

29th Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference In Adult, Continuing, Community and Extension Education

**September 26 – 28, 2010
East Lansing, Michigan**

Conference Host
Michigan State University

Conference Sponsor
Higher, Adult, and Lifelong Education,
Department of Educational Administration
Michigan State University

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John Dirkx, Conference Chair
Jim Berger, Proposal Review
Laurel Jeris, Per-Conference Sessions
Joe Levine, Conference Website
Julie Sinclair, Registrar & Local Arrangements

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Special Thanks

Department of Educational Administration, Michigan State University
Marilyn Amey, Chair

Michigan State University Union Staff:

Barb Spearman
Plus all of the staff members assigned to servicing this event

All Proposal Reviewers

Mission Statement*

This conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies to improve practice in adult education. Through discussion and collaboration, participants will contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

*Prepared on behalf of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
Steering Committee by Boyd Rossing, May 28, 1991.

Chair's Welcome

On behalf of the Conference Steering Committee, the College of Education, and the Department of Educational Administration, I would like to welcome you to Michigan State University and East Lansing. We are pleased to have you as our guests for the 29th Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, Community, and Extension Education.

We are proud of our beautiful campus and hope that you find your stay restful and enjoyable. Someone once said that the MSU campus is like one big arboretum. Regardless of whether that is true, the campus invites you to stroll along the river and through the woods, meander through the heart of campus and its evolving architecture, or to sit and take in a beautiful fall afternoon and evening.



Our opening and closing sessions this year encourage us to enter into a dialog with the uncertainty and “turbulence” that seems to characterize much of education in contemporary society. From these sessions and dialog we hope to revisit the learning community that this conference has been for many years for many established and emerging

scholars and practitioners. As educational leaders, how might we work together to move this learning community forward when the future seems so unclear?

It is my sincere wish that, as we come together in our plenary and break-out sessions, we embrace this question at both our personal and organizational levels. In the opening session, Dan Mulhern, First Gentleman for the State of Michigan, will encourage us to reflect on and reconnect with the meaning of leadership in uncertain times. In our closing panel, educational leaders from different educational sectors will help us think about these thoughts within the context of our conference and its commitment to the interrelationship of research and practice. You will have an opportunity to enter this dialog and to engage this issue within your own frame of reference.

As in the past, the conference proceedings are available online on the conference website (<https://www.msu.edu/~mwr2p/>), and hard copies can be ordered through lulu.com, if desired. Following the conference, the proceedings will be stored, along with those from past conferences, in the IUIUI Digital Archives collection.

I wish you an enjoyable and fruitful experience over the next couple days. Please let any of our staff know if there is any way we can make your experience with us more pleasing and enjoyable.

John M. Dirkx
Chair, 2010 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
Professor, Higher, Adult, and Lifelong Education
Michigan State University
(517) 353-8927, dirkx@msu.edu

2010 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee Members

Tracine D. Asberry, University of St. Thomas	Francisco Gonzalez, Northeastern Illinois University	Meena Razvi, Cultural Perceptions Consulting (CPC)
Wayne Babchuk, University of Nebraska- Lincoln	Laurel Jeris, Northern Illinois University	Elice Rogers, Cleveland State University
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Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Meetings and Proceedings

