to behave, they define the rules of acceptable decorum. Rituals are the "rules that guide behavior in corporate life and are, in effect, dramatizations of the company's basic cultural values" (p. 62). It occurs to me that it is the ritual of social exchange that needs some work in my program. This ritual "governs relationships between bosses and workers, old and young, professionals and support staff...They govern how much emotion or public controversy is permitted" (p. 65). These authors suggested a strategy for altering, or neutralizing destructive ritualistic behaviors--the development of explicit guidelines for behavior in specific situations. They also recommended that procedures be developed for making everyone aware of these guidelines. I plan to develop and discuss with the staff at large guidelines about human interactions among colleagues. What are the standards by which we choose to interact?

Deal and Kennedy also alerted me to some pitfalls to look out for within my program's culture. First, is the development of ingrown subcultures. When there is no regular formal or informal reason for exchange among subcultures, they can become "ingrown and begin to work to the detriment of the company as a whole" (p. 138). We've seen signs of this. These authors also warn about subculture clashes surfacing. "A clear sign of subcultures becoming too strong is when they publicly try to undermine each other" (p. 138). I can see the smoke on the horizon on this account too. Other warning signs to watch for include times when subcultures become exclusive and begin to set restrictions on membership on their clubs or when subculture values preempt shared company values. Oh, my, we even had some groups surface that tried to do just this. When subcultures tout their beliefs as superior to the overall corporate beliefs it is all too easy to put the cart before the horse.

MANAGING THE CULTURE. It seems clear to me that I now need to decide how to proceed as the "symbolic manager" of my program's culture. From my reading I am assured that I'm already doing many things right. For

example, I do place a high level of trust in my colleagues (employees) and I do rely upon them to ensure the success of our efforts. Deal and Kennedy state that symbolic managers recognize their symbolic influence on the cultural events around them, they understand the every day events that surround them. They recognize that each day is filled with little things that don't matter, some things that matter somewhat, and big things that matter a lot. The symbolic manager must know how to distinguish among the three. "It is the symbolic manager's native intuition and judgment that help to pick the right moment to make a big deal out of something. To dramatize trivia is to look like a fool. To overlook drama is to become a victim or villain " (p. 142). Deal and Kennedy also inform us that symbolic managers "often ignore the formal systems for human-resource management and do what seems right culturally, regardless of what the system says, and they spend more time than their more rational peers of people-management issues" (p. 143). That sounds like the way I typically operate. Finally, and it is this aspect of their book that helped me the most, Deal and Kennedy indicate that symbolic managers participate in the interviewing and selection of new employees and they are equally involved in firings. I like to know who's coming on board and I want to know up front that they have a good idea of who we are and how we operate, what our goals are and who we're here to please (the students!). It is the next statement that nearly struck me dead! Symbolic managers see a firing as a catastrophe. I never heard it described that way before but that is how I think about a firing. To me, each staff member is brought on board to be all that he or she can be. Each one is an integral part of our program and our program takes on its character through the efforts of our staff. Fire one of these folks? It hurts to think of it. Deal and Kennedy describe my feeling about such a thing. "First, it should never happen. If the employee fits with the culture, lifetime employment should be secure. Second, when a firing is necessary, it should not be the end-result of poor performance, but of violations of cultural norms" (p. 144). As I've thought about our recent conflicts the notion of firing one of our old timers has occurred to me. It sickens me to think of it.

THE GUESSING GAME BEGINS. So, what, precisely have I done to regain control of our organization's culture? And what do I intend to do in the immediate future? I've held a six hour intense retreat in which old timers reviewed their ongoing relationships and new comers observed and commented upon our behaviors. We've formed four working groups that require people across disciplines to work on issues that are of common interest to them and our unit as a whole. I've had innumerable one-on-one conversations with everyone in our program and I've discussed who we are and what we need to become. I've stated that I won't have people talking about their colleagues and that such conversations must cease. I've undertaken one "disciplinary" performance appraisal with a staff member, have elected to keep her on board, and have dramatically altered her job responsibilities. I intend to review another staff member's job responsibilities

and will probably rewrite his job description. I will take special pains to inform this individual that he needs to work on the manner in which he interacts with his colleagues. He needs to learn how to redirect derisive remarks if he wants to have a positive impact the way we do things around here. During the annual performance appraisals of each staff member (scheduled for next month) I intend to inform everyone about my expectations regarding professional decorum in our work place. I will follow up that conversation with a staff meeting in which we discuss this policy and I will give my rationale in a public setting. I intend to make no apology for my belief that we must treat each other with respect; that our's is a place of hospitality and that we will be polite to one another and always to our students. I also intend to applaud the staff's competence and strength and to encourage everyone to enter the year with renewed vigor. I'll inform them about the ways in which we took an 18% budget cut from the university while maintaining an even-state tutoring budget and gaining salary increases for everyone.

Did research and theory guide my practice? Yes, it served to confirm some of what I thought I should do. It helped me identify what was going on within subcultures, and it made me realize how much I believe in the idea of "symbolic managers". Who are the change agents that bring about renewed enthusiasm? I believe that the managers/administrators must assume a high level of responsibility for setting the stage upon which the actors perform. Given the right setting and operating procedures each staff member can perform at levels that are unimaginable elsewhere. I work with those kind of people. They have the ability to shine; I need to create the setting that will allow them to do so. I need to be sure that they want to continue to perform at high levels. Is change for the better likely? Will I revitalize the enthusiasm that used to hover in our corridors? That's yet to be seen, but I'll work on it.

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