Focusing on community education and development, this literature review analyzes the problem of determining community and individual needs; the issue of relevance to the community; the meaning of need (as opposed to interests or desires); and the use of community studies, listening posts, surveys, and power structure analysis as evaluation tools. The issue of relevance in particular is examined with respect to teaching versus action, disciplines versus the interdisciplinary approach, static programs, and the setting of program objectives. An 88 item annotated bibliography touches on adult basic education, vocational education, rural development, social change, professional continuing education, training design, participation, and other pertinent concerns. ERIC ordering information and a list of publications by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education are also included. (LY)
NEEDS--OF PEOPLE AND THEIR COMMUNITIES--

AND THE ADULT EDUCATOR:

A Review of the Literature of Need Determination

by

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ABSTRACT

Focusing on community education and development, this literature review analyzes the problem of determining community and individual needs, the issue of relevance to the community; the meaning of need (as opposed to interests or desire); and the use of community studies, listening posts, surveys, and power structure analysis as evaluation tools. The issue of relevance in particular is examined with respect to teaching versus action, disciplines versus the interdisciplinary approach, static programs, and the setting of program objectives. An 88 item annotated bibliography touches on adult basic education, vocational education, rural development, social change, professional continuing education, training design, participation, and other pertinent concerns.

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Chapter I

RELEVANCE, NEEDS, AND ADULT EDUCATION

Adult educators have always stressed the meeting of needs as a cardinal principle of adult education, yet today demands for relevance are directed to adult educators as well as to the rest of the educational establishment. Relevance is the magic word of the moment, and what can be more relevant than the development of an educational program for the specific purpose of meeting someone's need? Identification of need is the key to relevance, whether on the campus or in the ghetto.

Relevance has been, in theory, the common thread of adult education from the time of the Hebrew prophets to the present; adult education has always sought to bring information or skills or processes to bear upon the needs of its ever-changing student body. More than forty years ago, Lindeman said, "In adult education the curriculum is built around the student's needs and interests."¹ Such an effort is the essence of the relevance for which people have been calling in their appeals to the educators.

The gap between theory and practice, between accomplishment and intention, has often been wide, and the achieve-

ments of adult education must not be confused with its theoretical framework. The theory of education to meet current needs is sound; the implementation of the theory has left much to be desired.

A major reason for the gap between achievement and intention has been failure to identify accurately the needs, a failure which stems in large measure from too little attention to the actual methods of determining needs. Wayland and his associates commented, "To build a program of adult education on the needs of adults requires the information which indicates what those needs are."\(^2\)

Kempfer, after making a survey of more than five hundred adult school directors, observed, "How to identify these needs and interests is the perennial problem faced by all directors of adult education."\(^3\)

Lack of funds is not a valid excuse. Even where funds are available, there are deficiencies in the accurate determination of need and its subsequent satisfaction. Business and industry devote substantial resources to education designed to meet


manpower and production needs. Consequently, the study of individual needs for job-training purposes has received much attention. Tasks are described and methods analyzed in precise detail. Yet, Vetter, in writing about high talent personnel, indicated a need for improvement in analysis and program development when he stated, "Although a great deal has been written about the importance of manpower planning, much less has been written of what such planning involves or how to engage in it."4

Margaret Mead similarly indicated a shortcoming in manpower planning when she observed, "... our predictions have always been too slow and built for too few. ... Before we get it built, every airport we build is too slow for the planes that are going to come into it. Every student union in the country is too small for the enrollment, before the roof goes on. Our continuous inability to predict the rapidity of change... is one of the things that I think we ought to ask some questions about."5

Educational needs of the professions, despite the seminars and conferences of the professional societies and the universities, also go unsatisfied. Earley, for example, expressed a concern about the continuing education needs of psychiatrists.6

To learn to identify needs more accurately is to bring relevance a step closer to reality in adult education.

A Changing Scene

It seems inconsistent that the fast-growing body of literature of adult education contains many references to the meeting of needs, yet the clients or potential clients of adult education indicate skepticism or are openly critical of adult education's effectiveness. Actually, a shift from concern with personal problems to concern for social ills has caused much of the failure to be relevant.

Individual and Community

Historically, the focus of adult education was on the individual and his needs. One emphasis was remedial, as in the beginning of workers education in England. Cultural opportunities, such as those of Chautauqua, provided another emphasis. The University Extension Society of the 1890's appealed to the individual. The early efforts of Cooperative Extension were directed to the individual farmer and the rural homemaker. Americanization classes enabled the immigrant to gain United States citizenship. Upgrading for job advancement was individual. Whether the goal of the adult education was remedial, liberal, vocational, recreational, or political, the focus was on the individual.

Consequently, the study of how to identify and deter-
mine needs was essentially related to the individual. At least two of the publications of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults dealt specifically with needs, and both were oriented to the individual. They were Psychological Needs of Adults, a symposium by Gardner Murphy and Raymond G. Kuhlen, and Adult Education and Adult Needs, by Robert J. Havighurst and Betty Orr.

Yesterday's focus was on the individual; today, the emphasis is on community needs. The failure to add the community dimension is a cogent reason why adult education is challenged about relevance despite its long-time attention to needs.

The community. The solution of problems by the piece-meal method of individual achievement no longer suffices. The disadvantaged in the inner city or in the depressed rural areas seek a total solution just as do the suburbanites caught in the web of the transportation snarl. Rich and poor, educated and undereducated, are trapped in the pollution of the air they breathe in the metropolitan areas and in some areas which are not metropolitan. In a time of social crisis and community tension, adult education has been found wanting. Its intimate and some-

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times paternalistic relationship to the individual and the individual's needs have proven to be inadequate.

As Miller pointed out, in an analysis of participation in adult education, "... personal needs do not operate in a vacuum; they are shaped, conditioned, and channeled by the social structures and forces of the human society in which each individual is born. Each of us is driven by survival needs, but the survival behavior of a primitive hunting tribesman is far different from that of the organization man in western industrial society."\(^9\)

The path is not one of abandoning the individual or of substituting community needs for individual needs. Unfortunately, the needs of the individual will remain and must be met. The adult educator must impose the determination of community needs and the development of educational programs in response to those needs on what he is already doing. His task is expanding to include the collective accumulation of need which is implicit in community. Just as the individual has needed help through education, the community must have help to build the bridges between its economic needs and the educational needs of the residents who must solve the economic problems.

The literature of adult education does not say as much about ways of determining community needs as it says about the determination of psychological or training needs of individual adults.

With respect to the group, the adult educator must break down the educational needs of the situation in the same manner as the training specialist performs his job description and job analysis.\(^\text{10}\)

In this review of literature which deals with assessment of educational need, community is defined as the specific population which an adult educator seeks to reach with respect to a particular problem or set of problems. The community may be the people in a single apartment house or on a city block. It may be the people in a voting district. It may be the entire population of a municipality or of a region. Amanna says, "The state university identifies the people of the state and the state's territorial borders as the community for its extension division while the industrial firm isolates its own employees wherever they may live as recipients of its educational services."\(^\text{11}\)

The technical definition is not important; the important notion is that of the total group of people whose lives are


\(^{11}\)Information Sources and Program Planning in Adult Education. Boulder: Colorado University. 1969. p. 11.
affected by the problem. With respect to automation, for example, the community consists of the people—in many factories, in many neighborhoods, in many municipalities—who need to be retrained to keep from becoming unemployed. The concept of community must be broad enough to accommodate the service capacity of each and every adult educator.

Words or Action

There are other reasons, of course, why large segments of the community may feel that adult education has not measured up to the challenges of the times. Concentration on the satisfaction of individual needs through traditional educational programs is not the only one. Another is the traditional and excessive concern with "objectivity" at the expense of the social action which may be necessary to solve a problem. John Diekhoff stated well the case against social action when he said, "The object of a school is to bring about certain changes in individuals; it is not an object of a school, qua school, to attract industry to a community, to mow the lawn in a neglected cemetery, or to secure the condemnation of a slum area..."12 Yet it may be necessary for someone to lead the way to the lawnmower, and the adult educator may have to cut the first swath to give relevance to his ten-session course on "Grass-cutting as an Art," or "The Care and Maintenance of Cemeteries"—whichever it was.

In such a situation, the adult educator faces a dilemma. No matter how well motivated he may be by a do-good idealism, he cannot solve other people's problems. Even if he wants the lawn mowed or the slum condemned, his mission is not providing the people with a solution. His mission is providing the information, the understanding, the organizational framework which may make it possible for those people to solve their own problem in a concerted social, political, economic, educational thrust. To enable them to achieve a solution, he may have to take part in social action, but he must understand the difference between participating as an action agent to help the learning process and attempting to use his educational role to impose a predetermined solution to a dynamic problem.

**Discipline or Inter-discipline**

Another cause for hang-up, in addition to the changing scene in adult education which calls upon adult educators to turn their attention to the community and to face the need for action, may be the drive for professionalization of adult education. There is a growing emphasis—in the best American collegiate tradition—upon justification of a discipline of adult education. In contrast, it may be that there is no discipline of adult education but, rather, the need for a new kind of Renaissance Man, the interdisciplinary generalist of adult education.
Such a notion results in part from finding the actual location of much of the literature on the determination of community needs which is needed for the purposes of adult education. Whereas Hand has written about community study as an adult educator, Warren has written about community study as a sociologist and Hoiberg as a community developer, and Blackwell spoke as a sociologist to the evening college deans. While some will argue that community development is a form of adult education, there are many who will argue that it is social work, or applied politics, or sociology. Regardless of any of the arguments, the simple fact remains that the routine reader of literature purporting to be "of adult education" will not find many of his most helpful references about determination of need on the library shelves which house the materials catalogued for adult education nor will he find a large percentage of the articles in the journals of adult education. He is likely to find help in the literature of social welfare, sociology, school administration,

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manpower training, and many other fields concerned with the community and with human growth and development.

Because the ultimate justification of a "discipline" of adult education will not cause the social welfare specialists, or the sociologists, or the school administrators, or the political scientists, and others to cease studying the community, it may well be that the new dimension of community concern as distinguished from concern with the individual in relative isolation suggests for adult education the status of an inter-discipline. At least, the literature of community need points to such a suggestion.

Unchanging Programs

Still another cause of failure to come to grips with problems of the community is the static nature of many programs of adult education, especially the institutional ones supported in whole or in large part by fee income. For example, the adult school offerings in a state or in a region show a striking similarity and an equally striking persistence from year to year. Yet the needs of communities vary, and the needs of communities change. A decade ago, there was concern with automation and obsolescence. Today, communities face the challenges of violence and drug abuse.

Recently, the author picked up a brochure, entitled Community Adult Education, from a display table at a state meet-
ing of directors of adult education. It is true that the program
was a community one in the geographic sense that it was provided
for the residents of a school district. There were courses such
as "All About Flowers," "Bachelor Cooking," "Easter Egg Decorating
(Ukrainian)," "Karate," and "Yoga." Unfortunately, there was
nothing dealing with child development, civic affairs, racial
tension, or the myriad of problems and adult concerns which seem
to exist within that community. Might it be that Johnstone and
Rivera found a one-in-five participation in adult education ac-
tivities because the existing programs have not probed to deter-
mine the educational needs of some of the remaining eighty per
cent?17 The tendency seems to be, on examination of the brochures
and announcements, to continue to offer what others find to be
successful. From this pattern rise the charges of irrelevance.