<u>No.</u>	<u>Host(s)</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Dates</u>	<u>Editor</u>	<u>ED NumED Number</u>
1	Northern Illinois University	DeKalb, IL	Oct. 8-9, 1982	K. Czisny	ED226116
2	Northern Illinois University	DeKalb, IL	Nov. 4-5, 1983		ED262214
3	Northern Illinois University	DeKalb, IL	Sept. 27-28, 1984		ED262215
4	University of Michigan	Ann Arbor, MI	Oct. 10-11, 1985	L. S. Berlin	ED261172
5	Ball State University	Muncie, IN	Oct. 3-4, 1986	G. S. Wood, Jr., & D. Wood	ED274774
6	Michigan State University	East Lansing, MI	Oct. 8-9, 1987	S. J. Levine	ED295046
7	University of Wisconsin-- Madison	Madison, WI	Oct. 21-22, 1988	C. C. Coggins	ED321029
8	University of Missouri—St. Louis	St. Louis, MO	Oct. 12-13, 1989		ED330781
9	Northern Illinois University	De Kalb, IL	Oct. 18-19, 1990		ED326663
10	University of Minnesota	St. Paul, MN	Oct. 3-4, 1991	L. R. Sandmann & C. Bruning	ED378307
11	Kansas State University	Manhattan, KS	Oct. 8-9, 1992		ED361532
12	The Ohio State University & Indiana University of PA	Columbus, OH	Oct. 13-15, 1993	K. Freer, & G. Dean	ED362663
13	University of Wisconsin-- Milwaukee	Milwaukee, WI	Oct. 13-15, 1994	L. Martin	ED378359
14	National-Louis University & Northern Illinois University	Wheaton, IL	Oct. 12-14, 1995	R. A. Orem & C. Mealman	ED446213
15	University of Nebraska	Lincoln, NE	Oct. 17-19, 1996	J. M. Dirkx	ED477391
16	Michigan State University	East Lansing, MI	Oct. 15-17, 1997	S. J. Levine	ED412370
17	Ball State University	Muncie, IN	Oct. 8-10, 1998	G. S. Wood, & M. M. Webber	ED424419
18	University of Missouri—St. Louis	St. Louis, MO	Sept. 22-24, 1999	A. Austin, G. E. Hynes, & R. T. Miller	ED447269
19	University of Wisconsin— Madison	Madison, WI	Sept. 27-29, 2000	M. Glowacki- Dudka	ED445203
20	Eastern Illinois University	Charleston, IL	Sept. 26-28, 2001	W. C. Hine	ED457336
21	Northern Illinois University	DeKalb, IL	Oct. 9-11, 2002	R. A. Orem	ED471123
22	The Ohio State University, Cleveland State University, & Indiana University of PA	Columbus, OH (Proceedings printed at IUP)	Oct. 8-10, 2003	T. R. Ferro & G. J. Dean	
23	Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis	Indianapolis, IN	Oct. 6-8, 2004	M. Glowacki- Dudka	
24	University of Wisconsin— Milwaukee	Milwaukee, WI	Sept. 28-30, 2005	S. Conceição	
25	University of Missouri—St. Louis	St. Louis, MO	Oct. 4-6, 2006	E. P. Isaac	

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26	Ball State University	Muncie, IN	Sept. 25-27, 2007	R. C. Young
27	Western Kentucky University	Bowling Green, KY	Oct. 2-4, 2008	M. L. Rowland
28	Northeastern Illinois University	Chicago, IL	Oct. 21-23, 2009	D. Truty, T. R. Ferro & J. Truty
29	Michigan State University	East Lansing, MI	September 26-28, 2010	M. Glowacki- Dudka
30			2011	

Past Proceedings are available at <https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/handle/1805/85>

Revised 2009/09/12

**29th Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
in Adult, Continuing, Community, and Extension Education**

**Michigan State University
MSU Union**

September 26-28, 2010

Conference Schedule

Registration, September 26-28, 2010

Second Floor Concourse - MSU Union

Sunday, September 26, 2010

Noon – 5:00 p.m.

Second Floor Concourse

MSU Union

Registration

12:30 – 1:45 p.m.

Gold AB

Graduate Student Pre-Conference Session 1

Developing and Maintaining a Research Agenda

Dr. Barb Daley, University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

2:00 – 3:15 p.m.

Gold AB

Graduate Student Pre-Conference Session 2

Using Conferences as a Career Building Strategy

Dr. Laurel Jeris, Northern Illinois University

Dr. Henry Merrill, Indiana University

3:30 – 4:45 p.m.

