ABSTRACT
        This guide was designed for the personal and
professional development of staff trainers and manpower
administrators in state and local SRS-related agencies. It is
composed of three major parts: Part One - Concepts for Adult Learning
- introduces basic ideas central to the andragogical process of
education. Part Two - Designs and Processes for Experience - is a
Five Day Residential Workshop in which ideas in Part One can be
lived, tested and evaluated. Part Three: For Continuing Application -
is designed to be shared with Workshop participants. Trainers may
take back this section of the guide to assignments in the field to
apply learnings gained from the Workshop. An annotated bibliography
and selected references are given. (NF)

A
TRAINERS GUIDE
TO
ANDRAGOGY

by

JOHN D. INGALLS AND JOSEPH M. ARCERI

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FOREWORD

You are about to engage in what I hope will be an exciting adventure for you. You will be exploring the relatively new territory of Andragogy.

Let me tell you why I think it will be exciting-- and very rewarding. When I came into the field of adult education and training over thirty years ago, the only concepts and techniques we had were those developed over the centuries for the education of children. The adult educator had very little in his bag that was unique--or even different. It was assumed that anybody could be a good trainer of adults who knew anything about teaching and was reasonably good at managing the logistics of educational programs. His role was seen as primarily that of scheduling activities.

But in the last decade things have been changing. Through both better research and the systematic analysis of experience we have been discovering that adults are different as learners from the traditional assumptions about children as learners (which, incidentally, are now being challenged, too). And a differentiated body of theory and techniques for helping adults learn has been accumulating rapidly. So now the adult educator needs to know things and be able to do things that other people don't know and can't do. His role is becoming more and more different; it is becoming profession- alized.

I think that John Ingalls and Joseph Arceri have done the most comprehensive job that has been accomplished to date in bringing together the new concepts and techniques of adult education and showing how they can be applied to the training of real "pros" for the Social and Rehabilitation Service.

Have a pleasant trip.

Malcolm S. Knowles
January 1972

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The role of a staff training specialist in state and local
Social Service agencies that relate directly to the Social and
Rehabilitation Service of the United States Department of Health,
Education and Welfare, calls for a variety of skills and abilities
needed for organizing, planning, designing, conducting and eval-
uating learning experiences for adults. These skills must be
applied in a variety of settings, under vastly different conditions,
with groups possessing diverse cultural backgrounds. In addition
to being called upon as training and education specialists, staff
trainers today are being increasingly sought to provide assist-
ance in organizational development activities requiring further
skills and abilities in group processes and systems intervention.
The role of staff trainer, then, is becoming more complex and more
professionally demanding as we prepare to enter the last quarter
of the 20th century.

The Trainer's Guide to Andragogy has been prepared in response
to R.F.P.-H.E.W. SRS-71-45, which issued a statement of fundamental
needs for a Syllabus and Training Guide for the Training of Train-
ers. The contract for developing this Guide was Awarded to Data
Education Incorporated, of Waltham, Massachusetts. The Guide has
been prepared under the general direction of Mr. John D. Ingalls,
Vice-President of Data Education, assisted by Mr. Joseph M. Arceri.
Dr. Malcolm S. Knowles of Boston University, Professor of Education
and General Consultant, provided consulting assistance while the
Guide was in preparation. Several meetings were held with SRS
Representatives in Washington, D.C. These meetings were most
valuable in clarifying the needs and purposes of the Guide and in
defining general objectives for the total project.

The Guide is designed in three major parts: Part One - Andra-
gogy: Concepts for Adult Learning, serves to introduce the basic
ideas central to the andragogical process of education. It further
hopes to stimulate the reader to engage in a continuing process of
enquiry into several areas of fundamental importance to training,
human and organizational development, and education. In addition,
Chapter 7 of the Guide enters into a discussion of the relationship
between education and management and the impact of new technology
on both fields. Chapter 8 considers the relationship between
education and therapy and sees re-education as supportive of
positive mental health. While re-education is seen as significantly
different from therapeutic activities for those who are afflicted
with mental illness, all of us may benefit from programs of positive
mental health in the same way that we benefit from programs for
physical and environmental health.

Part Two of the Guide is designed to be a lived experience rather than a text to be read. Andragogy: Designs and Processes for Experience, is a Five Day Residential Workshop in which the ideas set forth in Part One can be lived, tested and evaluated by each trainer in training who participates in the Workshop. Each participant will also have the opportunity to deepen his understanding of the dynamics and processes of working effectively with others in groups and in addition will be deeply involved in designing, conducting and evaluating learning activities for other Workshop participants. In this way, the authors feel that the concepts of andragogy will be communicated andragogically and that congruency with this process for adult learning will be maintained and strengthened.

Part Three of the Guide, Andragogy: For Continuing Application, is designed to be shared with participants at the end of the Five Day Workshop. This section of the Guide has been prepared for the trainers in training to take back to their assignments in the field so that they can constantly apply and reinforce the learnings gained from the Workshop. It is anticipated that approximately six months after the initial workshop, a second workshop will be held so that the trainers in training can share their field experiences with one another and serve as resources to each other in achieving new levels of training competence.

The Trainer's Guide to Andragogy has been designed for the personal and professional development of staff trainers and manpower administrators in state and local SRS related agencies. We hope that it will be of lasting value and benefit to all of you and the clients whom you serve.

We would especially like to thank Mr. James Phipps, who served as Project Officer for the Trainer's Guide, and Mrs. Corinne Wolfe and Mr. Frank Caracciolo of the Office of Manpower Development and Training, S.R.S., in addition to many other of their associates, all of whom provided so much support and encouragement during the design and writing phases of this project.

Waltham, Massachusetts   John D. Ingalls
January 1972   Joseph M. Arceri

ANDRAGOGY-
Concepts for Adult Learning

CHAPTER 1:

AN INTRODUCTION TO ANDRAGOGY: A PROCESS FOR ADULT LEARNING

General Purpose:

The aim of this chapter is to establish a learning climate
or spirit of mutual inquiry that is basic to the andragogical
approach. The reader is invited to enter the process by
considering some of the challenges posed to adult educators
and trainers by the circumstances of life today. The reader
is also invited to consider the need for a new educational
process for adults arising from the challenges of the present
and to review some of the differences between adult learning
(Andragogy) and child learning (Pedagogy). In addition, some
information will be provided on the origin and meaning of the
term "Andragogy" and on the growth and development of this new
field. The Chapter concludes with a brief outline of the basic
elements of the andragogical process itself.

Challenges for Educators and Trainers of Adults

We are living in an age of rapid and accelerating change;
an age of new discoveries and knowledge, new theories and
methods, new problems and solutions. Alvin Toffler recently
warned that this increase in the pace and complexity of life
is likely to produce a state of cultural shock or paralysis
brought about by an "overabundance of choice" (Toffler-1970).
The evidence indicates that this warning cannot be lightly
dismissed. It seems that we must find ways to improve our
ability to choose quickly and accurately what we really want
and need. Furthermore, we must learn how to make these kinds
of decisions and carry them out in interaction with others
who are affected by them. These concerns raise questions
about the goals and purposes of education, human development
and training. One purpose of this guide is to explore some
of these questions and suggest some tentative answers.

The Changing Purpose of Education

Most educational theories have been based on the belief
that the fundamental purpose of education is the transmission
of the totality of human knowledge from one generation to the
next. This is probably a workable assumption provided that
two conditions are present: first, that the quantity of
knowledge is small enough to be collectively managed by the
educational system; and second, that the rate of change
occuring in the culture or society is slow enough to enable
the deposit of knowledge to be packaged and delivered before
it changes. Both conditions have disappeared in modern times.

We are now living in a period of knowledge explosion in which the rate of cultural change (e.g., the introduction of new technology and new social mores, sudden population growth and mobility, changes in basic institutions such as marriage and the family, etc.) is so rapid that we are living through three or four different cultural periods in a life span of 70 to 80 years. The diagram below presents this picture graphically:

The Relationship of the Time Span of Social
and Cultural Change to Individual Life Span

Years of Individual Longevity	25 30	40	50	70
Time Span of Social Change	Ancient Rome	Renaissance	18-19th Centuries	20th Century
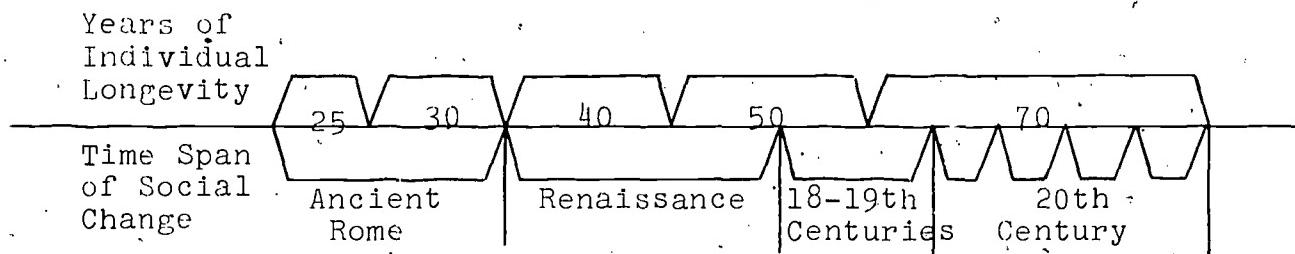
This increase in the rate and quantity of change in society leads to a question of doubt concerning the viability of the "transmittal theory" of education. Instead of trying to transmit all of what is known, perhaps our purpose could be "to stimulate in the learner a desire to engage in a lifelong process of discovering what he needs to know." If this redefinition is tentatively acceptable, we may look at two consequences that follow from it. First, education would no longer be primarily or exclusively an activity for children; and second, the responsibility for deciding what is to be taught and learned would tend to shift increasingly away from the teacher and toward the learner. Education, as a lifelong process of continuing discovery and growth, could thus satisfy our need to relate in a positive and personal way to our own changing experience.

Three additional considerations add impetus to the idea of education as a continuing activity beyond childhood.

Living Itself is Educational Experience

The ancient Chinese philosopher Confucius expressed his belief in the importance of learning from experience when he wrote:

"I hear and I forget
I see and I remember
I do and I understand"

Confucius related the acquisition of understanding and knowledge directly to living and experiencing. "I do and I understand." The process of education, looked

at in its broadest sense can be considered to be operating
all the time, during all conscious human activity. It
does not stop at graduation! Everything we do involves
some kind of learning. Reflecting on the past, acting in
the present, planning for the future, all clearly suggest
the fundamental process of learning by doing. Possibly
we do not look at all of life as "a learning experience"
or a "learning situation". Perhaps our orientation
restricts our thinking about education as that taking
place only within the narrow confines of a formal class-
room. But whether we wish to recognize it or not, the
fact remains that we are learning all the time. Perhaps
what we really need is an educational process that will
help us to generate meaning and knowledge from our life
situation in a way that we can utilize all of our activities
as "potential for learning". In that way; even our mis-
takes can be valued as providing information leading to
change and growth. Continuous learning from the experience
of life, then, is an important focus for adults in today's
world.

Education and the Resolution of Social Conflicts.

It seems that social problems today are bigger and
more serious than ever: crime, poverty, social and racial
unrest, and drug addiction are rampant. There seems to
be a greater need today than ever before for the late
Dr. Kurt Lewin's prescription for resolving social conflicts
through re-education (Lewin-1948). Lewin demonstrated
that processes for the acquisition of normal and abnormal
social behavior are fundamentally alike. He proved that
inadequate visual images (incorrect stereotypes or
illusions) are formed in exactly the same way as adequate
visual images (reality). The importance of this clarifi-
cation cannot be overestimated. If we accept the fact
that our perception of reality may at any time be correct
or incorrect but that it is always visualized by ourselves
as correct, and if we also recognize that it is our per-
ceptions of reality that steer or direct our actions, we
can at last understand the basis of socially divergent
behavior and begin to develop corrective experiences to
resolve those conflicts brought about by the divergence
between social illusions and reality.

Lewin called this method of dealing with divergent
perceptions a process of re-education. He described
re-education as a process that effects not only changes
in cognitive structure (facts, concepts, beliefs, expec-
tations) but also changes in values (attractions and
aversions and feelings of acceptance and status). Re-educa-
tion, to be effective, must go much deeper than the level
of verbal expression. It involves a transition from old

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values and ideas to new ones, together with the internalization of the new behavior, which, in turn, reinforces the new values.

Lewin specified two conditions as absolute prerequisites for successful re-education. First, individuals must become actively involved with others in discovering the inadequacies in their present situation and work together to discover paths leading to improvement; and second, there must be an implicit guarantee of freedom for each group member to accept or reject the new values or cognitive structure.

The process of re-education in pointing the way toward the resolution of social conflict becomes the second important focus for the continuing education of adults.

A Process for Learning How to Learn

Together with learning from our own experience, and working with others to bring about re-education and the resolution of social conflicts, we also need to understand and master the process of learning itself.

While we can always find someone who is an "expert" on something, for the most part, teachers are not generally available to us as they were when we were children. We are expected to be capable of performing our various social and organizational roles, and if we cannot, the consequences are often personally hurtful, as well as detrimental to the organizations for which we work. The time pressures of daily living may also make it relatively impossible for us to pursue formal educational activities as adults; hence, we need a process for learning how to learn on our own. In order to build a foundation for developing this process, it may be helpful to look at some important differences between adults and children as learners.

Andragogy vs. Pedagogy--A Choice of Perspectives

Malcolm Knowles has clarified the differences between adult and child learning in his book, "The Modern Practice of Adult Education" (Knowles-1970). Knowles does not suggest any fundamental difference between adults and children with regard to the process of internalizing knowledge, but he does point to significant differences that stem from the conditions surrounding adult and child learning and differences that emerge from varied degrees of maturation.

Knowles writes as follows:

"Most of what is known about learning has been derived
from studies of learning in children and animals. Most
of what is known about teaching has been derived from
experience with teaching children under conditions of
compulsory attendance. And most theories about the
learning-teaching transaction are based on the definition
of education as a process of transmitting the culture.
From these theories and assumptions there has emerged
the technology of "pedagogy"--a term derived from the
Greek stem *paid-* (meaning "child") and *agogos* (meaning
"leading"). So "pedagogy" means, specifically, the art
and science of teaching children.

One problem is that somewhere in history the "children"
part of the definition got lost. In many people's minds--
and even in the dictionary--"pedagogy" is defined as the
art and science of teaching. Period. Even in books on
adult education you can find references to "the pedagogy
of adult education," without any apparent discomfort
over the contradiction in terms. Indeed, in my estima-
tion, the main reason why adult education has not achieved
the impact on our civilization of which it is capable is
that most teachers of adults have only known how to teach
adults as if they were children." (Knowles - 1970)

There are four basic concepts around which the differen-
ces between andragogy and pedagogy can be illuminated. They
serve as reference points for reflecting on the different
approaches of these two educational processes.

Self-Concept: The self-concept of a child is that of
being a dependent person. As children move toward adult-
hood, they become increasingly aware of being capable of
making decisions for themselves. At the same time, they
experience a deep need for others to see them as being
capable of self-direction. This change from a self-
concept of dependency to one of autonomy is what we mean
when we say a person has achieved psychological maturity
or adulthood. Because of this, adults tend to resent
being put into situations that violate their self-concept
of maturity, such as being treated with a lack of respect,
being talked down to, being judged and otherwise being
treated like children. Because so many of our educa-
tional or training environments have been dominated by
pedagogy, adults tend to come into educational or
training programs expecting to be treated like children
and prepared to allow the teacher to take responsibility
for their learning. When adults discover that they are
capable of self-direction in learning as they are in
other activities of their lives, they often experience
a remarkable increase of motivation to learn and a strong

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desire to continue the learning process..

There are several implications for the creation of a self-directing adult learning environment that follow from the ideas stated above. As this Guide is developed, these implications will be treated at length. Here we can observe the first major difference between andragogy and pedagogy to exist in the relationship between teachers and learner and in the learner's concept of himself as dependent or as capable of self-direction.

Dominant vs. Dependent   Interdependent and Self-directing
Teacher   Learner   Teachers and Learners

A directing relationship   A helping relationship

Experience: Adults, in the course of living, have accumulated vast quantities of experience of differing kinds. It is safe to say that "we are our experience". Our experience is what we have done; i.e., the sum total of our life's impressions and our interaction with other persons and the world. Children, on the other hand, are relatively new to experience; "experience is what happens to them" and many patterns of experience have simply not occured frequently enough for them to have become familiar, safe, or generally predictable.

Andragogy recognizes the experience of adults as a rich resource for learning but the tradition of pedagogy is to regard the experience of children as being of little worth in the educational process. It is for this reason that the methodology of pedagogy has been up to this point largely oriented toward "one way communication techniques": lectures, assigned readings, and audio-visual presentations, while andragogy abounds with "experiential", two-way and multi-directional techniques such as group discussion, simulation, and role playing, buzz groups, brainstorming, skill practice sessions, and so on. In this way, the experiences of all adult participants can be utilized as resources for learning. All participants can be teachers and learners at the same time.

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One-way communication   Multi-communication
        given by   shared by

Pedagogical Teacher to   Andragogical community of
  Pedagogical Learner   Teachers/Learners
Experience of the teacher   Experience of all valued as
valued as the primary   resources for learning
resource for learning

Readiness to Learn: Educators are quite familiar with the
concepts "readiness to learn" and "teachable moment". It
is well known that educational development occurs best
through a sequencing of learning activities into develop-
mental tasks so that the learner is presented with oppor-
tunities for learning certain topics or activities when
he is "ready" to assimilate them, but not before. It is
obvious for example that learning arithmetic has to pre-
cede learning trigonometry, or that learning the meaning
of basic words has to precede reading history. The main
task of pedagogical curriculum development lies in dealing
with sequencing and interrelating of subjects and skill-
building activities to meet the requirements of competency
for graduation. Adults, however, have largely completed
the requirements of basic education (competency in reading,
writing, arithmetic and speech), unless their education
has been retarded by social or economic factors. Their
development tasks are increasingly related to the social
roles that form their immediate concerns: working, living,
raising a family, enjoying art, music, recreational
activities, and so on. As an adult moves through life
from early adulthood through middle-age and into later
maturity, he experiences many different "teachable mom-
ents" called forth by the needs of his social situation.
Two important differences between andragogy and pedagogy
in this regard can be inferred from the nature of the
choice of learning content and from the process used in
making that choice. In pedagogy, the teacher decides both
the content ("what will be learned") and assumes respon-
sibility for the process of choosing "how and when the
learning will take place". In andragogy, the grouping
of learners is brought about in direct relation to the
individual interests and learning needs identified by
the learners; the learners decide what they need to learn
based on their own perception of their needs in their
social situation. The andragogue acts as a resource per-
son to facilitate the process by forming interest groups
and helping the learners diagnose their learning needs.

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Learners are grouped
by grade and class

Learners group themselves
according to interests and
needs
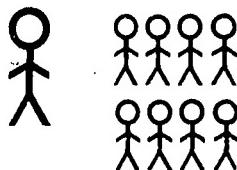
Pedagogue makes decision
for the Learners
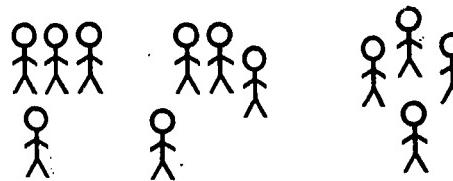
Andragogue helps adults to
decide for themselves

Time Perspective and Orientation to Learning: We are used
to thinking of education in terms of "preparation for the
future" rather than "doing in the present". When we were
children, we were involved in the educational process of
storing up information for use on some far-off day, follow-
ing graduation. Our teachers presented us with information
neatly packaged into subjects that we could unwrap as
needed on our journey through life and graduation seemed
to be a sort of ceremonial "rite of passage" from the
learning world into the "doing world". There was a
strong implication that the learning world was left behind.
But I think I agree with Confucius that all living is
learning ("I do and I understand"). I believe that learning
is not only preparation for living, but the very essence
of living itself. When I am actively thinking, doing,
reflecting on my experience, discussing it with others,
practicing and learning new skills for improvement and
using them, I am using all of my abilities as a human
person.

In andragogical education, then, learning is "problem
centered" rather than "subject centered". Andragogy is a
process for problem finding and problem solving in the
present; it is the discovery of an improvable situation,
a desired goal, a corrective experience, or a developmental
possibility in relation to the reality of the present
situation. To discover "where we are now" and "where we
want to go" is the heart of the andragogical approach and
to education. When coupled with the process of evaluation,
"where have we been" and "where are we now", we can achieve
a positive orientation to action within a realistic frame-
work of possibility.

Curator of the Knowledge
of the past

Problem finding/problem
solving teams
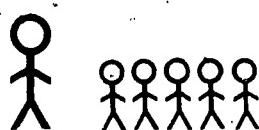
Grouping and classifying
information into subjects
to be studied now for use
"someday"

Working on today's problem
today

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An Emerging Technology for Adult Learning

How did andragogy begin? Where did the name come from?
Has anyone heard of it outside the United States? These ques-
tions are examples of those frequently asked by people first
exposed to andragogical education or training.

The name Andragogy (or Andragology) derives from a com-
bination of the classical Greek noun "agoge" (the activity of
leading) with the stem "andr" (adult). Andragogy is thus
defined as the art and science of leading adult learning (or
helping adults learn). The word was first used by a German
grammar school teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833, to describe
the education theory of the Greek philosopher, Plato. Kapp
distinguished Andragogy from Social Pedagogy (basic remedial
education for disadvantaged or handicapped adults) referring
to Andragogy as the normal and natural process of continuing
education for adults.

The development of Andragogy seems to have been much
more rapid in Europe than in the United States. In the Nether-
lands, there are at present seven major universities granting
degrees with Andragogy as the major specialization. A similar
development has occured in Germany, Poland, Hungary, and in
particular, Yugoslavia, where several universities are offering
programs leading to the doctorate. Andragogy is becoming known
in France, England, and in South America. Professor Malcolm
Knowles of Boston University introduced Andragogy to the United
States and is internationally recognized for his creative devel-
opmental work in this new field (Van Enckevort-1971).

While Andragogy has been emerging as a new educational
process for adults, additional related discoveries have been
and are being made in the fields of management science and
organizational development and also in the fields of counseling,
psychotherapy and social psychology. (See Chapters 7 and 8 of
this Guide). Andragogy is the unifying educational process that
can help adults discover and use the findings of these related
fields in social settings and educational situations to stimu-
late the growth and health of individuals, organizations, and
communities.

In fact, the European andragogues consider "social case
work, counselling, resocialization processes, social group
work, adult education, personnel management, community organ-
ization, and community development, etc." (Van Enckevort-1971)
to all be parts of applied andragogy. Andragogy is seen in
this sense to be the "process" through which the differing
"content" of the above mentioned fields or activities can be
learned and applied.

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The Andragogical Process

The development, organization, and administration of programs in applied andragogy involve continuous circular application of the following seven steps. These seven steps are:

    * Setting a climate for learning
    * Establishing a structure for mutual planning
    * Assessing interests, needs and values
    * Formulating objectives
    * Designing learning activities
    * Implementing learning activities
    * Evaluating results (reassessing needs, interests and values)

The seven step process of andragogy can be graphically described in terms compatible with general systems theory. Andragogy may be viewed as a human systems model or as a "feed-back loop". It is in this sense that it can be considered to be a continuous development process for adult learning.

Organization	Input	Activity	Output
1. A climate for learning	3. Needs, inter-ests, and values of participants	4. Formulating objectives	7. Shared evalua-tion of results.
2. A structure for mutual planning		5. Designing	Leading to a re-assesment of needs
		6. Implemen-tation	
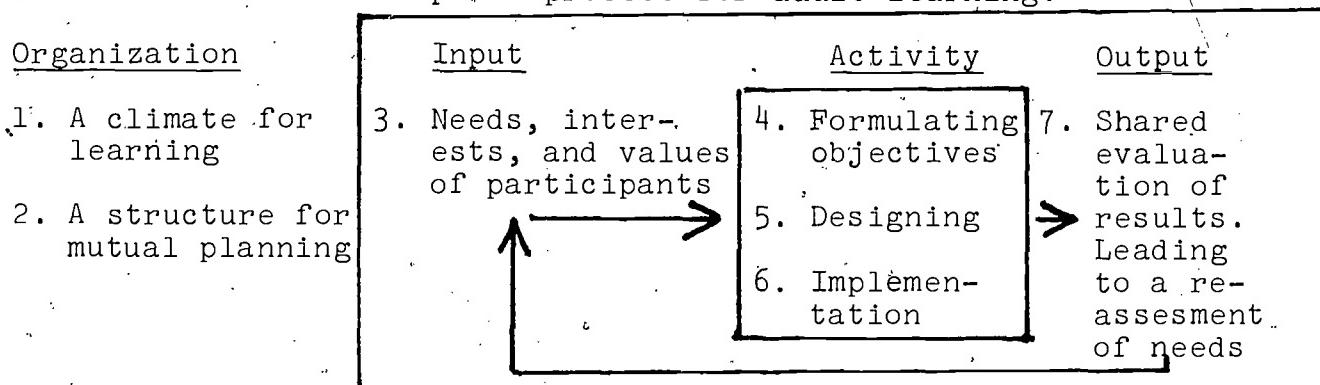
The primary function of the teacher (or trainer) in an androgogical activity is that of managing or facilitating the andragogical process itself, rather than managing the "content" of the learning as in traditional pedagogy. The content of andragogical learning can thus be highly variable, based on the resources and interests of the learners and the needs of the institutions and organizations of which they are a part.

Andragogy meets the conditions for continuing educational activity for adults:

    * It is a way to learn directly from our experience
    * It is a process of re-education that can reduce social conflicts through interpersonal activity in learning groups
    * It is a process of self-learning from which we can continuously develop our own learning ability

In the next chapter we will explore in detail the organiza-tional issues of climate setting and building a structure for mutual planning.

CHAPTER 2:

CREATING AN ENVIRONMENT FOR ADULT LEARNING

General Purpose:

This chapter has been designed to introduce the first two steps of the andragogical process:

* Setting a climate for learning
* Establishing a structure for mutual planning

The chapter will explore the importance of the learning environment and will discuss "learning climate" from three perspectives: the physical (or biological), the human (or interpersonal), and the organizational (or interactive).

The section on establishing a structure for mutual planning is an outgrowth of the concept of climate setting and a shift from a focus on the individual to a concern for developing team effectiveness and creating a climate for learning within working or training groups. This chapter serves as an introduction to a more complete development in Chapter 7 on Education and Management, where these factors will be viewed from the standpoint of building organizational support systems for training programs. The chapter continues with some practical suggestions about ways in which to create a climate for learning and concludes with a handy climate setting check list.

Setting a Climate for Learning

What is a learning environment? If we agree with the idea that all human experience can convey learning ("I do and I understand"), then we may conclude that all environments in which humans live and interact are potential environments for learning. Certain environmental factors seem, however, to either facilitate or be disruptive of adult learning activities. All kinds of messages are constantly being communicated from the physical, human and organizational environments in which we live and work, and most of us have become quite adept at picking up and decoding messages that may be expressed verbally or non-verbally. A name that has been used to describe this web or network of messages and meanings is "climate". The term began to be used, I imagine, as an attempt to describe what it feels like to be and work in a particular group or organization. Organizational climates can vary considerably from being warm, informal and stimulating to being stuffy, formal and dull. While it is difficult to pick up and identify all of the elements or messages that contribute to how we feel about the climate in a particular environment, we cannot deny our feelings; they are real to us and they affect

our behavior. It is possible to assess organization climate
when the subjective feelings of a large or significant percen-
tage of an organization's population are gathered and the data
is recorded and analyzed systematically.

It is fairly obvious that learning can be stimulated or
blocked by poor climate. Physical discomfort, frustration,
anxiety, apathy and indifference all have a negative effect on
the learning process while excitement, joy, enthusiasm, humor
and comfort, etc., all seem to facilitate it.

The key issue for climate setting, in my opinion, lies in
recognizing the value of persons in an organization. If adults
are not recognized as self-directing and autonomous persons and
if they are not allowed to function as adults, the resultant
negative behaviors will most likely have a harmful affect on the
learning or working climate.

The following sections discuss some ways in which adult
learning environments can be developed:

The Physical Surroundings - I think the most important
thing that can be said about the physical surroundings
for adult learning activities is that they be comfortable.
All of us have physical limitations placed on us by
nature. If the chair is too hard, if the room is too hot,
if I can't hear well enough, I am not likely to be fully
attentive and involved in whatever learning activity is
taking place.

In addition to the physical surroundings of the training
session itself, there are two related physical concerns
that are worthy of mention. One involves the movement of
trainees or learners from their homes to the meeting site.
If directions are not clear and accurate, if parking is
very difficult, or if the traveling is hazardous, the
resulting frustrations may have to be dealt with before
learning can begin. The other concern has to do with
helping participants to get acquainted easily. Name tags
or name cards help. If they are large enough, the trainer
or meeting leader can identify people by name, which is
certainly more desirable than the impersonal feeling that
develops when most everyone remains anonymous.

Human and Interpersonal Relations - An important concern
in this area of climate setting is to create as comfortable
a psychological environment as possible. When people come
to evening learning activities, they bring with them all
of the tensions and anxieties of their day's experience.
It is necessary to help people to "situate themselves" or
get into the mood for a meeting. Setting climate for a

morning training activity is different and in many ways easier than climate setting for night meetings; people generally seem more relaxed at this time. But whether it is morning or evening, the psychological climate for learning must be developed in relation to how people are feeling. Oftentimes, the prevailing mood can be sensed and acted upon spontaneously.

Later chapters will go into detail on some of the deeper psychological issues of interpersonal and inter-group relations. Here we may simply recognize that most people bring to meetings with other adults some feelings of anxiety and uncertainty; they need time to become acquainted with those who are sitting near them and to have some experiences of accepting others and being accepted by them. These are the reasons why "warm up" activities, which often take the form of short games or fun experiences, are helpful in setting climate; they tend to create laughter and dispel anxiety; they tend to assist people toward forming a cooperative frame of mind.

Organizational Setting - Organizational climate can be looked at from two perspectives for the purposes of this section. First, from the perspective of the organization of any particular adult learning or training activity, and, second, in a more general sense, from the perspective of the overall organizational, institutional, community setting within whose jurisdiction the training activity is taking place. Let us consider the more limited aspect first.

If it is true that climate is a subjective awareness of the total situation, organizational climate is communicated by every piece of publicity or advertising about a training or education activity. Memos, brochures, posters, bulletins, programs, agendas, and so on create impressions leading to the development of personal expectations. If your advertising stimulates interest and curiosity and invites active participation by all in a warm and friendly manner, climate "messages" are already being communicated to your organization. Obviously, it is then necessary to live up to those expectations by conducting meetings that will reinforce and add to those feelings.

A most important aspect of climate setting is the behavior of the leader or trainer. If he is enthusiastic, cheerful, and informal and if he behaves in an open and democratic way, he will automatically encourage others to behave in the same way and an adult environment will most likely ensue. In addition, every meeting or training session must have a design or a plan and it is facilitative of climate setting to involve the participants in choosing alternatives or options concerning the plan you present.

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Some Climate Setting Methods

Climate setting consists of the integration of three per-
spectives of the learning environment: the physical, the
human and the organizational.

Human and
Interpersonal
Relations

A LEARNING   Physical Surroundings   ENVIRONMENT

Organizational
Policy
and Structure
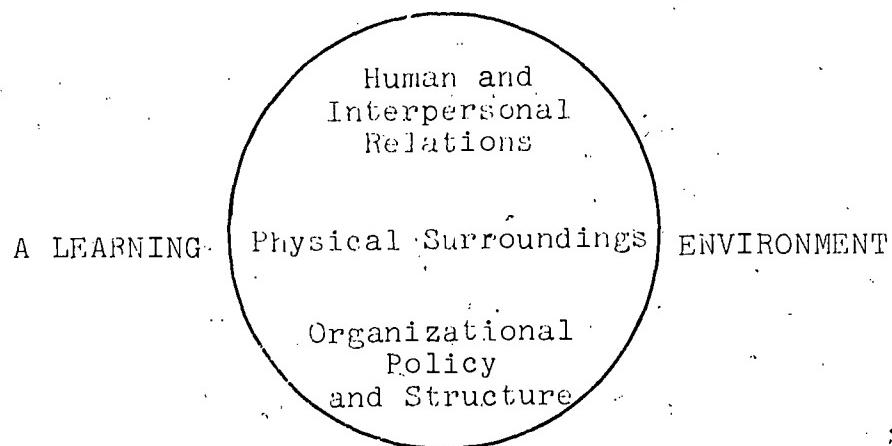
Human and Interpersonal Relations

Methods of climate setting with any group are designed to
overcome initial anxiety and social distance. One example of
a warm-up exercise that has been used effectively is to pick up
a familiar object such as a blackboard eraser, commenting on
how it is much the same now as it was when you went to school.
Ask the groups of people or participants to take fifteen minutes
or so in coming up with all the ideas they can think of to
redesign the eraser to improve its effectiveness. You will
probably be amazed at the number of creative ideas that are
generated in a short time. A friendly competition can be stim-
ulated between groups by comparing the number of new ideas from
each group. Once people have experienced sharing creative ideas
in a small group, it is easier for them to work on more serious
tasks in a similar way.

Warm up exercises can be developed around preparing name
tags: Provide multicolored paper and magic markers. Have
people design "creative" name tags by combining colors and
shapes. It is helpful to provide coffee during this time and
allow for socializing to occur naturally.

Another method is to have people divide into pairs to
tell each other why they came to the meeting and what they hope
to gain from it. Each pair then finds another pair to make
quartets and they repeat the process until groups of eight are
formed. These groups of eight can then become table groups for
the planned learning activity of the evening. There are dozens
of additional examples. Perhaps you may enjoy making up some
of your own.

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It is best not to take more than twenty to twenty-five minutes for warm-up exercises and less if the meeting is shorter than two hours. You will probably find time spent in this manner to be richly rewarding when it results in a training community that is relaxed and comfortable.

No matter how hard you work to create an enjoyable learning climate, all your efforts can be lost if you don't end your meetings on time. One helpful technique is to have a large poster that everyone can see that serves as a public "time keeper". An example would look something like this:

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                    MEETING AGENDA                       │
│                                                         │
│   7:30 P.M.            Meeting begins                   │
│                                                         │
│   7:30-8:00            Informal session-coffee, etc.    │
│                                                         │
│   8:00-8:20            Introductory exercise            │
│                                                         │
│   8:20-9:00            Group discussions                │
│                                                         │
│   9:00-9:30            Group reports                    │
│                                                         │
│   9:30-10:00           General session                  │
│                                                         │
│   10:00                Closing                          │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Topics can be listed in a very general way. What is important is that people get a sense of whether or not the meeting is on schedule and can share the responsibility for ending on time. If it is apparent that the meeting will run overtime, you can test for options such as: "We can either continue for an additional half-hour, or possibly agree to meet again next week.".

Often, it is valuable to plan a closing exercise that summarizes the work of the session and provides a basis for making decisions on the need for and time of another meeting.