Obstacles to Change

The lack of money and manpower to seek out needs within
the community is frequently cited in defense of the static pro-
gram. Fee income is not adequate to support intensive research,
and subsidy is not forthcoming from either private or public
sources. Elaborate studies are expensive, and intensive inter-
viewing is beyond the physical capacity of the typical adult edu-
cation staff. However, a constant probing for additional infor-
mation and the utilization of existing sources of information are

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not beyond the resources and ingenuity of most directors of adult education.

Although it is true that many adult educators must support their programs by fee income, it is also true that they might be able to increase their enrollments by learning more about the real needs of the community.

**Obvious needs.** Another obstacle to beginning and maintaining an intensive effort to determine community needs is the fact that some unmet needs are obvious, such as the need in some communities for adult basic education, and that the program does change to meet them. Some unmet needs are obvious, but the existence of apparent needs does not provide a justification for failing to seek to discover other, and possibly more critical, needs which are not readily apparent.

**Take Them Where They Are**

There is a cliche of adult educators which implies a Utopian degree of relevance and which, accordingly, refutes the necessity for an increased concern with determination of community needs. The cliche is, "We take them where they are." Literally, the statement is true—as it is for all teachers in all situations—but the inference is untrue unless the teacher or discussion leader makes a conscious effort to determine "where" each member of the group really is. Also, the statement implies an inconsistency unless the leader makes an equally conscious
effort to determine where each student wants to go from where he is.

There is often an assumption of total ignorance on the part of every student or group member—hence, the courses in "Beginning Bridge" or "Beginning French"—and there is usually the assumption that every student seeks the course goals which have been predetermined by the instructor. Maybe, for example, the student would prefer as a tourist to speak fluent broken Spanish than to be speechless in perfect Castilian. Yet an instructor's concern for perfection in grammar and pronunciation may prevent the development of any conversational ability.

Taking the participant to his goal is as integral a part of meeting the need as is accurate identification of the student's point of entry into the learning experience.

Need and Purpose

The breakdown in program development in adult education occurs when the purpose of the program is not defined clearly with respect to specific needs. In general, adult educators have done better in meeting individual needs than in helping groups of individuals to meet community needs. The two tasks are different just as the determination of national manpower needs are different from the determination of the individual training needs of someone in the manpower pool.

The individual's needs may be satisfied by the attain-
ment of general goals, such as a college degree to be earned as an evening student. Or he may merely seek activity, as described by Houle, and enrollment in any one of a number of courses will meet his need.\textsuperscript{18} The need, on the other hand, may be specific, and only courses in data processing will lead to the goal. For the individual, the needs frequently are clear and specific, and the steps required to satisfy the needs become equally clear.

Further, with respect to individual needs, if prospective students decide that the available adult offerings don't meet their needs, they will fail to register, and there will be no communication between them and the adult educator about the deficiency. However, if community needs remain unmet, the results may be urban decay, violence, or other massive evidence of the failure. Thus the attainment of the purpose calls for an educational program with an action component which will produce results rather than continued frustration.

It is not sufficient, therefore, to deal with metropolitan traffic congestion merely by courses or seminars or one-day conferences on the traffic problem or the lack of mass transportation. To meet the community—in this case a regional community—need, a solution of some sort, partial though it may be, must result from the educational program or that program is not relevant to the need. It is this critical bond—between the identified

need and an educational purpose resulting in remedial action—which so often eludes the adult educator. To forge such a bond requires a more critical community analysis than typically has been characteristic of adult education.

Wayland and his colleagues identified the basic problem as follows:

Interpretation of the present rapidly changing world gives clues to the general educational needs of adults in terms of making up for lacks in educational backgrounds, training for increased vocational competence and readjustment, equipping people to function more capably within the framework of the multiplicity of human relationships characteristic of present society, the development of understanding and competence in the responsibilities of citizenship, and extending the knowledges, appreciations, and skills required for the enrichment of personality and satisfactions. Such general objectives, however, become realistic only by way of their interpretation through the facts about the adult population in each community. Much of the data required, as indicated in other connections earlier, can be obtained from the United States Census—nationality and racial backgrounds, age distribution of adults, educational backgrounds, citizenship status, and the occupational distribution of the labor force.
Such data need to be supplemented by information about the people themselves. What are their problems? How do they see their needs and their interests? What are the circumstances out of which their problems arise? Problems which motivate adults to seek educational help are very personal and must be met in their own terms.  

Chapter II

THE MEANING OF NEED

The adult educator who would come more closely to grips with the determination of community needs often is, himself, in need of clarification because when adult educators talk about meeting needs, they mean many things. Within the limits and context of the individual adult educator's own philosophy of education, of the objectives and capabilities of his institution or sponsor, of the interests and motivation of his clients, of the availability of governmental or other outside support, each adult educator will respond in his own way to each specific situation, and standard definitions will not provide the necessary clarification.

A definition will not produce uniformity of response, by adult educators nor their agencies, nor will it resolve the nagging doubts about the desirability or efficacy of a particular program. Rather, the adult educator needs to arrive at his own understanding of the difference between need and desire and of the relationship between educational needs and the other needs of people. He must answer for himself the question of who determines need, whether for the individual or for a community, and he must evaluate the validity of "felt needs." Such a clarification of his own thinking is essential before he begins the
search for needs around which to develop educational programs for
the adults of his particular community.

Need or Desire

Basic to any response to need on the part of an adult
educator is a concept of the relationship between need and desire.
Whatever that concept may be, it becomes the basis for the educa-
tor's efforts to design educational programs to meet economic or
other needs; it becomes the basis for his notion about who really
determines need; and it becomes the basis for his attitude toward
felt and unfelt needs of his adult constituency.

James has pointed out the danger of confusing "need"
with "want." His research indicated "how easily an adult educa-
tional program can misinterpret 'needs' if it takes surface
phenomena of group behavior at face value--if, for instance, a
program is designed merely on the basis of 'want' statements."1

James continued his exploration of "needs" in a later
article which set forth three meanings of the word, need. His
first definition was "the somewhat technical or academic usage
of the term when it stands for a non-observable or inferred bio-
psychological state rather similar to a 'drive'."2 His second

1Bernard W. James and Harold W. Montross. "Focusing

meaning "is the ordinary, everyday meaning... when we say that a certain club 'needs' a speaker." Value judgment enters his third usage of the word. "For example," James says, "a guidance expert may tell a student that he 'needs' more mathematics to prepare for engineering. The student 'ought' to have such training."4

To the person who defines need only in terms of basic survival, there are few needs to be met. To the person who believes that self-fulfillment may be as important as physical survival, there are many needs to be met. If the adult educator will accept Maslow's hierarchy of values as a scale of motivation for the satisfaction of the individual, need and desire become almost synonymous—in the sense of wish-fulfillment—as one moves from level to level: from the satisfaction of physiological needs to safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization.5

Acceptance of the notion of self-fulfillment, of the fundamental need of each individual to attain identity as a person, frees the adult educator to become innovative in initiating new programs whether in response to community requests or as a result of his own search to discover needs. He is then able to concede that a need is being met if the participation in the

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3 Ibid., p. 20.
4 Ibid., p. 20.
adult education activity helps the individual achieve a goal. Whether enrollment of an illiterate person in an Adult Basic Education class is comparable to enrollment of the new owner of a small boat in a course in Small Boat Handling is a value judgment by the adult educator which bears no relationship to either student's feeling of self-fulfillment.

The adult educator's task, if there are both illiterates and small boat owners in his community, may be to provide appropriate educational opportunities for both.

**Educational Needs**

If the adult educator can avoid distraction over the semantics of need vs. desire, there are other areas of possible confusion which may get in the way of his approach to needs. One of those areas of confusion may be that of his role. Education is his function, and he must concentrate on the educational needs of his clients which stem from their personal, family, economic, political, and social needs or deficiencies. The adult educator is not a social worker nor a clinical psychologist nor a banker. His task is to provide information and to create learning situations which will make it possible for the contributions of other professionals to be more effective than they otherwise would be.

The adult educator can help the unemployed person, but the adult educator can not solve the man's economic problem. The
unemployed person needs $5,000 a year income to support his family in the inner city. The adult educator can help the man learn to read; he can help the man learn the skills of a stock clerk; he can help the man learn how to fill out an application blank and go through an employment interview; he can help in a variety of ways. The educational program may make possible the satisfaction of economic, psychological, and social needs, but the adult educator makes his contribution through the provision of education rather than by hiring the man.

Consequently, the determination of need by the adult educator should lead ultimately to the identification of educational needs which exist within the total problem area.

Who Determines Need?

Much of the tension in the relationships between the educational establishment and the community results from disagreement over who determines need, and adult education is no exception. Does the educator prescribe or does the client determine both the need and the solution? Often, there is the unfortunate pattern of the educator determining the need and offering the prescription (a course, perhaps), and the client seeing the need differently and not responding to the proposed solution.

Kempfer's study, cited earlier, revealed that local directors of adult education rated themselves first in terms of competency to identify educational needs of adults. Subject
matter advisory committees were second and temporary advisory committees for specific problems or courses were third.\(^6\)

Frequently, the adult educator's determination of need is arbitrary. Indeed, it may be correct; there are large numbers of people who need adult basic education and high school equivalency. Yet the response may be far from overwhelming. Or there is the example given by James, who said, "If ... a person came to the educator and told him he wanted special training in safe-cracking, the educator would have to reject such a 'need' on moral grounds."\(^7\)

In the last analysis, it is always the client who makes the judgment about his own need and what will satisfy that need. The voluntary nature of most participation in adult education leaves the ultimate decision with the adult who either enrolls or stays away. Miller, in commenting on the voluntary characteristic of participation, said, "We must assume, therefore, that [the adult's] willingness to undertake the activity demonstrates some personal need."\(^8\)

The role of the educator in this relationship is not greatly different from the role of the city official in his contacts with the poor. Many a well-meant civic improvement program

\(^{6}\)Kempfer, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 34.

\(^{7}\)James, "Can 'Needs' Define Educational Goals." p. 25.

\(^{8}\)Miller, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 3.
has been bitterly opposed by those whom it was intended to bene-
fit. The lesson the city fathers have learned is involvement and
participation in the planning. The same lesson, which is part
of the theory of adult education, seems not to have been learned
by all adult educators. Determination of need requires a meeting
of the minds between educator and prospective client.

Counseling

Related to prescription even more specifically than
course programming is the role of the counselor of adults who may
be cast in an all-knowing role. Without arguing for or against
any particular technique or method of counseling, the opening
question is raised again: who determines the need of the adult,
the adult or the adult educator?