Gold AB

Graduate Student Pre-Conference Session 3

Career Directions in Adult and Higher Education

Dr. Amy Rose, Facilitator, Northern Illinois University

Lucas Hill, Lansing Community College Continuing and
Community Education

Meena Razvi, Multicultural Workforce Development,
Cultural Perceptions Consulting

Julie Sinclair, Michigan State University

4:45 – 5:30 p.m.

Gold AB

Graduate Student Pre-Conference Session 4

Tips for Surviving Your Dissertation

Dr. Michelle Glowacki-Dudka, Facilitator,

Ball State University

Dr. Marjorie Treff, Indiana University Purdue University
Indianapolis

Norseha Unin, Michigan State University

Sunday, September 26, 2010**6:30 – 8:00 p.m.**

Gold AB

All Conference Welcome Reception**Monday, September 27, 2010****8:00 – 12:00 p.m.**

Second Floor Concourse

MSU Union

Registration**8:30 – 10:15 a.m.**

Ballroom/Sunporch

Opening Session

Welcome and introductions: Dr. John Dirkx

Conference Chair, Michigan State University

Welcome: Dr. Marilyn Amey

Department Chair, Educational Administration

Michigan State University

Graduate Student Research Award Announcement

Dr. Rande Lawrence, National-Louis University

Introduction to Keynote Address

Dr. Julie Brockman, Assistant Professor

School of Human Resources and Labor Relations,

Michigan State University

Officer, Michigan Association for Adult and

Continuing Education

Keynote Address – **Mr. Dan Mulhern**

First Gentleman, State of Michigan

*"Challenges and Opportunities for Leading in**Turbulent Times"***10:15 - 10:30 a.m.**

Second Floor Concourse

Break

Book Signing, Mr. Dan Mulhern

Monday, September 27, 2010**10:30 – 11:20 a.m.****Concurrent Session 1**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold B	Syam	Workplace Learning through Collaboration: A Case Study
Parlor A	Armstrong Nolley	An Evaluation of the Experiences and Needs of Adjunct Faculty at a Midwest Community College
Parlor B	Babchuk Badiee	Realizing the Potential of Qualitative Methodologies: A Conceptual Guide for Research and Practice
Parlor C	Conceição Colby Juhlmann Johanigsmeir	Curriculum Design for Adult Learners with an Emphasis on Health Literacy
Green Room	Folkman Syam Swaminathan	Methods and Issues in Doing Research in Community Settings: A Three Member Panel Presentation

11:20 – 11:30 a.m.

Second Floor Concourse

Break**11:30 – 12:20 p.m.****Concurrent Session 2**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold A	Soto Yao	Retention of Women of Color in STEM Doctoral Programs
Gold B	Doyle	UW Colleges Student Motivations and Perceptions about Accelerated Blended Learning
Parlor A	Ty	Early Freire, Scientific Freire, and Mature Freire: Complete Ontological and Epistemological Rupture or Partial Shifts?
Parlor B	Martin	Urban Adult Literacy Education: Using Concept Mapping to Reach Young Students of Color
Parlor C	Glowacki-Dudka Elsey	Transcending Fear Thresholds through Innovative Adult Learning: Transformative Educators and their Courageous Classrooms
Green Room	Lawrence Dirkx	Toward a Spiritually Transformative Practice: Teaching with Soul

Monday, September 27, 2010

12:20 – 1:30 p.m.
Ballroom/Sunporch

Luncheon

1:30 – 2:20 p.m.