Physical Surroundings

The keys to climate setting in the physical area are:

1. Comfort
2. Variety
3. Mobility
4. Sensory Accomodation

You may want to utilize the whole meeting room for climate setting by using posters or displays and by encouraging people to move around and change positions during the session. Plan for alternating periods of rest and work and periods of talk and silence, etc. It is also important to check the physical facilities carefully before a meeting to determine if lighting, acoustics, noise control, ventilation and temperature are adequate and to make sure that the physical facilities are adequate for comfort: coat racks, rest rooms, ash trays, parking , etc. If you use equipment (audio-visual aids), it is very satisfying when it works well and when "the operator knows how to operate.". While these are all common sense items, overlooking them implies a lack of caring that can have a negative effect on the climate for learning.

Organizational Policy and Structure

It is important to be working within a clearly stated policy framework. Failure to do so can lead to embarrassing questions being raised in public if your program seems to violate organizational norms in some way or other. Needless to say, these kinds of questions are climate destroyers. When the purpose of your training activity is clearly spelled out, advertised in advance, and restated at the beginning of the meeting, this kind of disruption can be avoided.

Formation of a planning and design committee is also important and worthwhile. Committees can subdivide to perform necessary tasks such as: registration, preparing refreshments, setting up physical facilities, preparing advertising and posters, etc. Planning group members can also function as discussion or group leaders when the format requires .

The question of budgeting raises another vital issue. Interesting programs cost money. Learning aids, posters, advertising, and so on are all expensive. If you make sure that you have a sufficient budget to be able to maintain a consistency of design and application throughout your entire program, you will live up to expectations. A program that starts off with a lot of colorful activities and winds up as a lecture series because of a lack of funds is not very impressive or satisfactory.

Another elemental part of planning a learning activity is to foster an inquiry into the nature of the organization you and your committee are serving and that organization's needs. How does the organization function? How does it get its work done? Who grants permission for various activities? Is the education plan you are designing consistent with the goals of the organization and seen to be consistent by those in authority? Is the planning group for your educational activity representative and inclusive of different (and possibly competing) interest groups and/or departments?

One aspect of planning an adult education activity in an organizational setting deserves some special attention. The planning activity seems to work best (as has been suggested before) if it is conducted as a miniature process model of the activity being planned. That is to say, when the planning activity itself follows the same process of climate setting, mutual planning, need diagnosis, formulating objectives, designing and implementing activities and evaluation as mentioned in Chapter One, planning seems to move faster and more smoothly. Prior to the "planning meeting", it is also most often desirable to plan for the "planning meeting" by questioning the need for the inclusion of various persons as planners and for deciding what is to be planned. During this step, the same andragogical process can be followed. Thus, it is possible to telescope this process backwards as far as is practically necessary to ensure the inclusion and integration of all individual and organizational needs and requirements.

A word must be said about the relative degree of formality in the organizational setting. Andragogy seems to work best in an informal setting. If the informality of the education program is widely variant from known organizational norms, an incongruity is likely to develop that inhibits educational effectiveness and organizational acceptance. This issue can be often resolved by recognizing the realities of the situation and working with them to foster an appreciation for and acceptance of more informality on a gradual basis.

A Climate Setting Check List

Physical Surroundings	Human and Interpersonal Relations	Organizational
Space	Welcoming	Policy
Lighting	Comfort Setting	Structure
Acoustics/Outside	Informality	Clientel
Noise	Warm-up Exercise	Policy & Structure
Decor	Democratic Leadership	Committee
Temperature	Interpersonal Relations	Meeting Announce-
Ventilation	Handling VIP's	ments
Seating: Comfort/	Mutual Planning	Informational
Position	Assessing Needs	Literature
Seating arrangements/	Formulating Objectives	Program Theme
Grouping/Mobility/	Designing and Implement-	Advertising
Rest/Change	ing Activities	Posters, Displays
Refreshments	Evaluating	Exhibits
Writing Materials	Closing Exercise	Budget and
Ash Trays	Close On Time (Option	Finance
Rest Rooms	to Stay)	Publish Agenda
Audio-Visual Aids		and Closing Time
Coat Racks		Frequency of
Parking		Scheduling Meetings
Traffic Directions		
Name Tags or Cards		
Records/Addresses, etc.		

The above lists include many of the more important items of consideration in developing a climate conducive to adult learning. The list is by no means exhaustive nor do we believe it to be complete (you will probably be able to add several additional items from your own experience.). You might wish to use a list like this much like an airline pilot does before "takeoff". To lift your "wheels" before you leave the "runway" can be very embarrassing. Many programs have experienced "crash landings" because of simple oversights that could have been avoided.

CHAPTER 3:

PROBLEM FINDING - THE IDENTIFICATION OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP NEEDS

General Purpose:

The purpose of this chapter is to conduct an enquiry into the process of problem finding which is seen as the location and identification of the needs of individuals and groups. While the primary setting for this enquiry is one of education and training, the process is considered to be generally applicable to almost any situation where individuals are involved in organized activities with others.

The chapter opens with a discussion of the relationship between basic needs, interests and values and shows how all three of these factors can be broadly defined as educational needs. Some methods for assessing needs are identified in the next section in which need assessment is presented as an essential prerequisite to formulating training objectives and designing learning activities for adults.

The competency model is considered next as application of need assessment to individual learning and as a motivational aid to personal development. The chapter closes with an analysis of the basic processes of group dynamics which present a special set of individual and group needs arising from interpersonal activity.

Needs, Interests and Values and Their Relation to Learning

In our haste to respond to the pressure of events and in our urgency to find solutions to our problems, it is easy to lose sight of the fact that it is more efficient to spend the time required to "find the question" before we seek an answer, and to thoroughly explore and "define the problem" before deciding on a solution.

Possibly one reason for rushing ahead can be found if we recognize that the pressure *of our own need* to find an answer or a solution may cause us to temporarily lose sight of the needs of others whose participation we are dependent on in helping us reach our goal. We can offset this momentary and periodic blindness if we "build in" a need assessment or problem finding process when we are involved in getting tasks accomplished with others.

Basic Needs - The late Abraham H. Maslow has provided us with a most helpful series of insights into the dynamics of

human motivation. He described motivation and its resultant
behavior as flowing from internal responses to the basic needs
of the human organism. This view was first presented by Kurt
Goldstein (1940) who's research proved that man was not motiva-
ted primarily by responses to external stimuli nor by conditioned
reflexes, but rather by the internal potentialities of his own
being and the need for these potentialities to be actualized by
the self. It was Goldstein who developed the concept of self-
actualization as man's fundamental and most important need.

Maslow recognized that there were a variety of basic human
needs and that they could be arranged in a hierarchy of relative
prepotency. This means that human needs could be visualized as
stacked in layers and that the higher needs were only potentially
present as motivators and could not be actualized unless the
need on the next level below was satisfied. The diagram may
be helpful in clarifying this point.

Each higher
need does not
become potent
as a motiva-
tor until
the next
lower need
is satis-
fied.

Need
for
self-
Actual-
ization

Ego and
Esteem
Needs

Love
Needs

Safety
Needs

Survival Needs
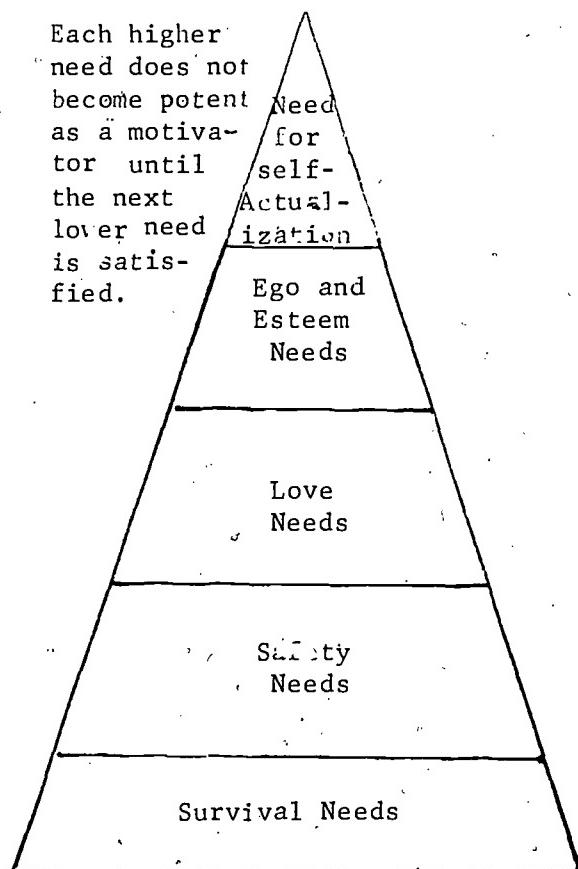
Examples

To do what you must do to become
fully yourself. To develop your own
individuality.

Respect and liking for self and
others. Strength competence;
Freedom and deserved fame.

Membership, Acceptance,
Belonging, Feeling loved and wanted.

Protection from physical or psycho-
logical threat. Fear and anxiety.
The need for order and structure.

Food, water, shelter, etc.

While all men strive toward self-actualization, this striv-
ing can be temporarily blocked by a lack of satisfaction of the
lower level needs. This theory explains why man can actively
pursue paths contrary to his own best interest. For example,
"stealing" to satisfy a safety or survival need can result in
"imprisonment", where the consequent loss of freedom becomes a
serious impediment to achieving satisfaction of love, ego and

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self-actualization needs. Another example can be found in cases where people so need the love and acceptance of others that they avoid the necessary constructive conflict required to build healthy interdependent relationships. This type of situation is frequently encountered in family counselling, where young adults experience real difficulty in "breaking away" from dependency on parents and where parents find "letting go" a real problem in their relationship with maturing children.

Maslow's need hierarchy contains two important implications concerning the education or training of adults. First, because learning has been considered in the past to be primarily a process of "transmitting" knowledge from teacher to student, the primary responsibility for the learning transaction has been placed on the teacher. "If the student hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught." is an often stated axiom of those who believe learning to be primarily an "external process". However, if all motivation is a result of internal need meeting and goal striving as Maslow indicates, then learning is internally motivated and the responsibility for learning lies within the learner.

Dr. Malcolm Knowles makes the following comment related to this issue:

"The important implication for adult-education practice of the fact that learning is an internal process is that those methods and techniques which involve the individual most deeply in self-directed inquiry will produce the greatest learning. This principle of ego-involvement lies at the heart of the adult educator's art. In fact, the main thrust of modern adult-educational technology is in the direction of inventing techniques for involving adults in ever-deeper processes of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning, in formulating their own objectives for learning, in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives. The truly artistic teacher of adults perceives the locus of responsibility for learning to be in the learner; he conscientiously suppresses his own compulsion to teach what he knows his students ought to learn in favor of helping his students learn for themselves what they want to learn." (Knowles, 1970, p. 51)

Secondly, the level of need satisfaction plays an important part in determining what learners will be motivated to learn. For example, a person who is experiencing a high level of psychological anxiety is likely to be motivated to want to learn anything that will help him resolve his problems "as he perceives them", but he will not be motivated toward developing his higher potentialities until he finds a "safer" environment.

While we all move up and down the Maslow motivation hierarchy depending on the circumstances of our present situation, we

tend to stabilize at a level of basic satisfaction. That is to
say, if our lower level and intermediate needs are quite fully
satisfied, we tend to be motivated more toward satisfaction of
the higher needs. Those people who have achieved consistent
satisfaction of all lower needs can be "freed" from them to
the point of being fully self-actualizing persons. The ultimate
goal of education and training may well be to find ways of
helping all persons to achieve self-actualization.

Interests - One way to look at the difference between
interests and needs is to consider needs as basic wants, desires,
tendencies or inclinations while interests can be expressed
more as liking or preference in the sense of stimulation, curio-
sity, or attracted attention. Needs are seen as more fundamental
to human motivation; interests tend to be more on the surface
or more peripheral. Nevertheless, they are closely related and
often operate in a simultaneous manner. Satisfying "esteem
needs" can be correlated, for example, with an interest in
becoming a good musician or dancer. Irving Lorge has developed
a helpful set of categories that can be useful in discovering
the interests that different people may have; Lorge calls his
categories "Incentives for Adult Learning." (Lorge, 1947)

People Want to Gain

1.	Health	8.	Comfort
2.	Time	9.	Leisure
3.	Money	10.	Pride of accomplishment
4.	Popularity	11.	Advancement; business,
5.	Improved appearance		social
6.	Security in old age	12.	Increased enjoyment
7.	Praise from others	13.	Self-confidence
		14.	Personal prestige

They Want to Be

1.	Good parents	6.	Influential over others
2.	Social, hospitable	7.	Gregarious
3.	Up to date	8.	Efficient
4.	Creative	9.	"First" in things
5.	Proud of their possessions	10.	Recognized as authorities

They Want to Do

1.	Express their personalities	5.	Appreciate beauty
2.	Resist domination by others	6.	Acquire or collect things
3.	Satisfy their curiosity	7.	Win others' affection
4.	Emulate the admirable	8.	Improve themselves generally

They Want to Save

1.	Time	5.	Worry
2.	Money	6.	Doubts
3.	Work	7.	Risks
4.	Discomfort	8.	Personal embarrassment

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It can be shown that interests vary widely according to individual differences and particularly with regard to social differences such as: race, religion, socio-economic level, educational achievement, culture and occupation. Rather than assuming what individual or group interests are, it may be more effective to develop a method for obtaining this information prior to, or at the beginning of, any adult education or training activity.

Values - If needs are basic wants, and interests are particular preferences, values indicate commitment to patterns of choice. When we speak of values, it is perhaps more helpful to look at the ways in which people choose values--"the process of valuing"--rather than trying to list a series of different values that persons may or may not have. Raths, Harmin and Simon (Raths, et al.1966) have developed seven criteria for clarifying values. They point out that if a person wishes to be really certain if he values something, he can apply these value criteria as a reality test. If any one criterion is missing, it can be said that the item is not truly valued.

The Seven Valuing Criteria*

1. "Choosing freely. If something is in fact to guide one's life whether or not authority is watching, it must be a result of free choice. If there is coercion, the result is not likely to stay with one for long, especially when out of the range of the source of that coercion."

2. "Choosing from among alternatives. This definition of values is concerned with things that are chosen by the individual and, obviously, there can be no choice if there are no alternatives from which to choose....Only when a choice is possible, when there is more than one alternative from which to choose, do we say a value can result."

3. "Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative. Only when the consequences of each of the alternatives are clearly understood can one make intelligent choices. A value can emerge only with thoughtful consideration of the range of the alternatives and consequences in a choice."

4. "Prizing and cherishing. When we value something, it has a positive tone. We prize it, cherish it, esteem it, respect it, hold it dear."

5. "Affirming. When we have chosen something freely, after consideration of the alternatives, and when we are proud of our choice, glad to be associated with it, we are likely to affirm that choice when asked about it. We are willing to publicly affirm our values."

6. "Acting upon choices. Where we have a value, it shows
   up in aspects of our living...In short, for a value to be
   present, life itself must be affected. Nothing can
   be a value that does not, in fact, give direction to
   actual living. The person who talks about something
   but never does anything about it is dealing with some-
   thing other than a value."

7. "Repeating. Where something reaches the stage of a
   value, it is very likely to reappear on a number of
   occasions in the life of the person who holds it. ...
   Values tend to have a persistency, tend to make a pattern
   in a life."

A systems diagram of value clarification would appear as
follows:

	Value Clarifying			
INPUT The question asks, "Is this a value for me?	Choice Freely accepting alternatives after carefully considering expected conse- suences.	Prize Enjoying and Pleasuring and being willing to affirm it publicly	Action Implementing the choice openly and repeating it continuously.	OUTPUT- The answer states this is or is not a value for me.

(Problem-finding -- Problem solving activity
for value clarification)

While our values do change as our life experience changes, we
can re-check them at any time by using this quick method of
clarification.

The above mentioned authors advance the notion that a great
deal of apathetic, flighty, uncertain or inconsistent behavior
stems directly from the lack of clear values. They believe that
drifters, overconformers, overdissenters, or *role players* are
all people lacking value clarity, and that value clarification
can achieve positive results in resolving behavior difficulties
of this type.

The relationship between value clarification and training
seems obvious. We are not likely to be committed to invest
energy in learning something that we do not really value. If
we are involved in the process of choosing our own learning

activity from alternatives, selecting, affirming and acting
on those things that we really value, we will be fully committed
and the result will tend to be highly successful.

Some Methods for Assessing Needs, Interests and Values

Because all of us have different learning needs and inter-
ests, and because we value things differently and possess differ-
ent levels of accomplishment or competence in carrying out our
various activities, we must take time to assess, pool, and sort
out alternative "pathways to learning" before we try to formulate
learning objectives or design specific learning activities for
others. There are a number of methods for discovering learning
paths, but before we describe them, it is important to mention
that organizations and communities, like individuals, also have
basic needs, particular interests, and professed values. In
addition, there are small group needs, interests and values,
operating and interacting within organizational settings. This
situation can be diagrammed in a series of circles. Individual
and group needs, interests and values weave into and fluctuate
through these circles in a constant dynamic process of inter-
action. The task of assessment, therefore, is one of linking
and clarifying individual and group needs within the general
framework of organizational or community needs.

Methods
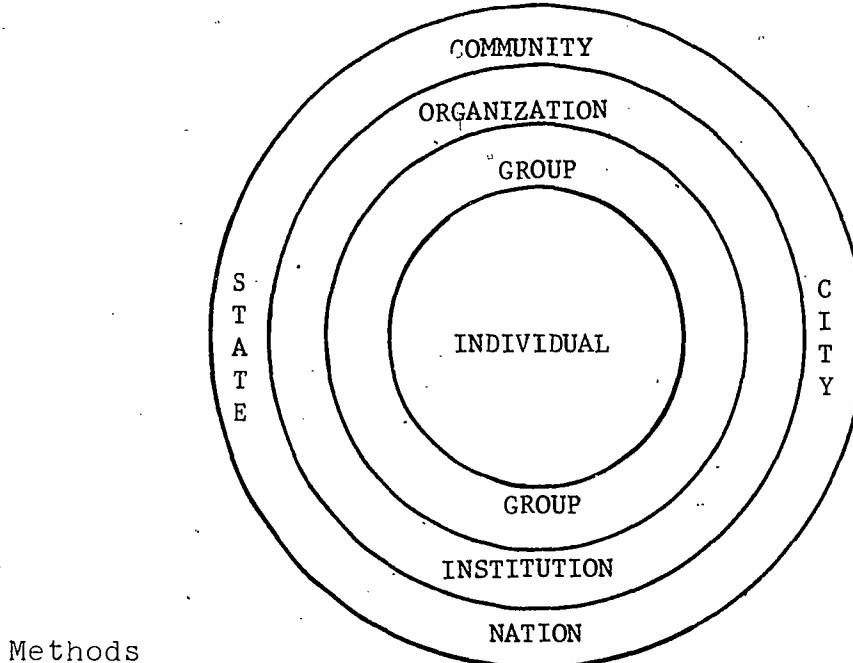
Individual Assessment - Most of us are quite used to having
others decide for us what we need to learn. This experience has
been so common that sometimes we need assistance in developing a
self-diagnostic attitude. Once adults experience the process of
assessing their own learning needs by building competency models
for self development, they seem to prefer this method to that of
having others decide their learning needs for them.

Group (Assessment) Discussion - Assessing learning needs in small groups in which the members help one another to clarify their individual needs and become resources for each others learning can be a valuable and satisfying experience. Particular satisfaction occurs when the members are aware of and use the helping behaviors and processes of group dynamics. One technique that can be employed with this method of need assessment is to collect group discussion data on newsprint. In this way, the group can "keep track" of its conversation and visually see the needs of others as well as their own when the newsprint is taped on the wall. This can be both reassuring and a help toward remembering the different inputs from group members.

Questionnaires and Surveys - Data gathering devices such as projective or sentence completion questionnaires, organizational or community surveys, are most helpful. With these methods, it is necessary to report the findings to the population surveyed and respond to the needs generated (including the need for answers to the questions generated in the process of individuals completing the survey or questionnaires). Failure to be candid and open with the data collected can generate a level of mistrust that may be difficult to overcome at the beginning of a training activity.

Systems Analysis - New methods of systems analysis or input/output analysis have been developed in recent years that are helpful tools in assessing needs. Organizations as functioning social systems can be analyzed according to systems criteria such as feedback flow, input/output relationship, and the relationship of systems and sub-systems.

Organizational or Community Records or Reports - Needs are often made apparent as a result of formal studies or research activities conducted by organizations. Operating records can often indicate trends or give clues to the existence of potential training needs.

Professional Literature - Often professional journals or articles raise questions or produce new insights that lead directly to an increased awareness of training needs. A review of professional literature can be most helpful in providing a deeper understanding of the needs of specialized fields or activities.

Resource Persons - Talking to experts in various activities is a useful way to gather additional information or to gain a different perspective about training needs. Expert consultants are generally current concerning new developments in the field that is their specialty, and their experience can be a valuable resource for the discovery of problem areas.

Interviews - Finally, interviews with resource people of all kinds; workers, managers, community residents, city officials, and professional people, etc., can be conducted to find out how people feel and why they feel the way they do. This information may be tabulated (if so, a patterned interview form will be helpful) or may be recorded in general trends or categories.

The above by no means constitutes an exhaustive list of methods for assessing needs and interests, but it should be help-ful as an indicator of various procedural approaches.

Once needs and interests have been gathered, it may be worthwhile to spend some time with value clarifying activities. Raths, Harmin and Simon offer some interesting and helpful techniques for eliciting value oriented responses from others. They call these clarifying responses and recommend that they be used as responses following statements expressing attitudes, aspirations, goals or purposes, interests, feelings, beliefs, problems, and so on. Some examples of clarifying questions or responses are:

* Is this something you prize?
* Are you glad about that?
* Is that very important to you?
* Did you consider any alternatives?
* Do you have any reasons for saying or doing that?
* Do you do this often?

Responses to these and other questions like them offer additional clues leading to further clarifying questions. Value clarifying is helpful as a method for deepening awareness of the precise nature of the educational needs of individuals.

The assessment of needs, interests and values requires a commitment to take *extra time* at the beginning of any program; time to discover *what individual differences and needs exist* insofar as the particular training program or activity is con-cerned. Getting acceptance from group members to take this time is often not easy. As has been said previously, we seem to have a tendency to rush ahead with program planning before adequately dealing with needs. A sense of pressure about deadlines, appre-hension about the vast quantity of work to be accomplished, fears about doing a poor or incomplete job, all press hard upon us. Assumptions may be present to the effect that people have to cooperate even if they are not in complete agreement, but the fact is they will tend not to, unless they feel committed to the programs goals and it is hard to obtain that commitment unless individual needs have been assessed effectively. Thus need assessment is seen as a basic prerequisite to formulating training objectives and designing learning activities.

Developing Competency Models

One of the most valuable techniques for discovering (and constantly rediscovering) learning needs is the competency model.

To build a competency model, it is necessary to decide first of all what the competency components are for successful or outstanding performance in a particular field or activity. When this is done, the next step is to determine your own present level of competence with regard to each of the competency components. Once this has been accomplished, the gaps between your present level of attainment and the required level become apparent. While this seems to be simple (and it is), there can be quite an impact when we clearly identify our own learning needs for the first time. The awareness of the gap between "what I can do" and "what I want to be able to do" produces a strong motivational pull to close the gap with all deliberate speed.

An example of this process can be demonstrated in looking at potential competency requirements for a position such as that of a purchasing manager in an industrial corporation. The required competencies might be the following:

Competence Factors

1. A knowledge of sources of products or materials or services required for successful corporate operations.

2. Knowledge of purchasing techniques and methods.

3. Familiarity with pricing structure, discounts, allowances, and quantity price breaks.

4. Awareness of delivery schedules and alternate shipping and transportation routes and methods.

5. Competence in lease/buy decision making and the negotiation of specific performance and delivery contracts.

6. Supervisory and managerial skills.

A study or task analysis of any position will yield its competency requirements. Once these have been obtained, a competency model can be built, based on the job incumbent's own subjective analysis of his relative competency or present level of attainment (see diagram).

Relative Competency Assessment Graph

Excellence	100
Competence	80
Adequacy	60
Inadequacy	40
Marginal Failure	20
Incompetence	0

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
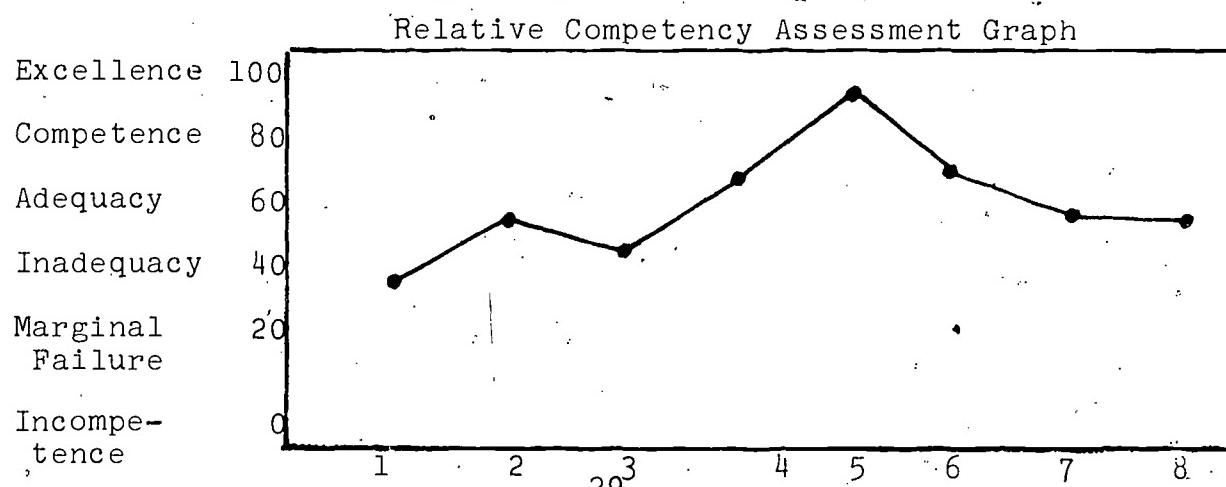
Interesting results are often obtained when a position incumbent and his supervisor or department head prepare relative competency assessment graphs independently of each other and then compare them for a mutual diagnosis of training and developmental needs. Such a combined graph may look something like this:

· Relative Competency Assessment Graph
(completed separately by supervisor and subordinate)

Excellence	100	
Competence	80	
Adequacy	60	
Inadequacy	40	
Marginal Failure	20	
Incompe- tence	0	Supervisor Assessment ---- Incumbent Assessment _____

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8
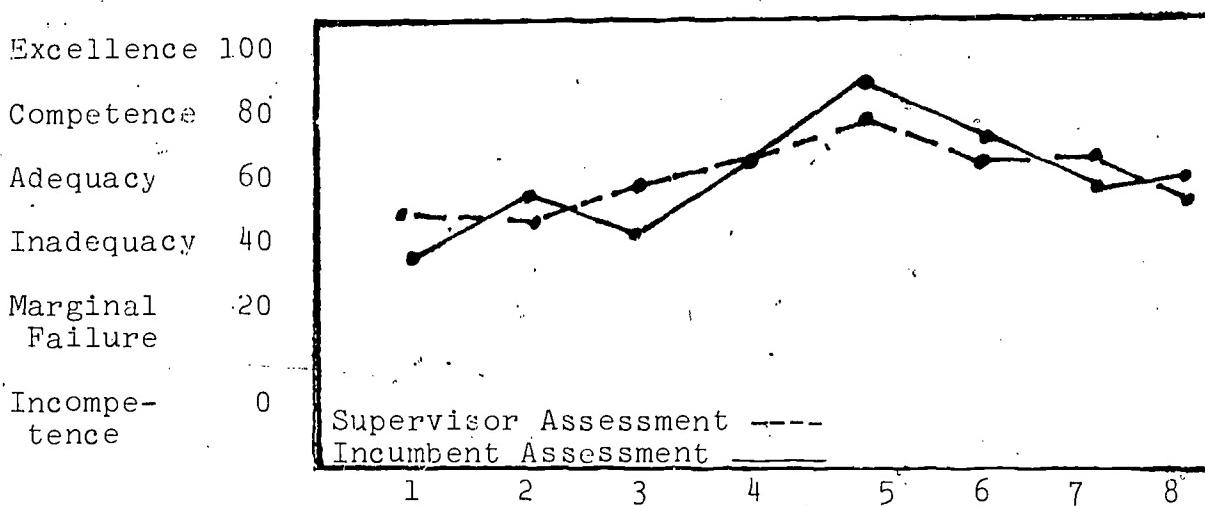
These comparisons can be useful when they are regarded as the *relative subjective perceptions* of those completing the forms. The graph is not intended to be evaluative but rather descriptive of the present level of competence or attainment and an indication of a recognized development or training need. It is helpful to avoid judgements that can produce defensive reactions and demotivation. Many programs that attempt to foster a commitment to goals and objectives get into difficulty when the goals turn out to be the supervisor's goals for the sub- ordinate's improvement rather than the subordinate's goals for his own improvement.

Utilizing competency models in organizations can produce the following effects:

1. A growth of self-diagnosis of training and development needs.

2. Self-directed planning of personal growth programs leading to greater internal commitment.

3. Increased feelings of psychological success rather than psychological failure.

4. Clarification of supervisor and subordinate percep- tions of attainment and competence.

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5. Improved bonus and compensation planning

6. An orientation toward a continuing cycle of growth
    and development with a focus on forward progress
    rather than judgement

An important consideration to be kept in mind in using
competency models is that of the relative time span for re-
assessments. If the job incumbent and his supervisor establish
a time frame of three months, the competency model can be re-
viewed at the end of that period to measure change or growth
that has occured in the interim.   During the time frame, the
incumbent must:

        First: - Assess his own learning needs
                 - Formulate his learning objectives
                 - Design specific learning activities for self-
                   development

        Second: - Implement learning activities during the time
                  frame

These four factors must be clearly spelled out prior to the evalu-
ation phase at the end of the time frame. If the above factors
are not specifically implemented, evaluation is not likely to
show any change or learning. If they are, evaluation can
become a re-diagnosis of learning needs at the next highest level
of competence or attainment. While supervisory involvement
in this process is not to be discouraged, it can be unhelpful
and hindering unless it is provided in a coaching-or counselling
fashion rather than in an authoritative or judgmental way.
Learning is not likely to occur unless a person is internally
motivated to learn and this motivation flows naturally from the
job incumbent's personal interest in the job and his own
personal development needs, interests and values. A comparison
of the competency model approach of andragogy with the peda-
gogical approach to competence in which the teacher decides
and judges the relative competence of the learner and removes
him from the decision-making process with regard to his own
learning, clearly shows fundamentally different beliefs about
motivation and learning between andragogy and pedagogy. While
we may all freely choose which approach we prefer in our own
practical applications in working with others, I have personally
found andragogy to be inherently more satisfying and rewarding.

Group Dynamics - Some Special Needs of Individuals and Groups

    During the past two decades, a great deal of research has
been conducted on the dynamics of interaction between indivi-
duals and groups. Today much more is known about the fundamental
properties or processes of interpersonal and intergroup actions.
These processes form the basic underlying principles or founda-

tion on which andragogical education is built. They are
related to andragogy in much the same way that gears, cylinders,
wheels, and drive shaft are related to an automobile or like
transistors, circuits, wires and tubes are related to a tele-
vision set. If andragogy can be viewed as a vehicle by which
adult education is conveyed, then the basic operating principles
of group dynamics might be thought of as key operating parts
of the vehicle or sub-processes of the whole. Schein (1969)
identifies six basic processes or issues in group dynamics.
They are:

* Communications
* Functional Roles of Group Members
* Problem-solving and Decision-making
* Group Norms and Growth
* Leadership and Authority
* Intergroup Processes

Awareness of these processes and their characteristics is
an important dimension of trainer competence. They will be
briefly treated in this section in an introductory fashion,
treated in more depth in the next chapter and in other parts of
Part I and given full treatment in an experiential setting during
the residential workshop phase of Part II of this guide.

Communications

There are a variety of communications processes both verbal
and non-verbal (gestures, body language, etc.). Some people
in groups seem to do most of the talking; others don't apparently
like to talk at all, but their presence is strongly felt just
the same. Some people speak directly to others, looking into
their eyes and others don't look at anyone directly; still
others seem to choose special communication links, i.e., they
seem to talk to the same few people all the time, either looking
to gain approval for their ideas or seeking a closer identifica-
tion with others.

Patterns of influence and respect can be observed in the
communications processes of groups. High status group members
seem to be allowed to get away with interrupting or cutting off
lower status members and sometimes members wait for one person
to speak on behalf of everyone. Then again, certain patterns
or chains of communication develop; for example, Charlie speaks
after Sam, who follows Susan, who follows Charlie. This pattern
may repeat itself several times and soon a small coalition may
develop that prevents others from getting into the conversation
at all. One of the consequences of an interrupting or blocking
type of communication pattern is the assumption often made by
some group members that organization is lacking. More power is
then sought for a chairman, who is able to control the group with
strong authority. Schein says, "This solution substitutes

external discipline for internal control. It misdiagnoses the problem as one of organization rather than recognizing it as a problem of lack of concern of the members for each other, resulting in insufficient listening." (Schein, 1969, P. 19) Understanding the reasons for communications and listening behaviors in groups and being able to facilitate improvement in group communication is a much needed skill.

Laboratory education can enable group members to become more aware of their communications and listening behaviors and be most helpful in developing greater group awareness and improved levels of interpersonal competence.

Functional Roles of Group Members

Research on groups has shown that members perform different roles and functions. Early in group life, membership questions such as "Who am I in this group?", and "Will this group allow me to express my opinions openly?" are critical issues. In response to these and other tensions, group members perform different functions in an attempt to get the group moving. Some become strong task leaders, others harmonizers and compromisers; still others seek to work out conflict with tough, tender, or logical responses. When groups resolve initial emotional issues of membership, greater freedom develops and more flexibility of roles becomes possible. These issues will also be examined experientially in Part II.

Group Problem Solving and Decision-Making

While this issue will be treated at more length in the next chapter, it is worth mentioning that the value of groups as decision making bodies is a highly controversial question. The idea that "a camel is a horse put together by a committee" strikes a familiar note with anyone who has spent long and frustrating hours in an ineffective group. Groups can also develop the syndrome known as "Groupthink" (Janis, 1971), which can lead to a serious lack of critical thinking and over-conformity. On the other hand, groups have been shown to be highly effective and capable of consistently reaching better decisions than those reached by individuals working alone or by ineffective groups. There is considerable evidence available now to permit the conclusion that groups can be highly effective in decision making if the members understand and acquire the behaviors necessary to support effective decision making activity.

Group Norms and Group Growths

It is now clear that groups go through processes of growth and maturation much like individuals. Phases of group growth have been identified (Benne and Sheats - 1948) and (Schutz 1958), among others have developed models for looking at group maturation processes. Individual relationships of group members change

over periods of time, growing closer together as members handle conflict effectively, or farther apart if they don't. Norms are formed by groups and function much like traffic signs and signals. Censure results when these norms are violated. There are a number of dimensions for measuring the maturation and growth of groups. These dimensions will be explored fully in Booklet B - Trainer Skills Options of Part II of this Guide.