Felt Needs and their Satisfaction

The last of the areas in which clarification is neces-
sary is created by one of the cliches of adult education, the
statement that "we respond to the felt needs of people." The
meaning of the statement is that those who enroll in adult educa-
tion courses apparently feel that such enrollment is a desirable
investment of time and money. The adult educator may have arbi-
trarily picked his set of course offerings, advertised them in
the local newspaper or by direct mail, and waited for enrollees.
Yet, regardless of the subject matter, the fact of enrollment is
taken to indicate the existence of a felt need to which the adult
educator obviously has responded by offering the course. His anticipation or divination of the need—be it beginning bridge or slimnastics—has proved to be right. Possibly, the statement shouldn't read, "we respond to the felt needs of people", but rather, "people respond to our guesses."

In any event, the question is the validity of the felt need. Feeling implies a desire to do something about the need. Yet, the statistics of adult education indicate that the people with the least amount of formal education participate the least; those with the most years of formal education show the greatest percentage of participation. Recruitment has often been a difficult task in developing programs for the educationally disadvantaged, and many grants have provided substantial sums for recruiters. Obviously, the feeling of need does not exist for some persons whose needs are evident. Organizers of ABE, civic affairs education, and other need-oriented programs have faced a lack of response.

Persistence in justifying program development on the basis of "responding to felt needs" actually results in circumscribing the audience of adult education as both the U.S. Office of Education\(^9\) and Johnstone and Rivera\(^10\) found. The programs


continue to serve millions of adults in largely job-related and recreational areas, but more millions apparently never feel the need for educational assistance.

Clarence Faust may have hit the nail on the head when he said, at a meeting at New York University for adult educators some years ago, that education should not respond to felt needs; its function is to create needs.

Kramer, in The Diagnostic Process in Adult Education, distinguished between "felt" needs and "real" needs as follows:

The real need is a desirable element or condition that is lacking in, and would improve, a situation. Felt needs are what people with problems recognize as the elements necessary to improve their situations. It should be emphasized that felt needs may also be real needs, but that often they are not. Felt needs may be derived from symptoms alone rather than from true problems.11

Situation and Definition

Whether one accepts the prescriptive implications of Kramer's "real" need definition, it indicates the importance of the "real" situation in attempting to establish the meaning of need.

Hand made the same point when he said, "Adult educators are finding that the degree of participation in and support of local adult education programs is proportionate to the extent to which these programs are geared to the real life problems, interests, and needs of the communities they serve."\textsuperscript{12}

Lindeman had already set the framework when he said, "... the approach to adult education will be via the route of situations, not subjects..."\textsuperscript{13} and "The situation-approach to education means that the learning process is at the outset given a setting of reality."\textsuperscript{14}

Havighurst and Orr's framework of the developmental needs or tasks, which they described as the \textit{basic tasks of living}, may bridge the gap between individual needs and community needs. The developmental tasks of being a parent, a spouse, a worker, a citizen, or filling other social roles are set by the "expectations of values of our society" as well as by "our own personal values or aspirations."\textsuperscript{15}

The meaning of need may thus be defined in terms of the two thrusts of the value-related pressures within the community and the individual.

\textsuperscript{12} Hand, \textit{Op. Cit.}, p. 1
\textsuperscript{13} Lindeman, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 8.
\textsuperscript{14} Lindeman, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 9.
\textsuperscript{15} Havighurst and Orr, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 6-7.
Chapter III

METHODS OF DETERMINING NEED

The most popular or most commonly used method of determining need appears to be the survey or poll. Hand has advocated community study.¹ Others have suggested the use of advisory committees, consultation with leaders or with the power structure, or interviews within the target audience. Presumably the problem-solving group is an effective method because it directly relates the determination of the need to the ultimate solution of the problem.

Knowles, in presenting suggestions for program planning, suggested such means for determining needs as interviews, informal conversation, registration cards with space for entries pertaining to backgrounds and interests, and suggestion or question boxes where adults meet.²

The communications aspect of need identification was set forth by Findlay when he said,

Extension systems function to identify existing needs of people--individuals, interest groups, communities,

¹Samuel E. Hand. Community Study as a Basis for Program Planning in Adult Education. Tallahassee: Florida State University. 1960.

sectors of the economy, etc.—and to meet these needs by tapping existing sources of relevant information; they are, in essence, communication systems which, for their continuing viability, are dependent, first upon the continuing existence of sources of high concentrations of information relevant to areas of need within the system and secondly upon the ability of its professional personnel to identify important areas of need, to effect linkage with appropriate sources of information, and to guide the communication process toward need satisfaction.³

Hand identified three approaches to the study of the community. The first is the social welfare approach which encompasses the analysis of agencies, institutions, and services. The second is a study of the community as a social unit, the ecological approach which includes the spatial and temporal relations of people. His third basic approach is "to use the study itself as an educational process leading to social action."⁴

Community Study

Possibly the first proposal for community study in the literature of adult education was the framework proposed by


Gordon Blackwell at an annual meeting of the Association of University Evening Colleges in 1953. Blackwell said, "If you would know the needs and interests of your students, know the community." He also observed later that there are community needs apart from the needs of individuals and that there are such things as community pressures.

In his address to the evening college administrators, Blackwell identified seven interrelated dimensions of the community. He emphasized that they were not watertight compartments and stressed the dynamic nature of the community. He urged that the dimensions be considered only in a framework of social change. His seven points were the following:

1. The population base. In his words, "If we are to understand the community, we need to know something about the human raw material that makes it up. Who are the people, what about their age and sex composition?" He pointed, also, to racial characteristics, educational level, mobility within the city, and migration.

2. The institutional structure of the community. This he identified as "the complex web of organized social relationships which people have created in order to help them better meet

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5Blackwell, op. cit., p. 27.
their needs." He mentioned families, agencies, business and industry, the pressure groups, the civic organizations, and other special interest groups.

3. The value systems. He referred to the value systems of the people, the things that they hold dear, the things that are high on their priority rating in that community. He pointed to such qualities as neighborliness, hospitality, attitude toward government and its function, and their rating of security.

4. Social stratification. This he identified as the way society layers the people according to range and prestige.

5. Informal social relationships. He expressed the belief that the pattern of the network of interpersonal relationships is extremely important. He differentiated this characteristic from the organized institutional structure and made particular reference to certain informal leaders who help mold opinion. He suggested that the informal networks are what we often refer to as the grapevine.

6. The power structure of the community. He spoke of the "individuals behind the scenes who pull the strings that make things happen or can block things from happening in our communities." 

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8 Blackwell, op. cit., p. 29.
7. The ecology of the community. He defined the ecology as "the spacious distribution of people and these other social aspects of the community, the way the community has been divided up in terms of functions, particularly social and economic functions."¹⁰

Blackwell stated that he was offering the seven dimensions of community "as perhaps theoretical conceptions and also useful tools for understanding the community."¹¹

Hand proposed community study as a direct aid to program development in adult education. In a pamphlet issued by the Florida Department of Education, he gives detailed checklists which will enable the adult educator to make a thorough study of the history, the people, the economic structure, and the functional (institutional) operations of the community. In addition, he suggests sources of information and implications for the adult educator.¹²

Other Disciplines

Community study, as indicated earlier, is a concern of practitioners in many disciplines.

A very simple (and, therefore, useful for the overburdened administrator of adult education) checklist is the one

¹⁰Blackwell, op. cit., p. 31
¹¹Op. cit., p. 32
given by Hoiberg, a community developer of the University of
Nebraska Extension Division. His list consists of only twelve
items which include business, cultural opportunities, education,
physical appearance of the community, and recreation. He rates
the items on a four-step scale from excellent to very inadequate.\textsuperscript{13}

Probably the most extensive set of checklists for
analysis of a community is the compilation by Roland L. Warren
for laymen and professionals concerned with social welfare.
Warren deals with many aspects of the community including its
background, economic life, government and politics, institutions
and agencies, communication, intergroup relations, and community
organization.\textsuperscript{14}

In the field of educational administration, there has
been attention to the same problem of community analysis.
Wayland, Brunner and Hallenbeck advocated study of the community
for planning purposes in public school education. They said that
the educational administrator
\textellipsis whether operating as a director of community edu-
cation or as principal of a public school, must have an
adequate knowledge of
(a) The values, mores, traditions of the community and
important groups within it, and especially signifi-

\textsuperscript{13}Hoiberg, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 16-17.
\textsuperscript{14}Warren, \textit{op. cit.}
cant deviations from the norms of the Great Society. These affect, and may condition or dictate, the expectancies of the community regarding its school.

(b) The composition of the population of the community, its economic base, the pattern of social organization, the status and power structure. These affect, and may condition or dictate, the amount of support for the school and the type of program it develops.

(c) The means, on the basis of the analysis of a and b, whereby full use can be made of all community resources in operating the school system and of operating effectively with all community agencies and forces in programs of community betterment and school improvement.  

They offered three approaches as frameworks for organizing data: a study of the geographical distribution of people and facilities, the social structure of the community, and its institutional structure. They observed, with respect to the options, "In small communities, the distribution in space approach has less utility, and in large communities, the analysis of social structure is very difficult to make."  

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15 Wayland, op. cit., p. 3.
A Tennessee administrative study "sought to make a valid identification of community needs through interviewing the people in a community who could provide information on (1) the problems which existed in their area, (2) the nature and extent of each problem, and (3) the priority for solving these problems. Selective processes, such as stratified random sample by census tracts or districts of the study area, were utilized in determining local citizens to be interviewed. In addition, interviews were held with selected officials in each county, such as elected chief officials of counties and municipalities, county judges, school superintendents, [and various other elected officials as well as with lay citizens]." 17

All of the above are representative of the analysts and writers who believe that a determination of community needs requires a detailed study of the community. They do not exclude the use of surveys, interviews, and listening, but they urge the use of available material such as census reports and careful attention to all aspects of the community's behavior and existence. One of the strengths of the complete study is the ready availability of much of the information.

Going to the Community

If a full-scale community study is utopian, or is impracticable because of the shortness of time, there are many other ways of determining--possibly less effectively but probably usefully--community needs. A limited effort to appraise needs systematically is presumably better than an arbitrary or capricious development of program.

Kempfer's respondents suggested several ways of discovering needs including a group of "coordinators" in industry and in the community who were on the lookout for opportunities to develop educational activities. The directors in the study also suggested such means as maintaining wide community contacts, use of census data, attention to other catalogues, hunches, and checking surveys in other fields. Their conclusion was that the best method is close contact with prospective clients, use of all available data, and, indeed, a combination of all methods.\textsuperscript{18}

Many adult educators and many adult education agencies have utilized methods which were effective in the past. Whether any method short of the Blackwell type of analysis will suffice in coping with the problems of megalopolis, the decaying city, spreading suburbia, and the rural belts of poverty is open to question. Adult educators must make a decision based upon their beliefs and their resources.

\textsuperscript{18}Kempfer, op. cit., pp. 35-36.
The Guelph adult participation study made an attempt through its survey to do the following:

Determine the extent and nature of utilization and participation in educational, recreational, organizational, religious, and other leisure time activities and agencies available to the population.