Concurrent Session 3

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold A	Smith	Trust in Online Collaborative Groups: A Constructivist Psychodynamic View
Gold B	Razvi	SEWA Academy: Leadership Training in Ahmedabad, India
Parlor A	Vicher	Faculty Perception of Effectiveness and Diversity in a Mentoring Program for New Faculty in the Applied Sciences
Parlor B	Swaminathan	Leading Urban Schools: Narratives from Leadership Trainees and their Mentors
Parlor C	Conner	The Impact of Space on Educator Practice

Green Room**Round Table Presentation****Round Table 1**

Dr. Joe Levine, Facilitator

Brooks

Implications of the Community College Taxonomy on Institutions Implementing Achieving the Dream in Michigan

Clause

Lifelong Learning in Japan: A Springboard for U.S. Comparison

Round Table 2

Dr. Julie Brockman, Facilitator

Amayah

Knowledge Sharing: Type and Quality of Knowledge Shared

Isenberg

Merging Business and Education Models to Create an Online MBA Program: Concern over Sustaining an Andragogical Approach

2:20 – 2:30 p.m.

Second Floor Concourse

Break

Monday, September 27, 2010**2:30 – 3:20 p.m.****Concurrent Session 4**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold B	Isaac-Savage Calvert	African American Men's Motivations for Participation in Health Education Activities
Parlor A	Biniecki	How Learners Perceive They Construct Knowledge as Participants in Outreach Programs
Parlor B	Nelson	Conducting a Thorough Literature Review: Is This the Most Challenging Step in the Educational Research Process?
Parlor C	Henschke	An International Capsule of the History and Philosophy of Androgogy
Green Room	Brockman Dirkx Polzin Li	Transfer to Practice: Business Solutions Professional Certification Training Program

3:20 – 3:45 p.m.

Second Floor Concourse

Break**3:45 – 4:30 p.m.**

Ballroom/Sunporch

SPOTLIGHT: All-Conference Graduate Student Research Award Winner's Presentation

Award Committee:

Chair, Dr. Randee Lawrence, National-Louis University

Dr. Amy Rose, Northern Illinois University

Dr. Henry Merrill, Indiana University

Monday, September 27, 2010**4:30 – 5:20 p.m.****Concurrent Session 5**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold A	Berry	Leadership and Planning in the Community College
Gold B	Stein Wanstreet Glazer	Knowledge Building in Process: Adult Learners' Perceptions of Participating in Collaborative Knowledge-Building Communities
Parlor A	Eley	The Transformative Educator: Sustaining Initiatives in Adult Teaching and Learning
Parlor B	Weiland Clason	Digital Literacy and Adult Learners: An Experiment in Hypermedia Reading
Parlor C	Barrett Murk Nickolich	How to Age Successfully: Achieving Life Satisfaction
Green Room	Ty	Education for Justice

5:30 – 6:30 p.m.

Green Room

Steering Committee Meeting

Chair, Dr. John Dirkx, Michigan State University

6:30 – 7:30 p.m.**Informal Networking Reception**

Ballroom/Sunporch

7:30-9:30 p.m.**Restaurant Hops/Downtown East Lansing Pub Crawl****Tuesday, September 28, 2010****8:00 – 10:00 a.m.**Second Floor Concourse
MSU Union**Registration**

Tuesday, September 28, 2010**8:30 – 9:20 a.m.****Concurrent Session 6**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold A	Dugan	HRD—Leadership Training for Women on the Lower Rungs of the Organizational Ladder: A Qualitative Study
Gold B	Cheney	Empirical Measurement of Perspective Transformation, 1999-2009
Parlor A	White Razvi	How Can Experiential Learning Address Cultural Consciousness in Professional Healthcare Internship Programs?
Parlor C	Ty Al-Karzon Hunting	Islam: Misconceptions, Current Trends, and the Role of Adult and Community Education
Green Room	Conceição Lehman	Faculty Strategies for Balancing Workload When Teaching Online

9:20 – 9:30 a.m.

Second Floor Concourse

Break**9:30 – 10:20 p.m.****Concurrent Session 7**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold A	Konate	The Effect of Literacy on Rural Women in Mali: Transformation through Empowerment
Gold B	Simmala	Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Lao and Vietnamese International Graduate Students
Parlor B	Nickolich Cotton	Career and Technical Education (CTE) First Year Teacher and Experienced Mentor Life Satisfaction Study
Parlor C	Henschke	The Power of Andragogy/Adult Learning for Living a Viable Future

11:20 – 11:40 p.m.