Leadership and Authority

Some of the most perplexing difficulties experienced by groups revolve around questions of leadership and authority. Many of us assume that leadership is a characteristic of personality rather than an acquired or functional behavior. Perhaps we may also find it convenient to assign "charisma" to others as a way of avoiding responsibility of our own. In any event, some people seem to wish to lead, others would rather follow, but the fact remains, leadership and membership functions can be performed equally by all group members when they know what those behaviors are and gain some practice in using them.

Intergroup Processes

Interaction dynamics occurring between groups have been studied extensively and the processes of intergroup conflict and collaboration are becoming more clear (Blake and Mouton, 1951). An understanding of these issues is of critical importance for anyone who wishes to perform a helping or training role within an organizational setting. This factor of group dynamics will be treated more fully in Chapter 7 of Part One and in Booklet D of Part Two.

Developing greater interpersonal competence can become a life-time pursuit. It seems there is always more that we can learn to improve our relationships with others; but a giant step toward achieving competence in this area can be taken by becoming fully aware of and able to deal effectively with the six areas of group dynamics and interpersonal relations mentioned above.

* problem formulation
* generation of proposals for solution
* forecasting consequences
* action planning
* action steps
* evaluation of outcomes (leading back to a new definition
  of the problem)

These steps are logical enough when presented to a group
lacking an awareness of the process issues involved in developing
effective group action. Once a group has adopted the idea of
working with a decision making model, a skillful trainer can
introduce the other issues of group dynamics at various stages
along the way, or when the group experiences difficulty in
working through a particular step in the model itself.

The andragogical process model presented at the end of
Chapter One may now be seen as a decision-making model as well
as a design model for developing adult education activities.
One° difference between the andragogical model for decision
making and other models is the emphasis in andragogy on "climate
setting" and "developing a structure for mutual planning". These
two steps in the andragogical process combine to form an "organ-
izational approach" to decision making that proposes to involve
everyone in the decision making process if they are assumed to
have any part to play in carrying out the decisions that are
made.

Styles of Decision Making in Groups

Fundamentally immature groups have resolved the problem
of inability to make decisions in a number of easily recogniz-
able and characteristic ways. The term "fundamentally immature"
as used here is not intended as a negative evaluation, but
rather as a descriptive term to indicate the absence of group
growth and development. We would not expect a child, for
example, to make all the arrangements for a formal wedding cele-
bration. He would simply not have the necessary information;
he would not know how to behave in contacting a photographer,
an orchestra leader, a dressmaker and a caterer, and so on,
nor would he know how to work with the wedding party and keep
the bride and groom happy. It is the same with groups. If
the necessary information on decision making processes is also
lacking, the group can be said to be undeveloped or immature,
not in terms of the maturity of the group members, but with
regard to group processes. Interestingly, though, the absence
of mature group processes may lead otherwise mature adults to
act in immature ways when involved in groups whose decision-
making ability is undeveloped.

The ability to make group decisions in which all members
fully participate, are deeply committed to, and carry out

effectively, is an ideal state of affairs which leads directly
to a condition of psychological success with all of its con-
comitant feelings of exuberance, praise, optimism, joy and
excitement.

Unfortunately, most of us do not experience psychological
success in groups too frequently because the behavioral skills
necessary for effective decision making have been up to this
point largely lacking in our society. What we do frequently
experience are other styles of decision making which can lead
to various kinds of negative or less satisfying consequences.
Some of these other styles may be familiar.

The "plop" is a name given to a suggestion offered by a
person in a group situation which proposes a decision (or a
discussion leading to one) and is met by total silence or by
total disregard. "Plop" occurs when another group member changes
the subject by making a totally irrelevant comment or a coun-
ter suggestion.

Decision making by "self-authorization is experienced
when someone makes a statement and then promptly proceeds to
act on it without checking to see whether or not it has met
with approval or disapproval. For example, "I think we should
turn our attention to agenda item number seven next....Now
the first point to consider on this agenda is ....".

The "handclasp" is a name given to the phenomenon of two
or more members joining forces to decide the issue for other
group members: "Yes, Virginia, that insight really puts things
in perspective....So then, its decided, tomorrow we will begin.".

"Baiting" is another form of decision making by putting
pressure on other members to either agree or disagree: "No
one disagrees, do they?", or "Everyone agrees, don't they?".

"Authority rule decision making" can come about through
the prior existence of a power structure and the implication
that no time can be wasted with idle discussion (the idle
discussion being any issue the power group is opposed to or is
not interested in). Decisions made in this way often run into
trouble at the implementation stage, where a lack of commitment
is experienced.

"Decisions made by majority vote or polling", like decisions
by authority rule, are often found to be wanting when being put
into action. Approaches like, "Let's take a poll to see
where everyone stands." may seem to be democratic, but often
result in blocking the expression of minority opinions that
can contribute great value toward developing a creative solution.

A decision made by "unanimous consent" can also run the risk of being made during a rush of emotional fervor (accidentally neglecting to consider some important issues that will arise later to cause questions about the authenticity of the unanimous vote.)

The negative consequences that arise from the above forms of decision making are all associated with exclusion of group members from real involvement in the decision making process. When this occurs, the next result is to lose that member's commitment also. A way out of this dilemma can be found in developing the skills required to reach decisions through "consensus". Consensus allows for the searching out of objectives, with care being taken to try not to reach conclusions too rapidly, thus allowing all members to make commitments to the decision in their own way and to the extent that their abilities, needs and interests allow them.

Taking extra time with dissenting members can often produce valuable and unforseen opportunities for improving the solution or its application. Dissent need not be considered to be a sign of "ill will"; opposition greatly extends the range of possibilities if handled constructively.

One word of caution must be offered concerning decision aking by consensus--it is the danger of developing "groupthink". Janis (1971) points out the potential of cohesive ingroups to develop a dominant mode of "concurrence seeking" that passes for decision making by consensus. It is actually a counterfeit form because all members consciously or unconsciously suppress dissent, thus not reaching true consensus at all. There are eight main symptoms of groupthink, according to Janis, and all of them involve unwillingness to test assumptions against reality. The phenomena of groupthink again raises the question about the positive value of constructive conflict. It may be that our concern for maintaining discipline and order in organizations has so discouraged the expression of dissenting opinion that we must finally arrive at a choice between "groupthink" on the one hand or open rebellion on the other.

Identifying and Improving Problem Solving Abilities

What are the behaviors that are necessary for effective problem solving in groups and how can they be acquired? The answer to this question is not simple because while there are clearly definable behaviors that can easily be recognized as "helping" toward decision making, the mere fact of knowing what they are is not enough. Helpful decision making behaviors must be practiced to be learned and they must be used by nearly all group members for any group to become a mature

decision making body. It is probably for this reason that so many groups have difficulty. The chances that most of a group's members will have the requisite skills at any one time are somewhat remote, unless training activities have been conducted to facilitate the acquisition of these skills by a large proportion of the organization's personnel. While this type of training has not become prevalent as yet and might take considerable organizational time, the resulting improvement of efficiency and morale could be astonishing if it were employed on a large scale.

The helping behaviors required for effective decision-making have been divided into two groups; those that assist the group to complete its task and those that help the group maintain itself as a group.

Behaviors that help with task performance are called "Task Functions". They are: Initiating, Opinion Seeking, Opinion Giving, Information Seeking, Information Giving, Clarifying, Elaborating, Summarizing and Consensus Testing. These behaviors are more familiar and are seen more frequently than the "Maintenance Functions", which help determine the way in which group members work together. They are: Harmonizing, Compromising, Gatekeeping, Encouraging, Diagnosing, Standard Setting, Standard Testing, and Expressing Feelings.

Continuous opportunities will be provided in the workshop to practice these behaviors in group settings so that participants can experience the effects of their presence and absence.

Translating Needs Into Objectives - Moving from Problem Finding to Problem Solving

Translating group and individual needs, interests and values into educational and training objectives requires a high level of trainer skill and competence. This is often the most difficult step in implementing an andragogical design because the movement from needs to objectives always brings us to a "moment of truth". This is the time when the sincerity of authenticity of participant responses in the need assessment phase is strongly tested. When the moment arrives that calls for a positive commitment to action, it is often possible to observe signs of resistance, dependency, or withdrawal. When commitment is given at this stage, however, it can usually be counted on to involve dependable follow-through.

Dr. Malcolm Knowles (1970) has provided us with a helpful clarification of terminology for translating needs into objectives. He points out that there is much confusion surrounding terms like "aims", "purposes", "objectives", "goals", and "targets", etc., and he proposes the following standard definitions for program planning or the formation of objectives:

* General Purposes   -   The social and institutional
    (or aims)   goals of the program

* Program Objectives — The educational or operational
  (or targets or priorities)   outcomes toward which a total
                               program will be directed for a
                               prescribed period of time

* Learning Objectives — The specific behavioral outcomes
  (or activity objectives)   that an identifiable group of
                             individuals will be helped to
                             seek in a particular learning
                             activity (such as a course, a
                             meeting, or a workshop)

These clarifications can also be helpful in providing direction for group planning or objective setting activity. If decisions are made in regard to general purposes first, program objectives second, and learning objectives third, a planning group may avoid hours of confusion brought about when these issues are all mixed together.

A formula has been provided by Dr. Knowles to assist in translating needs into program objectives. It has three steps:

1. Organize the needs into a priority system and break them down into operational and educational categories:

   * Operational - discuss physical facilities, budgeting, recruitment of training staff, etc.--move toward practical decisions and acceptance of shared responsibility
   * Educational - list the educational needs and work toward consensus in decision making for formulating priorities.

2. Screen the needs through selected filters such as:

   * Institutional purposes and philosophy of education-- to meet organization and community needs and to avoid duplication of effort.
   * Feasibility - to ensure that the program can be operated with regard to time, cost, staffing constraints, etc.
   * The interests of individuals - to allow individuals to develop their own plans and to accomplish their own training needs.

3. Translate the surviving needs into program objectives and learning objectives:

   * Operational objectives - work toward practical decisions.
   * Educational objectives - work toward consensus.

In applying this formula, progress will be enhanced or hindered by the presence or absence of competent decision making behaviors in the planning group. Using newsprint to keep visual track. of group effort is useful. As decisions are made, they can be recorded and taped on the wall so everyone can get a sense of group progress and members can visually see evidence of their own participation, contribution, and involvement. In working through this formula with a learning community, the trainer will have many opportunities to suggest alternatives and options to enable all participants to enter the process in their own way and on their own terms. The diagram below (Knowles, 1970, p. 358) may serve as a valuable aid to the trainer in smoothing the transition from needs to objectives.

OPERATIONAL MODEL
STEPS IN DECISION MAKING MODEL

"Helping Behavior"	Steps	"Blocking Behavior"	Work Methods
Clarifying Summarizing Testing for Meaning	DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Ambiguity Over Generalizing Over Simplifying	Problem Census Buzz Groups Problem Stating
Informing Requesting Information Sharing Experience Collecting Opinions	GATHERING THE INFORMATION (ideas)	States attitudes too early Status Threat Size of Group Mixing Testing and Production	Buzz Groups Brainstorming Discussion
Reality Testing (Implications) Summarizing Harmonizing Clarification	IDENTIFY ALTERNATE SOLUTIONS	Lack of Experience Too hasty Decision Straw Voting Attaching Ideas to People	Discussion Role Playing Reality Testing
Summarizing Testing Consensus	DECISION MAKING	Voting Taking Sides Failure to Test Mixing Policy and Action Groups	Get Consensus Voting
Initiating Informing	ACTION IMPLEMENTING	Failure to Pin Responsibility Lack of Involve- ment No Mechanics Specified	Team Planning Committees Work Groups Individual Work

Preparation for Evaluation at This Stage

Once education and training objectives have been formulated, it is advisable to spend some additional group time in setting up evaluation criteria and methodology. There are three general tasks for education: to measure change in individual learning, in the learning of the group or organization, and in the learning of the general community that the organization serves.

A preferred approach to individual education in andragogy lies in utilization of the competency model for self-evaluation. Once objectives have been formulated, participants may wish to prepare models of their present level of competence and the "sought after" level in light of the objectives. Specific learning activities can then be designed with the idea of closing the gaps in the competency models thus produced.

Group evaluations can be prepared in a similar fashion. Members may wish to rate each other as well as themselves and a graph can be drawn showing composite group growth.

Community and organizational evaluation may be prepared by deciding which organizational factors are likely to be affected by the training program and then setting up an evaluation instrument that will measure those potential changes. More will be said about this technique in the section of Chapter 6 that deals with systems analysis and general systems theory.

If the above suggestions are followed, need assessment, objective setting and evaluation processes can all be linked together and joined with design and implementation activities to form a totally integrated learning process to which all participants are fully committed.

CHAPTER 5:

CREATIVE APPLICATION - DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

General Purpose:

Steps five and six of the andragogical framework, design and implementation, are viewed in this chapter as the *applications* phase of the process. Steps one through four can be seen as the *planning* stage, and step seven, evaluation, is visualized as the *reassessment and replanning* segment. The design implementation steps, taken together, are seen as a subsystem of the total system of andragogy; this means that all seven steps of the process are to be repeated again within these two steps. Chapter 5 begins with an opening section on designing educational and training activities for adults. This section is followed with a discussion on the formulation of design teams for translating objectives into educational designs and is followed by suggestions of some artistic approaches that can be used in designing creative learning experiences. The next session considers various formats for learning and relates them to teaching devices and training skills. The chapter closes with a section on implementing adult education and training programs.

Designing Educational Activities for Adults

In our practice as trainers or educators of adults, we can become so accustomed to thinking about what "others need to learn" and so used to being concerned about "our responsibility for getting across what we have to teach", that it is quite easy for us to forget that adult learning is essentially an internal process. As adults, we tend to learn only what we want to learn and we want to learn only in response to our own needs, interests and values.

In designing education activities for adults, it is helpful if we avoid an inclination to design the "content" of someone else's learning and concentrate instead on using our training skills to assist others in achieving their own learning goals. When we do this, we are more likely to be seen as a helping resource by the learning community rather than as a teacher. In this way, our help is likely to be sought more frequently. It may seem that "resisting the urge to teach" may be avoiding responsibility for training, but I like to think of this approach as one of allowing others to accept more responsibility for their own learning.

The Trainer's Responsibility

To summarize briefly from Chapter 1, adults seem to learn best when they recognize themselves and are recognized by

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problem solving processes, educational activity can be said to be occurring simultaneously with group task accomplishment. Andragogy is thus applicable to all group activity as a method of facilitating group process no matter what the group's task may be.

The Teaching/Learning Team

Teaching/learning teams can be formed for two different purposes; either as a design team to prepare an educational or training program, or as a group or subgroup in an actual learning design. In the latter case, members of the teaching/learning team work together to deepen their own knowledge in a particular area and to prepare a presentation for the rest of the learning community as a way of sharing their learning experience with others.

Once formed, a teaching/learning team immediately faces the task of dealing with the interpersonal and group issues that have been discussed at length in Chapters 3 and 4. Effective resolution of these issues paves the way for highly creative and productive group effort. As the teaching/ learning team establishes a learning climate, engages in mutual planning by assessing needs and formulating objectives, it moves toward its central task--that of designing a learning experience or activity. It is in this sense that a teaching/learning team engaged in designing a learning program includes all seven steps of the andragogical process within the design step itself. In a way, this is reminiscent of the device sometimes used in dramatic art: "a play within a play". Design team activity also involves preparing a "process design" to facilitate learning by others. A diagram may clarify this point:

Input	Activity	Output
A teaching/learning team forms to design an adult learning activity	The team uses the andragogical process as it works on the design task	The team produces a process design for an adult learning program

Input	Activity	Output
A learning community of adults is formed to	The learning community follows the	A learning experience utilizing
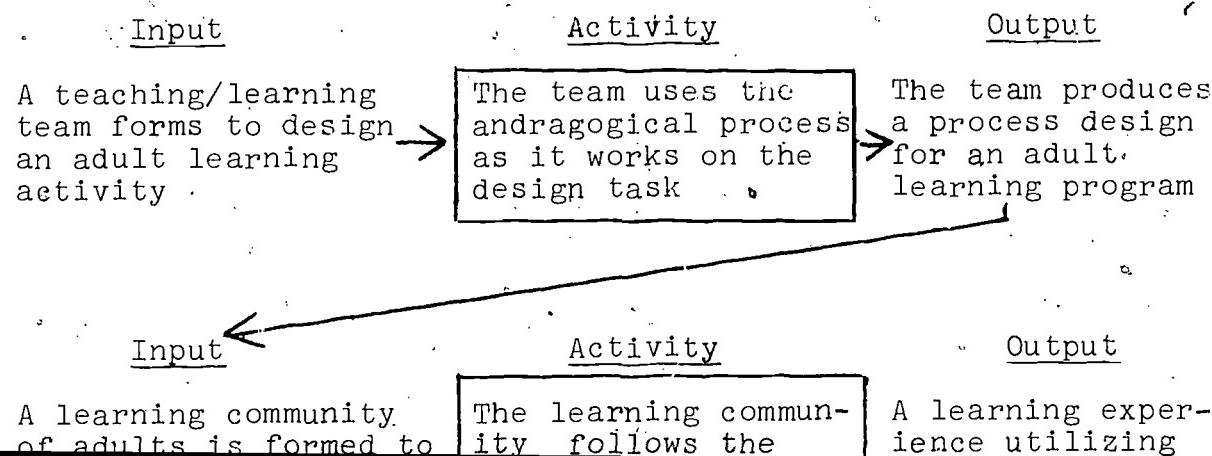
The above diagram attempts to illustrate a difficult con-
cept. If, for example, the design team follows the andra-
gogical process while working as a design team but prepares
an educational program to "teach" something, the team can
be said to be following an andragogical process to prepare
a pedagogical exercise. If, on the other hand, the design
team follows the andragogical process as it works together
and, in addition, prepares an andragogical "process design"
for the learning community, the community members will be
helped to accept responsibility for their own learning and
for finding and solving their own problems. While this
approach may stimulate some "dislocation" at first, persis-
tence through the initial discomfort stage will result in
much greater adult involvement in learning and problem-
solving and a great reluctance to ever go back to the "old
way" of being taught by somebody else.

An Artistic Approach to Educational Design

To design adult learning experiences that are truly creative,
it may be helpful to borrow some ideas from the realm of art.
Once needs and objectives have been clarified, it is a real
challenge to combine them into a learning design that is artis-
tically and esthetically satisfying to the learners. Artistic
concerns that seem to have relevance for educational design can
be seen in the following diagram:

Artistic Form	Art Application	Education Application
Line	Direction and continu-ity	Planning activity, choices
Space	Length, width, depth, dimension and relation	Program dimensions and limits
Tone	Shading, emphasis, balance	Program emphasis, climate, orientation
Color	Hue, intensity, brightness, warmth, etc.	Energy level, enthusiasm, interest level
Texture	Feeling, web, material consistency	Program content, subject matter
Rhythm	Motion, Timing	Flow of events, pace liveliness.
Harmony	Relationship, balance, interconnec-tion	Group activity, inter-personal relations

Artistic Form	Art Application	Education Application
Variation	Repetition with change	Repeating learning experiences at success- ively deeper levels
Opposition	Diversity, contrast	Design elements juxtaposed. Comparing
Transition	Phasing, thematic development	Movement from one design component to another

There are an infinite number of combinations of the above elements. Forming educational activities into a cohesive, intel- igible and satisfying design is much preferrable to allowing them to be presented as a disconnected hodge-podge of events. Careful consideration of these artistic principles while designing, and practice in applying them to adult learning, can help you to develop your own artistic technique as an arranger and conductor of interesting and absorbing adult educational activities.

Formats, Devices and Skills for Group Learning

The term *format* as used in this Guide, refers to the ordering or grouping of learners in an educational setting. The term *devices* is used as a descriptive term for the many different educational techniques, methods and products (equipment) used in educational design. *Skills* refers to the capability of the trainer or educator in combining the various formats and devices into effective learning activities. The purpose of Part One of this section of the Guide is to simply list various formats and devices in an educational setting. There are many formats, devices and skills that a trainer may utilize, and combining them offers an almost unlimited range of options. The list below, while certainly incomplete, serves to illustrate the variety of options available:

Formats for Learning	Educational Devices	Trainer Skills
Individual Study	Books, Magazines	General Linguistic
Small Groups	Pictures	Ability in both
Meetings	Film 8mm or 16mm	Speaking and
Clubs	Slides	Writing
Action Projects	Tape Recording	Audio-Visual Equip-
Workshops	Records	ment Technique
Demonstrations	Film Strips	Group Process Skills
Conferences	Video-Recording	Graphic Arts Skills
Courses	Easel – Flip Chart	Educational Design
Trips and Tours	Flannel Board	Skills
Community Relations	Posters and Signs	Skills in Applied
Programs	Chalk or Cork Board	Andragogy
Large Meetings	Lectures	Skill in Lecturing

Formats for Learning	Educational Devices	Trainer Skills

Exhibits, Fairs,
  Festivals
Conventions
Traveling
	Laboratory Methods
	Process Groups
	Buzz Groups
	Brainstorming
	Simulation
	Games
	Role Play
	Non-Verbals
	Case Study
	Critical Incident
	Teaching/Learning
	  Teams
		Ability to arrange
		  and Conduct Meetings
		  and Conferences
		Community Action
		  Skills
		Organizational Develop-
		  ment Skills
		Process Consulting
		  Capability
		Management and
		  Administrative
		  Skill

The above list offers enough options for a lifetime of exploration and continuing development of capability. A trainer, then, need never consider himself competent or incompetent in an absolute sense, but rather as one who is on the way toward developing greater competence through continuous deepening of experience.

Some Suggestions for Application of Andragogical Programs

Experience indicates that there are certain training situations that will tend to prevent the successful application of andragogical education and training programs. The following suggestions are offered as a word of caution:

* When the andragogical presentation is a part of a larger program that is not andragogical .... incongruency may arise together with a conflict over roles and expectations.

* When program managers or directors are not thoroughly aware of andragogy and its aims and methods ..... various forms of resistance can develop, often due to misunderstanding of purposes, objectives and of educational and psychological theory.

* When andragogical ideas or approaches are presented to a planning committee or a group that are not andragogically oriented ...... misunderstanding is likely to develop.

* When there has been a prior pattern of organizational conflict, competition or confusion .... andragogy may be viewed as an attempt by one faction to gain advantage.

* When andragogy is thought of as an ideology rather than as a "process approach" to adult education, ... resistance can develop from those who don't wish to be indoctrinated. Andragogy is not a system of belief or doctrine; it is a way of working effectively with others.

The above problems are representative of concerns that need to be dealt with frankly and as openly as possible. When these situations are believed to exist, andragogy might be effectively introduced as an "experimental" approach where the outcomes can be reviewed for their potential usefulness.

Conducting or Implementing Adult Learning Activities.

This section briefly reviews the sixth step of the andragogical process. Effective program delivery depends almost entirely on the competent development of the other steps in the process.

There are two areas to touch on briefly in this section; operations and administration, taken together, is one; the trainer's role is the other.

Operations and Administration

The operational issues involve practical concerns for recruiting and training staff, for budgeting and finance, for preparation of and for management of facilities, for promotion and public relations, and for educational counselling or special assistance to individuals.

The Trainer's Role

In conducting andragogical meetings, the trainer's role is of crucial importance in developing a sense of enthusiasm, in being committed to the program design, in showing concern for the needs of program participants, and in sharing leadership with the design team. If the trainer behaves in an open, informal and democratic fashion, the implementation of any andragogical program will be enhanced.

CHAPTER 6:

EVALUATION - PROBLEM FINDING AS A RE-ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS

General Purpose:

The purpose of this chapter is to present the last step of the andragogical process not as an ending or as a completion point, but rather as the beginning of a new cycle of continuing discovery and development; a re-assessment of needs at the next level of attainment. This is the shortest chapter of the Guide because much of its material has already been presented in Chapter 3. The chapter presents two perspectives of evaluation: one from the standpoint of the individual, and the other from the standpoint of organizations. The chapter ends with a suggestion concerning the development of organizational competency models.

Some Varying Perspectives on Evaluation

As a decision cannot be said to have been effectively made until it is fully carried out, so too, an evaluation may not be considered as complete until it is shared with and accepted by all those being evaluated. The process of evaluation involves some fairly complex issues of group dynamics and inter-personal relations. It is one thing to make an evaluation; it is entirely another thing to transmit the evaluation information in a way that is acceptable and helpful.

In Chapter 1, we mentioned the fact that all of us have differing perceptions of reality, that these perceptions are *real* for us, and that whether or not they are correct or incorrect, we do *act* on them--they steer or direct our behavior. If we receive "evaluative" information from another person or group and this information does not match our perception of the situation, we will tend not to accept the information presented. For this reason, the subject of evaluation needs to be approached with caution.

Evaluation as a Re-assessment of Needs

It is probably worthwhile to first question the psychological impact of the term "evaluation". The term seems to imply judgement, criticism, or measurement; the process of applying value judgements to people and situations. We can relieve some of the tension in this term if we think of it more as a term to *describe* rather than *judge* the kinds of outcomes, conditions, problems, and situations that exist after an educational or training program has been planned, designed and implemented. Perhaps a term that would be closer to conveying the meaning intended would be "visualization, rather

than "evaluation". This term implies looking "at" and looking "ahead" simultaneously, rather than looking backward in the sense of exercising judgement. In reducing the psychological tension that emerges from judgmental behavior, we can approach the process of evaluation as an aid to personal growth and development in learning and with greater assurance that the learner will be able to receive evaluation data without becoming defensive.

Two primary purposes may be said to underlie all voluntary approaches to learning; first, the learner attempts to increase his awareness of the material being learned and also he makes an effort to improve his ability to "transfer" the learning, to be able to apply it to specific or concrete situations. Two tasks for successful evaluation then, might be to find ways of identifying increased awareness on the part of the learner and also to find evidence of improved "transferability". This approach revises the old pedagogical axiom, "If the student hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught." into a new positive axiom of andragogy, "If the learner has learned, he will be aware of his learning and be able to demonstrate it.". Evaluation, then, might be viewed as periodic attempts to look at increased awareness and improved capability.

Chapter 3 of this Guide and this chapter stand in a mutually supportive relationship to one another. Because andragogy is a "closed-loop" process, step 7 "feeds back" into step 3 to begin the cycle of learning again at the next level. This andragogical learning cycle may be repeated with great rapidity (it is possible to go through the entire seven steps in a one-to-two-hour design meeting.), or be prolonged over an extended period of time (for example, a training or development cycle lasting for a year or longer). Each time the cycle is completed, the desired effect is a widening and deepening of the learning experience of the participants. The cycle may also be thought of telescopically; that is to say that sub-learning cycles are often conducted within learning cycles. This concept is similar to that of a television picture of a man watching himself watching a television picture, in which he sees himself watching a television picture. The successive images eventually disappear into infinity. The andragogical cycle operates in the same fashion, with the learning becoming more defined and specialized or more generalized in scope, depending upon the educational design or the program plan. The evaluation stage, therefore, cannot be considered as the end of the process, but only as a point on an ever widening or ever diminishing circle. Everything that has been said in Chapter 3 concerning problem finding as an assessment of needs, interests, and values is also applicable to this chapter. Everything in this chapter on processes of evaluation are equally applicable to the assessment of needs and the problem finding process. Evaluation is need assessment and need assessment is evaluation.

Evaluation of Organizations

While caring for the needs of the individual in regard
to transmitting evaluative data in a non-threatening or non-
judgemental way, we must not lose sight of the needs of
organizations for information on program progress, efficiency of
operations, cost-effectiveness and manpower utilization.
Because of these needs, it is also worthwhile to view education
from the standpoint of measurement or testing.

Testing implies that some assumptions must be made about
norms. What is the desired state of affairs, the end product,
the goal desired, and how do we attain it? It would seem that
before these normative assumptions could be utili-
zed, they would have to be validated or checked to determine
if they were commonly shared by all those responsible for
guiding or leading an organization. In the process of validat-
ing organizational norms, the needs of the various organiza-
tional units would tend to surface. As these needs would most
likely indicate variances from the desired state of affairs, a
"learning or performance gap" would start to emerge and an
organizational competency model could then be prepared similar
to the model described in Chapter 3 for the measurement of
individual competency.

A diagram of an organizational competency model follows:

Organizational Competency Model
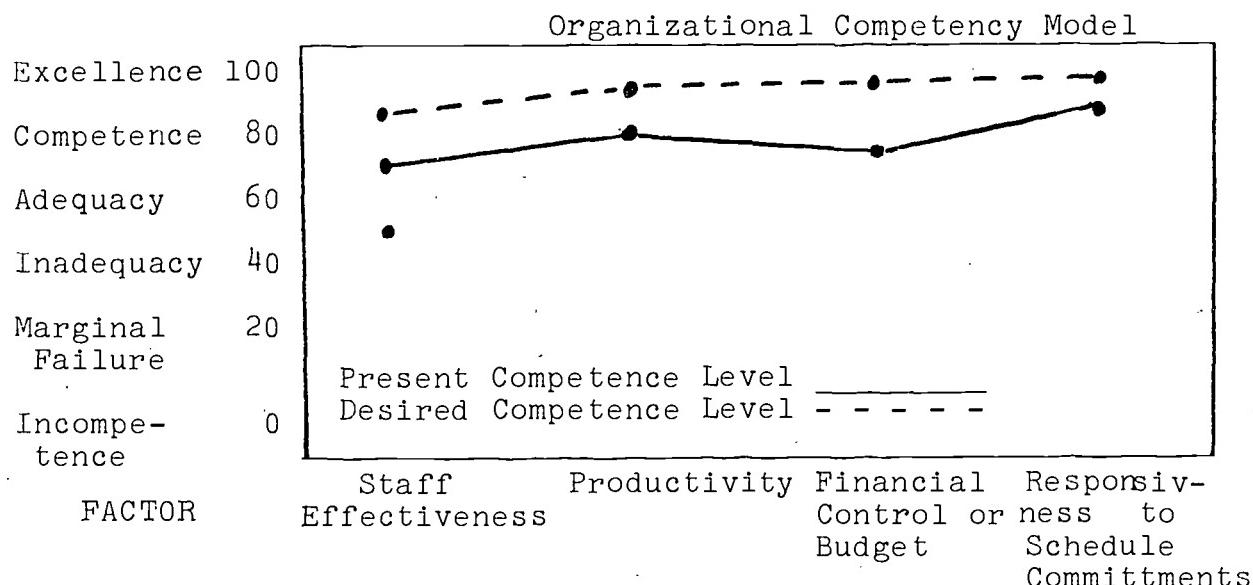
While specific criteria for measurement would have to be
agreed upon within an organization to make a competency model
of this type operational, the existence of attainable targets or
organizational goals that were clearly identified and related
integrally with individual and group needs (individual and group

competency models) would enable the organization to be much more responsive to its problem areas as it became clear that the lack of fulfillment of an individual's needs negatively affects the performance of the group to which he belongs and, in turn, places a burden on the organization in meeting its own needs and impedes closing the gap between the present and the desired state of affairs. The question, "What is required for this organization to be competent?" comes before the question, "What are the goals and objectives of this organization?". It is the failure to ask the prior question that causes many programs of management by objectives to get into difficulty. Setting objectives before assessing needs can be a highly frustrating process. Assessing needs first can lead to the formation of more realistic objectives.

CHAPTER 7:

EDUCATION AND MANAGEMENT .

General Purpose:

The general purpose of this chapter is to show the relation-
ship between education and training on the one hand and manage-
ment and administration on the other. Both fields can be
viewed as mutually supportive and interdependent. The first
section will develop the concept of scientific management and
show that the influence of science on the management process
has only just begun to be felt. This section will move on
to a discussion of the relationship between individuals and
organizations and the broader issue of motivation and organiza-
tional effectiveness (productivity). The next section will
deal with the application of andragogy to management and admin-
istration which builds logically into the development of
training support systems within organizations. The final section
questions the traditional role of the trainer andproposes a
new role--that of "process consultant" or "systems interven-
tionist".

Education and Management

Education and management have a long-standing and recipro-
cal relationship. From the early days of the industrial revo-
lution, new skills had to be learned and new methods developed
to meet the needs of the new technology. The old forms of
classical education gradually gave way to make room for the
new polytechnical education, which was seen by many to be more
valuable in terms of task accomplishment and practical applica-
tion. As education and science changed the nature of manage-
ment and industrial output, the development of industry and
the proliferation of new fields of endeavor has brought about
major changes in education as it has responded to the task of
preparing professionals for new fields. Government, too, has
played a major role in developing education and management
through the use of Federal and state funds to support univer-
sities and to sponsor large scale research and development
projects. Perhaps the greatest change, though, has been pre-
pared through the deep probing of scientific enquiry and
research into the nature of the learning process and also into
the psychology of management.

In the first chapter, general systems theory was mentioned
in relation to education. Systems theory is the hallmark of the
new electronic age; the age of linear and repetitive mechanical
operations is over. (We do not mean to imply that "mass pro-
duction" and its associated mechanical operations are no longer
important--it is simply that they are no longer

"where the action is".). As a result of the development of
systems theory, management itself is undergoing a major tech-
nological revolution. The problem today may well be that
most managers may not yet be aware of the implications of this
change and may still be operating on the assumptions that were
valid in the era just ended. These assumptions, if allowed to
go unchallenged, can cause great inefficiency. For example,
the introduction of computer technology (itself a result of
general systems theory) into industry, has produced a vast
change in our economy, producing billions of dollars of addi-
tional capital. Unfortunately, billions more dollars have been
wasted due to the failure of management and education to pro-
vide an effective means for integrating their "people systems"
or human power with "computer systems" or computer power. The
resulting inefficiency has caused large scale dislocation and
losses in many companies.

Scientific Management and Human Relations

Frederick W. Taylor stands out as a leader of the
school of scientific management. Taylor and the "effic-
iency experts" of his day made significant contributions
in applying scientific methods to increase production.
An unfortunate by-product of this approach, however, was
the resulting neglect of the importance, dignity and
freedom of the individual. This neglect was probably
unintended, but two consequences followed: the rise of
labor organizations and the development of a professional
and scientific approach to the study of human relations.
The studies, conducted from 1927-32 at the Western Electric
Company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago, proved that human
relations factors did play an important part in determining
levels of productivity (Gellerman - 1963). In the years
that followed, competition developed between those who
favored the "hard" scientific approach of Taylor, Gannt
and others and those who favored the "soft" human relations
approach advocated by Douglas McGregor (1960), Rensis
Likert (1961), and Frederick Herzberg (1959). Actually,
the distinction between "hard" and "soft" represented more
the way these groups perceived each other than the reality
of the situation. The human relations approach, after
examination, does not appear to be soft, nor is the scien-
tific approach necessarily hard or "calloused".