Determine the educational interests and methods preferred by adults to study various kinds of subjects.

Determine pertinent personal, economic and social characteristics of the adults in Guelph.19

The Cooperative Extension Service has worked closely with its clients in a personal, participating relationship. Its early efforts were in the areas of production of food and fibre and of home economics. As the Cooperative Extension Service broadens its role and turns its attention to the inner city and moves into the total area of human relations and community development, the old method of face-to-face contact may have to be supplemented.20

Cooperative Extension is merely an example of the problem which confronts most adult educators today whether they be in university extension, in evening colleges, in public adult


schools, or in the voluntary agencies. It is not possible to carry on adult education in a vacuum, and the simple remedial needs of many years ago have been superseded by the awesome and violence-laden social needs of the world of atomic energy and space flights.

The Whittler. In a discussion of determination of community needs a few years ago, a director of Cooperative Extension told of a county agent who shall, henceforth, be known as "The Whittler." According to the director, this particular agent was the best diagnostician of community needs the director had ever known. The agent's technique was simple and direct.

He would go into a rural community and seat himself outside the general store. He was a confirmed whittler, and he would take out his pocketknife and a block of wood, and he would sit there and whittle. As he whittled, he would listen. At the end of a day, it is alleged, he would know all that was necessary to know about the needs of that community.

Listening Posts

The Whittler's technique is not greatly different from the use of listening posts in a community. Advisory committees, too, are frequently used for the same purpose. Indeed, there is something to be said for the efficiency of a method which brings the public to the analyst instead of having the analyst trudge through the community.
The term "Power Structure" became a part of the community worker's vocabulary because of Floyd Hunter. There are many persons who believe that the power structure is the most important dimension of the community. There may be justification for such a belief because the people of the power structure may authorize tuition reimbursement for their employees, they may provide or obtain public or private financing of essential adult education activities, and they may encourage participation by other methods.

Hunter's power structure consists of the following elements:

1. Business
2. Government
3. Civic associations
4. "Society" activities

To the student of community in a time of racial unrest, however, Hunter's most important contribution may be his finding that the patterns of leadership and power in the minority community and the community-at-large are different. The power structure in the Black or Puerto Rican is not a mirror-like

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22 Hunter, *op. cit.*, p. 11.
reflection of the white community's power structure. Those who search for needs through the power structure must determine the specific power structure of the specific clientele.

Structural change. The power structure concept, of course, is valid only if there is such a structure. In today's fluid society of dissent and protest, there may be situations in which no power structure exists, a dynamic condition of fluctuating change with the power shifting between the establishment and the dissidents and moving, in a confusing way, from faction to faction within each temporarily dominant group.

Consequently, the power structure concept, useful as it is as a guideline, may have to be utilized with more caution than was the case in 1953. Within the University, for example, what are the relative power roles today of the Board of Control, the administration, the faculty, and the students as contrasted with the stabilized situation of two decades ago? Further, will reaction to violence and disruption bring a public intervention which will add a fifth force within the University power complex? The same kind of questions must be asked with respect to all political and social institutions.

Also, from the eddies of change, the individual may emerge as a more powerful figure than he formerly was. If that is so, the adult educator must be not only perceptive but also flexible as he attempts to gain an understanding of the community's needs.
Despite the caution expressed here about the vagaries of structural change, the Hunter approach to community analysis through business, government, civic associations, and society activities is valid and adaptable. An alternate conclusion may be that the power structure exists but the adult educator needs to change his notions about what constitute the community's viable civic associations and society activities.

Surveys

Checklists, such as those of Hand, Hoiberg, and Warren, for study of the community have been mentioned. Beyond provision of the lists, Warren devotes a chapter to "Organizing a Community Survey" in which he outlines the essential steps in the development of a survey. His suggestions apply whether the study is brief or extensive, whether it covers the whole community or only one aspect of it.

The steps or considerations which he discusses are the determination of the size and scope of the survey, its sponsorship, the cost, organization of the survey committee, the job of the chairman, preparation of the forms, conducting the field work, writing the report, and publicity and follow-up.

One of the problems encountered in the normal use of the survey is delineated by Baumel in a Cooperative Extension bulletin from Iowa State University which states:

In interpreting survey results, keep in mind that an opinion expressed on a questionnaire is only an opinion

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23 Hunter, op. cit., p. 100 et seq.
expressed at one point in time. It is not necessarily a commitment on the part of the respondent to act in a certain way or to support a certain issue when and if it comes to his attention again. Consequently, in interpreting the significance of answers on a community survey, it is usually wise to discount the extent of favorability expressed on certain kinds of issues. For example, a question on a survey may ask about opinions and desirability of school reorganization. Many may favor the general question. However, when and if this becomes a community issue and consequently more of the specifics concerning reorganization come out--such as location, particular schools involved, finances, building, etc.--many people who expressed a favorable attitude toward reorganization in general may be opposed to a particular reorganization plan. Consequently, as a general rule, ask specific questions.

Surveys frequently are the questionnaire type, and practitioners report disappointment with the results as Iowa State warns. The validity of the survey findings is affected by many factors, as Warren points out.

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Some of Korb's recommendations with respect to determining supervisory training needs can be adapted to adult education. He states that the nature and scope of a needs study depend on such things as availability of staff, size and structure of the organization, and whether a continuing or pilot program is contemplated.  

Communication and Community

Various methods of determining need have been mentioned or described, and reference has been made to the communications function in need identification and satisfaction. At the same meeting of the Association of University Evening Colleges where Blackwell discussed community needs, Kallen spoke on the needs of the individual. His analysis, made in 1953, remains as an up-to-date guide for the adult educator forced with determining and meeting community needs. He said:

What makes community is communication, and communication is between people—between speakers and listeners. Speakers and listeners together form institutions, which are associations of individuals who have developed a technique of mutuality in communication, transforming communication into communion. This communion

turns them from an aggregate of separate persons into a team, or a community.  

He said, further, "that the individual is and has to be ultimately the ground of purpose in our educational programs. We must look directly to him, trying to understand what he needs and wants from education, when we determine our role as educators."
Chapter IV

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Edith Adamson. Measuring the Need for Adult Basic Education. EDRS Order Number ED 023 055, price MF $0.25, HC $0.70. 12p. 1966. Also available from the Canadian Association for Adult Education, Corbett House, 21 Sultan St., Toronto 5, Canada. $0.50.

The 1,024,785 people who reported four or less grades of schooling in the 1961 Canadian census point up the paradox of a society where free compulsory education to age 16 is assumed to mean everyone will at least complete elementary school. To understand these people as individuals, all available census data on these educationally deficient adults were compiled, showing that approximately 10% of the total were aged 15-29; 18,022 served in managerial, professional, and technical occupations; 10,649 earned over $5000 in 1961; 1/3 were women; 216,109 men were not in the labor force; about 10% of Canadian children lived in families where the household head was one of the 1,024,785; recent increases in opportunities still have not adequately reached 43.6% of the Indians and 90% of the Eskimos; and 25.8% were not born in Canada. Public libraries in Canada should furnish reading material for these adults, with suggestions from adult education leaders.


This book outlines the need, a basic theory, and a plan for conducting a systematic search for information in the initial stages of a community development program. The objective of the plan is to reduce guesswork and intuitive planning on the part of the professional field worker. The plan, when properly executed, provides insights and reliable data necessary to planning and conduct of community development programs within the framework of environmental and social and physical variables.

A systematic method was developed to be used by service school personnel in preparing job-oriented training objectives for junior officers, primarily in the form of behavioral statements of performance expected after training.  The procedures developed were (1) listing all tasks for a job, (2) selecting tasks for some formal training, (3) identifying the training emphasis needed in the tasks, and (4) specifying the knowledges and skills necessary for the selected training.  Data were obtained from experimental questionnaires, administered by personal interview and by mail, reviews of pertinent directives and publications, and visits to field units.  Procedures were tried out on a sample officer job (Nike Hercules Fire Control Platoon Leader) using a 452-item task inventory to choose 101 job activities for some formal schooling.  Of 160 training objectives stated for these activities, 46 were performance-type for which detailed activity descriptions were required.  Use of these procedures to prepare junior officer training objectives seems feasible and provides a method for deriving behavioral statements of relevant and essential objectives.


Perhaps the major problem in task analysis for industrial training is to determine what to describe and on what level of detail.  Many different levels of description may be needed to estimate the cost of inadequate performance to a system and the probability of adequate performance without training -- the problem of identifying difficult components of a job.  In the absence of direct empirical measures of these factors, working estimates can be made by appealing to existing methods and concepts.  Since some division of tasks into performance units will be needed for various purposes, training taxonomies are required.  Although taxonomies should include a hierarchy of exhaustive, mutually exclusive categories, each with a specific training requirement, the relative position of such categories can be expected to vary.  In respect to actual evaluation of training techniques, evidence on specific training conditions and their applicability is still far from complete.  Moreover, task analysis must take into account the environment as well as the con-

A study was made of 538 disadvantaged and 247 non-disadvantaged household heads in Iowa -- their occupation, training desired, material possessions, membership and participation. The sample included 643 males and 142 females and was distributed in zones from open country to large urban areas. According to the prescribed criteria 14% of the households in Iowa were disadvantaged. The largest portion of the disadvantaged (31%) were located in the large urban areas in cities over 50,000. 59% of the participants were interested in more training; this desire increased with education but decreased with age. There was little difference in training desired by zones of residence; a division into occupational groups showed, however, that the professional group had the most interest and farmers the least. Training in the areas of metal work, teaching, mechanics, electronics, and drafting were most often mentioned by the total group. Females desired training in licensed practical nursing, social work, office machines, computer programming, and accounting. The disadvantaged had fewer automobiles, newspapers, and magazines, and were less likely to be members of organizations or to be active participants in them.


A case study by a Senior Training Officer of the British Engineering Industrial Training Board shows why a firm must examine in detail a number of factors to determine where to apply its training effort. Excessive labor costs may be attributed to inadequate or inappropriate initial training, high labor turnover due to low wages, establishment of unrealistic Experience Worker Standards, poor condition of plant and machinery, poor functioning of production control, or immobility of labor force due to seniority claims. High amounts of scrap and rework may be due to factors other than labor skill, such as lack of uniformity in interpreting quality standards or faulty tooling. Recruitment and selection of employees may be poor. Adequate examination of such factors can uncover the real needs of the firm and can lead employees to examine critically their own functions and efficiency. It may well be that in order to make operator training effective, other applications of effort will have to take priority.

A general guide to organizing and conducting reliable and useful community surveys is reported. Organization for the survey involves identifying and contacting relevant community groups, and meeting with organizational representatives. Constructing a questionnaire involves careful wording and ordering of questions, and determining if questions should be structured or unstructured. Methods of sampling, distributing and collecting questionnaires, and interpreting and using survey results are also discussed.