Second Floor Concourse

Break

Tuesday, September 28, 2010**10:40 – 11:30 p.m.****Concurrent Session 8**

Location	Author/s	Presentation Title
Gold AB	Kania-Gosche	Using the Principles of Adult Learning to Facilitate Dissertation Writing for Doctoral Students
Parlor A	Roessger	Adult Learning Perspectives and Motor Learning Models: An Investigation of Commonalities
Parlor B	Martin	The GED Experiment and Policy Related Research: A Model to Inform Evidence Based Practice in Adult Literacy Education
Parlor C	Folkman Glowacki-Dudka	From Research to Practice to Researching Practice
Green Room	Mina	Student-Faculty Interaction: Using a Webcam as a Teaching and Learning Tool

11:45 – 1:15 p.m.

Gold AB

(Buffet tables will be located just outside the Gold AB rooms)

All-Conference Closing Panel Session and Lunch

Panel Title: *“Fostering a Learning Community in Turbulent Times: The Future of the MWRP Conference”*

Moderator: Dr. Joe Levine, Professor Emeritus, Michigan State University

Panelists: Dr. Cliff Akujobi, Education Consultant Manager, Department of Energy, Labor and Economic Growth.

Dr. Marilyn Amey, Chair, Department of Educational Administration
Michigan State University

Dr. Jean Morciglio, Dean, Extended Learning and Professional Studies,
Lansing Community College

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An Evaluation of the Experiences and Needs of Adjunct Faculty at a Midwest Community College

Joseph L. Armstrong and Kevin Nolley

Abstract: In the fall of 2009 a focus group-based evaluation of 12 adjunct faculty members at a Midwestern community college was conducted. Three primary themes of Communication, Technology, and Institutional Environment were found to have a significant impact on the experiences of the faculty members. Based on these findings five specific recommendations were made.

Introduction

At the request of the Director of the Center for Teaching and Learning, at a Midwest Community College, we conducted a focus group evaluation of the experiences and needs of adjunct faculty members. Two focus groups were conducted. The data was recorded, transcribed, and analyzed, resulting in the findings and recommendations in this report.

The first focus group was conducted at a secondary campus on Tuesday evening November 17, 2009. Four adjunct faculty members attended and participated in the first focus group. The second focus group was conducted on Saturday morning November 21, 2009 at the main campus. Eight adjunct faculty members attended and participated in the second focus group. The courses taught by these adjunct faculty include the following: Accounting, Business Administration, Composition, Economics, English Literature, Health Science, Human Resource Management, Medical Assistant, Music Appreciation, Psychology and Sociology. The tenure with the college for the twelve adjunct faculty members ranged from four months to twenty years. The focus groups were semi-structured with questions including, but not limited to, the following: How would you describe the communication you receive from the college as an institution?; How do you receive information from the college?; What is your experience with using technology in the classroom?; What type of evaluation or feedback do you receive about your teaching?; How has the Center for Teaching and Learning been helpful or supportive of your teaching?; What can the Center for Teaching and Learning be supportive of your teaching in the future? The data generated in response to these questions resulted in three major themes, Communication, Technology and Institutional Environment, each with sub-themes, that were present in the experiences of the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation. These themes are identified and described here:

Communication

Institutional Communication

All of the adjunct instructors in this evaluation said that the majority of the communication they receive from the college comes via email. They feel that this is an effective form of communication for them and are supportive of this remaining the primary form in the future.

Program Chairs

The majority of institutional communication, feedback and support for adjunct faculty came through their respective program chairs. More communication occurred between the adjuncts and their program chairs than with any other institutional employee. However, the amount of support the adjuncts felt, and the quality of the support, feedback and communication they received from the program chairs varied greatly. Some adjuncts sang the praises of their program chairs and felt high levels of support, while others expressed concern about the level of support they felt from their program chairs, with one even voicing a feeling of “abandonment.”