The Need for an Applications Model

The problems that existed between these two differ-
ent approaches to management is just now beginning to be
resolved. The scientific management approaches to industry
of the first half of this century were not invalid or
incorrect--they were simply not scientific enough. In
dealing only with mechanistic principles (mechanics and
physics) and neglecting the extremely important scientific

findings of biology and medicine (including psychology), they did not deal effectively with the integration of living systems (people) with mechanical systems (machines) and, as a result, the "scientific managers" got into serious difficulty in terms of production loss, strikes, and the stimulation of general public disfavor. It is no accident of history that this period produced an abundance of "protective" legislation for both worker and consumer alike.

The human relations advocates, on the other hand, have been plagued with the problem of application. Many managers are in general agreement with human relations theory, but it is often seen to be exceedingly difficult to apply, hence "impractical". Here again, the problem seems to be that the scientific approach to human relations has not been scientific enough--a working model for applying the research findings of the behavioral sciences in solving practical operating problems in industry, government and education--has so far been lacking. As this is now no longer the case, a rapprochement between these two competing schools of science can at last be achieved. By applying general systems theory to education and management, the systems model of applied andragogy can bring about a fusion of human relations and science. This is a major step forward, offering great potential for the future.

Synergy

The idea of involving many levels of an organization in problem-finding, problem-solving activities may be disturbing to the traditionally-trained manager. First of all, to accomplish this activity successfully requires practice and skill of a different kind than that required by yesterday's management technology. Secondly, some managers seem to fear losing influence by involving others. Maslow (1965 p. 93) quotes from *New Patterns of Management* (Likert 1961, p. 58):

> "Another widely held view is that there is a fixed quantity of influence in a company or plant. Consequently, if subordinates are permitted to exercise more influence as to what goes on in the organization, the superiors have correspondingly less. The pie, so to speak, is thought to be just so big, and if some people are given more, others must have less."

Then, on page 58:

> "This better management system, while giving the men more influence, also gives the high-producing managers more influence. The high-producing managers have actually increased the size of the influence pie by means of the leadership processes which they use."

Applied Andragogy in Management and Administration

Andragogy has been presented in this Guide largely as an approach to the education and training of adults. It may now have become clear that it is much more than a process for training. It is a process for management and administration as well. Do not the seven steps of the andragogical process outlined in Chapter 1 seem equally well-suited to conducting a business meeting, directing or leading a department or an operating division of a corporation or performing the administrator's role in a large government agency?

Perhaps a question might be raised concerning a possible method for developing this new approach to management while simultaneously working within the old structure. A suggestion on how this might be done follows:

The first step in organizational activity which is simultaneously an issue of organizational climate is that of obtaining "tentative permission to proceed". This permission generally comes from a higher organizational level and is granted either implicitly or explicitly, with the expectation that the effectiveness or competence of the organization will be enhanced by the action. The second step can be assumed to be a "validation of the problem" (need assessment) which requires the gathering of sufficient additional data to allow the tentative permission granted to be changed to one of official approval. The third step consists of building a work team, a committee or a planning group to formulate the tentative dimensions, scope or objectives of the task to be performed. This step involves careful consideration of the organization's structural realities with regard to the issues of inclusion/exclusion and membership. Who is to be invited to participate; who will feel left out if not included; who are the needed resource people; how many people do we need, etc.? When these questions are decided, the first planning session can be held. This planning session, following the andragogical process, could result in the acceptance of some clear responsibility for the performance of tasks which must be accomplished before the next meeting. For example, gathering additional data, locating new facilities, further planning, developing publicity, etc. At this stage, it would be most helpful to make a "progress report" to the initial permission granting authority, thus completing an organizational linking cycle between the formal structure and the andragogical activity. Once begun, the cycle repeats itself again and again as each stage of the project unfolds. A diagram may be helpful to illustrate this point:

A Diagram for Incorporating Andragogy Into A Traditional Organization Structure

<u>Formal Organization Activity</u>

Tentative Organizational
Permission Granted

↓

Data Gathering

↓

Official Approval Obtained

<u>Andragogical Activity</u>

Project Planning Activity

↓

Planning Group Selected

1. Climate Setting
2. Mutual Planning
3. Need Assessment·
4. Formulating Objectives
5. Designing Activity

Progress Report to Formal
Organization

↓

Continued Approval to ⟶ 6. Above Plan Implemented
Proceed Granted

↓

7. Results Evaluated and New
Level of Needs Determined

Second Progress Report ⟵
Presented

↓

Approval to Proceed ⟶ New Planning Activity Begins,
Again Granted, beginning following guidelines of above
second organizational evaluation and second round
linking cycle approval. The andragogical
cycle begins again with climate
setting and mutual planning being
conducted informally

↓

Completing andragogical cycle
through the design stage.

An analysis of the above diagram shows how formal organizational norms of information exchange and approval can be observed while andragogical activities are being conducted. In this way, experimental andragogical programs can be developed without threatening or replacing traditional operating procedures or lines of authority. It is not difficult to involve many additional people in the planning process. It simply requires a rearrangement of the time schedule of events. This method involves a greater expenditure of planning time at the front end of the cycle, but research shows that less total time is spent on projects and results are better because of the rapidity and efficiency with which the later stages can be implemented and because the systems approach maintains a tighter internal control over all aspects and variables of the project.

Building Andragogical Training Support Systems in Organizations

No training or educational program within an organizational setting can be fully successful unless an effective support system is built. A support system can be conceptualized as a horizontal system extending outward within an organization, while andragogy can be thought of as a directional system moving forward in time, becoming larger and deeper as it moves. This idea can be grasped if you think of standing on a railroad track as a locomotive approaches you. The background of trees, flowers, grass, fences and railroad station, etc., can be thought of as the organizational environment which must remain appropriate to validate the setting in which the train operates. The incongruity of a train moving down the main street of a busy town may serve as an analogy of what we mean by a training program not being properly supported by its organizational environment.

A support system involves at least four factors:

* Organizational Involvement
* Organizational Linking
* Cultural Support and Re-entry
* Follow-up and Reinforcement

Organizational Involvement

If training and development activities are to be successful, they must be organic; that is to say, they must be totally rooted in the organization of which they are a part and nourished by it. Organization members must become aware of the training, able to participate in it themselves if they wish, and have evidence of management approval and support. If the training is provided as a mandatory corrective for poor performance, the training climate may be adversly affected. If presented as an opportunity for continuing growth and development, the reverse may be true. In any event, the organization

Courses	Easel – Flip Chart	Educational Design
Trips and Tours	Flannel Board	Skills
Community Relations	Posters and Signs	Skills in Applied
Programs	Chalk or Cork Board	Andragogy
Large Meetings	Lectures	Skill in Lecturing

must be solidly behind the training enterprise and not
merely giving it lip service. Another way of saying this
is that the training activity must be considered as an
integral part of the organization contributing directly
to the successful achievement of its most essential and
central goals and objectives.

Organizational Linking

This concept refers to the integration of training
outcomes to actively support the furtherance of organiza-
tional objectives. Training and development must be pur-
poseful and directly coordinated with the needs of the
organization and the needs of the individuals receiving
the training. Individual and personal growth activities
separate from organizational needs are highly desirable,
but best pursued outside the organizational environment
(many organizations support tuition reimbursement programs
for this purpose), keeping the internal training acti-
vities directly related to the tasks and processes of the
organization. In this way, linking will be facilitated
and the training enterprise will be more viable as a central
and essential activity.

Cultural Support and Re-entry

Persons experiencing andragogical education are likely
to develop new insights and values that may create re-
entry problems into the old environment. Those who are not
receiving training need to be supported to avoid feelings
of exclusion and those who have received training need an
opportunity to share and try out their new knowledge, skills,
or attitudes in a "back home" situation that will provide
affirmation and support.

Follow-up and Reinforcement

All training activities that yield evaluation data as
a reassessment of needs will provide the required information
to conduct follow-up and reinforcement training. This kind
of support is necessary to prevent erosion of the learning
experience through the passage of time. If we don't use new
skills, we will be likely to forget them. If we do, we
need success experiences to stimulate continued use. This
issue cannot be overlooked without risking the situation
of continuously taking two steps forward and one backward.

All four of these support factors can be facilitated by
use of the andragogical process model. Time spent on building
a support system that accomplishes the above tasks will be

ance can develop from those who don't wish to be indoc-
trinated. Andragogy is not a system of belief or doctrine;
it is a way of working effectively with others.

The Trainer as a Process Consultant or Interventionist

As much space has been devoted to the training activity,
something must also be said about the role of the trainer. Some
organizations regard training as a "necessary evil" or some-
thing to be tolerated. This attitude, where existing, places
the trainer in a very difficult position that may eventually
mean failure. Three correctives can be applied: one, the
trainer can run a series of highly effective and stimulating
training sessions; and two, top members of the organization's
hierarchy can support the training function and give it public
recognition; and, thirdly, the trainer can develop process con-
sulting skills. A process consultant is one who intervenes in
the activities of an on-going system for the purpose of helping
that system to develop.

Argyris (1970) suggests that the three primary tasks for
an interventionist or a process consultant are:

1. Generating immediately verifiable and valid data.

2. Maintaining conditions for allowing free and informal
   choice of all participants.

3. Working towards allowing and helping the client to
   achieve internal commitment to any new learning.

The skills and knowledge needed to become a capable process
consultant are thoroughly presented throughout this Guide.
The role of trainer as process consultant is that of developing
and using strategies that decrease the restraining forces
preventing organizational development and growth; strategies
that reduce dysfunctional behaviors and organizational pressure,
and that increase the liklihood of generating valid and reliable
information leading to freer options and choices for organization
members and a reduction of restrictions and limits.

CHAPTER 8:

AN EDUCATIONAL THERAPEUTIC

All education models contain implicit assumptions about
the nature of man and human behavior. It is the purpose of
this chapter to show the underlying psychological context
from which andragogy is derived. Andragogy stands in between
those educational models that exemplify the learning primacy
of arbitrary irrational or ecstatic experiences. Andragogy
recognizes the values of free experiential encounter while also
recognizing the needs and requirements of social relations.

Chapter 8 begins with a general discussion of education
and the therapueutic process and makes a distinction between
interpersonal competence acquisition and therapy. The chapter
continues with a comparison of different educational models
and moves into a consideration of their implications for train-
ing. In the next section, the authors of this Guide make a
personal statement concerning their own preferences regarding
training, human development and education and the chapter closes
with the conclusion to Part One of the Guide. This conclusion
suggests that the ultimate referent for all theories, models,
and processes is the trainer's own experience with them. It
is this experimental dimension that will become the central
activity of Part Two of the Guide and a means by which each
trainer in training can form his own educational values from
living experience.

Education and Social Health

In Chapter 1, the process of re-education as developed by
Kurt Lewin (1948) was described as an effective way to resolve
social conflict. There seems to exist in our society at the
present time a fundamental conflict that revolves around the
terms freedom, responsibility, dignity, spontaneity, change,
stability and control. We have "hardhats" and "beatniks",
"hippies" and "yippies", the silent majority for law and order
and the vocal majority for peace and freedom. Is there any way
to find meaning in all this confusion? Certainly most people
want what is *good* and want to avoid what is *bad*, but it seems
to be growing increasingly difficult to decide what is what.
Perhaps Lewin foresaw this state of affairs before his death;
perhaps he assessed the problem to be one of differing percept-
ions rather than one of irreconcilable conflict through "iron-
clad" differences.

Throughout the first seven chapters of this Guide, the
focus of attention has constantly fluctuated between the indi-
vidual and the group. It seems that all of the conflict issues
mentioned above revolve around the dynamics of man's role in

Independence————————Inter-dependence————————Dependence

Freedom————————————Inter-relation————————Submission

Spontaneity————————Inter-action————————Control

Anarchy————————————Democracy————————————Totalitarianism

These terms mean very different things to different people.
Perceptions of meaning tend to differ widely on the basis of
differing experience. If we can assume for a moment that no
one is right or wrong (admittedly a difficult task), perhaps we
can use that moment to explore some of the implications in the
above terms for social health. Before we do so, it might be
helpful to clarify the distinction between education and therapy.

Education and Therapy

The term re-education has been linked with the concept
of "ir erpersonal competence acquisition" (Argyris 1968).
The objective of competence acquisition, according to
Argyris, "is to provide individuals with opportunities to
diagnose and increase their interpersonal competence".
Interpersonal competence is defined as the ability to cope
effectively with interpersonal relationships. Argyris goes
on to define three criteria of effective interpersonal
coping as follows:

1. "The individual perceives the interpersonal situation
    accurately. He is able to identify the relevant
    variables plus their interrelationships.

2. The individual is able to solve the problems in such a
    way that they remain solved. If, for example, inter-
    personal trust is low between A and B, they may not
    have been said to solve the problem competently unless
    and until it no longer recurs (assuming the problem is
    under control).

3. The solution is achieved in such a way that A and B are
    still able to work with each other at least as effectively
    as when they began to solve their problems."

Some ways for individuals to gain interpersonal competence
have been described in this Guide. Part Two provides oppor-
tunities for practice in improving basic abilities in this
area. Some of the key elements for an education setting
that would enhance interpersonal competence acquisition
activities are present when individuals learn how to:

a. "communicate with one another in a manner that generates minimally distorted information,

b. give and receive feedback that is directly validatable and minimally evaluative,

c. perform these skills in such a way that self-acceptance and trust among individuals tend to increase, and

d. create effective groups in which problem solving may occur." (Argyris 1968)

If the above issues are related to education processes, what is the difference between them and therapy? Again we turn to Argyris for an answer:

"To give therapy means more than to change behavior. The word "therapy", according to the dictionary, means "to cure"; to cure means to restore to a healthy condition. In terms of this model, an unhealthy individual exists, or unhealthy aspects of an individual exist, when he has become primarily a closed system and when there seem to be no validatable reasons, in the present, for his closed orientation. An individual may need therapy when he is unable to marshal internal or external resources in order to become aware of the relevant factors causing his problems, solve them in such a way that they remain solved, and accomplish these two stages without reducing the present level of problem solving effectiveness (within himself or between himself and others).

The behavior of the closed individual tends to be focused on survival rather than on learning, it is repetitive and compulsive rather than adaptive and functional, and it tends to be adhered to either with a very weak or very strong sense of responsibility."

and further;

"The more closed an individual is--the more compulsive his behavior--the lower the sense of interpersonal competence will tend to be. The lower his interpersonal competence, the lower will be his problem solving effectiveness. Under these conditions, the individual may develop a lack of confidence in himself and a perception that the environment is primarily a hostile one. This, in turn, may cause the individual to withdraw, to become even more a closed system." (Argyris 1968)

Educational activities that foster interpersonal dialogue, sharing of feedback, trustbuilding activities and the development of group and interpersonal skills may well be considered to have a therapeutic value, but these activities are not therapy per se because they require a degree of

openness on the part of participants that is not present
among those in need of therapy. In addition, therapeutic
skills for helping persons who are closed are not the same
as those utilized in facilitating re-education activities.
Lewin's two requisite conditions for re-education thus
become deeply meaningful: individuals must become actively
involved with others in discovering the inadequacies in
their present situation and work together to discover
paths leading to improvement; and second, there must be an
implicit guarantee of freedom for each group member to
accept or reject the new values or cognitive structure.
Re-education is for healthy, autonomous individuals who are
open to relationships with others and willing to enter
problem finding problem solving activities in relation with
them.   This activity leads to the development of greater
interpersonal competence and leads toward a more constructive
social situation ...... a socially healthy society.

Different Educational Models and Their Implications for Training

There are a variety of educational models deriving from
different conceptions of man and human behavior. For the pur-
poses of this Guide, we shall contrast two major models from
different extremes of the continua in the above diagram.

Operant Conditioning

A model presently receiving much critical attention is
that recently proposed by B. F. Skinner in his recent
book, *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (1971). Skinner's model
emphasizes the primacy of the external environment in
explaining the causes of man's behavior and learning.
According to Skinner, man's behavior is totally conditi-
oned by external rewards and punishment, the re-inforce-
ment of which pushes man in the direction of seeking pleas-
ure and avoiding pain. In this model, there is a denial of
individual will, freedom, responsibility, there is no
recognition of autonomous ego and behavior is not trace-
able to states of mind, feelings, personal characteristics,
or human nature. All change is brought about by switching
the controls of reward and punishment; therefore, Skinner
argues, the solution to man's social problems lies in the
direction of total social control--a society directed for
its own good, presumably by those who know what's good for
it. In this model, the manipulation of other human beings
is seen as having a positive value.

Ecstatic Experience

Norman O. Brown is representative of another educational
model that is amply stated in his book, *Love's Body*. (1966)
Brown's model lies at the opposite end of the spectrum from
Skinner's model. To Brown, the only meaning is that of
feeling and experience. There is no objective reality out-

side of our inner sense of it. Change comes about randomly, chaotically or poetically; conflict and shock has a value in jarring a person's perceptual world and bringing about change. There is no control, manipulation is meaningless and the solution to man's social problems lies in the direc- of securing total freedom. Ecstacy comes about through annihilation of responsibility and is sought as a itive value.

Andragogy

The educational model of andragogy is based on the psychology of William James and John Dewey, which envisions man as capable of directing his own destiny. In distinction to Skinner's model, andragogy affirms that learning takes place from experience, but that man is free to choose his experience as well as his learning environment. Behavior is seen as directional, responding to internalization of experience in relation to basic human needs. In this sense, man is envisioned as "pulling" from inside rather than being pushed from without. At variance with Brown's model, man is seen as having choice and responsibility. Man's ego does not operate in isolation but must be tempered in relation to the egos of others.

Implications for Training

If we follow Skinner's model, we do not need to consider such things as training, development or education; we need only consider rote learning and "drill". If we follow Brown, there is no value in building a structure for mutual planning and learning to make decisions in groups. Training might well be directed toward methods for living in the wilderness rather than in a highly complex and industrialized society. While all of us are free to decide (not so, according to Skinner) which educational model we prefer, the authors of this volume wish to frankly state their own preferences for andragogy.

Part Two of this Guide provides an opportunity to test out your own educational values in the crucible of experience, an opportunity to derive whatever conclusions you wish from your own encounter with persons who are also desirous of learning more about working with others. We hope you have enjoyed Part One and that you find it useful in your practice. We welcome you to Part Two of *A Trainer's Guide to Andragogy*.

ANDRAGOGY,
Designs and Processes
For Experience

PART TWO

ANDRAGOGY: DESIGNS AND PROCESSES FOR EXPERIENCE

Introduction

Part One of this Guide provides the underlying princi-
ples and processes of andragogy while Part Two provides an
opportunity to experience them in a living encounter with
others. While Part One is intended to be much more than a
reference manual, it cannot provide the full operative dynamics
of andragogy. Andragogy is best communicated andragogically.
As a learning process for helping adults learn, its ideas and
meanings can be communicated realistically when trainers in
training gain practice and experience by helping each other
to learn. It is for this reason that the "Five-Day Residen-
tial Workshop" that you are now beginning was prepared. Through-
out this week, the primary focus of this workshop will be to
involve ourselves in learning experiences that can improve our
skills as trainers of adults. During this workshop, we will
also be involved in the process of developing Part Two in the
form of five emergent booklets on different aspects of adult
learning whose worksheets and exercises will serve as a
"living" or "lived" addition to Part One. At the close of the
workshop, time will be provided to introduce Part Three of
the Guide, which is designed to assist you in applying the
andragogical processes of Part One and Part Two in your present
training assignment.

Some Tentative Objectives for This Workshop

The training team that has designed this workshop would
enjoy sharing its objectives with you. These objectives are
tentative and can be modified, replaced or added to by your
own objectives as we build this workshop together to meet our own
learning needs.

* To provide an experiential encounter with
  andragogy
* To create opportunities for trainers in training
  to practice designing and conducting adult
  learning activities
* To provide a means for deepening individual
  ability in using a series of teaching devices and
  training skills
* To develop first-hand experience with the
  dynamics of adult learning in groups; problem-
  finding, problem solving activities and decision-
  making
* To give the trainers in training ongoing practical
  and helpful assistance in their back home training
  assignments

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Training Dimensions and Emergent Booklets

The design for this workshop is loosely constructed around five major dimensions of training. There are five booklets based on these dimensions. They are the following:

Booklet A - Adult Learning in Groups

Steps One and Two of the andragogical process involve setting a climate for learning and establishing a structure for mutual planning. This dimension of the workshop will explore the means by which groups can build a cooperative climate for learning from their own interactions and from utilizing each other as resources for learning. Booklet A is directly related to and derived from Chapters 1, 2 and 8 of Part One.

Booklet B - Trainer Skills and Teaching Methods

Steps Three and Four of the andragogical process involve assessing interests and training needs and formulating objectives for learning. This dimension of the workshop provides learning environments in which training skills and teaching devices can be explored according to your own interests and needs. Booklet B is related to Chapters 3 and 4 of Part One.

Booklet C - Designing and Implementing Adult Learning
            Activities

Steps Five and Six of the andragogical process involve designing and implementing learning activities for adults. This dimension of the workshop will explore fully the dynamics of this process. Booklet C, therefore, is directly related to Chapters 5 and 6 of Part One.

Booklet D - Management Analysis and Systems Intervention

The trainer of adults is often functioning as a consultant and interventionist within the system in which he works. This dimension of the workshop will explore intergroup and organizational dynamics and the relationship of training to management. Booklet D is directly related to Chapter 7 of Part One.

Booklet E - Evaluation Procedures and Application of
            Learning to Field Settings

Step Seven of the Andragogical process involves evaluating the outcomes of training and reassessing our training needs as a result of the data of evaluation.

This dimension of the workshop is concerned with the use of self-evaluation procedures in training as well as with the evaluation of the workshop itself. Booklet E is related to Chapter 6 of Part One.

As *training dimensions*, these five areas will be explored by means of varied formats and methodologies during the Five-Day Workshop. As *emergent booklets* of the Guide, each area will include descriptions of the particular exercises and formats experienced, explanatory handouts on the principles and models involved, worksheets related to the training experience, and collation sheets on the learning outcomes from such training.

It is our hope that this workshop will prove to be a valuable and exciting learning experience for you and the other trainers in training who are participating with you. The training team will be constantly available during the week to answer any particular questions or respond to any special needs you may have.

WORKSHOP CALENDAR. A SCHEDULE OF EVENTS.

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast
Arrival Registration	Large Group (Booklet ?)	Large Group (Booklet ?)	Presentation by N-Group (Booklet ?)	Reaction Groups (Booklet ?)
	Break			
		Break Time	Lunch	
		Small Group (Booklet ?)		
		Break Time	Free Time by N-Group (Booklet ?)	
		Observation of First Learning Activity by N-Group (Booklet ?)	Simulation of the problem in a Small Group (Booklet ?)	
		Reaction Groups (Booklet ?)		
Free Time	Free Time			

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BOOKLET A
ADULT LEARNING IN GROUPS

BOOKLET A - ĂĐ [...] IN GROUPS

[...]

[...] lived as a member of group[...]
[...] "[...]group", [...] mich and Par[...]

[...] have attempted to [...]
[...] [...]tial involved in interpersonal
[...] [...] well the many ineffective behavio[...]
of [...]leade[...] [...]ership.

Effective training of adults relies heavily on the effec-
tive utilization of group forces. Indeed, the trainer's
prime responsibility in whatever training program he is admin-
istrating is to facilitate the process whereby individuals
become effective [...] to one another's learning. [...]
persons learn as [...] both human and productive [...]
with each [...]
dimension [...]

[...]
that are particularly important if effective [...]
are to be achieved.

> * Effective training involves interaction[...]
>   [...] feelings, emotions, [...]
>   [...] impulsive ideas, and [...]
>   [...] personal reactions and thoug[...]
>   [...] explored openly [...]
>   [...] and interrelation[...]

> * Effective training also requires a [...]
>   trust [...] between members, a cooperative [...]
>   and a [...] of participation (as much on [...]
>   possible).

These two conditions do not occur automatically [...]
be developed by the members during the training sessions.

Workshop Instru[...]

[...] For the A[...] [...]
week, we will meet in Reaction Groups (R-group[...]. Our task
will be to discuss [...] whatever issues, problems, questions,
feelings, or [...] [...] These
group often [...] [...]avior
pattern [...] [...] om
intent[...] [...] and
share [...]

richly rewarded by enhancing training efficiency. (While plan-
ning is also a support activity, enough has been previously said
to make it unnecessary to repeat it again here.)

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Each group will be joined by a member of the training
team. The training team member will be a resource person to
the group and will not function as a task chairman. The
development of an effective working group is the responsibility
of all the members.

During the day following each meeting of the R-groups,
a time will be provided for a report on group activity to be
made to the rest of the training community. R-groups can
schedule meetings on their own time whenever they wish.

R-GROUP PERSONNEL SHEET

This listing is for your own personal use. You may want
to remember who's who in your group and where you can reach
them.

	NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			

(Note: This listing will be prepared at the workshop by the
          training team and will be reproduced and distributed
          to each of the members after they have divided into
          R-groups.)

INTRODUCTORY SESSION

EXERCISE

> *GENERAL OBJECTIVES*   * To establish a climate for learning
> *OF EXERCISE:*
>
>   * To engage in mutual planning to formu-
>   late goals and objectives for the
>   workshop

Procedure:

The training staff opens this first community meeting
with self introductions, and an orientation to the design and
tentative goals of the workshop as stated in the Introduction
to Part Two of the Guide.

The total group is then asked to form into pairs, each
picking a partner who is not known to him. Each pair intro-
duces themselves and shares their feelings and ideas about the
workshop and about their expectations, interests and concerns
in regard to it.

After approximately fifteen minutes, each pair is asked
to link up with another pair. Each member is asked to intro-
duce his partner to the opposite member of the other pair.
The foursomes thus formed are asked to make a list of their
common goals and expectations for the workshop.

After approximately fifteen minutes, each foursome is
asked to name a representative to report to the total group
on their shared interests and goals for the workshop. These
reports will be recorded on flipcharts for use during the
training week (cf. Booklet C - Group Collation Sheet - Interests).

After the report session, each foursome is asked to join
with another foursome and evaluate their experience during
the preceding exercise.

Application

This exercise will afford the training community an
opportunity to experience the dynamics of climate setting and
creating a structure for mutual planning. When the group of four
turns into four groups of eight for the evaluation session,
they will have chosen their R-groups that they will remain
with for the rest of the week.

...qualities describe what one might call a "mature"
group--one that has met together over a period of time and
that has worked through many of the problems of task effective-
... group maintenance that preoccupy "young" groups. It
...

...listens well; is non-judgemental and supportive;

...aware of the dynamics operating in the group
and skilled in maintaining and ...ing... group
toward the accomplishment of its and not his goals

Groups tend to mature and build valuable learning and working environments when the *members:*

- assume the responsibility for sharing leadership in the group;

- have trust, confidence, and respect for each other as persons and as resources for their own learning;

- are willing to share their feelings and values with the group so that clear communication can be effected;

- participate in accomplishing the group's tasks and are personally committed to the betterment of the group;

- satisfy their individual needs and achieve personal growth as a result of involvement in the group.

When the above qualities are present, group activity can be highly creative and effective. One of the tasks of this workshop is to experience the difficulties and pleasures of learning to work with other adults in groups. If you are interested in learning more about this subject, a Trainer Skills Option has been provided for that purpose in this workshop.

A MODEL FOR LEARNING IN GROUPS

When R-groups form initially, it is easy to spend all of the group's time in working on the immediate task (or content) while losing sight of the way in which the group is growing toward, or moving away from, group maturity. There are various models or ways of looking at the processes of group interaction. Here is one model that may be helpful:

Group Learning Sequence

Expression of Experience - Before the group can help you in learning about/from your experience, you must first tell them about what you felt and did. In the R-groups, this "experience" can be your reactions from the day concerning problem areas, events, or feelings that particularly affected you or personal behavior by you or others which you thought beneficial or detrimental. Also, the emergent issues and reactions of members during the actual R-group meeting time can be the experience which you take as the content of your investigation.

Focusing - Locate a particular problem area in that experience which you reveal or observe in the R-group. Identify those aspects you would like to work on as a group. Identify the group processes you would like to know more about.

Feedback and Sharing - Utilizing each other as resources, explore the ways in which you have worked together and the issues of membership and leadership involved. Sharing of perspectives, ideas and feelings can help clarify and increase understanding if we realize that our perceptions are not necessarily right or wrong, but they are real for us, even though others may disagree with our views.

Generalize and Apply - Once the group begins to get a clear picture of the particular question presented and have explored together the texture of it, it is often helpful to apply your findings to other like or contrasting situations. Here low level generalization can be helpful to accomplish this transfer.

Evaluate - There are then two dimensions that call for evaluation--the first concerns the learnings that have been discovered about the particular problem or issue presented. The second concerns the processes your group went through that were helpful or not helpful in arriving at those learnings. Look at the here and now dynamics of your R-group.

WORKSHEET

To assist you in practicing the skills of learning in
groups, please complete this form. It may help to clarify the
above steps and might also, if you wish, provide a topic for
your particular R-group to work on:

Expression of Experience — What happened? What are the issues
in your group? How did you feel
about them!

Focusing   — What is it about that problem, feel-
ing, or issue you want to work on?
What is the important part to you?

Feedback and Sharing   — How do others see the issues? What
are their feelings about them? Is
anyone trying to clarify issues or
harmonize any divergent views?

Generalize and Apply   — How does the issue('s) which is
being discussed relate to other
experiences you have had? Have you
learned anything from this experience?

Evaluate   — Where is your group in regard to
the issues? Where do you want it to
be?

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A THEORY OF PERSONAL CHANGE

Educators and psychologists in the last few years have been much concerned with the dynamics of change--how it happens, how to facilitate it, and how to build non-manipulative, self-actualizing values into the planning of change. The following comments outline a process of change which may provide helpful insight for you.

1) Awareness of a problem — Before any movement can take place, the persons concerned must be aware a problem exists and uneasy with the status quo. This dissatisfaction, anxiety, or frustration can provide an initial motivation for training. This can be described as an unfreezing process where old behavior patterns or habitual procedures are no longer assumed to be the only way of proceeding.

2) Testing alternatives — Having located a problem, new ways can be explored in relation to solving the difficulty. This is an experimental approach which involves an openness to novel and sometimes risky innovations, ideas, and behaviors. Such new behaviors, procedures or ideas can be practiced, tried out, and given a live test run. Once this is done there will most likely be data and feedback produced which can help in reaching a decision for a solution or behavior that may meet the expressed need. A number of alternatives may be possible.

3) Re-inforcement — Once a workable method has been selected, repetition will tend to build continuing support until the new pattern becomes accepted as a behavioral action or life style. This follow-up support of training outcomes is an important consideration in designing and implementing any training activity.

A THEORY OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Being a member or leader of any learning group, no matter what its actual task or specific purpose makes available additional opportunity to observe "group dynamics". A knowledge of the fundamental processes of group dynamics is a valuable asset in building effective teams, committees, task forces, and educational programs. Being a participant/observer of the groups in which you belong is a most helpful way to learn more about group dynamics. A participant/observer is a full member of the group, working on its tasks and interacting with others while also being an observer of its processes and helping the group to build itself toward maturity.

Dr. William C. Schutz has outlined a helpful theory for looking at groups. This theory may provide you with a useful tool in looking at your R-groups as well as other groups in which you participate.

Schutz's theory asserts that we direct and receive three basic needs toward and from other people: *inclusion, control* and *affection*.

Inclusion — — — — — — — — — — This term refers to the need to be with people as well as the need to be alone. We need to feel that we are a part of the groups in which we participate. We need enough interaction, acceptance, and owner-ship of the group activities so that we feel satisfied and ful-filled. A lack of inclusion can lead to feelings of withdrawal, loneliness and isolation.

Types of Inclusion Behaviors — Oversocial — We tend to feel uncom-fortable when we are not associating with people. We are afraid of being alone and therefore can be over-dependent on others.
Social — We feel a satisfactory balance between being in the presence or absence of other people, indi-cating that we possess a level of interdependent comfort.
Undersocial — We are uncomfortable in interaction with others; we are withdrawn and separate from others—interdependent in the sense of being out of the group.

Control - - - - - - - - - - - - This term refers to the need to
have enough influence and power so
as to be able to be self-directing
and respected for our competence.
We need to receive recognition from
others and to give recognition to
others for their ability.

Types of Control Behaviors   -   Autocrat - We always have to be in
charge and in control. We cannot
rely on others.
Democrat - A more satisfactory
balance between controlling and
relinquishing control. We have a
sense of responsibility and influ-
ence while we can also respect the
abilities and leadership of others.
Abdicrat - We cannot seem to handle
leadership or responsibility and
are dependent on others. We are
followers without a sense or direc-
tion worth fighting for.

Affection - - - - - - - - - - This term refers to the need to be
loved and to love--and also to
relate comfortably with others as
friends and associates. We need
the mutual give-and-take of emotion-
ally involving relationships of
varying intensities.

Types of Affection - - - - - - Overpersonal - We are overly desir-
Behaviors   ous of close relationships that
never are intense and affectionate
enough. There is a disproportion
between our need to be loved and
our ability to give love in return.
Personal - We are comfortable in a
close relationship as well as a
less intimate one and are balanced
in our need to love and our need to
be loved.
Underpersonal - We don't like to
get emotionally involved with others
and are afraid of too intimate con-
tact with others.

In any group setting, according to Dr. Schutz, the first
focus becomes that of *inclusion* or membership. Implied questions
are often:

Am I a member of this group?
How much am I willing to risk of
my real self in this group?

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Can I trust others in this group
to support and accept me?

After these issues have been dealt with at some length,
the group moves to concerns about *control* and authority.
Implied questions then are often:

Who is calling the shots here?
Who has the influence and power?
Can I say what I really think
and should I say it?
What effect will it have?
What is required of me to maintain
my membership here?

After these questions are worked on, the group moves on
to the concerns about *affection* and the relationship of group
members. Related questions may be:

Can I love in this group?
Can I show it?
Does anyone care for me?
Who do I feel close to here and
who do I feel distant from?

These issues continue to turn in cycles of Inclusion,
Control, Affection (ICA), as the group moves toward maturity.
Near the end of the group's life, before it is ready to dis-
perse or end its tasks, the process tends to reverse itself and
the issues work out in reverse order:—Affection, Control, Inclu-
sion (ACL). Observation of a group beginning to separate yields
the following data:

Affection   — First the group members begin to
                               pull away from relationships in
                               the group that have no real future.

Control   — Then the group again works on the
                               question, "Who is in charge here?".

Inclusion   — Finally, members begin to ask them-
                               selves if they really want to be a
                               part of the group and put the
                               required time and effort into it
                               to keep it together.

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY I

NAME _____ DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your understanding of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

7. VALUE: How valuable was your first R-group meeting to you?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

8. Comments and Suggestions:

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY II

NAME _____   DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your under-standing of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

7. VALUE: How valuable was your second R-group meeting to you?

|__1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

8. Comments and Suggestions:

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EVALUATION SHEET - DAY III

NAME _____ DATE: _____

Along a scale from 1-9, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, please score the following questions:

1. MEMBERSHIP: How much do you feel that you are a fully-functioning and accepted member of your group?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

2. GOALS: How well defined and clear are the purposes and goals of your group?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

3. TASK: How well did your group contribute to your understanding of the personal reactions and particular issues you presented to the group?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

4. PROCESS: How much did you learn about group processes and how groups function?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

5. PARTICIPATION: How freely were feelings and personal reactions expressed and examined in your group?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

6. SUPPORT: How helped and/or supported did you feel in your group?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

7. VALUE: How valuable was your third R-group meeting to you?

    |1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9|

8. Comments and Suggestions:

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY V

This last evaluation sheet on your R-groups is meant to be a feedback exercise for each member to learn and assess his behavioral communication to others in the group. You will also evaluate yourself and every other person in your group. Then, having collected your personal assessment from the other members, compare and collate the average.