In this survey of adults randomly chosen from the October 1967 voters' list for the City of Guelph, Ontario, information was gathered on individual and socioeconomic characteristics (including age, sex, marital and family status, income, education, occupation, and ethnic background); attitudes toward Guelph as a place to live and toward existing University of Guelph extension services; leisure activities (sports, entertainment, organizational membership, church attendance, reading, and others); and educational preferences, attitudes, and participation patterns. Adult education participation was greater in unsponsored than in sponsored activities; 41% had engaged in some form of adult education during the previous year; 33% expressed no particular sponsor or site preferences; 47% favored financial support of programs by participants only; vocational subjects (29%) and academic subjects or general subjects (26%) were favored. Preferred methods (mainly discussion groups, television, and short courses or lectures) varied widely among three hypothetical subject areas—religions of the world, current events, and new information in one's line of work. In regard to university extension, 44% were satisfied with existing service and 39% were uncertain.

This state wide study of the home demonstration program in nine representative counties was designed to determine home economics extension program needs, to discover the degree of participation, and to locate people who might profit from the program. Personal interviews were conducted with 498 home demonstration club members of (1) residence, (2) home ownership, (3) age, (4) family composition, (5) education, (6) family income, (7) employment status, (8) home facilities, conveniences, and newspaper subscriptions, (9) clothing, (10) family financial management, (11) home furnishings, (12) planned housing changes, (13) production, conservation, and use of foods at home, (14) organization membership and leadership, and (15) family life concerns. The findings suggest the need for further training of personnel and changes in program emphasis and approaches. It is anticipated that future agricultural, youth and 4-H community development, and home economics programs will be affected.


In this first phase of a larger research project, two major areas were investigated: the nature of the present curricula at two welding schools and of the job requirements expected of newly graduated Corpsmen at their first duty station. Individual corps school curricula were analyzed topic by topic and the major discrepancies summarized. A retention instrument was used to test comprehension; a survey was made to determine where student and graduate corpsmen gained retention item information. The retention and survey instruments were administered to students of both schools in their final week of training and to junior corpsmen in 13 select duty stations. This group also filled out one form of the questionnaire. Other forms of the questionnaire and the task scale were administered to physicians, nurses and senior corpsmen at the 13 select duty stations. These instruments and the evaluation were tailor-made to give the appropriate curriculum and to continue the research phases.

This report presents an analysis of the special training needs of inmates in correctional institutions in recognition of the contribution that occupational training can make in restoring the ex-prisoner as a productive member of our society and reducing the great recidivism. The bulletin presents a profile of characteristics of prison inmates and analyzes some of the handicaps they face in the job market. Although more that 100,000 persons leave Federal and state prisons each year, few of them receive the kind of training in prison which would enable them to compete successfully for jobs. At least one-third of all releases from Federal and State correctional institutions return as prisoners. Specific topics covered in this report include: the kinds of jobs held before imprisonment, the training and education available in correctional institutions and the employment experience of releases.


As one of several research studies which have investigated rural socio-economic conditions in conjunction with Canadian attempts to aid development, this study examined the role and potential of education in the rural development process. Surveys were conducted of the educational backgrounds and aspirations of both children and adults. Conclusions and recommendations of the study were directed at offering skill training for adults and reducing the high dropout rate of youth in this rural area.


Population shifts and growth, coupled with an increasingly industrialized society, have produced dramatic changes in rural societies throughout the world. A comprehensive overview of the changes taking place in rural American and other rural societies is presented in this book with macroscopic and microscopic examinations of trends in society, agricultural developments, family structure, and rural communities providing a wide perspective of modern rural society.


The research literature (1959-1968) relating to the correlates and bases of managerial motivation is reviewed. Two theoretical perspectives are used as a framework for the review; a need-hierarchy motivational scheme
and the motivation-hygiene dichotomy. Evaluations of these frameworks are made in the light of the supportive and unsupportive literature to date. Theoretical and methodological obstacles are suggested as limiting one's understanding of managerial motivation. Suggestions are made for improving the empirical base and theoretical richness of one's understanding of managerial motivation through (a) the development of systematic theoretical statements about managerial attitudes and motivation, (b) the use of more rigorous study designs and improved measuring devices, and (c) the incorporation of an increased variety of possible moderator variables.


As discussed in this research review, the application of task and analysis to a variety of real, nonroutine industrial tasks involves difficulties relating to cue identification, use of the elements (information, decision, action, feedback) of formal task description, the complementary nature of task analysis and task description, and the problem of subjectivity in making observations. In particular, the isolation, description, and reproduction of various types of cues (including response feedback) may often be the major technological obstacle to devising training, and such aspects as the measurement of task difficulty and trained performance may require an appeal to arbitrary or subjective criteria. Despite the widespread use of charts and tables and of certain terminology, the technique of describing instructional objectives probably has not been sufficiently well tested on real tasks.


A study was done in Connecticut on differences in perceptions of need for nutrition instruction as seen by homemakers from different age groups, and possible gaps between the homemakers' perceptions and those of their lay and professional Extension leaders. Data were obtained by an original, pretested rating scale. A positive correlation was found between homemakers' perceived educational needs and the developmental tasks of their age category. Some concerns of homemakers indicated inadequate mastery of developmental tasks during the preceding period. Lay leaders tended to judge the relative importance of homemakers' problems in terms of homemakers in their own age category. Professionals tended to judge problems by their inherent scientific importance; homemakers tended to judge problems in terms of their own situation. The professionals tended to see problems as more numerous and persistent...
than did the homemakers. Such problems as time and money were seen as persistent concerns by all three groups.


Legal education needs and preferences of lawyers in the Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, Bar Association were surveyed, with attention to such factors as motivation and lawyer characteristics. A pretested 40-item questionnaire was sent to all 2,218 members. Findings included the following: (1) felt needs pertained to trial work, real property law, probate and trust law, corporation law, law office management, Federal taxation, negligence, estate planning, patent, trade mark, and copy-right and antitrust law; (2) trial work, negligence, patent, trade mark, and copyright, corporation law, law office management, and labor law were generally preferred by younger lawyers, while probate and trust, anti-trust, and real property law were preferred by older lawyers; (3) over half the lawyers attend a legal continuing education program each year, with subjects within the scope of their practice and learning about changes in the law as the chief motives; (4) younger lawyers were more subject matter oriented and preferred lecture programs, and older lawyers were more interested in changes in the law and preferred seminar or panel presentations; and (5) lawyers tended to prefer programs late in the week.


This study was funded by the Wyoming State Department of Education to determine the vocational educational needs of Goshen County and to recommend appropriate action on the findings. Separate questionnaires were sent to high school students, employers in business and industry, and selected county adults. The new media gave the project wide publicity. Of 421 responding students, 170 showed interest in a terminal vocational program. As only the secretarial course at Eastern Wyoming College was presently adequate, results indicated need for programs for auto mechanics, medical and laboratory technicians, and nurses aides. Representatives of 114 businesses, with a total of 380 employees, gave the occupational category of their current employees, their preferences in educational background, and their prediction of hiring needs through 1970. Of the 700 questionnaires mailed to adults, only 256 were returned (93 rural and 163 urban), the author concluded that the college was meeting most of the course needs shown by this survey and, rather than add new programs, it should better publicize what it now has to offer. He recommended that the three questionnaires used in this project be improved and that the college recruit more actively in neighboring counties if it is to have enough students to support additional courses.

Peter F. Drucker and others. *Oakland Papers: Symposium on Social Change and Educational Continuity. Notes and Essays on Education for Adults, 51*. Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Brookline, Massachusetts. EDRS Order Number ED 030-044, price MF $0.50, HC $4.10. 80p. 1966.

The symposium was a result of an experimental alumni education program at Oakland University which was sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation and brought about by Oakland's intent to establish a new university relationship with its graduates based on continuing education. In "The University in an Educated Society" Peter Drucker speaks of learning patterns demanded by a highly technical society. Max Lerner illuminates the global crises man faces as a builder of society and the learning competencies his tasks will require in his essay "The University in an Age of Revolutions." In "The University and the Age of Anxiety" Rollo May provides an exploration of man's drive for an expanding consciousness, and the needs this process generates which current educational practices do not meet. "The University and Institutional Change" by Margaret Mead addresses a crucial institutional problem: how can educational institutions suitable to our age be fashioned when invariably we must begin in the middle of old commitments and dispositions?


Part of a larger study to formulate an economic development program for St. Louis, this document discusses the growth potential or expected decline of industry in the inner city; factors influencing the retention and the location of industries in greater St. Louis; and ways of stimulating new businesses, especially Negro owned businesses in the Target Area (TA). Also considered are deficiencies in education and training, commutation, and related difficulties of unemployed and underemployed TA residents; the role of the Federal Government, industry, public schools, and private trade schools in occupational training; and patterns of commercial, industrial, and other land use, with projections of future demand in each category. Finally, a division of responsibility among TA neighborhood and community groups is suggested, together with the use of such planning techniques as economic accounting, statistical decision theory, and the systems approach to poverty programs.

Volume 2 of a larger study to formulate an economic development program for St. Louis, this is a comprehensive economic profile of an inner city poverty zone designated as the Target Area (TA). Data are presented on age, sex, race, income, education, and other socio-economic characteristics of the TA population, together with information on the business climate, prospects for industrial development, the labor force and employment (including the commuting problem), patterns of unemployment, public and private occupational training programs and facilities, industrial, commercial, and other land use patterns, and industrial facilities. Also included are 67 tables, nine maps and charts, data sources and methodology, St. Louis urban renewal projects, a summary of vocational and technical programs taught in public secondary schools and junior colleges in greater St. Louis, and the economic goals and mission of participating agencies in the comprehensive manpower program.


Three studies dealing with the educational implications of technological change are presented. "The Application of Computer Technology to the improvement of Instruction and Learning" by Don D. Bushnell, Richard DeMille, and Judith Purl is based on 35 research and development programs involving computer technology. Their general thesis is that current educational use of computers is for administrative and logistical control purposes but the future potential of such applications will be in instructional activities. "The Emerging Technology of Education" by James D. Finn reviews related literature, identifies trends, and discusses implications of technology for education. Gabriel D. Olfiesh makes "A Proposal for a National Research and Development Program in Educational Technology for American Education." A series of eight papers by the staff of the College of Education, University of Iowa, presents an analysis of numerous implications which technological change has for education.


The rapid appearance of new treatment techniques, public demand for psychiatric expertise in increasingly broader areas of social and community concern, and the current information explosion in all fields have contributed to recent interest in programs of continuing education for
psychiatrists. Major guidelines have not yet been established, however, and this author examines such questions as who shall have major responsibility for postresidency programs, what shall be included and how shall practicing psychiatrists be motivated to take part.


Questionnaires returned from about 5,000 members of the Canadian Federation of University women and from about 1,700 nonmembers provided information on their reasons for not working, attitudes toward continuing education and obstacles to further education. New approaches should be used to recruit those not working into employment or further study.