Ten of the twelve adjunct faculty members in this evaluation reported experiences of having their teaching evaluated by their respective program chairs. Like their experience of support and communication, the quality of the feedback received from these teaching evaluations varied greatly. Some adjuncts felt their program chairs used the evaluations to offer support and constructive feedback, while others either received no feedback from the evaluations or felt the feedback was not helpful in developing them as teachers.

Technology

Technology in the Classroom

Several of these adjunct faculty members in this evaluation taught online courses for the college, but even in their live “face-to-face” courses their use of technology was widespread, though not universal. The primary technologies used in classrooms include:

- laptop computers and projectors
- TVs, DVD and video players
- Sound systems and speakers
- PowerPoint
- Numerous Internet sites
- Blackboard

Location and familiarity influenced the use of technology. The newer secondary campuses received high marks from the adjunct faculty in terms of the availability of technology and ease of use of technology. The lack of infrastructure support for technology on the main campus was also noted by the adjunct faculty. Hence, the adjunct faculty members reported higher rates of use of technology on the secondary campuses than on the main campus. Two of the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation reported using little or no technology in their classes. The reasons given for this lack of use were a lack of familiarity with what technologies are available and inexperience in using the technologies.

Teaching Online/Internet Courses

Several, though not all, of the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation have experience teaching online courses. All online courses taught for the college by these adjunct faculty members was taught using “Blackboard” course management software. Those who teach online must finish a six week training program in using the Blackboard software system prior to being allowed to teach online. All of these adjunct faculty members found the training program to be valuable and encourage the continuation of its use.

Of the adjunct faculty members who teach online courses, several expressed frustration at the “canned” nature of the courses. Apparently, all of the teaching materials and evaluative assignments in online courses are standardized and pre-loaded into the online courses. The adjunct faculty members feel constrained and restricted by having all of these materials and assignments pre-loaded into their online courses. The adjunct faculty members viewed this as a threat to their own academic freedom to construct the courses as they feel will best serve the learning needs of their students. They also see this as hypocritical when viewed in contrast to the freedom they have to develop their live “face-to-face” courses. One suggestion that several members of the second focus group voiced support for was to continue with all the standard materials already pre-loaded in the courses, but allow the instructors to add their own materials to their online courses to tailor it to the teaching style of the individual instructors and the learning needs of their students.

Another frustration voiced by the adjunct faculty members about online teaching was the lack of preparedness of many of their students taking online courses. Several said they used what they felt was an inordinate amount of time at the beginning of each semester teaching students how to use Blackboard, rather than teaching course content. The adjunct faculty members felt that a potential solution was to require students wishing to take an online course to take a training session, like faculty must do, prior to participating in an online course.

Training for Technology Use

As noted above, those adjunct faculty members who participated in the Blackboard training program felt it was useful. Nearly all of the adjunct faculty members said they would value the opportunity for more training, especially training about the availability and use of technology. While there was strong agreement about the value of this potential training, there was equally strong disagreement about the preferred format and times for delivery of this training. There was strong support for all of the suggested formats: Live training programs on weekday evenings and during weekdays, weekend training programs, and online training programs. Perhaps a solution to this dilemma is to offer training programs in multiple formats and at multiple times.

Another issue that divided the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation was the best method to motivate adjuncts to participate in more training. Many said that they would participate in the training simply for the internal motivator of becoming a better teacher, without any external rewards, while many others said that they would need some sort of external motivator to participate. None of the suggestions for external motivators was large, though, ranging from making the training sessions more social to small monetary incentives.

Also noted above, the adjunct faculty members feel that a required training program for students before they are allowed to take online courses would be beneficial.