GUIDE FOR BEHAVIOR RATINGS

Here are the explicit definitions of each of the twelve ratings. Please keep this guide in front of you while you rate yourself or other members of your group, and base your ratings on the specific behaviors listed to describe each scale.

1. Listening Skills: Works at understanding what others are saying; asks others to repeat; asks others to clarify. Tells others what he has heard; seems to have understood correctly what others said.

2. Saying Skills: Says things clearly, using words others can understand. Speaks in a way that is direct and to the point. Asks what others have heard and offers to clarify. Others seem to understand correctly what he has said.

3. Openness: Shares feelings and ideas spontaneously. Willing to discuss own strengths and weaknesses. His emotions show clearly and appropriately (e.g., joy, boredom, anger, sorrow, etc.).

4. Trust: Willing to listen to and try out others ideas. Seeks and accepts help from others. Shows that he expects others to be sincere and honest with him.

5. Feedback: Asks for others impressions of him. Shares his views of others with them. Seems aware of whether or not others are ready to receive his views; presents views in a way that is helpful. Lets others know when they have been helpful to him.

6. Awareness of Own Behavior: Shows he is aware of how others reacting to his behavior; shows he is aware of how he is reacting to the behavior of others; shows he is considering the implications to himself; uses this awareness in considering whether or not his own behavior is what he wants it to be.

Experimenting with Own Behavior: Shows flexibility in taking different roles in the group at different times (e.g., leader, clarifier, etc.). Shows increasing variety of ways he relates to specific members of the group. Shows he is thinking about the meaning to himself as he tries these different behaviors.

Contributes to Group's Awareness of Itself: Helps members to be aware of what is happening as a group. Raises questions about what the group is doing, feeling, heading toward; offers own views on what the group is doing, feeling, etc.

Problem Solving Effectiveness: Helps the group to make realistic progress in problem solving efforts. Is effectively work-orientated. Aids group productivity.

Helping Group Maintenance: Works well with own and others feelings; helps develop and maintain good relationships in the group.

Group Diagnostic Ability: Able to understand why things happened as they did in the group; can explain group difficulties as a basis for corrective or supportive action.

Overall Effectiveness as a Group Member: All things considered, makes effective contribution to own and others learning and work.

EVALUATION SHEET - DAY V

Group Member _____   Date: _____

Rated By _____   •   Time of Day _____

1. Listening Skills:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

2. Saying Skills:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

3. Openness:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

4. Trust:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

5. Feedback:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

6. Awareness of Own Behavior:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

7. Experimenting with Own Behavior:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

8. Contributes to Group's Awareness of Itself:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

9. Problem Solving Effectiveness:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

10. Helping Group Maintenance:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

11. Group Diagnostic Ability:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

12. Overall Effectiveness as a Group Member:

    |1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9|

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BOOKLET B
TRAINER SKILLS AND TEACHING DEVICES

BOOKLET B - TRAINER SKILLS AND TEACHING DEVICES

Introduction

Within the last twenty years, there has been an explosion in the research and development of new teaching methods, devices, formats, and techniques. Kits, games, programmed learning devices and audio-visual machines have flooded the market and have added much variety to the training experience. They have not, however, been used with uniform success because the trainer must have the skills to use these formats and devices and know how to effectively integrate them into a training program. There are three primary training needs that result from this situation and call for:

1. The enlargement of one's knowledge of different formats for adult learning;

2. The development of the capability to *use* a wide variety of formats in the training of adults.;

3. Perhaps most importantly, the development of a capability to continually sharpen the skills you have while exploring and developing new ones.

These three training needs are interdependent. Merely having at hand a storehouse of devices for training without the ability to effectively integrate them into educational programs results in a "gimmicky" approach lacking depth, insight, and real learning. And also, no matter how many devices or techniques we learn to use, new ones will always develop and training situations will continue to vary. An essential need for trainers, then, seems to be, to develop a skill in learning new skills.

This dimension of the workshop, "Trainer Skills and Teaching Devices", therefore, will stress the practical application of skills development for improvement of trainer ability. Each Skills Practice Session will consist of a design for working with a training device or skill and for learning creative application to training. These sessions will focus on improving trainer competence and also forming diagnostic ability in utilizing training resources.

Workshop Instructions

Each participant at this workshop is himself best able to decide which skills and devices he would like to work on. In the first scheduled Skills Practice Session, each trainer in training will develop a competency model relating to andragogy, general trainer competency, and present job requirements. Following this assessment of present training skills and indi-

vidual learning needs, each trainer in training will select
from the following list the trainer skills and teaching devices
he would like to explore during the time periods scheduled
for this activity.

During this workshop, there will be five Skills Practice
Sessions of approximately two hours in length, at which time
each participant may pursue any one of the available formats or
another of his own choosing. The training staff will be avail-
able to assist in this process.

The following list contains a schedule of trainer skills
and teaching devices for which formats and written materials
have been designed. Regardless of which formats are chosen for
exploration during the workshop, material on all eight formats
will be included in Booklet B of the Guide for your interest and
study.

SCHEDULE OF OPTIONS

Trainer Skills Option 1:   OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE OF GROUP
                            MEMBERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

Trainer Skills Option 2:   INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND
                            FEEDBACK FLOW

Trainer Skills Option 3:   THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT — THE
                            HELPING RELATIONSHIP

Trainer Skills Option 4:   THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Trainer Skills Option 5:   OTHER (or further exploration of
                            one of the above)

Teaching Devices Option 1: AUDIO-VISUAL LEARNING

Teaching Devices Option 2: NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES

Teaching Devices Option 3: SIMULATION

Teaching Devices Option 4: ROLE PLAY

Teaching Devices Option 5: Other (or further exploration of
                            one of the above)

DEVELOPING COMPETENCY MODELS

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES * To assess present competency in
OF EXERCISE: andragogy, training and specific job
requirements

* To plan your curriculum for the
development of training skills and
experience with teaching devices

PROCEDURE:

1. COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

After the training staff has given a brief introduction
to andragogy, read pages 28-31 in Part One, Chapter 3,
covering "competency models", as well as pages 1-10 in
Chapter One, covering the andragogical process. On the
scale below, rate your present level of competency in
implementing the seven steps of the andragogical process.

	Climate Setting	Developing Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs Interests and Values	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs
100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

2. COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

After the training staff has given a brief introduction to the trainer skills and teaching devices options offered in Booklet B, look at page 95, and on the scale below, rate your present proficiency in the eight areas listed.

100								
90								
80								
70								
60								
50								
40								
30								
20								
10								
0								
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV
		Trainer Skills				Teaching Devices		
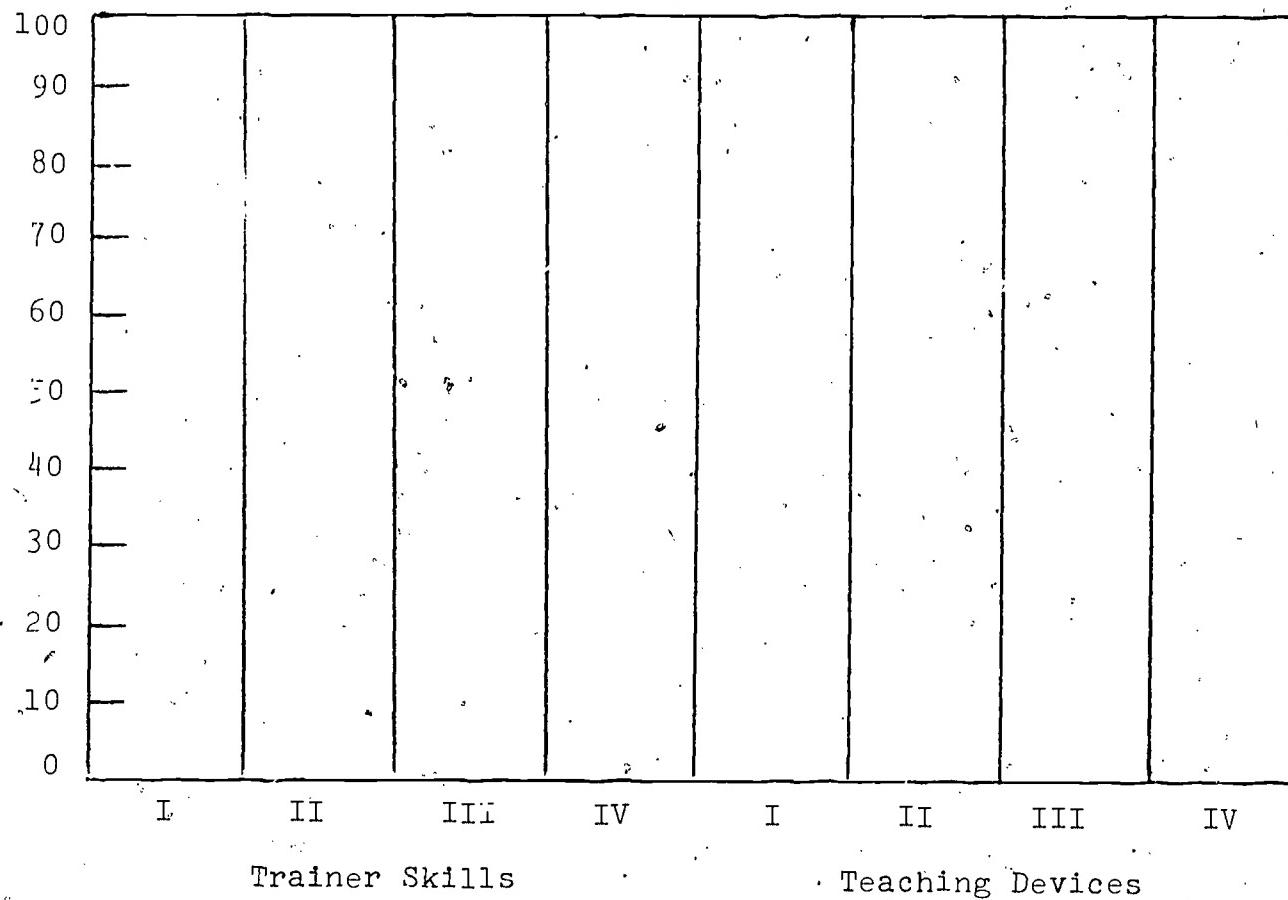
3.   PERSONAL COMPETENCY

In addition to com... ... ... process of adult
education and in the s... ... ... of training,
every trainer himself has ... own unique interests, needs,
and job responsibilities. On the scale below, list
seven important personal training interests and job-
related skills you would like to further develop
during the workshop. First rate your present profic-
iency and then estimate the ... of improvement you
would like to result from ... ... This model
may serve as a basis for further evaluation at the end
of the workshop.

100
...
...
70
60

40
30
...
10
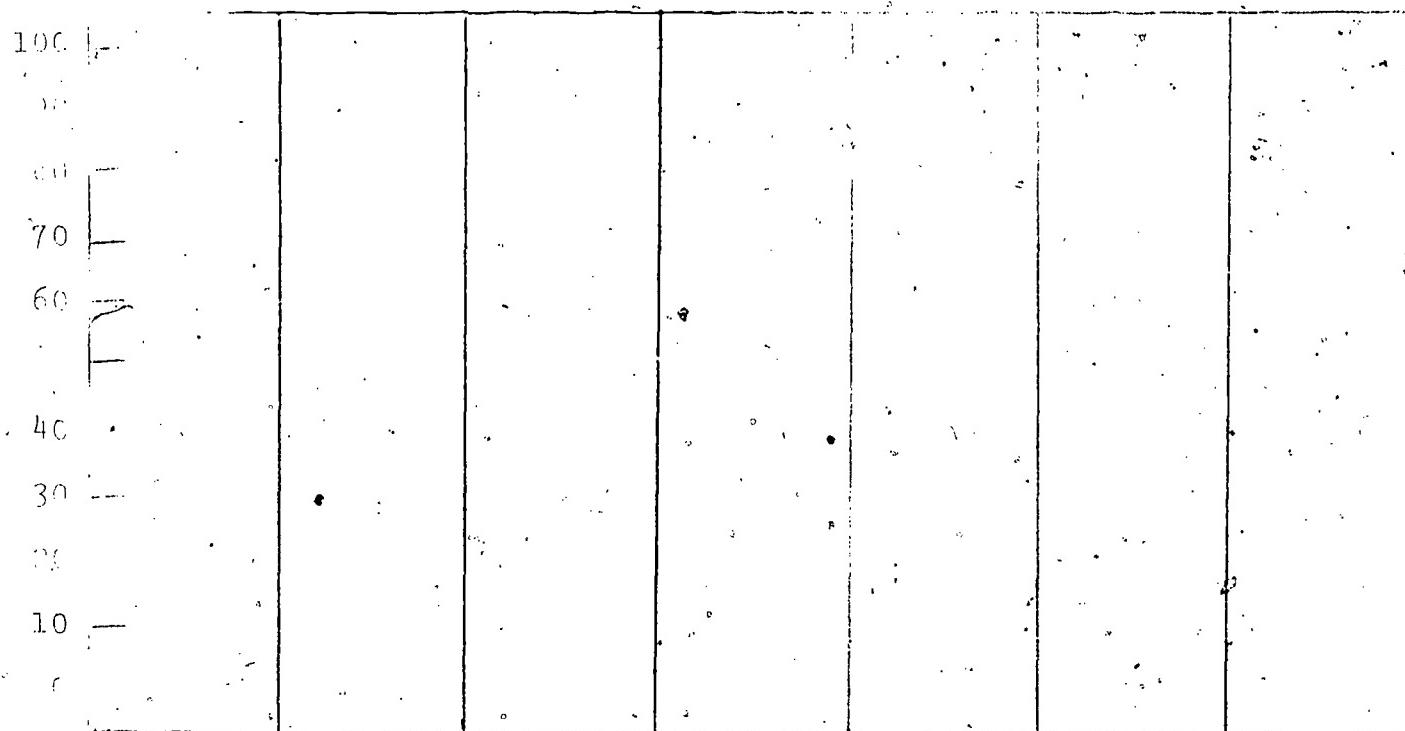
Present Proficiency _____
Goals for Workshop - - - - - - - -

Using the above three competency models as a guide,
please complete the Curriculum Schedule form to select
the trainer skills and teaching methods you would like to
explore during this Workshop. This form will provide
direction to the training staff for the scheduling of the
next four and one-half Skills Practice Sessions.

CURRICULUM SCHEDULE

   Please select FIVE options. You may select the same one
more than once if you wish or five different options. The
scheduled times of Skills Practice Sessions are outlined on page
72. You may schedule your own learning program to meet your
learning needs.

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Session 5
T.S.O.1					
T.S.O.2		✓			
T.S.O.3					
T.S.O.4					
OTHER					
T.D.O.1					
T.D.O.2					
T.D.O.3					
T.D.O.4					
OTHER					

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION 1:

OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE IN GROUP MEMBERSHIP
AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION 1: OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE IN GROUP MEMBERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES
OF EXERCISE:

* To explore the dimensions of *task performance* and *group maintenance* in a working group

* To learn the *functions* that any group member can perform to assist the group in accomplishing its work while simultaneously building group cohesion and satisfying individual needs

* To introduce group dynamics and the importance of developing awareness of group processes

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins with a short lecturette (approximately 10 minutes) on the various functions of group members and the two dimensions of group life (cf. Input Sheets (B) and (C).

Two groups are created with four to ten persons each (depending on total group size). One group is selected as *observers* and go into another room to be briefed by the trainer regarding their observation worksheets (D) and (E). Half of the observers will use worksheet (D) - *Task Functions*, while the other half will use worksheet (E) - *Maintenance Functions*.

The other group is given data sheet (F) and asked to read it carefully and prepare to discuss it when the other group returns.

When the two groups rejoin, a "fishbowl" is created by having the discussion group sit in the inner circle while the observers sit around the outside.

After 10-15 minutes, action is stopped by the trainer and the positions of the two groups are switched so that the observers are in the inner circle. The observers will then discuss their findings.

After 10-15 minutes, action is again stopped and both groups are invited to make generalizations regarding what most aided and impeded the task performance and the maintenance building activity of the group. (Also, the original discussion group members may wish to clarify their own behaviors commented on by the observation teams.) The trainer will record these generalizations and learnings on newsprint. NOTE: During the workshop, this collation will be reproduced and distributed for inclusion in this section of the Booklet.

APPLICATION:

The subject matter discussed during the initial 10-15 minute segment can be a pertinent problem in which the group has a real life interest. In this case, the observation and fishbowl procedures can aid in clarifying the issues and processes involved.

(B)   TASK, MAINTENANCE AND INDIVIDUAL DIMENSIONS OF GROUPS

1.   Every one of us from time to time finds ourselves in a
      group that has either been assigned a *task* or that assumes
      one. It is the desire of the group to move toward the
      accomplishment of its task.

2.   This can only be done if the group is somewhat successful
      in *maintaining* the group as a group.

3.   In addition, the group must, in some way, meet the needs
      of its *individual* members.

4.   If the above three factors are accomplished effectively,
      the group will perform competently.

     The "Task" (T) of a group has to do with the work of the
group, while "Maintenance" (M) has to do with inter-relations
of members within the group, and (I) has to do with the relation-
ships between the group and the individual members.

     It is obvious that the task is a very important aspect of
group life and can never be regarded as incidental. On the
other hand, for a group to accomplish its task, it must be kept
together. Individuals in groups have personal needs for feeling
accepted and being involved in decision making. In working on
tasks, we can become insensitive to these and other needs being
expressed verbally or symptomatically through the action of
small groups within the work group. Our insensitivity results
in the group's action being blocked. We then often become aware
of the need to maintain the group or there may be no group to
get the task done (or, if done, it will be done at the cost of
reducing persons to the status of things). So we stand within
the tension between specific, objective tasks for which the group
exists and the important issue of caring for group members.

     Within group life, certain leadership functions can be iden-
tified which help a group accomplish its task and maintenance
functions. Some of these functions are performed by the
designated leader, but they may also be performed *by the
members*.

     Groups are likely to operate at maximum effectiveness when
all members perform both task (T) and maintenance (M) functions,
and regard them as their responsibility rather than solely the
responsibility of the designated leader.
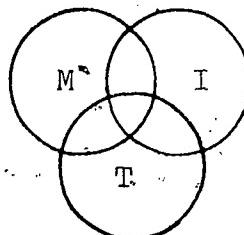
(C)   INPUT: CONTENT AND PROCESS LEVELS IN GROUPS

CONTENT: One may think of content as that material which
the group is discussing, i.e., ideas, notions,
proposals, opinions, facts, etc. -- *What* an
efficient recording secretary would write.

PROCESS: One may think of process as the underlying
factors which exist in a group situation, i.e.,
interpersonal relations, feelings, attitudes,
mode of handling disagreement and agreement,
general tone and climate --- *How* the group
functions.

When we observe *what* the group is talking about, we are focus-
ing on the *content*. When we try to observe how the group is
handling its communication, i.e., who talks how much or who talks
to whom, or what task and maintenance functions are being perfor-
med; we are focusing on group *process*.

Both of these dimensions are, of course, very important for
successful group functioning. As one pursues a *content* level of
discussion, it is helpful to notice the *process* by which such
issues are handled. Recognizing these dynamics and skillfully
utilizing them as group resources can greatly aid the performance
of the group and increase the satisfaction of group members.

(D) WORKSHEET: TASK FUNCTIONS OBSERVATION SHEET

TASK FUNCTIONS   GROUP MEMBERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. INITIATING - proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem, suggesting ideas.								
2. SEEKING INFORMATION - requesting facts, asking for expressions of opinion; seeking suggestions and ideas								
3. GIVING INFORMATION - offering facts, information, opinions, and ideas.								
4. CLARIFYING AND ELABORATING - interpreting ideas or suggestions, defining terms indicating alternatives.								
5. SUMMARIZING - pulling together related ideas; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.								
6. CONSENSUS TESTING - sending up a trial balloon to test for a possible decision or conclusion.								

(E) WORKSHEET: MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS OBSERVATION SHEET

MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS	GROUP MEMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. HARMONIZING - attempts to reconcile disagreements; reducing tensions.								
2. GATE KEEPING - helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others.								
3. ENCOURAGING - being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; non-verbal or verbal approval or acceptance by expressions.								
4. COMPROMISING - admiting error; modifying in the interest of group cohesion or growth.								
5. STANDARD SETTING AND TESTING - testing whether group is satisifed with its procedures; pointing out explicit or implicit norms which have been set.								
6. SENSING AND EXPRESSING FEELINGS - sensing feeling, mood, relationships within the group; sharing own feelings with other members; Soliciting feelings of others.								

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(F) DATA SHEET: DISCUSSION GROUP TOPIC

    TOPIC: LEADERSHIP

                   I. In our society one concept of leadership stresses the responsibility of the individual as an appointed leader and the particular qualities that a leader needs to be effective, i.e., intelligence, aggressiveness, courageousness, charisma, logicality, etc. The personal traits of the leader and the way in which he uses them define the degree of effectiveness of the group.

                   II. Another concept of leadership stresses the functional aspects of the leader role. In this view, any or all members of a group can perform leadership functions such as initiating ideas, summarizing, coordinating, etc. This emphasis stresses the importance of leadership actions rather than personality of the leader.

    TASK: The task of your group is to discuss the above concepts of leadership and within the allotted time, arrive at a group decision on three advantages and disadvantages for group effectiveness implied by each concept.

(G) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

(This sheet will be reproduced following the exercise. It
will contain the generalizations and learnings about group
processes which the participants share at the conclusion of
this experience.)

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TRAINER SKILLS OPTION II:
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK FLOW

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION II: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK FLOW

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES
OF EXERCISE:

* To explore the influence of *perception* and *conditioning* on communication.

* To explore the dynamics of two-person communication flow.

* To experience the helpful and hindering aspects of communication.

* To experiment in giving and receiving feedback.

* To assess the effect of feedback on communication.

PROCEDURE:

The trainer may find it helpful to begin by soliciting definitions of *communication* and *feedback*. Also, a short lecturette may be helpful in describing the interconnection of these two processes (cf. Input Sheets B and C.)

PHASE 1 - PERCEPTION, CONDITIONING AND LEADERSHIP

The group is divided into two equal halves facing each other on opposite sides of the room. Standing between the groups, the trainer will show slightly different picture to each group (pictures D and E). As he does this, he will say,

"You will be given one minute to study this picture. Try to memorize as much of it as possible so that you can discuss it in detail later on."

After a minute or so, one person will be asked to volunteer from each side of the room. The volunteer will sit facing picture (f). They will then be asked to discuss this picture (which is a composite of pictures D and E) and describe to each other what they see.

As they begin to communicate with each other, they will gradually come to realize differences in their mutual perceptions, conditioned by their one minute exposure to differing pictures. Volunteers may switch several times during this phase to provide a variety of different styles, blocks, and problems of communication. During this time, the trainer will ask the larger group to observe what is helping or hindering the communication flow of the volunteers in the middle.

110.

After several conversations, when the members come to "see" both figures, the action will be stopped and both the original pictures will be shown to both groups.

PHASE II - COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK

At this point, volunteers will be sought from both sides of the room totaling half of the total group (but not more than 10 people) and will form into a fishbowl seating arrangement. The members of the outer group can be paired off with a member of the inner group for whom they will serve as personal observers. Observers will face their partners.

The inner group is asked to decide on the five most prominent helping and hindering actions they observed in the previous two-person communications about the pictures. The time limit for this part of the exercise is 20 minutes. After about 10 minutes has elapsed, a time out can be called so the observers can spend five minutes with their partner in the fishbowl, giving feedback on his style of communication. The action will then resume for another 10 minutes and will then be repeated with the outside group now in the fishbowl.

As a final summation, the group will assess what kinds of feedback were valuable and what kinds were not and record their finds on newsprint.

(B) INPUT: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Interpersonal communication, whether in a group setting or in a two-person exchange, involves some very complex dynamics. By *communication*, we mean the sending of a message (either verbal or non-verbal) by one party to another who responds according to how he perceives the message. In a group, several intentions may be working at the same time. People may be sending different messages while there are a variety of perceptions forming about those same messages. Let us first look at a familiar two-person communication:

Patrick wishes to tell Dorothy how much he admires her new dress. He says to her, "My, what a luxurious dress. It really makes you look slim and gorgeous." Dorothy hears two messages, however--one, that Patrick likes the dress and, also, that she does not generally appear to be gorgeous and slim. Patrick has clouded his communication (we will assume unintentionally). The diagram below describes this encounter in terms of an "arc of distortion".

what Patrick communicates without intending

Dorothy
hears

arc of distortion

Patrick
(the
sender)

Dorothy may
or may not
hear

what Patrick intends to communicate
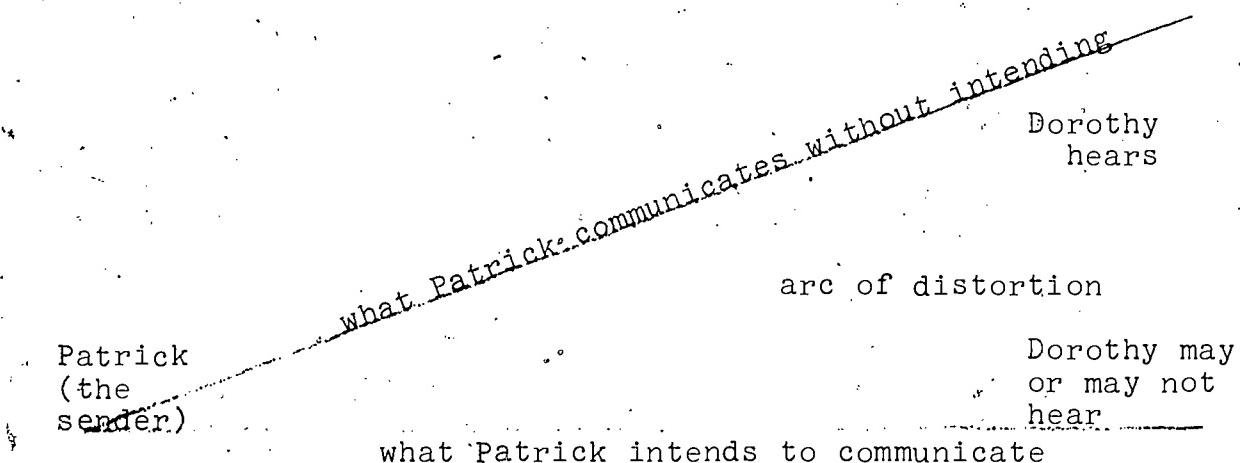
Other examples of the arc of distortion in communication may involve non-verbal signals which contradict the verbal statement (e.g., saying, "I'm not nervous", while your hands are shaking). The receiver of the message can also contribute to clouded communication. Taking the above sample again, Dorothy may take Patrick's comment, "My, what a luxurious dress, etc.," and hear a reprimand for spending too much money. By being conditioned from past conversations, or by feeling guilt over actually spending a lot, or for other reasons, Dorothy selectively attends to what she expects to hear. In this example, in addition to Patrick's intended and unintended communication, Dorothy read in still another meaning not even communicated by Patrick.

This process in groups is important to understand. Often people in groups talk on different levels of reality simultaneously, e.g., when members are talking about how badly group

meetings are in their job situation, they may actually be saying that they are dissatisfied with the immediate group they are in. These dynamics will be explored through the exercises in this Option.

Generally, if two-person, and group communications are to be clear and effective, it is important that these basic conditions be present:

1.   If the parties are open and flexible with their viewpoints, realizing that different people have different perceptions of reality and that their perceptions are real for them, even though they may be somewhat out of phase with reality, a trustful climate will probably begin to build.

2.   If two-way communication--questions, clarifications, and comments flow back and forth, the receivers will be able to participate in the communications and maintain their attention and retention. In cases where there appears to be a real block in communication (e.g., an argument, for example). It is sometimes helpful for each party to repeat, in his own words, the prior comment made by the other party before continuing.

3.   The more group members are able to give and receive *feedback*, the more the group communications processes will be facilitated.

(C) INPUT: FEEDBACK

When a person responds to the sender of a message in such a way that he states how that message affected him, he is giving *feedback*. The ability to give as well as to receive feedback is an important skill for every adult learner.

The following principles are generalizations describing the components of effective feedback. Test them against your experience on the job, in your personal life, and in respect to your workshop experiences:

1. Feedback should not be *forced* or *imposed* on someone. When the receiver of feedback feels threatened he does not learn but tends rather to be defensive. A mutual trust atmosphere is needed for feedback to be effective.

2. Feedback is the perception of a person's *behavior* and therefore should not be given as the computed motive or actual intention of the person. Feedback is neigher right nor wrong in itself, but rather the way a person comes across to you. This perception of another's behavior needs to be confirmed by that person's own intentions and also checked out with other group members' perceptions.

3. Feedback should be clear, specific and related to the "data" i.e., to actual incidents, examples, and observations of behavior. Judgements of a person's personality traits or vague generalizations are to be avoided.

4. Feedback should be descriptive and useful while leaving the receiver free to use or not use your information, as he sees fit.

JOHARI WINDOW

The Johari Window is a diagram originally created by Joe Luft and Harry Ingham, who first used it at an information session at the Western Training Lab in Group Development (1955). It provides a helpful model for looking at what kind of information we mean when we talk about feedback.

	Known to Self	Unknown to Self
Known to others	Free or Open	*Feedback* That about me to which I am blind but is known by others
Unknown to others	Hidden *Disclosure*	Unknown

Revelation
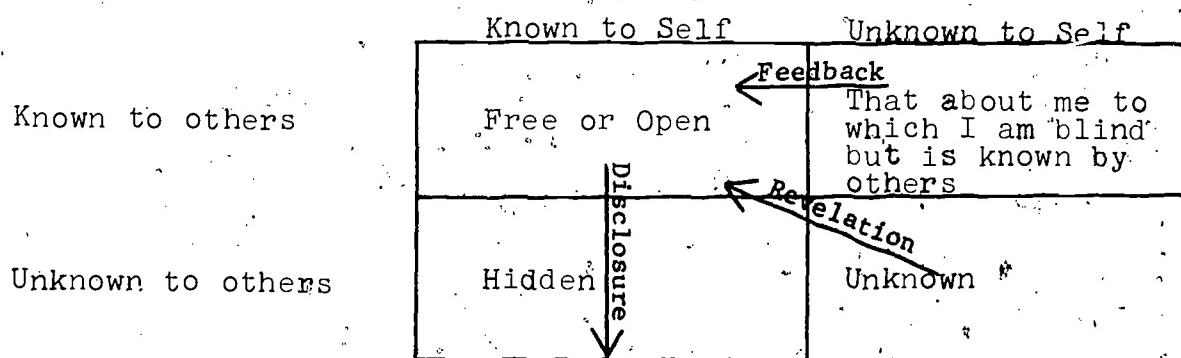
If we take the entire diagram as a representation of the SELF, the *Free* area is one which is known to both ourselves and others; the area we normally share in interaction.

The *Hidden* area contains those behaviors, motivations, feelings and ideas which are known to us but which we keep away from others. This is our inner world. Sometimes, disclosure of this area can aid and improve our relations and communication with others.

The *Blind* area contains that which is known and observed by others but for a variety of reasons remains unknown or unobserved by ourselves, e.g., certain gestures, mannerisms, and tones of voice, etc.

The *Unknown* area contains all the unconscious motivations, hidden traits and talents which neither ourselves nor others yet know or observe.

FEEDBACK is the way others open up for us the *Blind* area of our SELF. If offered effectively and responsibly, it can help us learn about our effect on others as well as help develop our own knowledge of SELF, our identity and style of interaction.

DISCLOSURE is a free decision on our part to share part of our *Hidden* and intimate self with others.

REVELATION refers to the slips of tongue or sudden illuminations which reveal something about our SELF which we never knew before. Such information can come from ourself or others.

The more our *Free* SELF coincides with our total SELF, the more integrated and clearly communicative and sharing we are. This does not mean, however, that all about us must be exposed or revealed. It does imply, however, that it is valuable to be aware of what we consciously hide from others and to be open and ready to accept new information about what is presently *Blind* to us. Feedback, then, has a crucial role in effecting clear communication and yields an additional bonus for our own personal growth.

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(G)   GROUP COLLATION SHEET

COMMUNICATION PROCESSES

Helps   Hinders

(H) OBSERVER WORKSHEET

1. Be sure you are facing your partner and can see his
    gestures, expressions, etc.

2. What functional roles is he performing--clarifying,
    initiating, supporting, harmonizing?

3. How is his style of communication--tone, phrasing,
    gestures, etc., contributing to or hindering his
    clarity and effectiveness?

4. How are others in the group reacting to your partner's
    contributions?

5. Do his nonverbal gestures conform to his verbal state-
    ments?

6. To whom does he mostly talk? To one other person?
    To persons who just previously talked. To the whole
    group? To no one?

7. What attitudes and emotions do you feel he is trans-
    mitting to the group? (Check out your own personal
    reactions to his comments.)

(I) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

TYPES OF FEEDBACK

Valuable and Useful	Not Useful or Valuable

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION III:
THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT - THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION III: THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT - THE HELP-ING RELATIONSHIP

A - EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES
OF EXERCISE:

* To learn the dynamics of the helping relationship

* To practice giving, receiving and observing helpful consultation

* To share and explore common training problems in a helpful climate

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins with a brief introduction to the dynamics of the consultant's role and discusses with the group "the helping relationship" (cf. Input Sheets B and C).

The entire group is then divided into triads, each member of which will practice the role of consultant, client, and observer in three different interviews (cf. Instructional Sheets D,E,F).

The client presents a problem he has confronted either during the workshop or in his job situation while the consultant practices the helping relationship. The third member observes this interchange and during the final 10 minutes, he communicates to the other two what he has seen.

Following this initial interview, it might be helpful to call all the triads together and have a report from each about what was helpful and not helpful in the different interviews. Such a discussion can improve the next two interviews.

The second and third interviews are then held in separate triads with members switching roles so that all three get a chance at each of the roles.

The trainer can end this exercise by again soliciting the helps and hinderances that were observed and felt in the interviews and also spend some time evaluating the worth of the entire exercise.

(B) INPUT: THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

A teacher guides a pupil in the solving of a math problem;
a parent advises his child on how to behave in front of visitors;
a trainer consults with a client about the need for change in
his agency--all of these events take place as *helping relation-
ships*.