A study was made of 200 Cooperative Extension Service workers in New York State to identify appropriate curriculum content for training professional leaders in extension education. The critical incident method was used to discover behavior patterns characteristic of professional extension agents and of key importance in their work. Respondents were asked to recall instances of effective and ineffective behavior on their part, to emphasize behavior critical to achieving an effective outcome, and to indicate why they considered a given incident effective or ineffective. Finally, a structure of relevant concepts was identified and linked to behavioral categories. Key behavior was grouped within seven major categories; preconditional or set behavior; programming; mobilizing resources and facilitating action; coordinating action to administer agency programs and activities. Concepts were identified and interpreted under the headings of the system and its growth and development, planning change and development, managing change and development, and influencing the evaluation and adoption of innovations.

Analyses of factors that affect vocational, technical, and general adult education in Florida are presented through (1) analysis of available pertinent data concerning population growth and distribution, (2) factual presentation of the existing programs of vocational and technical education, (3) accumulation and classification of data showing needs for suitably trained personnel for various types of employment, (4) projection of programs at various educational levels for specific training related directly to job needs, (5) inventory and evaluation of existing vocational and technical shops and laboratories at high school centers and junior colleges, (6) analysis and projection of financial requirements to support an improved and more comprehensive program of vocational and technical education, (7) description and analysis of existing patterns of educational organization at state, area, and local levels, and (8) development and application of criteria for locating various programs and facilities for vocational-technical education in Florida. Recommendations for each level and each area of vocational-technical education include -- (1) funds should be provided for the compilation of a comprehensive classified inventory of employment needs on a yearly basis, (2) periodic studies of vocational agriculture should be made in order that appropriate curriculums may be developed, and (3) an analysis should be made to determine which home economics programs for gainful employment are in greatest demand.


A study analyzed shopper's evaluation of sales personnel in three Pittsburgh department stores over several years. The evaluation checklists and narrative statements resulted in 2000 critical incidents grouped into 25 effective and 11 ineffective behaviors. Separate data were analyzed for a sale period. Research results form a factual basis for establishing training objectives and course content, and procuring additional training time for sales personnel.


Problems and opportunities confronting adult educators in British "new towns" (planned communities) are considered. Difficulties are seen in asserting the claims of adult education during the initial stages of designating and planning a new town. However, important advantages are noted in the greater flexibility among "new town" dwellers, their need for help in making adjustments, increased leisure time for many because of changed commuting and housekeeping patterns, the chance to contribute creatively to building a community, interested cooperation by development corporations and other influential groups and (in most cases) suitable physical accommodations. Fuller cooperation is urged among adult education agencies, and between them and the development corporations. The article includes eight references, photos, and a statistical...
The purpose was to differentiate possible courses of action based on the perceptions of knowledgeable and/or interested savings and loan personnel that might add to the continued improvement of the training of savings and loan employees. A mailed questionnaire was used for collecting the data after being subjected to a pilot study. It contained three parts: "Areas of Study"; "Aspects"; and "Topics for Study", and the respondents were requested to select and rate items related to the five "Areas of Study" they chose as most important of the ten areas listed. A total of 100 reactions were requested from each respondent. Usable returns were received from respondents representing 173 of the 271 savings and loan associations in the United States that comprised the random sample. Several tests, chi square, rank correlations, and a coefficient of concordance were used on the data to indicate the representativeness of the sample, the reliability of the questionnaires, and the agreement among responses. Findings included the following: (1) there was similarity of perceptions among personnel of savings and loan associations and from different geographical regions; (2) the importance of needed and/or desired "Areas of Study" were perceived not to be the same between respondents from associations of different asset sizes.


This volume contains the proceedings of a conference of social scientists and ministers on "Religion and Social Change" held at the North Carolina State University (Raleigh). Five seminars were held on the topics of (1) economic progress; (2) the distribution of income, status, and power; (3) the local community decision-making process; (4) maximizing the economy for development; and (5) organizing the church for social change. Among the more specific items discussed were: the meaning and measurement of economic progress; agricultural policy; economic change in the South; the distribution of the poor; the causes and politics of poverty; the power structure in North Carolina; the church and alternative strategies for change; the church and regional planning; labor unions and full employment; work and leisure; and manpower training programs. There was extensive discussion of ways to organize the church for social change including changing social functions of the church; new types of parish church renewal; ways of allocating church resources to deal with social problems; and the social impact of liturgy. Appendixes include reading lists on the subject discussed.
Thirty-four published guides to community study were analyzed to formulate an approach to community study. The principles of operation to guide adult educators in their relationships with the community were delineated: local programs of adult education should arise from local needs, and be fitted into the social structure of the community; democratic principles must govern the methodology used, enabling participation and educational agents to cooperate in the planning; and such adult programs must be devoted to the enhancement of enlightened citizen participation. The evolution of the concept of community and its current meanings and concepts, the relationship of the individual and community, and purposes and benefits of community study for the adult educator are also reviewed.

The outline to conducting a community survey delineates the kinds of information and data about a community of significance to the adult educator—the history and community setting, the people, economic structure, and functional operations. Each topic is subdivided into what to study, sources of information, and implications for adult educators. Reasons for the necessity of such studies are discussed and include: the degree of participation in, and support of, local programs is proportionate to their relevance to real life; adult education should be primary medium for a citizens' intellectual growth and participation in organized community social problems and ability in dealing with them.

A document intended to provide program planning guidelines for Young Men's Christian Associations (YMCA) desirous of working with families, recommends adherence to eight principles and following of five steps. The principles involve planning before action, fact finding and analysis, clear delineation of operational objectives, planning at all organizational levels, making of choices, involvement of those who must carry out plans, consideration of the skills and limitations of those who must carry out plans, and generation of receptivity of potential participants. The five steps are: (1) information (collection and analysis of the family life cycle); (3) strategy (selection of strategic goals); (4) tactics (development of operating plans); (5) evaluation (review and analysis
of experience). Effective planning is a continuous process and the five steps must be taken as part of a cycle. An appendix with family planning forms and procedures is included.


Five adult educators express their ideas on current problems facing evening colleges. Richard A. Matre states that the evening college as a separated and semi-isolated unit of the university is outmoded; the whole university must recognize its obligation to the part time student. Ernest E. McMahon's argument is for a composite university which accepts a responsibility for noncredit education centered in a separate division. George H. Daigneault argues that the evening college of the future must place its emphasis on creative programs which break with academic tradition and which are largely nondegree. He maintains that the evening college should concern itself with developing innovative and experimental means for effectively handling those educational problems (especially for adult continuing education) which demand new solutions. H. Lichtenstein advocates steering a middle road between administrative integration and creative programming for adults. Milton R. Stern's concern is with encouraging the evening college to release energies to provide for emerging educational needs.


A study was made to determine client system leadership expectations in individual and group problem situations. A questionnaire was developed, and validated by a panel, which asked respondents to rank three solution approach alternatives for individual and group problems—individual, group, or key person nature. It was mailed to 190 community leaders in northeastern Colorado who had been selected to attend meetings on social action. The Friedman two-way analysis of variance was used to determine if there were significant differences among solution approaches for both individual and group problem situations. Respondents selected the group problem solving approach for individual problems and the key person approach for group problems; both were significant at the .001 level of confidence. Data were also analyzed for age, sex, level of education, occupation, and acquaintance with the Extension staff to determine if these variables were correlated with respondents' expectations. When individual problems were considered, personal factor variables correlated with the group approach; for group problem situations, the key person approach was ranked first. It was concluded that client system leadership does not hold the "service" expectation stereotype of Extension workers; rather community leaders challenge the Extension worker to use more group and key person orientation.


The College of Business at Northern Illinois University and the Illinois Valley Community College collected this information for the geographic area served by IVCC, to determine the relation between occupational categories and recommended training. Questionnaire returns represent over 30 percent of employees in the area. Interviews cover professionals and the executives of most firms with over 100 employees, and special consultant reports cover certain critical occupations. The 11 occupational groups ranked by number of workers, are operatives, craftsmen and foreman, farmers, clerical workers, professionals, technicians, service workers, managers, salesmen, laborers and domestics. The industrial groups, similarly ranked, are (1) manufacturing, (2) retail trade, (3) services, (4) transportation and public utilities, (5) construction, (6) wholesale trade, (7) finance, insurance, and real estate, (8) mining, and (9) agriculture. Certain kinds of training can be applied to several industries, while other kinds (e.g. farm training) have only specialized use. Employers in each industrial group listed the preferred training for office work, food service, health service, metal working and the electrical/electronics industry. Manpower needs, training conditions, and trends are summarized.
This report summarizes the National Planning Association's pilot study of the implications of economic and social change for educational policy in the next two decades. Research is concentrated on changing manpower needs and on the challenges they are likely to present for designing the educational systems of the 1970's and 1980's. Anticipated changes in career opportunities provide a frame of reference for considering the consequences of rapid technological change, growth in leisure, and the persistence of poverty and discrimination for the options likely to become available in education during the coming decades. Chapter I sets the scope of the report into the analytical context used, while chapters II, III and IV discuss the challenge to education of changing socioeconomic conditions. The educational system's response to socioeconomic change is analyzed in Chapter V and is illustrated in chapter VI, which discusses institutional resistances to change in the area of educational technology.

Six working papers written as part of the National Planning Association's pilot study of the implications of economic and social change for educational policy in the 1970's and 1980's make up this volume. Attention is directed toward current and future social and economic challenges to education and the potential responses of the educational system to these challenges. The titles of the working papers are (1) "Education in Low-Income Areas During the Next Two Decades," (2) "The Systems Approach to Educational Systems Planning," (3) "Changes in Educational Technology and Their Implications for Education in the Next Two Decades," (4) "Economic Changes, Manpower Requirements, and Their Implications for Educational Policy in the Next Two Decades," (5) "Educational Change for Manpower Development," and (6) "The Social Bases for the Education of the Negro American Urban Poor During the Next Two Decades."

A literature search was made to assess information sources used by adult educators in deciding on educational content and format, and achieving overall balance within agency programs. Attention was given to the involvement of individuals and groups in decision making as well as to certain conceptual factors in the decision making process. Generalizations included the following: (1) most information of possible use in program planning arises from the social and cultural setting in which the program will exist; (2) administrators have a central role in collecting, analyzing, and organizing information from the social sciences; (3)
the structuring of knowledge for adult teaching requires a logical system somewhere between the broad concerns of adults and the rigorous limits imposed by subject matter; (4) experimental findings suggest, but do not dictate, possible educational decisions; (5) ranging from broad to specific, the levels of decision making involve determining the community to be served, identifying clientele, setting objectives, selecting subject matter and methods, and developing a sequence of learning activities.


A synthesis of adult needs embodies the three elements of social values, institutional purposes, and participant needs. An attempt should be made to establish a diagnostic instrument based on the idea that need emerges from value and to synthesize the various adult education philosophies by analyzing the concept of need.