The trainer, as consultant, however, can be more clearly
described according to:

    - the quality of his help
    - the nature of his relationship with the client
    - his goals as a helper

A man on the street who gives a dime to the beggar is
indeed helping; as is a teacher who corrects the false answer
of a student. But the quality of this help consists of giving
immediate assistance in relieving a particular symptom of the
client's problem. The beggar, while "better off" for the dime,
remains a beggar; the pupil, although knowing he was "wrong",
is not really helped to find the right answer for himself.
Such quick solutions tend to promote a dependent relationship
on the consultant-helper and do not foster the client's growth
and change to become more self-directing. It is precisely this
latter dimension with which we are concerned when we talk about
the trainer's role as consultant.

Carl Rogers, in his now classic article, "The Characteris-
tics of a Helping Relationship", defines a helping relationship
as one:

> "in which at least one of the parties has the intent
> of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved
> functioning, improved coping with life of the other.
> The other, in this sense, may be one individual or a
> group. To put it another way, a helping relationship
> might be defined as one in which one of the partici-
> pants intends that there should come about, in one
> or both parties, more appreciation, more expression
> of, more functional use of the latent inner resources
> of the individual." (Rogers, 1961)

Let us sharply distinguish the trainer as consultant, then,
from the man-on-the-street as a helper:

	Man-on-Street	Trainer as Consultant
Quality of Help	Immediate assistance. Reacts to symptoms. Gives short run solutions.	Transmits problem-solving skills to client

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	Man-on-the-Street	Trainer as Consultant
Nature of Relationship	Dependency producing. Superior-subordinate relation. Sharp role differentiation.	Self-directing. Interdependent." Mutuality of respect. Fosters client's self-direction.
Goal of Interchange	Alleviates symptoms. Finds quick solutions.	Increases client's own problem finding and problem solving capability. Helps the development of client's resources. to help himself.

It has been shown through research by Rogers (1961), Schein (1969), and Argyris (1970) that the consultant-client relationship is most valuable to both client and consultant when:

- the consultant is a voluntary, temporary helper to the client system

- the consultant has an acceptant-democratic attitude

- the consultant is an empathetic listener

- the client trusts the consultant and has a mutually respectful relationship with him

- the needs and motivations of the client and the consultant are sufficiently balanced and integrated so that a self-directing, self-actualizing climate is created

(C)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET – THE CLIENT

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Think of a situation or problem you confronted in the
    workshop or in your job situation which you would like
    to change or resolve. Select a problem which is of
    real concern to you.

2. In presenting the problem, try to be brief and specific.
    At the same time, indicate some of the symptoms and
    reasons for your concern.

3. After explaining the problem, give the consultant a
    chance to ask questions which may help you to clarify
    the situation and explore possible solutions.

4. You are the only one who knows of your unique problem.
    Try to realize this fact in your presentation. It may
    help you to communicate your problem more clearly.

(D) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET — THE CONSULTANT

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Your task is to help the client define, or perhaps
    redefine, his problem and his relationship to it in
    sufficiently specific terms so that he can see some
    ways to solve it.

2. Ideas:

    a) How does the client see himself in the situation?
        What is his role and responsibility in the problem?

    b) What seem to be the fundamental difficulties?

    c) What solutions have been tried? With what results?

    d) Who else might be concerned or involved in the
        situation or problem besides your client?

    e) Are there any indications from the client's behavior
        that he may not see some aspects of his own involve-
        ment in the problem? If so, can he do something
        about his part in the solution?

3. Cautions:

    a) Don't "Take over" the problem. Resist the possible
        temptation to say such things as, "The real problem
        seems to be ....", or, "You should do ....": Instead,
        help the client to gain insight by sharing your
        perceptions with him.

    b) Don't disparage the problem. Resist the urge to say
        such things as, "We had the same problem and
        solved it this way. It's not difficult.". The
        problem may be quite difficult for the client, and
        not having had your experience, he may not see the
        simplicity of your solution.

4. Guidelines:

    a) Focus particularly on questions such as, Why? How
        do you know? What does this or that mean? How
        does that affect you?

    b) Try to help the client focus on alternative options
        that he can employ rather than focusing on what
        others ought to do.

(E) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET — THE OBSERVER

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Your task is to observe and to listen as carefully as
    you can. Try to remain inconspicuous and to interfere
    as little as possible. When you make your remarks
    during the last ten minutes of the interview, comment
    briefly on what you saw taking place in such a way as
    to encourage the client and consultant to think and
    talk about your observation. Don't be a dogmatic
    interpreter.

2. Ideas:

    a) Ask yourself often during the interview, "What is
        going on between the client and the consultant?"

    b) How does the consultant go about establishing a
        relationship? Do his remarks help the client to
        speak freely?

    c) How carefully do the client and the consultant
        listen to each other?

    d) Do both client and consultant work through a defini-
        tion of the problem and its causes before trying
        to think of solutions?

    e) During the interview, try to locate the point at
        which the communication between the client and the
        consultant first begins to "click". When did they
        begin to get a handle on the problem? How did this
        come about?

(F) GROUP COLLATION SHEET

Each group will record the factors, dynamics, behaviors, or attitudes which proved valuable or not so valuable in developing the *helping relationship*. These group sheets will be reproduced during the workshop.

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION IV:
THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION IV: THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

A- EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES * To increase one's understanding of the
OF EXERCISE: decision making process in groups

                    * To practice diagnosing the facilitating
                      and blocking behaviors involved in this
                      process

PROCEDURE:

The trainer begins by introducing the topic of decision-making in groups and asks for definitions of the term "decision". One other way of beginning this exercise is to call for a volunteer group of 8-10 members and ask them to make a decision on a particular topic before any discussion. This can provide a free-wheeling trial run in exploring the subject in which this initial discussion can be compared to subsequent ones.

The trainer then divides the group into two equal halves of which one half becomes a decision making group, while the other half become observers. The task group receives Instructional Sheet (D) while the observers are separately briefed on the use of Observation Worksheets E and F. The groups form a fishbowl with the decision-makers in the middle.

After the first decision making task is completed, the trainer gives a brief description of the sheets which the observers were using and then solicits general comments from those observers. Their findings are compared with those from the first exercise.

The trainer then switches the roles of the two groups, giving the new decision making group (former observers) Instructional Sheet G while the observing team (former decision-makers) use the Worksheets. After this phase is completed, the comments of the observers are again solicited and this third discussion is compared with the previous two. Has there been any improvement? Did it make any difference when the last decision-making group was familiar with the steps of decision making, having previously observed two groups operate without it?

The final discussion serves to evaluate this exercise, especially stressing the degree of improvement in the participants' diagnostic abilities and facilitating behaviors.

In contrast to the blocking factors which often obstruct group decision making, there are also certain other factors which have been shown to facilitate this process. Aside from the reverse of the above blocks, there are additional factors such as:

- a clear definition of the problem

- a clear understanding of who has what degree of responsibility

- an effective means for producing and communicating ideas

- an appropriate size group for the particular decision to be made

- an effective means for testing alternative solutions

- an effective means for implementing the decision

- a commitment of the designated leader to the group decision making process

- an agreement on the decision making procedures prior to deliberation on the issue

(B)   INPUT: THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

As a trainer dealing with diverse clients, you undoubtedly confront the task of making group decisions. Some groups tend to break down when confronted with a decision for which a consensus is required. Others get bogged down in the interminable discussion of minor points or irrelevant side issues. Still others seek escape from their anxiety in Robert's Rules of Order, voting, or the "chairman".

Dr. Kenneth Benne (1960) has analyzed the prevalent reasons for the difficulty groups have in making decisions and recognizes the following six *blocks* to decision making in groups.

1. *Conflicting Perception of the Situation*

   If group members view the problem at hand in different ways, communication can be impeded, resulting in a break-down of the group (cf. Trainer Skills Option II - Perception and Communication).

2. *Fear of Consequences*

   The possible outcomes of an impending decision can over-whelm a group. Outside pressures on individuals or on the entire group may exert a paralyzing effect on its ability to come to a decision.

3. *Conflicting Loyalties*

   Every group member belongs to a number of different groupings than the one he may presently be engaged in. These multiple memberships can operate as hidden agendas or conflicting pressures within the decision making group.

4. *Interpersonal Conflict*

   Personal differences or personality clashes can provoke defensiveness, antipathy, and biased discussion, pre-venting a sound, fair decision from being made.

5. *Methodological Rigidity*

   Many groups are so frozen into Robert's Rules of Order or similar rigid methods for decision making that they are prevented from inventing or using other methods when the nature of the decision calls for one (e.g., consensus).

6. *Inadequate Leadership*

   When the entire group does not *share* the leadership functions and relies too heavily on a designated leader (who may or may not be sufficiently skilled), then no *group* decision can be made and the commitment and responsibility to any decision is lessened.

(C) INPUT: TYPES OF DECISIONS

PLOPS
A decision suggested by an individual to which there is no response (e.g., "I suggest we shelve this question." ...... silence).

SELF-AUTHORIZATION
A decision made by an individual who assumes authority (e.g., "I think we should all write our ideas on the blackboard.", and proceeds to be the first to do so).

THE HANDCLASP
A decision made by two or more members of the group who join forces or decide the issue in advance (e.g., "That was a helpful comment, John. Yes, that's the course we're going to take.").

BAITING
A decision made by pressure not to disagree (e.g., "No one objects, do they?), or a decision made by pressure to agree (e.g., "We all agree, don't we?).

MAJORITY RULE
A decision made by some form of voting.

UNANIMITY
A decision made by overt and unanimous consent, often without discussion.

POLLING
A decision made by a form of voting which inquires, "Let's see where everyone stands.", and then proceeds to tabulate the already expressed majority decision.

CONSENSUS
A decision made after allowing all aspects of the issue, both positive and negative, to be put forth to the degree that everyone openly agrees it is probably the best decision. This is not necessarily unanimity, but it constitutes a basic agreement by all group members.

(D)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

Group Decision-Making Task:

In the 30 minutes allotted to you, discuss and decide as a group on the most logical and effective steps or phases a group should go through in making a decision. Prepare a list of these steps.

In your discussion of the steps, keep in mind the illus- trative example of this problem: "What are the five most important responsibilities of a trainer working with small groups.

REMEMBER: Your task is NOT to solve this problem or decide on the content of this example, but rather to decide on what steps or phases a group should pass through in order to solve this problem *if* they tried.

(E) GROUP DECISION MAKING

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles	Methods
1. DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Clarifying; Data Gathering; Recognizing Limitations.	Over-generality; Conflicting Perceptions; Unrealistic Tasks.	Elaborator; Clarifier; Data Gatherer.	Problem Census, Buzz Groups.
2. DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS	Getting Ideas; Building Models; Listing Resources; Checking Needs, Interests and Values of Group Members.	Lack of Data; Vested Interests.	Initiator; Gatekeeper.	Brainstorming.
3. TEST ALTERNATIVES	Examining Alternatives with Respect to Data, Past Experience with the Problem at Hand and the Attitudes of Group Members.	Premature Deciding; Vagueness of Criteria; Conflicting Loyalties; Pressure of Time or Faction.	Reality-tester; Evaluator.	Role Play; Case or Critical Incident Methods; Fantasy; Comparing Extremes.
4. DECIDE	Choosing one of the Alternatives.	Fear of Consequences; Methodological Rigidity.	Compromiser; Summarizer.	Vote, Consensus, etc.
5. TEST FOR RESPON- SIBILITY, LOYALTY, CONSENSUS	Linking the above Group Decision with Individual Interests, Needs and Values.	Non-participation; Ram-rodding.	Gatekeeper; Group Implementation of Maintenance Functions.	Seeking Consensus.
6. FIRM THE DECISION	Reaching Group Con- sensus with Indivi- dual Commitment. Allowing Holdouts more time by regard- ing decision as ten- tative until their issues are resolved.	Non-participation; Ram-rodding.	Summarizer; Organizer.	Recording Firm Statement of Decision.

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(E) GROUP DECISION MAKING

Additional Steps, if Relevant:

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles	Methods
7. DEVELOP A PLAN OF ACTION	Distribute Roles; Make Provisions for Execution.	Lack of Responsibility and Commitment; Inequitable Rewards.	Implementer; Organizer.	Divide into Sub-groups, Role Play; Work Groups; Design Groups.
8. ASSESS RESULTS — EVALUATE	Allow for the Replanning of the Decision in Light of its Effects; Re-assess Needs at this Point.	Fear of Failure; Defensiveness.	Evaluator; Reality Tester.	Surveys; Questionnaires; Revised Competency Model.

(F) OBSERVATION SHEET

Phases	Processes	Blocks	Facilitating Roles
1. DEFINE THE PROBLEM	Clarifying the Focus; Recognizing Limitations.		
2. DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS	Getting Ideas; Building Models; Listing Resources; Checking Needs, Interests and Values of Group Members.		
3. TEST ALTERNATIVES	Examining Alternatives with Respect to Data, Past Experience with the Problem at hand and the Attitudes of Group Members.		
4. DECIDE	Choosing one of the Alternatives.		
5. TEST FOR RESPONSIBILITY, LOYALTY, CONSENSUS	Linking the above Group Decision with Individual Interests, Needs and Values.		
6. FIRM THE DECISION	Reaching Group Consensus with Individual Commitment, Allowing Holdouts more time by regarding decision as tentative until their issue's are resolved.		
Additional Steps, if Relevant:			
7. DEVELOP A PLAN OF ACTION	Distribute Roles; Make Provisions for Execution.		
8. ASSESS RESULTS – EVALUATE	Allow for the Replanning of the Decision in Light of its Effects; Needs at this Point.		

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(G)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

Group Decision-Making Task:

In the 20 minutes allotted to you, discuss and decide as a group the five most important responsibilities of a trainer working with small groups.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

TRAINER SKILLS OPTION V

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION I:
AUDIO VISUAL LEARNING

(A) AUDIO-VISUAL PRESENTATION

Participants of the workshop will experience a multi-media
presentation of an andragogical learning activity. This pres-
entation will also emphasize the potential of audio-visual aids
in the training enterprise.

(B) INPUT:

Films, slides, tape recorders, video tape cameras, chalk-
board, newsprint, overhead projectors are all examples of audio-
visual aids. In general, they provide a sensual focus to
training providing the audience with a common experience, prob-
lem, or topic which can be integrated into a learning design.
Such devices should not be used merely because they are avail-
able or as gimmicks. Dr Knowles' cone of experience (Knowles,
1970) is helpful in comparing audio-visual aids in relation to
their relative degrees of abstraction.

ABSTRACT

Pyramid Level	Description
Verbal symbols	Books, pamphlets, reprints, teaching machine programs, programmed texts, homemade materials
Visual symbols	Flat maps, chalkboards, sketches, cartoons, diagrams, charts, graphs
Recordings, radio, still pictures	Photographs, illustrations, film-strips, slides, recordings
Motion pictures	films, discussion guides
Television	Program guides, video tapes, dis-cussion guides
Exhibits	Displays, bulletin boards, posters
Field trips	Itineraries, observation guides
Demonstrations	Apparatus, raw materials, chalkboard
Dramatized experiences	Plays, scripts, puppetry Simulations
Contrived experiences	Models, mock-ups, objects, specimens
Direct, purposeful experiences	Work sheets, observation guides, manuals

SCALE OF SENSORY EXPERIENCE

CONCRETE

As can be seen above, audio visual aids are more abstract
and less concrete and involving than other more experiential
techniques or devices.

C. EXAMPLES OF USES FOR AUDIO VISUAL AIDS

1. Video-tape

The new advances in video tape equipment make this aid an
invaluable observation tool for analyzing and improving
group work. Meetings can be recorded and played back for
diagnosis and replays can be obtained to look at individual
verbal and non-verbal behavior. The tapes can stop the
action at any point for comment and discussion.

2. Instructional Films

There are many excellent training films available today
which are useful in stimulating further inquiry, opening
up particular topics, and as input material to supplement
experiential practice and discussion.

3. Tape-recording

This method provides a verbatim record of a group's dis-
cussion progress and development. Tapes can be edited
to focus on particular problems for analysis and observation.
They can also be used for research on group activity. There
are many other uses including supplementary data input.

4. Newsprint, overhead projectors, chalkboards

These devices make possible the immediate visual presentation
of data, ideas, models, diagrams, and can easily be erased
or supplemented as the need arises. When collecting reports
or collating learnings after an exercise, use of these devices
can be very helpful. They are also helpful in recording data
produced by groups so individual members can see their own
contributions and be reminded of the valuable contributions
of others.

5. Self-drawings; Group-drawings

At times, having individuals draw a picture or design of
themselves or having members of a group symbolically or
graphically picture their feelings about their group can
stimulate a highly suggestive and intriguing discussion into
self-identity, group membership, emotional interaction and
group development. Such discussion can aid the group or
individual in integrating his learning with his feelings and
interpersonal relations. Trainer skill is important when
using this technique.

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION II:
NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION II: NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES

(A) EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES
OF EXERCISE:

* To experience several non-verbal techniques.

* To assess the value of the non-verbal dimension in training.

* To gain some skill in the appropriate use of non-verbals in training.

Procedure:

Members who choose this option will first experience a body-movement exercise that will familiarize participants with a range of non-verbal techniques. (Descriptions of these exercises cannot be given here in written form without risking loss of learning value.)

A discussion will follow this phase emphasizing the effects of these exercises and exploring their use in training.

Following the discussion, participants will experience an integrated fantasy using non-verbal and multi-media techniques.

An additional discussion will be held regarding the emotional and sensory development dimensions of training.

(B)   INPUT: NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Since we were children, we have learned and have been taught to control our body movements, gestures, facial expressions and hand signals. Such actions were often considered uncultured, or indicative of poor self control. We have learned to speak clearly and logically and to listen quietly and without movement. Such behavior tends to suppress emotional involvement.

Today, we are becoming more aware of our bodies and our emotions and the unique expressivity they hold. Much of our communication with others is in fact non-verbal -- a shake of the head, a smile, a frown, the way we dress, walk, and sit. In working with adults in training, it is important to be aware of body language and help in freeing up emotional expression. "The medium is the message"; we are constantly sending non-verbal and emotional messages whether we are aware of them or not.

Because of the long neglect of non-verbal language, this method of communication needs to be re-learned. The spontaneity and ease of movement in the child can be regained in adulthood. The exercises in this option are intended to open up the area of non-verbal communication as an important dimension of training.

Some Functional Uses of Non-Verbal Techniques in Training

1.   To help set climate at the beginning of a training program.

2.   To deal with relationships in the training group which
      are not reaching the verbal level (e.g., latent hostility,
      mixed messages).

3.   To express personal feelings and help in getting in touch
      with unnamed feelings which are affecting participants.

4.   To determine where the group is at present (e.g., A
      pictorial drawing of the group can reveal the degree of
      trust, cooperation and cohesiveness of the group.).

5.   To help integrate person, learning and environment.

Some Normative Standards for Using Non-Verbal Techniques

1. Avoid conducting non-verbal exercises with which you are unfamiliar or uncomfortable.

2. The non-verbal exercise should be timely and integrated with the experience it seeks to explore or discover. The non-verbal exercise should arise from the participants' verbal experience and not be imposed, i.e., it must be called forth by the situation.

3. All non-verbals should be reflected on without haste. Time is generally needed for participants to ventilate feelings generated from the experience.

4. Avoid judging the experience as right or wrong or feelings of participants as good or bad. A more important issue is, "What is the data produced by the experience?".

(C) INPUT: TECHNIQUES

Some Useful Non-Verbal Techniques

1. DRAWING SELF - Each person draws a picture of himself on a piece of paper, showing how he feels about himself in the group. Objective: To help groups deal with personal involvement; to increase leveling, participation, and relationships. Variation: Each person draws a picture of his conception of the group.

2. BREAKING IN - The group forms a circle and locks arms. The person who has felt "out" of the group - not a full member - is asked to break into the circle. Objective: To help a person become a member; to open the topic of group member-ship. Variation: Breaking out for persons who feel overly controlled and confused by the group.

3. IDENTIFICATION - A random selection of objects (e.g., spring, box, statue, pen, etc.) are put in the middle of a group. Each person is asked to feel and handle the objects and choose the one he most identifies with. The group then discusses the choices. Objective: To facilitate personal disclosure and heighten self-awareness in the group.

4. BLIND WALK - Members pair off. One member is blindfolded and led by another. The leader has the responsibility for providing a learning experience for the blindfolded one. The roles are then reversed. Objective: To promote trust and cooperation and to explore the feelings of dependency.

5. EYE COMMUNICATION - Members stand in a circle with one person beginning and others following at a comfortable pace. Each person looks into the eyes of each person around the circle, exploring and communicating in whatever manner desired. There will be two exchanges: one as transmitter and the other as receiver. Objective: To provide an opportunity for inter-personal confrontation, and insight about self as well as others; to contribute to group cohesiveness.

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(D) EVALUATION SHEET

1. Which of the non-verbal experience(s) was most comfortable for
    you?   Why?

2. In which of the non-verbal experience(s) were you the least
    comfortable?   Why?

3. What advantages and what disadvantages can you see in using
    non-verbal techniques in your own training activities?

4. What personal learning resulted from your experiences with
    non-verbals and fantasy?

5. Other comments

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION III:
SIMULATION

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION III: SIMULATION

(A) EXERCISE

General Objectives   * To experience the *Hollow Square*
of Exericse   *Simulation Game*

                      * To explore the relationship between
                        *planning, operating, personal inter-
                        action* and *task accomplishment*

Procedure:

The trainer begins with a brief description of *simulation*
(cf. Input B) in general and the Hollow Square Game in particular.
The group is divided into Planners (4), Operators (4), and Observers
(cf. Instructional Sheets C, D, E, F).

After the simulation is completed, a feedback discussion
will be conducted with the Observers, followed by a report
from the Planners and Operators.

A Group Collation Sheet (Sheet G) can then be constructed from
these discussions, identifying the problems that occur when the group
makes plans that another group has to implement; when Operators
carry out the plans others make for them.

(B)   INPUT: SIMULATION

A SIMULATION is any integrated model which symbolically re-enacts a real-life situation. Today, simulations are primarily being constructed and used to depict mechanical and social systems. These symbolizations provide an experimental setting in which it is possible to learn the complex dynamics, roles and relationships involved in such systems.

As trainers, we are involved in helping people function more effectively within their organizational and social environments. Also, we are concerned with aiding organizations and systems to have that kind of climate which facilitates the personal growth and fulfillment of its members. Simulations can be a valuable teaching device for both of these goals.

By being experimental and symbolic, simulations provide settings where alternative behaviors can be tested without risking the unwanted consequences of real-life situations. By encapsulating time periods and complex organizational structures into workable training dynamics, simulations provide participants with a deeper perspective and understanding of their environment.

The following considerations may be helpful in your own construction and use of simulation materials in training:

1.   Simulations need to be appropriate to the clearly
     defined needs of the participants and the training
     objectives of your program. The value of a simulation
     is its incorporation of actual dynamics, roles, prob-
     lems, and needs into a "game" environment.

2.   Simplicity of construction and execution is necessary
     so that the simulation is not more complex than the
     reality it symbolizes, yet not so simple as to pre-
     vent participants from generating real emotion and
     reactions during play. In a similar way, simulations
     need to be close enough to reality so that the relevance
     and importance of the play is realized, yet not so
     close as to arouse threat or cloud learning.

     a.   complex   involvement with   simple
                           clarity and interest

     b.   reality   relevance without   fantasy
                           threat

*"Game" is here used figuratively, In the literature, "game" is distinguished from "simulation". A game usually involves a winner(s) and a loser(s) engaged in competitive play. While simulation may include a game within its structure and hence be called a "simulation game", a pure simulation is a representation of a social system and does not involve gaming.

3. The actual design of your learning format, utilizing simulation, should include:

* definitions and descriptions of the initial setting, organization, conditions and roles of the simulated environment,

* enough information to the participants for them to understand the relationship and dynamics which are the focus of the learning and to make decisions and plans during play, but not so much as to make the dynamics obvious.

* a structure encompassing all the elements, subgroups, and roles of the simulation, allowing for interactions and inter-group competition and/or cooperation,

* rules and conditions which define the limits of the behavior allowed in the simulation,

* materials to vary or complicate the play, allowing the optimum of flexibility in the simulation,

* a method of feedback during play to enable participants to modify their behaviors when applicable and learn from their experience, and,

* evaluation to formulate the learnings generated during play and to relate the simulation to the realities it symbolized.

(C)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - PLANNERS

Each of you will be given a packet containing cardboard pieces which, when properly assembled, will make a hollow square design.

YOUR TASK

During a period of 35 minutes you are to do the following:

1.   Plan how the 18 pieces distributed among you should be assembled to make the design.

2.   Instruct your operating team on how to implement your plan (you may begin instructions to the Operating Team at any time during the 45 minute period -- but <u>no later than</u> 5 minutes before they are to begin the assembling process.)

GENERAL RULES

1.   You must keep all pieces you have in front of you at all times.

2.   You may not touch pieces of other members of your team nor trade them during the planning or instructing phase.

3.   You can not assemble the entire square at any time (this is to be left to your operating team).

4.   You can not show Instruction Sheet D to the Operating Team at any time.

5.   Members of your Operating Team must also observe the above rules until the signal is given to begin the assembling.

6.   When time is called for your Operating Team to begin assembling the pieces, you may give no further instructions, but are to observe the operation.

(D) Planners

ASSEMBLED PATTERN

(18 pieces)
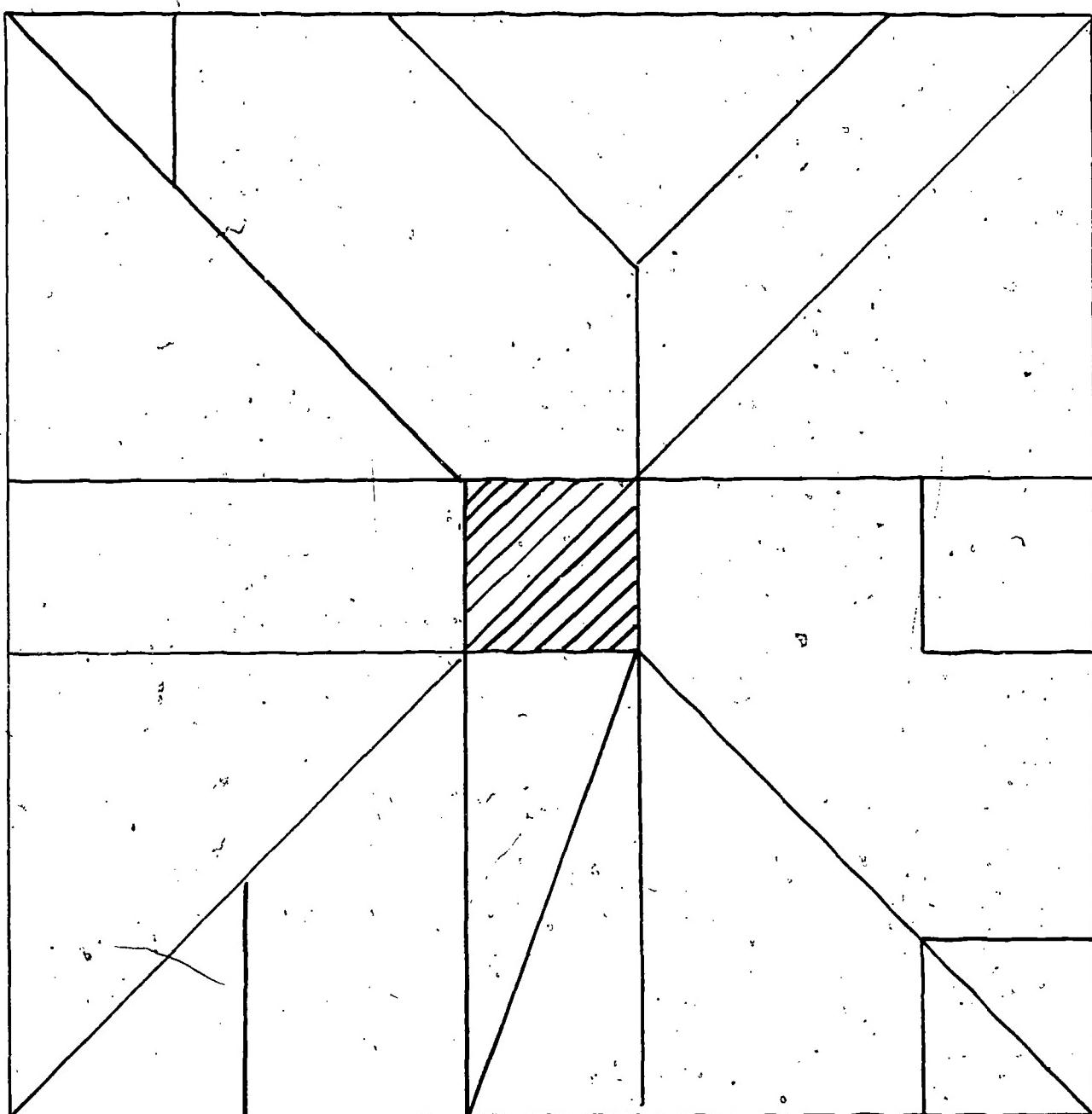
This diagram is not to be shown to the operating team.

As can be seen above, audio visual aids are more abstract and less concrete and involving than other more experiential techniques or devices.

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(E) INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET – OPERATORS

1.   You will have the responsibility for carrying out a task for 4 people according to instructions given by your planning team. Your planning team may call you in for instructions at any time. If they do not summon you before _____ , you are to report to them anyway. Your task is scheduled to begin promptly at _____, after which no further instructions from your planning team can be given. You are to finish the assigned task as rapidly as possible.

        During the period when you are waiting for a call from your Planning Team, it is suggested that you discuss and make notes on the following:

        a.   The feelings and concerns which you experience while waiting for instructions for the unknown task.

        b.   Your suggestions on how a person might prepare to receive instructions.

        The notes recorded on the above will be helpful during the work group discussion following the completion of your task.

interpersonal relations.   Trainer skill is important when using this technique.

(F)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET - OBSERVERS

You will be observing a situation in which a Planning Team decides how to solve a problem and gives instructions to an Operating Team for implementation.   The problem consists of assembling 18 pieces of cardboard into the form of a hollow square.   The Planning Team is supplied with the general layout of the pieces.   This team is not to assemble the parts itself but is to instruct the Operating Team on how to assemble the parts in a minimum amount of time.   You will be *silent observers* throughout the process.

Suggestions for Observation

1.   Each member of the Observing Team should watch the general pattern of communications but give special attention to one member of the Planning Team (during the planning phase) and one member of the Operating Team (during the assembling period).

2.   During the Planning Period watch for such behavior as:

a.   The evenness or unevenness of participation among Planning Team members.
b.   Behavior that blocks or facilitates understanding.
c.   How the Planning Team divides its time between planning and instructing (how early does it invite the Operating Team to come in).
d.   How well it plans its procedure for giving instructions to the Operating Team.

3.   During the Instructing Period (when the Planning Team is instructing the Operating Team) watch for such things as:

a.   Who in the Planning Team gives the instructions (and how was this decided?)
b.   How is the Operating Team oriented to the task?
c.   What assumptions made by the Planning Team are not communicated to the Operating Team?
d.   How full and clear were the instructions?
e.   How did the Operating Team members react to the instructions?
f.   Did the Operating Team feel free to ask questions of the Planners?

4.   During the Assembly Period (when the Planning Team is instructing the Operating Team) watch for such things as:

a.   Evidence that instructions were clearly understood or mis-understood.
b.   Non-verbal reactions of Planning Team members as they watch their plans being implemented or distorted.

(G)   GROUP COLLATION SHEET

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION IV:
ROLE PLAY

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION IV: ROLE PLAY

(A)   EXERCISE

General Objectives   * To experience and learn role-play
of Exercise: technique

                        * To practice self-learning using
                          this technique

Procedure:

The trainer briefs the total group on the techniques of
role-play (cf. Input B).

One·half of the group volunteers to be the planning and
role-play group. The other half will be observers.

The planning group is given 15 minutes to select a problem
situation and the roles they will play. While they are doing.
this, the trainer briefs the observers on the two observer
worksheets (cf. Sheet C & D). Half the observers will use Sheet
C and will concentrate on role diagnosis. The other observers
are given the roles being played and will concentrate on group
processes.

Once the role-play is performed and the observers have
reported, the observing team is asked to switch roles or situa-
tions in ways which will increase group understanding. Another
role-play is then held with the former players observing the
differences.

A final general discussion is directed toward assessing
the uses of role play in training (cf. Sheet E).

(B) INPUT - ROLE PLAY

Role-play is the unrehearsed acting out of a situation, relationship or dynamic in which individuals assume designated roles.

As a technique, role-play is especially useful in:

- illustrating interpersonal problems

- increasing understanding of different perspectives and role functions

- testing alternative behaviors

- gaining insight into attitudes and behavior

- learning new skills

- involving participants in self-learning

Role-play can be a rich resource for learning when used appropriately and conducted effectively. In designing your own role play exercises, it is helpful to keep in mind the following considerations:

1. Have a clearly defined problem in mind which you would like to investigate and portray.

2. Decide on what essential dynamics of the problem you wish to focus. Role-play works most effectively when the problem is well defined and the dynamics are clearly identifiable.

3. Visualize the role play as it will unfold to portray social situations and perspectives.

4. Define each role carefully giving enough information to participants for them to get a "feel of the part" but not so much as to overly stereotype it or to prevent the participants from getting involved in it.

5. Steps for conducting role-play exercise:

   a. Brief each role-player
   b. Act out the role-play
   c. Video tape the portrayal for later replay and diagnosis
   d. Re-play after an initial evaluation
   e. Analyze and interpret the data

(C)   OBSERVER's INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

   Listen to the interaction and discussion for a few minutes
and then describe the roles you see being performed in the
group.   Describe each role below and at the end of the role-
play, suggest what helpful behaviors or attitudes would have
facilitated the group process.

MEMBER I:

MEMBER II:

MEMBER III:

MEMBER IV:

MEMBER V:

(D) OBSERVER's INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET

       The role-play group which you are observing is made up of
the following roles:

ROLE I:

ROLE II:

ROLE III:

ROLE IV:

ROLE V:

       Observe how these roles interact in the discussion.

What are the process blocks?

Who is maintaining the group?

Who is leading the task accomplishment of the group?

What roles or functions are missing for a more effective dis-
cussion?

(E) EVALUATION

1. Which of the roles seemed most believable and authentic?
    Why?

2. How did you feel in your role?

3. What did you learn about the content material of the role
    play?

4. Assess the effectiveness of the role-play technique as a
    way of exploring and examining the problem under study.

TEACHING DEVICES OPTION V

,BOOKLET C

DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

BOOKLET C: DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ADULT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Introduction

At the core of the trainer's responsibility are the skills of planning and effectively implementing one's own training activities. This skill consists of the ability to sensitively assess the needs of the client system and to help the client system translate those needs into training objectives and program formats.

The skill of "designing" and "implementing" one's own learning activity is also an art (cf. Part One, Ch. 5) which generally means that as one learns and practices the procedures and processes of planning and executing training programs, one also needs to internalize those processes as part of one's own intuitive mode of operating. If training activities are to be effective, humanly fulfilling, and aesthetically integrated, the trainer needs to "own" the process as well as the content of what he does; his designs, programs, and actions need to arise not just from his knowledge of "how to", but also from an inner sense of timing, process, rhythm and balance.

This may seem at first to be quite demanding, but these skills can be learned with practice and experimentation. The more one designs andragogical formats, the more deeply one comes to *own* and live the process and the more effective and integrated are one's designs. As trainers in the field, you have undoubtedly had the experience of a particular design "clicking", where everything seemed to fall naturally into place. This dimension of the workshop is intended to examine and practice the dynamics involved in designing such successful programs.

Workshop Instructions

The Design Groups (D-groups) are meant to provide the opportunity to experimentally live this andragogical process by designing and implementing one's own training activity for the total workshop population. The task of these D-groups will be to choose one of the expressed goals/interests of the workshop population (cf. Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS) and design a one-hour training activity, following andragogical methodology, for implementation before the total workshop community. The D-groups will have two scheduled meeting times on Day 2 and Day 3, for design (more time may be, used by any group during their free time at their own option) and implementation will start Day 3 and continue as scheduled through Day 4. The resources available to each D-group in their planning and execution include the following:

*   The staff trainers of the workshop will function as
    Resource Consultants for all groups when called upon at
    the initiation of each D-group.

*   Part One of this Guide: ANDRAGOGY - CONCEPTS FOR ADULT
    LEARNING, will be in your hands as a background guide from
    which to operate.

*   Skills Practice Sessions held on Days 2 and 3 will provide
    skills, ideas, formats and devices for your adaptation and
    audio-visual equipment will also be available to you.

*   In addition to the Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS, each
    D-group will also receive the following handouts on
    design.

The Designing Process

The following steps present a general procedural outline of the flow of a design and may be helpful in your groups:

1. *Gather Data*

    - What is the population of your training group? What are the limitations of time and space? What are your resources (both materials and people)? What exactly is your task?

    - Excellent designs have proven unsuccessful in practice because they did not take into account the particular uniqueness and limitation of the setting.

    - At the beginning of the planning process, it is also helpful to organize the planning group so that everyone knows each other and has an idea of the variety of skills and experience represented in the group. It might also be helpful to have a member be an observer of your group's functioning so that your planning can proceed smoothly.

    - The Group Collation Sheet - INTERESTS is part of your data.

2. *Translation of PROBLEMS into NEEDS into Training OBJECTIVES*

    You start with the collation of INTERESTS of the workshop population. Often such formulations, however, do not tell you enough about the actual needs being expressed. They may be stated in vague and general terms, as frustrations or uneasy questions, or as job problems. Not all such *problems* call for training--some may be solved by changes in organizational structure, new procedures, or clarification. Other problems, once understood, may contain several training needs.

    Example: expressed problem - There is poor communication between the training staff, and the administration.

    possible needs - to establish a regular meeting time between admin-istration and the training staff

    - to train the staff in the consultant's role in relation to administration

    - to orient the administration to training goals and methods and the training staff to administration policies and procedures

problem . . . individual . . . . tem,
the personal . . . mix . . of personalities . . . . . .
. . . of . . . and the staff and Mr. . . . .

Vague . . . . problems . . should be . . . . .
. . . . and defined to reveal . . . .
. . . .
. . . . . . information is needed by the training staff
. . . . before such clarity is gained.

After the practice need or needs have been ascertained,
it is then the task of the planning staff to translate
these needs into the desired learning objectives you
wish to achieve from training. These training objectives
are the specific tasks you will design programs and for-
mats to accomplish in order to meet the needs of your
clients. In the above example, if the need was, "to
learn the consultant's role in relation to administration",
the training objective might be, "to role play with
training staff an administrator giving the . . . . . .
assignment.

A summary of the above distinctions between problems,
needs and objectives follows:

Problem   - a vague sense of unease; a
                                 general area of concern con-
                                 taining varied group, indivi-
                                 dual and community needs.

Need   - a defined expression seeking
                                 . . . .
                                 . . . .
                                 expressed with such formula-
                                 tions as; to know, to be able to,
                                 to change, etc.

Training Objective   - the statement of the desired
                                 learning to be achieved through
                                 training . . . .
                                 . . . .
                                 . . . .

Out . . .   training
                                 . . . . achieve
                                 based on the defined objectives
                                 and needs.

3. *Planning the Actual Design*

   After your specific training objective has been discussed
   and clarified, it is now appropriate to start planning
   the format for learning by which to achieve your objec-
   tive.

   The following is a list on considerations at this step
   in your planning process:

   *   At the beginning of your design, there should be
       built in some time for *climate setting*--for establish-
       ing a comfortable, involving atmosphere. Sharing
       expectations, introducing the staff, gathering ques-
       tions, starting off with icebreakers are all ways
       this can be done. Climate setting, although formally
       a concern at the beginning of an activity, actually
       is a dimension of the entire program (cf. Chapter 2,
       Part One).

   *   In considering the methods, devices, and procedures
       to be used, make sure they are consistent with your
       objectives and integrated with the whole program.

   *   Whatever methods you choose, it is important that
       they allow as much experiential practice and partici-
       pant involvement as possible. The more participants
       enter into their own learning, the more rich and
       enjoyable that activity is.

   *   Having selected your methods and general plan for
       your activity, discuss your individual roles as
       trainers in the exercise, the time allotments for
       the different phases, logistics, etc.

   *   Evaluate and hypothetically test your design against
       the criteria of:

           Does the design meet your objectives?
           Does it allow for self-direction and involvement
           by the participants?
           Are the methods chosen consistent with your
           objectives, with the setting, with your general
           andragogical process?
           Is it exciting?

   *   Also build in an evaluation phase for your design.
       This evaluation form or discussion should get at the
       following:

           _____ the emotional reactions to the training
                 activity.

           _____ what learning was generated from it?

           _____ what degree of competence was felt to be
                 gained in the skill or content of the design?

_____ how the group process facilitated or was un-
helpful in progressing toward goals during
the activity?

_____ some feedback for the training staff and the
design and administration of the activity

_____ a re-assessment of the future needs or aspects
of the training dimension for further inquiry

As a tool to your own designing process, the following
checklist may help to keep the whole picture in focus as you
proceed in your D-groups.

WORKSHEET:

PROBLEM:

NEED(S):

TRAINING OBJECTIVE:

DESIRED OUTCOME:

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

EVALUATION

PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY

The following comparison of assumptions and processes of pedagogy and andragogy, prepared by Dr. Malcolm Knowles, illustrates two contrasting strategies for change and learning. This comparison may be useful in your designing activities.

ASSUMPTIONS			PROCESS ELEMENTS		
	Pedagogy	Andragogy		Pedagogy	Andragogy
Self-concept	Dependency	Increasing Self-directiveness	Climate	Authority-oriented Formal Competitive	Mutuality Respectful Collaborative Informal
Experience	Of little worth	Learners are a rich resource for learning	Planning	By teacher	Mechanism for mutual planning
Readiness	Biological development Social Pressure	Developmental tasks of social roles	Diagnosis of needs	By teacher	Mutual self-diagnosis
Time Perspective	Postponed application	Immediacy of application	Formulation of Objectives	By teacher	Mutual negotiation
Orientation to learning	Subject centered	Problem centered	Design	Logic of the subject matter ---- Content units	Sequenced in terms of readiness ---- Problem units
			Activities	Transmittal techniques	Experiential techniques (inquiry)
			Evaluation	By teacher	Mutual re-diagnosis of needs ---- Mutual measurement of program

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 1

DATA

   EXPRESSED PROBLEM

   DEFINED NEED(S)

   TRAINING OBJECTIVES

   DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

   CLIMATE SETTING

   MUTUAL AGREEMENT
   ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
   AND AGENDA

   METHODS AND PROCEDURES

   EVALUATION

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 2

DATA

  EXPRESSED PROBLEM

  DEFINED NEED(S)

  TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

  DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

  CLIMATE SETTING

  MUTUAL AGREEMENT
  ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
  AND AGENDA

  METHODS AND
  PROCEDURES

  EVALUATION

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 3

DATA

    EXPRESSED PROBLEM

    DEFINED NEED(S)

    TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

    DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

    CLIMATE SETTING

    MUTUAL AGREEMENT
    ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
    AND AGENDA

    METHODS AND
    PROCEDURES

    EVALUATION

MIMEO DESIGN OF D-GROUP 4

DATA

    EXPRESSED PROBLEM

    DEFINED NEED(S)

    TRAINING OBJECTIVE(S)

    DESIRED OUTCOME(S)

DESIGN PROCEDURES

    CLIMATE SETTING

    MUTUAL AGREEMENT
    ON NEEDS, OBJECTIVES
    AND AGENDA

    METHODS AND
    PROCEDURES

    EVALUATION

EVALUATION: DESIGN GROUP PROCESS

At the conclusion of the D-group's training activities,
there will be an emergent evaluation session discussing the
dynamics those groups experienced in their designing and imple-
menting.

BOOKLET D
SYSTEMS INTERVENTION AND MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS

BOOKLET D: SYSTEMS INTERVENTION AND MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS

Introduction:

Training never takes place in a vacuum, but rather is surrounded by the needs and objectives of the client system and the effects of learning outcomes on the functioning of that system. Likewise, the trainer is a person who has interdependent relations and responsibilities with his client , his employer, and his mission and within the interlocking structure of his own agency or organization.

In addition to acquiring the skills of training--the internal dynamics related to the training enterprise--the potential andragogue needs also to be aware of the network of individual and community systems in which he operates and for which he renders service.

System is here defined as any configuration of interdependent people and roles which function together to accomplish a common endeavor. Every *group* is a system , although a system is not itself limited to being a face-to-face relation. A system, moreover, usually involves complex role specialization and and inter-group dynamics; the relation between *systems* and *subsystems*.

Assessing the needs of such systems, their readiness for change, and the appropriate interventions necessary for their particular needs--all become part of the trainer's responsibility as a consultant and change agent.

Workshop Instructions

Training Skills Option III: THE TRAINER AS CONSULTANT, and Teaching Devices Option III: SIMULATION, both involve relevant materials for the trainer in a system. In addition to these options, the workshop has scheduled the night of the fourth day for the detailed exploration of this training dimension.

The materials that follow in this booklet provide theoretical input for the experiential simulation of Day Four.

FORCE FIELD THEORY

One helpful model for understanding the nature of change in systems is that developed by Kurt Lewin (1948). He perceived institutions or organizations existing in dynamic balance between opposing *forces* which are constantly in tension, relation or equilibrium. The relative intensity of these *forces*, the source from which they originate, and their effects on the organization, all determine whether that system is remaining static or is in flux. If, for example, the *driving* or increasing forces are equally matched by *restraining* or decreasing forces, the system remains static. If, on the other hand, one of these forces tends to increase or decrease in respect to others, the system changes.

A common example used to illustrate this model is the case of the production level of a work team in a factory (Bennis, Benne, Chin, 1969, p. 328ff). Lewin proposes that if the level of production remains constant over a period of time, it is because the forces that tend to raise the level are equal to the forces that tend to decrease it. This situation can be diagrammed:
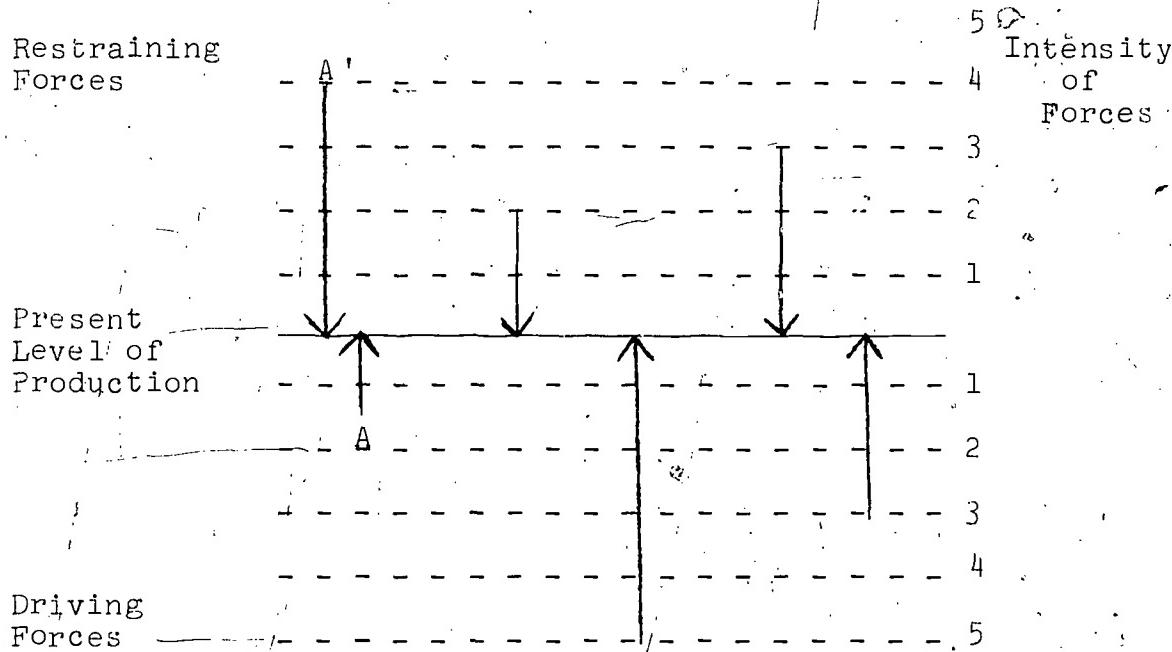
An example of a driving force (A) in this case could be the desire of the workers to earn more money under the incentive plan of their company; a restraining force (A') could be the feeling by workers that their product is unimportant. In any case, Lewin holds that as long as the total sum of the restraining forces counteracts the total sum of the driving forces, the level of production remains the same.

There are three general strategies which can be employed to change this static state of the system:

1. The driving forces can be increased. The supervisor, for example, can apply more pressure or stricter quotas. While such coercive forces may temporarily increase production, it has been shown that use of this strategy alone tends also to increase the tension and resistance of the persons concerned. The psychological forces activated in reaction to such an increase in pressure can result in even stronger restraining forces.

2. The restraining forces can be reduced. Removing the blocks, resistances, dissatisfactions and tensions which keep production down can act to raise the level of production without increasing the tension of the system. Generally, this approach is recommended over the first. It gets at the problem causing the resistance rather than increasing the pressures.

3. Reduce the restraining forces and increase the driving forces. At the same time a supervisor is increasing incentives and inaugurating new procedures (increasing driving forces) he can also be initiating problem solving solutions for the resistances in the system (reducing restraining forces). If this approach is done consistently with the total system in mind, such a strategy can lead to the desired change in the system with the least amount of tension and resistance.

Application To Training

Lewin's Force Field Model can serve as a tool for the initial diagnosis of a system for which a trainer is to be a consultant. By analyzing the restraining and driving forces affecting his client's problem, he can determine an entry point for training or procedural interventions. The following worksheet provides a checklist for your use on a problem which has relevance to your own job responsibilities.

WORKSHEET: FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Problem (or Situation):

Driving Forces: a.
                       b.
                       c.
                       d.
                       e.

Restraining Forces: a'.
                       b'.
                       c'.
                       d'.
                       e'.

Restraining   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 5   Intensity
Forces   of
                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 4   Forces

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 3

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 2

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 1

Present
Level of   _____
Production
                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 1

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 2

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 3

                   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 4

Driving
Forces   - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 5

Point of Entry For Training:

Recommended Interventions:
(To reduce restraining forces
and increase driving forces)

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The Consultant and the System: - A Model for Process Intervention

The andragogue in his training responsibilities often must deal with other agencies, organizations, and groups. The same process of education we have outlined for the design and implementation of adult training activities applies equally as well to the job of a consultant or of a manager in a system. The following model applies the andragogical process to the consultant's role.

1. *Establishing a Contract*

Part of the initial task of the consultant is to determine the *motivation* and *readiness* to change of his client system. The *resistances* and *resources* for such change must also be assessed. The Force Field Analysis model as described in this Booklet is helpful in this respect. Also the consultant's own motivation and resources as a change agent need to be assessed in terms of the system with which he is working.

It is important that both client and consultant are clear about their mutual expectations, perspectives, and relationship. The outcomes expected by the client and perceived by the consultant should be the same; an important dimension of climate setting.

2. *Diagnosis of the Problem*

When a client calls on a consultant, the problem has begun to be solved, for the client has recognized a problem and has begun to mobilize forces for its solution. He is already in a problem solving attitude and has shown he is receptive to new ideas. The consultant's first task, however, is to clearly define for himself the entire texture of the situation presented. Often the problem as stated by the client is not the real need (cf. Booklet C on the distinction between problem and need). Through interviews, questionnaires and on-site observation the consultant needs to explore all the complex issues involved. From such information, he can then set objectives and design his intervention (Steps 1 and 2 of this model are similar to *Organization Involvement* and *Pre-training Preparation* as outlined by Professor Nadler (1971) as well as with steps 1-4 of the andragogical process.)

3. *Point of Intervention*

After the preliminary work, need assessment and formulation of objectives, has been completed, the consultant is ready to enter the system. The following principles, as developed by Drs. Benne and Birnbaum specify the nature of this intervention (cf. Bennis, Benne, Chin, 1969, pp 33 ff):

* To change a system, the relevant aspects of its environment must also be changed;

* To change behavior at one level of a system, complementary and reinforcing changes must be achieved in levels above, below, and parallel to that level;

* The place to begin a change is where there exists stress, strain, or frustration. Often these points are highly amenable to change;

* The "higher" up a change is introduced in a system, the more effective it will be for total system change;

* Change in a system is more effective when all persons affected by that change have a part in the problem-finding and problem-solving activities stemming from the consultant's intervention.

4. *Evaluation and Reinforcement*

After particular consultant interventions have been implemented, support and encouragement is needed to solidify the changes that have been effected. Without this reinforcement systems tend to revert back to old habits and procedures. One means for such reinforcement is the periodic evaluation process conducted by the consultant after his initial entry into the system is terminated. Also, if the changes instituted are integrated within the total system, reinforcement and confirmation tend to occur during normal operations.

5. *Termination*

The consultant seeks through whatever intervention he makes to transfer to the client system the necessary skills and capability to be self directing and self changing. He does not intentionally foster a dependent relationship, but strives instead to enhance the independent functioning of the system. (cf. Trainer Skills Option III).

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SYSTEMS SIMULATION

(A) EXERCISE

GENERAL OBJECTIVES   * To experience and explore the dynamics
OF EXERCISE: of systems and sub-systems.

                      * To practice creating inter-group
                        communications, especially between
                        administration functions and the train-
                        ing enterprise.

                      * To relate these experiences to organi-
                        zational effectiveness and mission
                        responsibilities.

Procedure:

     The training-staff begins with a brief input and discussion
of the nature and definition of *systems* (cf. previous materials in
this Booklet and Chapter 7 of Part One).

     Participants are then introduced to this simulation and
given Instructional Sheet I, which gives a description of the
total system they represent and asks that they divide into par-
ticular sub-groups of their own choosing. Activity is begun and
continues until the simulation segment is completed.

     This simulation symbolizes an organizational system all of
whose components--administration, personnel, training, research
and design, budget and finance, public relations, and support
staff--are represented in the metaphoric system of a Repertory
Company. The evaluation session following this simulation will
discuss participants' learning regarding systems, organizational
communication, and inter-group dynamics.

(B)   INSTRUCTIONAL SHEET I

        The total participant community of the workshop is asked to
assume the role of a traveling Repertory Company--an entertain-
ment company whose specialty is performing skits, plays, or
variety shows for Five Day Residential Workshops.

        This Repertory Company is being asked to plan, write,
organize and enact a one half hour dress rehearsal of a
show for this workshop which will dramatize, satirize and/or
set to music some learnings, events, exercises or dimensions
of training common to the experience of members of this workshop.

        The Repertory Company will be composed of the following sub-
groups:

Producers (3 persons)   The producers are responsible for the
                                completion of this whole task, having
                                executive authority and over-all re-
                                sponsibility for the Company and the
                                Show.

Talent Recruiters and   The recruiters and casters are respon-
Casters (6 persons)   sible for soliciting the talent needed
                                to perform in the created show.   The
                                performers can be gathered from the
                                whole workshop community.

Directors (3 persons)   The directors are responsible for
                                interpreting the created play or skits,
                                etc., to the performer; trans-
                                forming the material into a show.

Playwriters (8 persons)   The playwriters are responsible for
                                creating the play skit, dialogue, etc.,
                                which will be the content of the show.

Schedulers (3 persons)   The schedulers are responsible for
                                allocating and monitoring the time
                                limitations of the Repertory Company
                                (2 1/2 hours for planning, 1/2 hour
                                for show).

Public Relations   The public relations group is responsible
(4 persons)   for observing the other groups and re-
                                porting to all groups on the progress,
                                difficulties, and needs of the Show.

Stage Hands (5 persons)   The stage hands are responsible for
                                creating or collecting the materials
                                needed for the performance of the Show
                                and for all support during that perfor-
                                mance.

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(C) EVALUATION

This evaluation will be designed by the trainers in training
at the completion of the simulation exercise.

BOOKLET E

EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND APPLICATION
OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

BOOKLET E: EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

Introduction

Evaluation is an integral component of every training activity or program. Finding out whether one's designs, exercises, or interventions have achieved their desired results is necessary if one wishes to be responsible in training. Merely gathering this data on *results*, however, does not fully describe the function of evaluation. Evaluation procedures themselves can provide a rich learning experience that is part of your training activity.

Too often evaluation is viewed as a *post*-learning event that takes place *after* the program is completed. This Guide, however, proposes that evaluation is part of the learning sequence and a necessary step in andragogical process. Evaluation summarizes, articulates, orders, and assesses where a person is with respect to his learning objectives. Such assessment of learning, then, allows for the trainee to re-assess his needs, interests, and values in light of such outcomes. This re-assessment is both part of evaluation and part of the preparation for future training.

When training activities follow andragogical process, evaluation is the last step prior to the commencement of the next learning sequence? After implementing a training program one needs to assess the learning outcome and begin planning for the next developmental phase. In summary, evaluation denotes the following three components:

1. Discovery of what change and learning has taken place.

2. Exploration of how such discoveries are applicable to other settings and circumstances.

3. Re-assessment of one's own needs, interests, and values in light of such learning and applications.

Evaluation is not a mere test to discover what was not learned. In voluntary adult education and training, the concern is for the *worth* of the program in question--what degree of *involvement*, *persistence*, and *satisfaction* the trainee has experienced. Evaluation also functions as a feedback resource for the trainer, providing him with the data necessary for his own continued improvement as an effective facilitator of adult learning.

Workshop Instructions

During this workshop, as part of each exercise of learning segment, there have been a variety of evaluation procedures. These

questionnaires, collation sheets and discussions have been incorporated into their respective Booklets. During Day Five of the workshop, *Evaluation* as a topic and *Evaluation of the Workshop* itself are the focus.

A four-phase evaluation program has been designed for Day Five of the workshop to meet the needs of this dual focus:

Phase One: APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

Phase Two: EVALUATION OF PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Phase Three: EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A
                       Systems Approach

Phase Four: EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A
                      Subjective Approach

All four phases are intended to bridge the distance between the workshop and the participants' own professional job responsibilities as well as to introduce Part Three of the Guide: FOR CONTINUING APPLICATION.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES (GENERAL) (Miles 1959)

Before a Training Event, it is helpful to know:

- expectations
  *what do the trainees hope, believe, fear will happen or not happen?
- experience
  *what previous training have the trainees had?
- responsibilities
  *what are the trainees' leadership roles?
- relationships
  *what are the trainees' past and future relations with one another?

After a Training Event, it is helpful to know:

- emotional reactions (feelings)
  *rating scale·
  *right now, I feel .....
- information received (understandings)
  *what were the three most significant learnings for you today?
  *what is clear/unclear?
- feelings of competence in skill (behavior)
  *in administering training design, I feel most adequate in ....
  *List the skills in which you feel others believe you most competent
- group process
  *in what ways did your group work well or not well?
  *what person seems to hear me the best?
- future training
  *what would you like to see done in the next session?
  *list the three skills which you now would like to practice
- trainer design and administration
  *what could the trainers do to be more helpful?
  *in the last session, what was most helpful/least helpful?

Guideposts

- Members should not necessarily be asked to sign their names.
- Results should always be reported back to the group.
- Never ask a question that elicits "yes" or "no" for an answer.
- The sharpness of questions determines the sharpness of answers.
- Data collectors are guides; not a determinant for you as trainer.
- If the group resists using reaction forms, they need to become more involved in the decision to use them in planning the questions and knowing the use of the results.
- Data collected in written form is only part of the data needed.

EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

The following gives a brief list of techniques for evaluation. *Remember*: Evaluation does not end the training cycle. It begins it again on another level (re-assessment of needs).

1. Post Meeting Reaction Forms

   Brief questionnaires completed at the end of each meeting provide a quick and continuous resource for replanning during the ongoing training program. The results of such forms can be tabulated easily and presented at the beginning of the next session for comment. Also, they can serve the training staff in long range planning activities.

2. Interviews

   Two person or group interviews can solicit much information in an informal way. It is most appropriate when one is determining levels of change in attitudes and general reaction to training.

3. Discussion

   At the end of the meeting or program a discussion can be held evaluating both the learning outcomes of the meeting as well as the processes, administration, and coordination efforts. Reports can be solicited from such groups and collated for the entire group.

4. Tests

   Standardized or subjective tests, open-ended questionnaires, and surveys are more formal means of evaluation and are useful when a large number of people are involved and/or when you are planning a long-range complex training program.

5. Competency Models

   (cf. Part One, Chapter 3; Part Two, Booklet B)
   Periodic development of individual competency models provide a resource for the continual re-assessment of training needs.

6. Observation

   The use of observers during your training can greatly aid the collation of important data at the end of the program.

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Phase One: EVALUATION

APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO FIELD SETTINGS

(A) Exercise

General Objectives   * To explore and share common problems
of Exercise: encountered in professional life.

                      * To begin to apply workshop learnings
                       to job situations.

                      * To facilitate entry into "back home"
                       settings.

Procedure:

This exercise begins with the total workshop community
dividing into new groups (E-groups) of approximately eight people
apiece. The trainer asks each group to brainstorm for twenty
minutes on any problems, situations, or questions which may
exist in the participants' job settings, especially the ones
that relate to their new learning during the workshop (e.g.,
conflicting policies at home with workshop values and methods).

The trainers then solicit these problems from reporters
in each E-group and write them on large flip charts. Many of
these problems may overlap. After all the reports are in, they
are grouped into identifiable categories. Participants are
then re-formed into Interest groups, choosing one of these cate-
gories and attempting to work out recommendations for their
solution.

The final report from these problem-solving groups will
consist of each group's recommendations or plans for further
exploration. These reports are then collated with the identified
problem areas and reproduced for future reference.

GROUP COLLATION SHEET

Identifiable Problem Areas

Recommended Solutions
or Procedures

1.

1.

2.

2.

3.

3.

4.

4.

5.

5.

6.

6.

7.

7.

8.

8

Phase Two: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF PERSONAL COMPETENCE

EXERCISE

General Objectives   * To articulate one's personal learnings
of Exercise   during the workshop in terms of stated
                       goals, expectations and needs.

                    * To re-assess one's training needs in
                       light of the workshop.

Procedure:

      Participants will be asked to temporarily remove from their
Guides the three competency models completed on Day One of the work-
shop (cf. Introduction, Booklet B). These models will serve as a
comparison to the following models to be completed at this time.

     1. COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

      On the following scale, enter your original esti-
mate of your level of effectiveness in implementing the
seven step andragogical process. Using a different color
pen then rate your present felt level of effectiveness:

	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests, Goals	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs
100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

After you have completed this model, compare the two ratings and mark the difference between them. In the space provided below, give a brief account of some reasons for the difference or lack of difference in the two models. Utilize other members of your group as resources to help you clarify your perceptions.

2.— COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

On the following scale, enter your original estimate of your proficiency in the eight training skills and teaching devices described in this Guide. In a different color pen then rate your present level of proficiency.
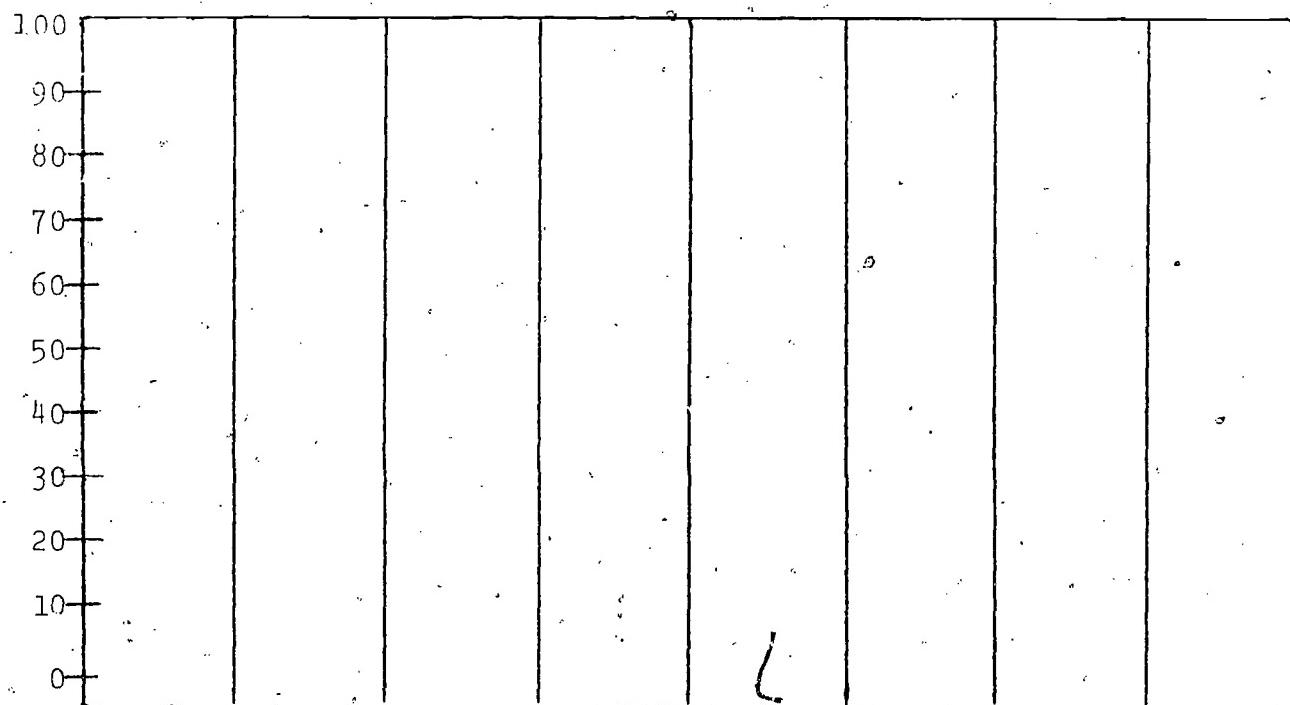
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After you have completed this model, compare the two ratings and mark the difference between them. In the space provided below, give a brief account of some reasons for the difference or lack of difference in the two models. Group discussion of this question can be helpful in clarifying your responses.

3. PERSONAL COMPETENCY

On the following scale, enter your original *proficiency* and *expectations* for *improvement* in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected. In a different color pen then rate the degree to which you now estimate you have progressed in these seven areas:
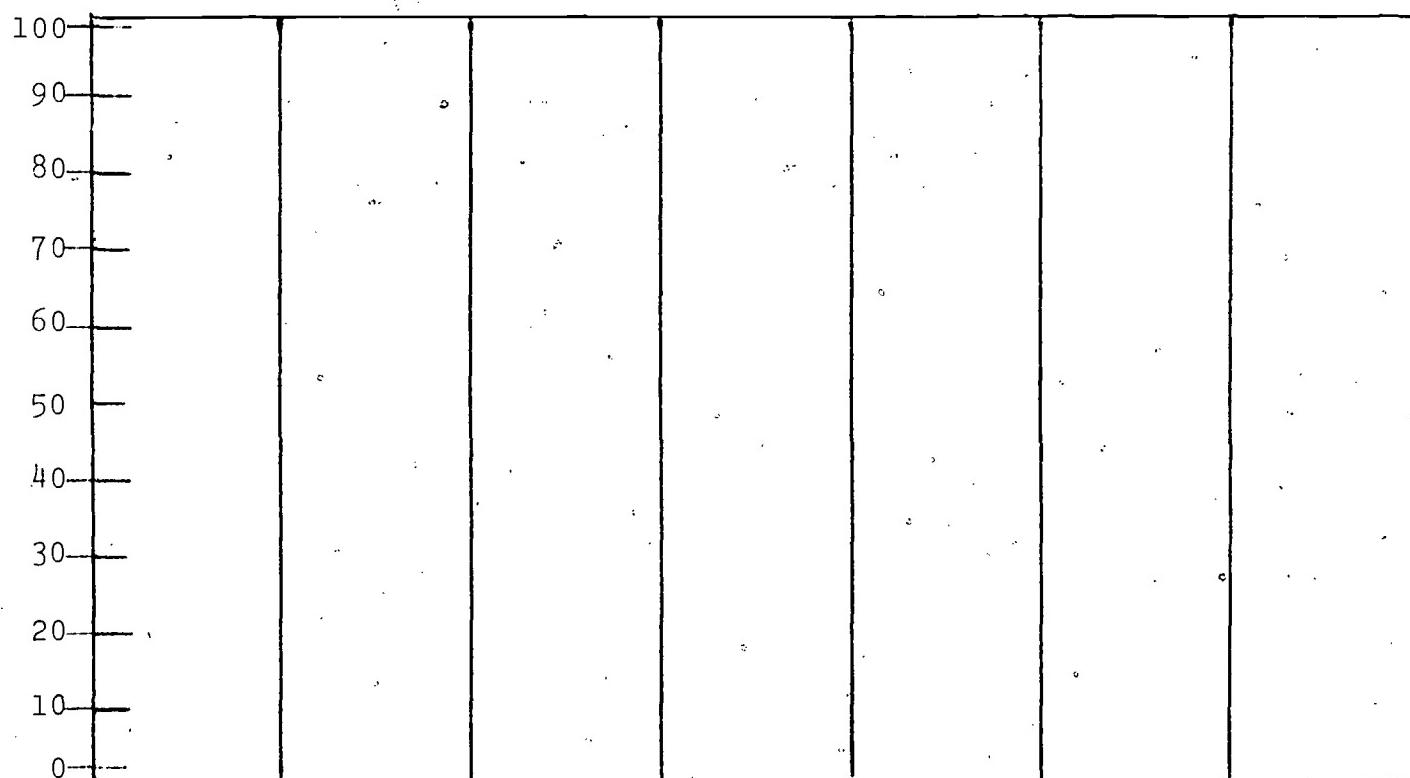
After you have completed this model, compare the
three ratings and mark the difference between them.
In the space provided below, give a brief account of
some reasons for the difference or lack of difference
in the three models. Discuss your responses with other
members of your group.