The major purpose of this study was to survey and identify technological manpower needs of industry and to relate these needs to curriculum development in higher education. A questionnaire survey method was employed for the investigation. Approximately 11,000 companies were selected for saturation mailings. The study results were based upon questionnaire returns of about 10 percent of the sample companies. These returns met specified criteria for analysis. Three kinds of information were requested: (1) general information about the company, (2) technological characteristics of the company including inservice of in-plant training of technicians, and (3) information about the technological needs of the company. The report includes general and specific findings related to a total of 50 technicians positions. The frequency and distribution of inservice or in-plant training programs is given by geographic zones. Curricular conclusions were presented for: (1) chemical technology, (2) metals technology, (3) electronic technology, (4) mechanical technology, and (5) miscellaneous technology.
This document contains a summary of a survey of 930 companies employing 4,375,665 persons throughout the United States. The survey specifically deals with the companies' experiences with in-plant and outside agency job training programs. Some of the findings were: (1) Respondents feel that there are numerous institutions at work in the community to provide skill training, but 60 percent feel that this training falls short of their company needs, (2) Participants expressed great willingness to serve on advisory boards, (3) About 50 percent felt their universities lack adequate vocational training facilities and recommended public high school and in-plant training as the solution, (4) Over 85 percent are in favor of development of public vocationally oriented technical colleges on a 2-year basis, (5) 17 percent have established training programs with a view to attracting minority workers and 50 percent felt their programs were successful, (6) Manpower Development Training Administration has not helped find qualified employees for 80 percent of the respondents, and (7) Only 19 percent have employed persons trained in Job Corps centers, and of that group, 60 percent regard the experience as satisfactory.


George C. Killinger and others. *Job Obsolescence in the Law Enforcement and Correction Field*. Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences, Huntsville, Texas. EDRS Order Number MP 000 554, Price $0.75, HC $9.40. 186p. 1 March 1968.

The purpose of this study was to identify forces impinging upon correctional and law enforcement occupations and to translate them in terms of present and future manpower needs. The study used a three-pronged approach in the collection, analysis, and presentations of data, including (1) the baseline characteristics of persons currently employed in correctional and law enforcement occupations, (2) a suggested 10-year forecast related to the changing emphasis from custody to rehabilitation, and (3) use of these sources to develop model programs of higher education with a problem-oriented approach. Education as a function in
changing manpower needs is emphasized therefore, educational programs are reviewed for content, organization, and objectives. From these data profiles of the correctional worker and law enforcement officer of today are drawn, and projections are made concerning respective profiles for the 1970's.


In 1964 a questionnaire survey was conducted on the interests and characteristics of Nebraska lawyers in relation to continuing legal education. Questions dealt with such topics as type of practice, preferred scheduling, preferred subject matter and methodology, extent of self-directed study, participation in formal continuing legal education, length of time as a member of the bar, organizational membership, educational background, age and income. In addition, 52 randomly selected lawyers were interviewed. Characteristics of questionnaire respondents were compared with those of members of the American Bar Association, members of the Nebraska State Bar Association, and the Nebraska lawyers most interested in continuing legal education. One principal finding was that, in general, the characteristics of respondents were sufficiently similar to those of the State Bar Association as a whole. Because of these similarities, it seems warranted to generalize the most marked findings to the total membership.

Alan B. Knox. Older People as Consumers of Education. EDRS Order Number ED 025 716, price MF $0.25, HC $1.20. 22p. [1966].

Socio-psychological variables that influence the extent to which older people (age: 50+) will be consumers of education are examined to arrive at criteria for programs appropriate to the developmental needs of this group. Research indicates that two primary influences are changes in learning abilities and interests. Secondary influences include social factors (e.g. societal expectations about the role of older people, availability of educational opportunity) and personal factors (e.g. levels of physical and mental health, income, mobility, and preparatory education). The challenge to practitioners working with older persons is to diagnose the patterns that inhibit educational consumption and modify those so as to enable older persons more effectively to use education to achieve their own objectives.


Presented against the background of the characteristics of the New York City labor market are facts about the number of youths in the 16- to 24-year old age group who are unemployed and not in school and about the school attainment of New York City youth. A comparison of the school attainment and employment status of white and nonwhite youth is also provided, and projections are made about employment in the future. It was found that at least 72,200 out-of-school youths have job problems. Teenagers and school dropouts are most heavily hit by unemployment, especially Negroes and Puerto Ricans. Almost half the city's youth enters the job market without a high school diploma. Nonwhites show a poorer record than whites in educational attainment, employment rates and job levels. A rising youth population and a decreasing labor market for the unskilled and undereducated points to future aggravation of this problem.


A review of the literature on the diagnostic process in adult education, as it is related to determining educational needs of an individual or group. Based on a review of the literature, a study was made of the diagnostic process in adult education. It was concluded that the diagnostic process has its primary use at the beginning of program planning, that no trends could be derived concerning the uses of the process, and the survey method received most attention.


The study tried to determine the agricultural educational needs of part time farmers in Lincoln County. Questionnaires were distributed among 135 part time farmers; the study was based on the first 100 questionnaires completed and returned. Findings were: the part time farmers had sufficient investment in land, machinery, and livestock for them to be a stable segment of the population in Lincoln County for many years. Over 50% of the farmers had not attended adult classes and 3/4 were interested in attending. About 32% worked at agricultural related jobs off the farm and about half needed competencies in agricultural mechanics. A comprehensive agricultural education program should include subjects of use to those in off-farm jobs. Human relations was reported to be important for the performance of many off-farm jobs.
This manual consists of suggestions for setting up new public school adult education programs and extending and enriching existing ones to attack such community concerns as unemployment and the effects of automation. Tax support and local control are considered essential in initiating a program. Suggested steps in planning are hiring the director, setting up advisory committees, planning the program content based on community needs, locating and preparing teachers, organizing the schedule, publicizing the program, and evaluating the program. Numerous case studies include reprints of letters written by adult educators while organizing, administering, extending, and publicizing programs in specific communities. Directories list state directors of adult education, state and regional associations of public school adult educators and their presidents, graduate programs in adult education, and NAPSAE project communities. The manual concludes with a digest of Federal legislation on adult education and a list of NAPSAE program aids such as handbooks, periodicals, films, and filmographs.


The appendixes for "an investigation of the training and skill requirements of industrial machinery maintenance workers, final report, volume I" (VT 004 006) include (1) two letters from plant engineers stressing the importance of training machinery maintenance workers, (2) a description of the maintenance training survey, a sample questionnaire, and lists of knowledges supervisors in industry felt mechanical repairmen should have, (3) a list of occupations in which the basic maintenance subjects are applicable, (4) an inventory of systems and components of industrial machinery, (5) sample work schedules for apprenticeship training, (6) diagrams showing the allocation of subject time in various maintenance training programs, (7) information concerning a proposed clearinghouse for industrial training materials, and (8) a core curriculum for a basic maintenance training program.

This document presents self-perceived needs of managers and first line supervisors in the following Pennsylvania industries: chemical, rubber, and plastic products; banking; apparel, textile, and leather; construction; department stores; electrical machinery; fabricated metal products; insurance; machinery (except electrical); transportation equipment; gas and electrical utilities; petroleum refining; primary metals; professional, scientific, and controlling instruments; railroads; stone, clay, and glass products; telephone and telegraph; and transportation. Recommendations based on the information obtained through questionnaires are offered to the university, business and industry, individual managers and supervisors, and professional associations.


A technical employee outlines his career objectives and works toward them through a flexible schedule of courses, conferences, papers and other developmental activities.


This study examines the philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead to determine his theory of value and apply it to the principles, objectives, and positions of university adult education. Whitehead's value criteria are applied to the two major statements on policy of university adult education which the writer feels are inadequate: the National University Education Association position paper and the Scope Report of the Cooperative Extension Service. Besides finding these written positions deficient, the author views the current approaches to program development in university adult education -- the community approach and the individual goal approach -- not only incomplete, but insufficient in setting forth aims of adult education, since neither has a specific and unambiguous stance toward goals and objectives. It is felt that one of the most important contributions Whitehead can make to the field of university adult education is to offer a philosophical framework that encompasses both positions. Whitehead's educational aims are built around his concern for the individual, yet parallel to this individualistic emphasis is his recognition of man's essential involvement in his universe or community. Both views are expressed in his doctrine of the nature of man as an individual in the midst of the unity of the universe.


The major purpose of this study was to determine the competencies needed for employment in non-farm agriculture occupations with implications for curriculum development. The population comprised the employers of 410 non-farm agricultural businesses in eight counties representative of non-farm metropolitan Wisconsin. Vocational agricultural instructors in each selected county provided the researcher with the names of all agricultural business employers in their county. A questionnaire was prepared and sent to each of the identified employers. The data were analyzed under five major variables: academic subjects, public relations skills and/or knowledges, farming experience, and vocational agriculture training. The subjects which the employers agreed were most valuable for both employment levels were mathematics, English, and economics. Those subjects which employers considered to be of little value were foreign language, history, and geography. A consensus did not exist among the employers as to the value of science and mathematics as requirements for initial employment and promotion. The appendix includes the questionnaire and tables showing the tabulated results of the investigations.

Shirley D. McCune and Edgar W. Mills. *Continuing Education for Ministers: A Pilot Evaluation of Three Programs*. EDRS Order Number ED 024 870, price MF $0.50, HC $4.55, 89p. 1967. Also available for $2.00 from the National Council of Churches, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Three continuing education programs for Protestant clergymen were studied to assess program impact; gain further understanding of the occupational roles and educational needs of ministers, and develop hypotheses and improved evaluation techniques. Goals and effects of the programs overlapped, with participants reporting much satisfaction. General role and behavior changes were toward a greater orientation to people and a liberalization of ideas and feelings. Educational needs pertained mainly to perspective on one's ministry, stronger occupational identity, and the study of rapid social change; regional, age, and program format variations were more significant than denominational differences. It was recommended that such programs should incorporate evaluation research, sponsor research, and make their goals more specific. The new hypotheses were based on social and emotional effects of residential programs, effects of residential programs, effects of program structure on morale and vocational commitment, the apparent brevity of program impacts, and the possibility of having many ministers from a given system participate in the same program.

There exists today a series of discrepant ideas about the problem of work and leisure. Society in general feels that the wrong people will have the new leisure, that the professional persons of the country are going to work hard while those on the technical level will be less and less committed to their jobs. The new leisure will go to the imperfectly educated unmotivated part of the community which will "misuse" it. The idea that each individual buys his way to food, shelter, education, and safety by holding a job was characteristic of the industrial revolution. The idea is no longer appropriate. A future problem will be how to devise a system in which every individual has dignity and purpose in society and the society has a rationale for distributing the results of its high productivity. A way must be devised to simultaneously talk about full employment for the present and plan for a different kind of society in the future. The dichotomy between work and leisure must be eliminated. There is needed a new concept of participation in society, participation meaning something like citizenship. A question-answer interchange between speaker and audience is included.


A test was made of the theory that the relationship between a region of communities would be more healthy and productive as the conditions of inter-community acceptance, trust, interdependence, and cooperative ness increased. Terms of three to five leaders from each of 18 suburban communities attended semi-monthly seminars, diagnosed changes needed to gain citizen involvement, and planned strategies for change. Goals were defined as a more adequate flow of information between communities, more opportunities for training, and increased interest and participation of citizens. An inter-community team was formed and assumed responsibility for initiating movement toward the regional goals. It was found that those citizens with a high level of participation in the project developed more positive and optimistic perceptions of their own communities and increased their readiness to work with citizens from other communities.

The Worcester Center for Community Studies is a newly created consortium of academic talent drawn from the local colleges and universities in the Worcester area. It came into being in early 1967 and was given impetus by the award of a grant from the Higher Education Facilities Commission under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The major objectives of the Center have been to bring relevant talent, particularly in the areas of social science — located in Worcester and directed toward solving community problems. The five major activities undertaken during its first year and a half of existence are: the director's activities; the Voluntarism Project; a housing conference; a data center; and a neighborhood leadership training project.


Using the critical incident method, this study sought to describe job requirements perceived as critical by Michigan Cooperative Extension agents, identify training needs and determine possible differences in training needs and job requirements according to employment position and tenure. The research involved collecting 444 written descriptions of effective and ineffective job performance from 74 subjects in 23 small group meetings. Incidents were classified by six functional areas. Functions, in order of frequency, were teaching and communicating; organizing; conducting programs; administration; program planning; and evaluation. Other findings included the following: (1) agents of differing tenure reported incidents with similar frequency in all categories except evaluation; (2) the importance hierarchy consisted of organizing, conducting programs, program planning, evaluation, teaching and communicating, and administration; (3) the difficulty hierarchy consisted of evaluation, organizing, administration, program planning, teaching and communicating, and conducting programs; (4) home economists and agriculture and natural resource agents stressed teaching and communicating, while Four-H youth agents stressed organizing.

By investigating the opinions of 35 adult educators and 38 employment service specialists, this study sought to determine how effectively certain adult education programs in Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin are meeting the educational and job preparation needs of individuals and communities, and to assess the relevance of adult education objectives to participants' needs and interests. Individual structured interviews were used in which interviewees categorized each of 20 educational activities as either imperative, very desirable, desirable, permissible, or undesirable. These were among the findings: (1) no single activity was considered imperative by a majority of educators or specialists; (2) while educators generally approved of all the activities, priority was given to assuring adequate opportunity for continuing education to all adults in the community; (3) the educators were reluctant to be daring or innovative in planning effective job preparation programs; (4) the adult educators did not seek the help of employment service specialists in program planning; (5) guidance and counseling services offered by adult educators to participants in education and training programs were inadequate.


This report outlines a demonstration-research training program for 600 disadvantaged 17-21-year-old out-of-school, unemployed or under-employed males from the predominantly Negro Bedford-Stuyvesant area of Brooklyn, New York. Funded jointly by the Office of Education, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the Department of Labor, the program offers these youths trade training, life skills education, recreation, and such special services as job placement and general posttraining followup. The ideal racial composition of the program is considered to be 70 percent Negro, 15 percent Caucasian, and 15 percent Puerto Rican. Program personnel are drawn largely from the Bedford-Stuyvesant community. In addition to the actual training of the youth, the program seeks to develop a new curriculum and determine through comprehensive action research its effectiveness in producing positive changes in trainees' attitudes and behavior. A multifaceted action research design is described in detail and various operational problems in conducting the research are discussed. A "life skills curriculum model," which exemplifies an experience-centered approach to curriculum development, is presented in the appendix to the report.

This study sought (1) to describe the total population (fall semester 1966-67) of the evening and off-campus divisions of Temple University; (2) to identify evening and off-campus students' educational needs, goals and aspirations, university needs, and purposes relative to its evening division, and the portion of nondegree evening and off-campus students for which the College of Education has or should have basic responsibility; and (3) to suggest for the College of Education an administrative structure better suiting the needs of its evening and off-campus students. Two questionnaires and the 1967 Middle States Report gave data on sex, age, residence, and other student characteristics and variables. Based on the numerous findings and conclusions, recommendations affecting evening and off-campus study were made for a clear statement of policy; a specific set of rules and regulations; maintenance of the existing vertical administrative relationships to day college; fuller administrative provision for off-campus, nondegree, and College of Education students; arrangements for statistical reporting, research, and evaluation; and systematic counseling and preadvising services.


A study was made in 1964 of the family status, rural-urban orientation, residence, housing and transportation situation, organizational participation, and friendship patterns of young families in a rural fringe areas of greater Columbus, Ohio. Findings suggested several generalizations; (1) these families are not much involved in formal organizations, and those to which they do belong emphasize the locality and are hostile to larger bureaucracies; (2) the families are tied to the urban center by occupations, but many have rural or small town backgrounds and relatively stable residential patterns; (3) they are involved with kinship patterns and consider some of their relatives as friends; (4) backgrounds and interests are highly diverse. Implications for Cooperative Extension outreach were noted.


Annotated bibliography lists references alphabetically by author within seven categories; general papers on training and the problem of determining objectives; systems analysis (human factors and other aspects); job analysis (identification of component tasks); allocation of training (choosing tasks to be taught, and appropriate levels of instruction); task description; determination of knowledge and skills; and description and specification of objectives.

The study aims at combining the use of a comprehensive questionnaire, staff interviews, and a literature review to discover information which can be used to establish guidelines for senior citizens' centers. Many centers have been initiated in communities because the need was obvious and often urgent. However, the lack of sound financial planning caused difficulty early in their developing stages. Financing of centers remains a major concern throughout the state. At present, in spite of the large number of aging people, there is still space in most centers for additional members. Most center members today are people in the lower income categories of the aging population, widowed, over 70 years of age, who have little education; the more affluent and "younger" aging do not use the senior citizens' centers to any great extent. The personnel operating these centers lack expertise in catering to their clientele and have been unable to interest their participants in adult education courses. However, recreational activities continue to be popular with those who attend.


Training needs of probation and parole officers and personnel in penal institutions of Louisiana were determined by surveys of personnel background, education, age, experience, and expressed needs, in order to determine subject matter and potential enrollment of inservice classes. Questionnaires collected information from 53 probation and parole officers which resulted in a one week school involving 27 officers. The curriculum included human behavior and personality disorders, investigations, interviewing, counseling, case analysis, techniques of arrest, interagency cooperation and community resources, leadership, court relationship, narcotics, and out of state problems. The survey of penal institutions resulted in a one week pilot school for 26 correctional officers and supervisors in studies of personnel management, principles of supervision, communications, theories of crime, legal issues, drugs, counseling and management, human relations, public relations, personality disorders, and the custodial process. On the basis of attendee evaluation, both schools were successful in changing attitudes for better work performance. Questionnaires, class schedules, course descriptions, and statistical data are included.


Written primarily for organizations beginning their manpower management effort, this book focuses on analytical approaches to studying the managerial manpower situation in a specific organization. Chapters 1 and 2 develop the nature, need, and process of manpower planning and include a schematic overview of the entire process. Chapter 3 describes programs which help the organization meet difficult situations, based on interviews with manpower managers. Chapter 4 involves an analysis of inventory and forecast data to identify potential manpower problems. In chapters 5 and 6, how to measure labor productivity and to use the information in manpower forecasting are discussed. Chapter 7 relates the manpower forecast to other economic forecasts of business organizations. In chapter 8 fundamental ideas of control and evaluation and indications of the role of control in manpower planning are presented. Chapter 9 examines the role of the manpower planner.


Increased pressures for added area vocational-technical schools in Minnesota led to this study with objectives of determining: (1) present and future employment needs, (2) geographic distribution of schools, (3) utilization of school facilities, (4) present and projected enrollment of students, (5) student characteristics, (6) projected facility needs, (7) projected cost of adequate buildings, equipment, and maintenance, and (8) staff needs and qualifications. The historical background, mission and goals, occupational information and employment needs, vocational-technical school districts, enrollment and student characteristics, utilization, and staffing were examined in the development of recommendations and implications for the future. Some major recommendations were that: (1) the department of education establish criteria for school accreditation, (2) course offerings be expanded in all operating area vocational-technical schools, (3) a communication system be established among area vocational-technical schools and schools offering baccalaureate programs, (4) a detailed system for follow-up of graduates be initiated, (5) a single file of information be developed showing occupational training being offered in the state, and (6) classes and employment be scheduled to provide for a more efficient use of educational facilities and student time.


A study was made of the educational needs of married women of lower socioeconomic status in three widely divergent inner city areas of Vancouver, British Columbia. Reasons for nonparticipation in adult education were also sought. The majority of respondents in these areas were married, aged 15-44, with one to four children. Most had gone beyond Grade 8, but only 1/3 had completed high school. Most of the past and present participants in continuing education were high school graduates. Tuition fees, lack of child care facilities, transportation and related costs, feelings of academic inadequacy, and (mainly among new Canadians) fear of institutionalized programs were major reasons for nonparticipation. A conflict of priorities appeared to exist between needs perceived by resource personnel and needs perceived by the respondents themselves. Resource persons stressed organizational objectives; most of the women stressed education for future employment. Despite differing priorities, both groups saw needs in the areas of cultural orientation, family relationships, nutrition and home management, citizenship, and employment. Program success requires that these married women share in planning, and that their priorities be reflected in the curriculum.


The purpose of this study was to provide data for use in developing or improving electronic technology programs. A postal card questionnaire was sent to 678 manufacturing and processing industries in Iowa employing more than 50 persons and all electrical, electronic and precision instrument manufacturers employing fewer than 50 persons. Data were compiled from the main questionnaire, completed by 115 firms employing 99,045 persons, and from interviews with representatives of the 11 industries employing 10 or more electronic technicians, the firms reported a need for 205 electronic technicians by January 1, 1968 and 544 by 1972. Although a definite need was indicated, it varied with the size of industry, product manufactured and geographical location and was difficult to predict beyond one year. The main source of technically trained electrical personnel was in-company training programs. Questionnaire responses indicated that training is needed in nine basic disciplines: mathematics, basic principles of physics, shop operations and related information, technical drawing, A-C and D-C circuits and machines, electronic components and circuits, use and repair of test equipment, TV circuits, and data processing. It was felt that similar studies should be conducted for electronic technicians in the communications and computer servicing industries.

Leland Walter White. *Vocational and Technical Educational Needs of the*
The purposes of this study were to determine (1) if the present South Dakota vocational education program was adequate, (2) what the 1970 projected needs of industry in South Dakota would be, (3) what broad areas of training should be included in an adequate state program, and (4) what was the most feasible plan for implementation of the program. Data were gathered from three major sources: (1) the United States 1950 and 1960 Census, (2) official records of the United States Employment Security Office, Aberdeen, South Dakota, and (3) official records of South Dakota Department of Public Instruction. Dispersion rates were determined for both age and occupations for each census year. Conclusions were: South Dakota provided vocational education to 5,321 persons in 1965, and projections indicated that by 1970 13,321 persons will require vocational education; (2) six multi-county vocational schools should be established and strategically placed to serve the state adequately; and (3) the broad training areas required in South Dakota were craftsmen, clerical, sales, operatives, service and private household. Included in the appendixes are: the letters used, a representative two-year business curriculum of South Dakota’s institutions of higher learning, and a bibliography.
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