Phase Three: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF THE FIVE DAY WORKSHOP - A Systems Approach

(A) EXERCISE

    General Objectives   * To assess the entire workshop with
    of Exercise   regard to its Output

                                    * To introduce Part III of the Guide
                                     and plan for a return to field
                                     settings

Procedure:

    The training staff introduces this session with general
comments on the nature of evaluation, self-assessment, and re-
assessment of training needs (cf. Introduction Booklet E, and
Part One, Chapter 6).

    The *Systems Outcome Criteria* by which the workshop is to
be evaluated are then briefly described (cf. Input Sheet B). Each
participant will then complete Rating Scale C.

(B) INPUT: SYSTEMS OUTPUT CRITERIA

I PRODUCTIVITY

The attainment of the workshop goals as listed in the Intro-
duction of Part Two, as collated from participants during the
Introductory Session (Booklet C), and as determined by participants'
competency models (Booklet B and E):

Product Utility - To what degree was the workshop designed
to meet these sets of goals and needs?

Service Utility - To what degree did the workshop succeed
in actually meeting these sets of goals
and needs?

II WORKSHOP HEALTH

The ability of the workshop to maintain itself and its pro-
ductivity in terms of dynamic interaction of the workshop, it's
participants, staff and climate:

Adaptability   - To what extent did the workshop solve
it's problems and react with flexibility
to changing needs, interests, values and
climate?

Identity Sense   - To what extent were the goals of the work-
shop understood and shared widely by par-
ticipants, and to what extent was the
perception of the Workshop by the partici-
pants in line with the perceptions by the
staff?

Capacity to   - To what extent did the workshop provide a
Test Reality   setting for searching out, accurately
perceiving and correctly interpreting the
real needs of participants?

III INTEGRATION POTENTIAL

The ability of the workshop to mesh the needs of the indivi-
dual and/or groups to workshop and participant goals:

Self-   - To what extent did you as a member of the
actualization   workshop realize your highest personal
goals (cf. personal competency model com-
pleted in Booklets B and E)?

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```
Group Decision-    - To what extent were individual members
Making               and groups involved with the staff in
                     making decisions regarding the achieve-
                     ment of workshop goals?

Individual's       - To what extent did participants willingly
Ability to           attempt and/or accept innovation?
Change
```

IV   FEEDBACK

This section measures the effectiveness and utilization of workshop evaluations and assessments of various exercises and activities during the entire five-day period including today's sessions:

```
Desirability       - To what degree was feedback encouraged and
of                   accepted by the participants and staff?

Penetration        - To what degree was such feedback effective
of                   in influencing your learning from the
                     workshop?
```

(C) RATING SCALE

On the line below each criteria, with (1) being the lowest and (9) being the highest, rate the Five-Day Residential Workshop.

1. PRODUCTIVITY

Product Utility

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Service Utility

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

II WORKSHOP

Adaptability

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Identity

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Reality Test

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Capability

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

III INTEGRATION

Self-actualization

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Group Decision Making

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Individual Flexibility

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

IV FEEDBACK

Desirability of

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

Penetration of

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
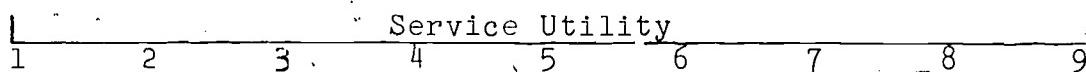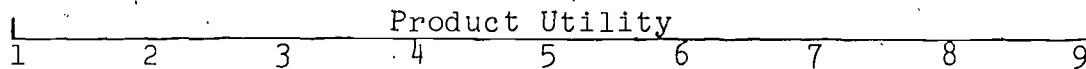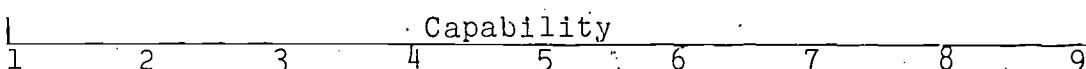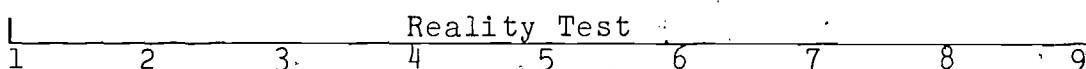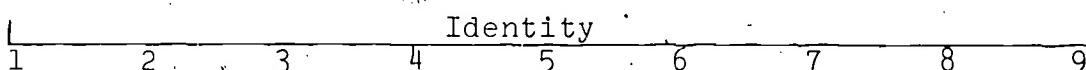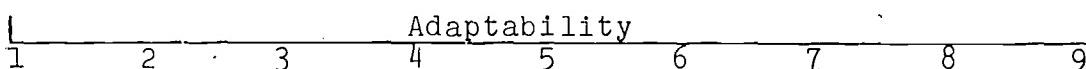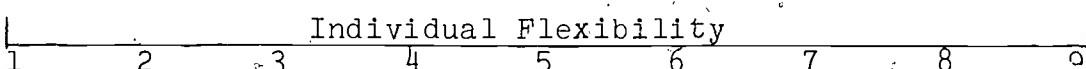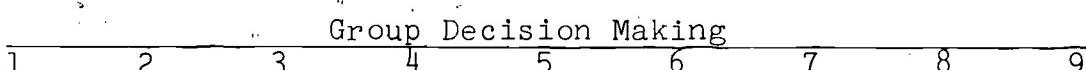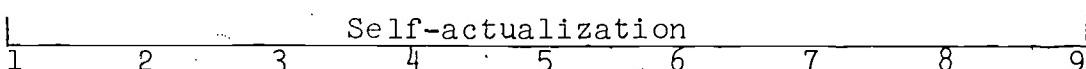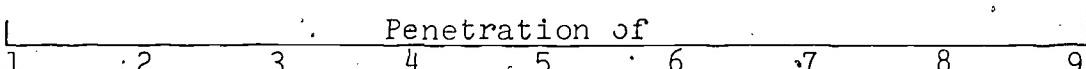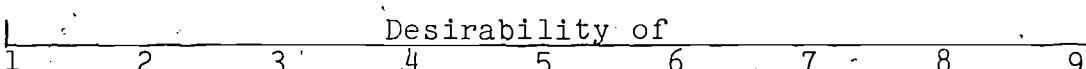
Phase Four: EVALUATION

EVALUATION OF FIVE-DAY WORKSHOP - A Subjective Approach

The workshop has been designed around the five dimensions and booklets described in the Introduction to Part Two of the Guide.   These dimensions will be listed on newsprint for your reference in this evaluation.

In your separate E-Groups, please complete the following questionnaire after briefly discussing each point:

1.   What was the most "valuable" dimension of the workshop?

2.   What was the least "valuable" dimension of the workshop?

3.   List one or two learnings gained in each of these dimensions:

   Booklet A: Adult Learning in Groups

      A.

      B.

   Booklet B: Trainer Skills and Teaching Devices

      A.

      B.

   Booklet C: Design and Implementation of Adult Learning Activities

      A.

      B.

Booklet D: Systems Intervention and Management Analysis

    A.

    B.

Booklet E: Evaluation Procedures and Application of
Learning to Field Settings

    A.

    B.

Final Comments on the Workshop

At the conclusion of this evaluation, Part III of the Guide
will be explained as "Field Application", an ongoing process of
continued learning.

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ANDRAGOGY
For Continuing Application

RECORDING AND LEARNING FROM FIELD EXPERIENCE

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PART THREE

FOR CONTINUING APPLICATION

Recording and Learning from Field Experience

The facilitation of training capabilities and skills in andragogical process requires the creative application and experimentation by the trainer in his own unique setting. Parts One and Two of this Guide are intended to give the necessary background input and experiential practice in the principles and skills of the training of adults. The actual assimilation of these learnings by the trainer is heavily influenced by the way he implements such learning in his own training activities.

The trainer's application of learning following this Five Day Workshop will be a continuous process of experimentation, variation, adaptation and re-assessment of training needs. This period can be a rich growth experience following the workshop as well as a source for new questions and a search for advanced competencies. Part Three of this Guide, therefore, envisions a six-month interval between the training program of Part Two and the renewed training of Part Three. For this interval, the trainer in training is offered a series of "field sheets" to assist his transfer of learnings and application of his skills. This initial material includes the following:

A Personal Journal

Participants of the workshop are encouraged to keep a private journal of the personal and interpersonal processes, problems, and insights he becomes aware of as he implements andragogical educational activities.

Clinicing Procedures

A sheet describing procedures and offering suggestions to facilitate reinforcement of learning and continuous feedback in one's "back home" setting.

Evaluation Forms

These sheets are for use in conjunction with the trainer's application of the skills, exercises, formats and devices encountered during the workshop.

Competency Models

These models will record the trainer's continued assessment of his competence in Andragogy, Training and Personal Skills.

Questionnaire

Following this six month interval, another Five Day Residential Workshop is envisioned. This questionnaire will be mailed to all participants asking for summaries of the information they have included into Part Three of their Guides. This information will be used by the training staff of the second workshop in their initial planning and design. The workshop itself will, however, be a semi-structured format encouraging the active participation of its members in designing and conducting their own training activities, centered around actual problems, needs and values encountered during the six-month interval between workshops.

Workshop Materials

The exercises, devices, formats and learnings of the second Five Day Workshop will be reproduced and made available to participants for inclusion into Part Three of this Guide.

PERSONAL JOURNAL

A journal is a subjective diary of your thoughts, feelings,
insights, problems and learnings which are generated as you
implement the learnings acquired during the workshop.

Often the articulation of these reactions increases one's
understanding of one's own identity and professional role. It
is for this reason that we encourage the keeping of a personal
journal which will be for your own private use.

A journal might consist of the following:

Aspirations: My own thoughts, hopes, expectations prior to
                      a training event.

Task and   What are the goals of the training event looked
Process Issues: at from the perspective of task and process?

Organization   What goals do I feel are important in terms of
Development   organizational development?
Issues:

Applications: What training skills and teaching devices have
                      I used? How skillful was I? How well did the
                      devices work?

Evaluation   What was learned? Is there any subjective or
of Outcomes: objective data to support my beliefs? What are
                      the needs now?

CLINICING

One element of andragogical process that has been emphasized
continuously during the workshop and in this Guide is the impor-
tance of periodically re-assessing one's competencies and learning
needs. This need becomes even more important in the trainer's
field setting, where he will be applying and experimenting with
his new learnings.

One method of ensuring that such a re-assessment will take
place effectively and valuably is the *clinic session*. A clinic
is an evaluation and sharing session in which trainers who hold
common interests and responsibilities meet to accomplish some or
all of the following:

* Provide re-inforcement to each other's accepted behavioral
changes

* Give support to one another's learnings and values genera-
ted during the workshop

* Explore common interests and needs from the workshop or
stimulated by training

* Give feedback to members' new experimentations in training
and personal behavior patterns

* Explore and develop new skills, methods, formats and
devices to enhance one's professional competence

* Share resources

* Extend workshop learnings to new field settings and
experiment with applications and variations of andragogy

* Plan common activities or programs

Clinic sessions can be formed either from participants in the
workshop who meet periodically or from team members who share in
the daily professional responsibilitie. In any case, the care-
ful maturing of a clinic group can greatly aid the application of
your learning in new and exciting field situations.

NOTE: It is recommended that when such clinic groups are
formed, that a careful record of their progress be kept
for inclusion in your Guide.

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EVALUATION FORM

  This form is intended for your use following an application and/or variation of the skills, formats, or devices outlined in this Guide and experienced during the workshop.

Problem or Situation:

Exercise, Device or Skill used:

Adaptation or Variation:

Summary of Evaluation:
(by participants of your activity)

Difficulties Encountered:

Advantages Realized:

Personal Learnings:

Recommendations for
future utilization of
this skill, exercise,
format or device:

EVALUATION FORM

   This form is intended for your use following an application
and/or variation of the skills, formats, or devices outlines in
this Guide and experienced during the workshop.

Problem or Situation:

Exercise, Device or Skill used:

Adaptation or Variation:

Summary of Evaluation:
(by participants of your activity)

Difficulties Encountered

Advantages Realized:

Personal Learnings:

Recommendations for
future utilization of
this skill, exercise,
format or device:

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COMPETENCY MODELS

The following models are intended to record your continued development as andragogues and to assess your degree of competence in the skills of training.

1. *Competency in Andragogy*

On this first scale, record the original estimate of your competence in the seven step process of andragogy as well as your final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.

	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs
100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

Original Estimate - - - - - - - - - -
5th Day Revised Estimate _____

COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

    Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

Chart axes:
100, 90, 80, 70, 60, 50, 40, 30, 20, 10, 0

Categories:
Climate Setting | Structure for Mutual Planning | Assessing Needs, Interests | Forming Objectives | Designing Andragogical Activities | Implementing Andragogical Activities | Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs

COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs
100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

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COMPETENCY IN ANDRAGOGY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record
your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in designing
and implementing andragogical activities and programs.

|	Climate Setting	Structure for Mutual Planning	Assessing Needs, Interests	Forming Objectives	Designing Andragogical Activities	Implementing Andragogical Activities	Evaluation and Reassessment of Needs
100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							

2. COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

On this first scale, record the original estimate of your competence in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlined in this Guide as well as final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.
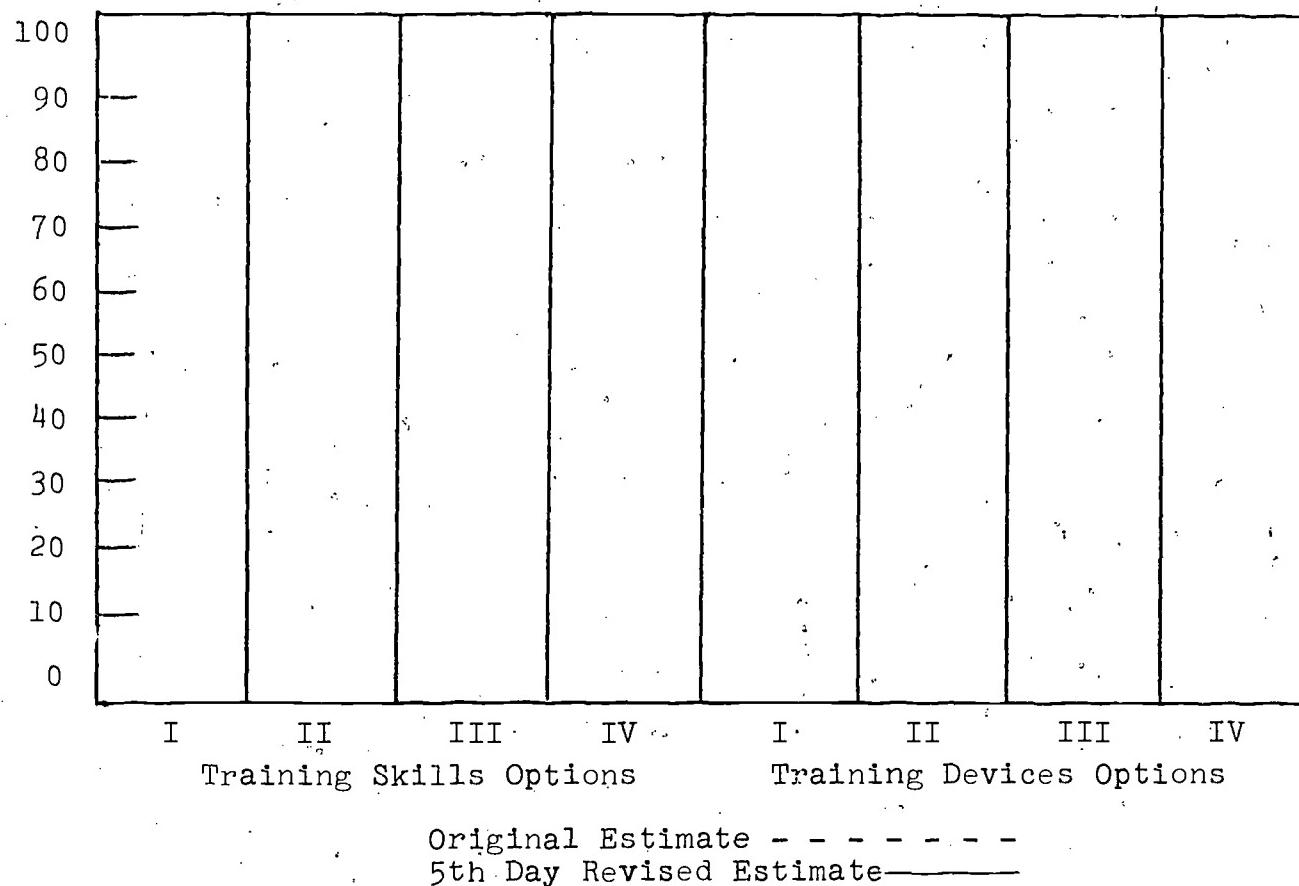
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100 ┌───┬──────┬──────┬──────┬──────┬──────┬──────┬──────┐
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 90 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 80 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 70 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 60 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 50 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 40 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 30 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 20 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
 10 ├─  │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
    │   │      │      │      │      │      │      │      │
  0 └───┴──────┴──────┴──────┴──────┴──────┴──────┴──────┘
     I     II     III    IV      I      II     III    IV
     Training Skills Options      Training Devices Options
```

Original Estimate   - - - - - - - -
5th Day Revised Estimate————

COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlines in this Guide.

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COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlined in this Guide.

100							
90							
80							
70							
60							
50							
40							
30							
20							
10							
0							
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV
	Training Skills Options				Training Devices Options			

COMPETENCY IN TRAINING

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the eight trainer skills and teaching devices outlines in this Guide.


I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV

Training Skills Options   Training Devices Options

3. PERSONAL COMPETENCY

On the first scale, record the original estimate of your competency in the seven personal training interests and job related skills you selected at the beginning of the workshop as well as your final evaluation of the degree of improvement through participation in the workshop.


Original Estimate – – – – – – – – – – – – –
5th Day Revised Estimate
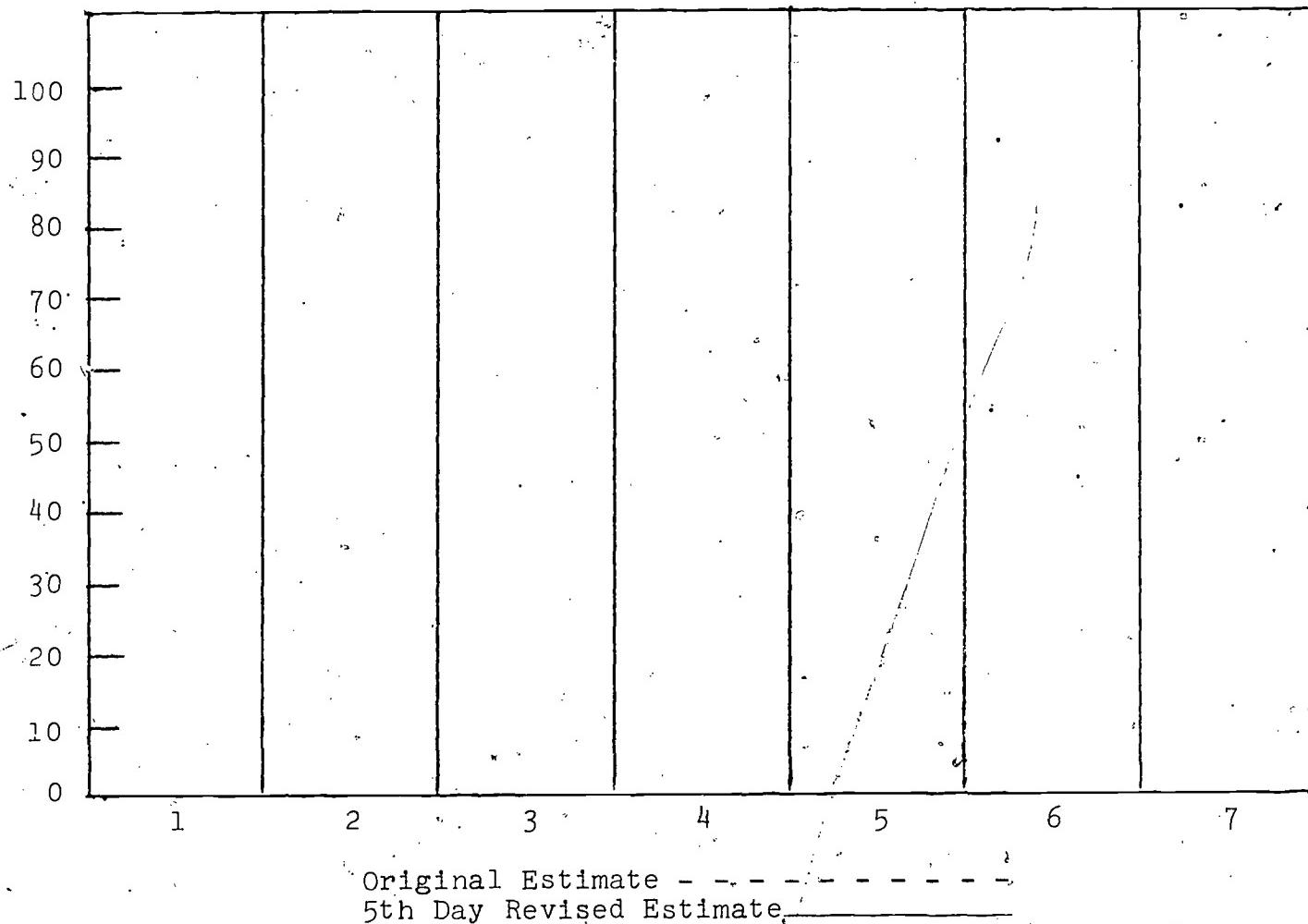
PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record
your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven
personal training interests and job related skills you selected
at the beginning of the workshop.

PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record
your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven
personal training interests and job related skills you selected
at the beginning of the workshop.

100						
90						
80						
70						
60						
50						
40						
30						
20						
10						
0						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PERSONAL COMPETENCY

Every six weeks after the conclusion of the workshop, record
your estimate of your present degree of proficiency in the seven
personal training interests and job related skills you selected
at the beginning of the workshop.

```
100 ──
 90 ──
 80 ──
 70 ──
 60 ──
 50 ──
 40 ──
 30 ──
 20 ──
 10 ──
  0 ──
     1      2      3      4      5      6      7
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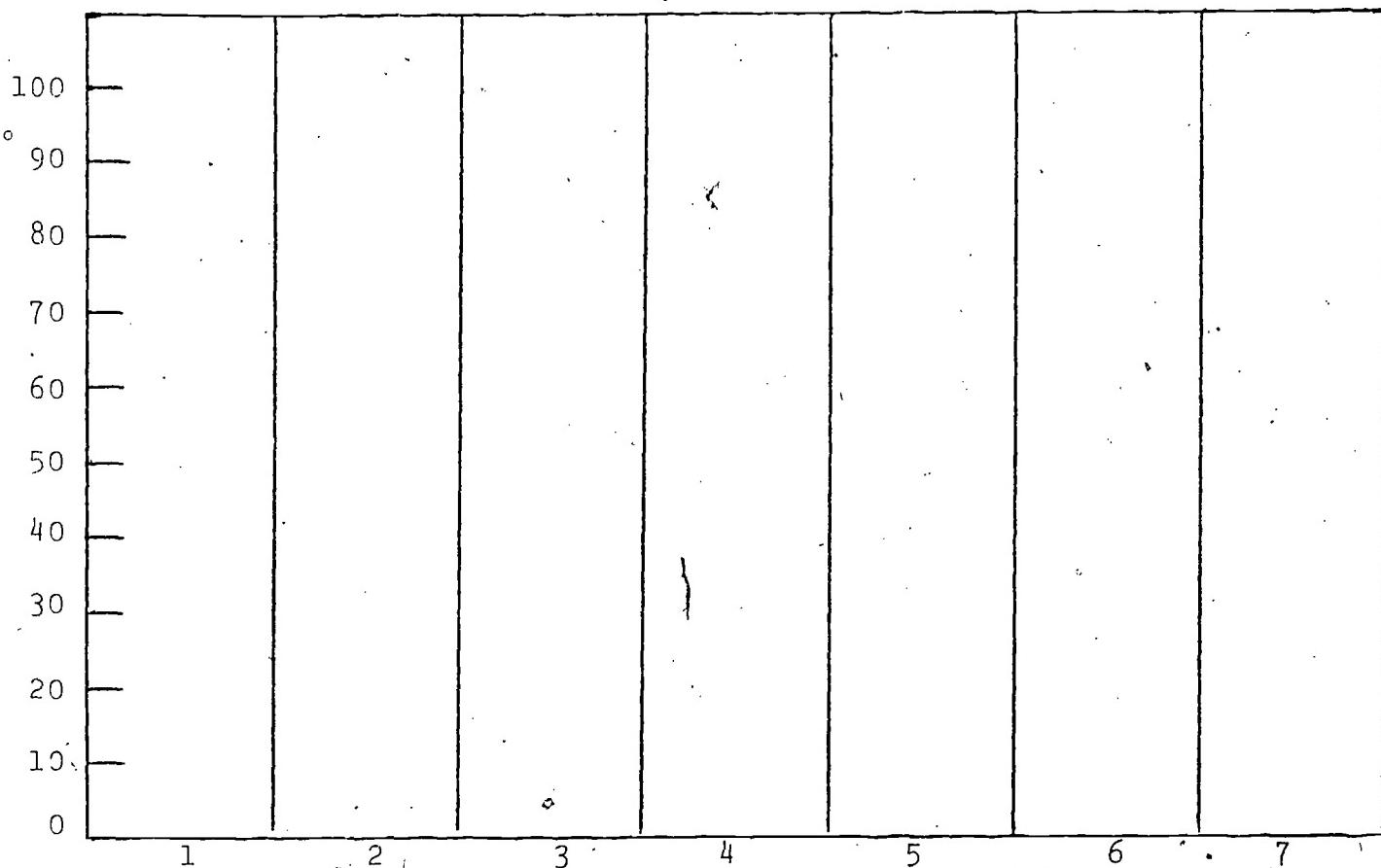
Part 4
Appendix

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

For Part One:

Argyris, Chris, *Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View*, Addison Wesley, Reading, Mass. 1970

Argyris has prepared a remarkable book that links systems theory with administration and management and provides examples of effective and ineffective system interventions. An excellent resource for anyone interested in developing process consultation skills.

Gellerman, Saul A., *Motivation and Productivity*, American Management Association, New York 1963

Mr. Gellerman has performed an extremely capable analysis of current studies on human motivation from the standpoint of "the motivated individual, "the motivating environment," and the integration of the two "motivation in perspective". This is a fine introductory text to the issues and problems of human motivation and management.

Goldstein, Kurt, *Human Nature: In the Light of Psychopathology*, Schocken Books, New York 1940

An essential book for a deeper insight into the nature of science and the nature of man. Dr. Goldstein's clinical research proves the fundamental motivation of mankind to be "self-actualization". Dr. Goldstein, as one of the founders of Gestalt psychology, has provided us with a penetrating insight into normal and abnormal human behavior. Through an analysis of the effects of isolation, Dr. Goldstein derives a conception of normal behavior that has important consequences for men and society.

Janis, Irving L., *Groupthink*, Psychology Today, November 1971

Janis introduces his forthcoming book, *Victims of Groupthink*, Houghton Mifflin, with a lead article in Psychology Today. The main thrust of the book is a study of the group dynamics of war and peace and an analysis of the ways in which major policy decisions have been reached. Its primary value here lies in the presentation of various pitfalls to effective decision making in groups.

Knowles, Malcolm S., *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*, Association Press, New York. 1970

Knowles provides a comprehensive study of the elements and principles of andragogy and presents voluminous information on planning, designing and implementing adult education activities. A most important book, Dr. Knowles' *Modern Practice of Adult Education* is an essential volume for anyone interested in adult education and training.

Lewin, Kurt, *Resolving Social Conflicts*, Harper and Row, New York 1948.

A series of monographs, this book is an excellent introduction to the genius of Kurt Lewin and his startlingly accurate analyses of social forces and ways to effect social change.

McGregor, Douglas, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York. 1960

In a classic study of fundamental assumptions underlying the management process, McGregor laid the foundation for much of the subsequent research in the behavioral science approach to management. An excellent introductory volume for anyone as yet unfamiliar with this area of interest.

Maslow, Abraham H., *Motivation and Personality*, Harper and Row, New York. 1970 Second Edition

The second edition of Maslow's great analysis of human motivation forms the capstone on the life work of this famous psychologist and humanist. This book makes a major contribution to human knowledge with its presentation of the hierarchy of human needs and the operational nature of needs as motivators of human behavior.

Maslow, Abraham H., *Eupsychian Management*, Richard D. Irwin Inc., and the Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois. 1965

Maslow is equally at home with psychology and management. This unusual book points the way toward the future of management and society. An outstanding analysis of modern scientific trends, management theory and practice and applied social psychology.

Raths, Louis E., Harmin, Merrill and Simon, Sidney B., *Values and Teaching*, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio. 1966

A clear approach to the question of values and the relationship of value clarification to education. This book should be helpful to trainers and adult educators. It includes some helpful techniques for value clarification and provides an important psychological dimension omitted from many texts on training and education.

Schein, Edgar H.; *Process Consultation*, (part of six volume series on organization development), Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Mass. 1969

Schein presents a masterful and brief analysis of the major dimensions of group dynamics in the first part of the

valuable book. The second part is devoted to an extended discussion of the role and function of the process consultant. This is a very worthwhile book for anyone interested in present and future trends in training.

For Part Two:

Abt, Clark C., *Serious Games*, The Viking Press, New York. 1970

Clark Abt, a pioneer in the development of simulation games, here outlines the principles behind the educational value of such role play devices. In addition, he details a few of his more successful simulations developed for government and education.

Argyris, Chris., *T-groups for Organizational Effectiveness*, Harvard Business Review, March-April 1964

This article is an excellent summary of the laboratory method of education, especially as it contributes to organizational development. Dr. Argyris clarifies many questions often put to "sensitivity training" concerning its value as a technique for re-education and change.

Banathy, Bela H., *Industrial Systems*, Feuson Publishers, Palo Alto, Ca. 1968

Dr. Banathy in this volume explores the educational relevance of systems theory and practice. In presenting recommendations for the use of the systems approach to designing training curriculum, this book very capably relates the andragogical process to systems analysis.

Benne, Kenneth a) *The Small Group as a Medium of Re-education*
                    Human Relations Center Training Notes,
                    Boston University
                 b) *Decision Making in Groups*, Human Relations
                    Center Training Notes, Boston University
                 c) *Change Does Not Have to Be Haphazard*
                    School Review, Vol. 68, No. 3. 1960

These three articles by Ken Benne explore the place groups and group dynamics have in education and social change. Dr. Benne illustrates how groups can function effectively as a means for personal actualization and organizational health.

Bennis, Warren; Benne, Kenneth; Chin, Robert, *The Planning of Change*, Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York, First Edition, 1961. Second Revised Edition, 1969.

Both editions of this important book contain a number of articles which apply and adapt theories of social and personal dynamics to planned change. The First Edition stresses the place of T-groups in the contemporary age of social change.

The Second Edition (90% different from the first) has the more general intention of developing the whole field of Applied Social Science. Both volumes are strongly recommended.

Bergevin, Paul; Morris, Dwight; Smith, Robert M., *Adult Education Procedures*, The Seaburg Press, New York. 1963

Bergevin, Morris and Smith present a survey outline of the various procedures and techniques developed for adult education including a description of twenty educational techniques which have proved effective in their own experience. This volume is a good supplement to the work of Malcolm Knowles and Matthew Miles.

Boocock, S; and Schilde, E., *Simulation Games in Learning*, Sage Publishers, Inc., Beverly Hills, Ca. 1968

In this very interesting and clearly written book, the authors study the fascination of simulations, their workable potentials for learning, the questions they raise, and the research findings from games, e.g., Parent-Child, Life Career, Democracy, Community Disaster, Econonics. The basic contention is that learning can be both interesting and fun.

Knowles, Malcolm and Hulda, *Introduction to Group Dynamics*, Association Press, New York. 1959

In this small volume, the Knowles' present a clear picture of the field of Group Dynamics. It is a valuable book with which to begin this exploration and is especially recommended for the person unfamiliar with training or small groups.

Likert, Rensis, *The Nature of Highly Effective Groups*, New Patterns of Management, McGraw Hill 1961, Chapter Two, p. 162-177

Likert comprehensively summarizes the research findings on the twenty-four most important properties and performance characteristics of the ideal highly effective group. This article then analyzes the roles of membership and leadership in groups.

Miles, Matthew B., *Learning to Work in Groups*, Columbia Teachers College Press, New York. 1959

We have found this book by Dr. Miles the best available guide for educational leaders on the dynamics of the small group. It is a well written guide to the training enterprise authoring the principles and theories of planning, designing, conducting and evaluating adult educational activities. In addition, there are over a hundred actual designs and exercises suggested to enhance the learning actions of groups.

Nylen, Donald; Mitchell, J. Robert; Start, Anthony, *Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training*, National Training Laboratories, Washington, D.C. 1965

These three NTL associates document their experience applying human relations training and adult educational methodology in their work in Africa. This book basically consists of a series of exercises, formats and simulations which have proved valuable in training managers, social workers and trainers in the field.

Rogers, Carl, *The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship*, On Becoming a Person, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Ma., 1961 pp. 39-57

Now a classic, this article clearly and convincingly explores the relationship between helpers and the helped-- therapist-client; consultant-client; teacher-student; parent- child; etc. This article is a valuable sequal to the previous one cited linking as it does education, consultation and therapy in effective human interaction.

Rogers, Carl, *The Interpersonal Relationship in the Facilitation of Learning*, Lecture given at Harvard University, April 12, 1966

Dr. Rogers explores the dynamics of experiential learning and very lucidly argues that the same qualities that distinguish a humanly fulfilling relationship (and a theraputic relation- ship) are also the requirements for establishing a climate for self-initiated (adult) learning.

Schein, Edgar H., *Process Consultation: Its Role in Organizational Development*, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Ma. 1969

Process Consultation is the sixth volume of the Addison- Wesley series on Organizational Development. Dr. Schein's intentions in this book are twofold: 1) to present the reader with those ideas from social psychology which he has found most useful in his consultation experience; and 2) to give a personal and detailed statement of what he does when he consults for a system. This is an excellent book on the consultant's role and the relation between organization and training.

Schutz, William, *FIRO: A Three Dimensional Theory of Inter- Personal Behavior*, Holt Rinehart, 1958, later published as *The Interpersonal Underworld*, Science and Behavior Books, 1960

William Schutz here presents a careful analysis of the social psychological processes involved in small group develop- ment. This volume provides a perspective from which to under- stand the particular needs of groups and group members in all of our designing and conducting of adult training activities.

Thelen, Herbert A., *Dynamics of Groups at Work*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill. 1954

This advanced book by Dr. Thelen lucidly relates the application of group dynamics, T-group practice, and applied behavioral science to government, education, social reform and personal growth. It is a valuable book for the theorist and advanced practitioner of social science and adult training.

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