Institutional Environment

Student Learning Needs

A recurring theme in both focus groups was a high sense of commitment on the part of the adjunct faculty members to meet the learning needs of their respective students. However, a parallel experience of the adjunct faculty members was perceived frequent institutional barriers that interfere with their abilities to meet their students' learning needs. Some of the barriers cited by the adjunct faculty members included: "canned" online courses, institutional policies (like large class sizes), and institutional politics. This last barrier is especially frustrating to the adjunct faculty members. They recognize that since they are not full-time faculty members they may not fully understand the institutional politics, but they see the politics interfering with their students' learning experiences and feel frustrated that they cannot intervene on their students' behalf. Some of the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation felt threatened by full-time faculty members when attempting to intervene on behalf of some students.

Sense of Security

A sense of vulnerability permeated both focus groups. While not a universal experience, several adjunct faculty members voiced a fear of reprisal if they complained or questioned anything. The level of this sense of vulnerability seemed to vary with the importance of the pay received from this adjunct position. For those who are not dependent on their adjunct pay for basic living expenses, their voiced sense of vulnerability was low. For those who are dependent on their adjunct pay for basic living expenses, their voiced level of anxiety and sense of vulnerability was high. The two identified sources of this sense of vulnerability were full-time faculty, who one adjunct faculty member in this evaluation termed "intimidating," and the program chairs, from whom some adjunct faculty members felt an implied threat that they may not be rehired in future semesters if they "rock the boat."

Sense of Community

"Isolated" was a term that was heard frequently in both focus groups. Many of the adjunct faculty members in this evaluation voiced a desire for more opportunities to meet, get to know, socialize with, and share ideas with other faculty members, both adjunct and full-time. While acknowledging that this could occur informally, many adjuncts felt that if this was institutionally facilitated more faculty would participate. Several of the long-term adjunct faculty members in these focus groups lamented the loss of the training program formerly sponsored by the Center for Teaching and Learning in the afternoon prior to adjunct faculty orientation sessions prior to each semester. Those who experienced these training programs found them to be informative, but also an opportunity to meet and socialize with other adjunct faculty members.

Recommendations

While a careful reader, no doubt, noticed a few recommendations imbedded in the themes reported above, we are including specific recommendations here, both earlier identified and new (to follow) , in an easy list format:

1. We recommend that the Community College use the information from this focus group evaluation to develop a survey that can be administered to all of the adjunct faculty in the region to get a broader understanding of the experiences and needs of its adjunct faculty.
2. Training currently provided by the Center for Teaching and Learning, especially training for technology use, is valued by adjunct faculty members and should be continued and perhaps enhanced in the future. The possibility of combining training programs with other opportunities for socialization among adjunct faculty members should be considered, thus enhancing the development of a sense of community for adjunct faculty members and decreasing their sense of isolation.
3. Allow faculty teaching online courses, both adjunct and full-time, more freedom in organizing and teaching their courses. This would only make teaching online courses consistent with teaching live “face-to-face” courses.
4. If not already available, the college should consider developing and requiring student training in the use of Blackboard prior to allowing students to take online courses.
5. The role of Program Chair appears to be the tie that most closely binds the adjunct faculty member to the institution, but it also appears to be its weakest link. The wide variability of experiences these twelve adjunct faculty members had with their respective Program Chairs demonstrates that this is the point at which the institution is most vulnerable in its relationship with adjunct faculty members. A review of policy and procedures in how Program Chairs work with adjunct faculty members may be in order. A training program for Program Chairs in working with and supporting adjunct faculty members may be needed.

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Realizing the Potential of Qualitative Designs: A Conceptual Guide for Research and Practice

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Abstract: This inquiry is based on the collaboration of the authors who have co-taught qualitative research methods courses at a major Midwestern university. We provide a conceptual guide for those new to qualitative research interested in developing a research project and for those beginning to explore the potential of qualitative methods for the study of educational problems and issues. We identify key aspects of qualitative research and provide insights as to how contemporary scholars within this tradition have framed this diverse and multifaceted family of approaches for educational and social research. We also identify important historical and contemporary references to help get started, and offer suggestions to better inform strategic decision-making needed to realize the potential of qualitative designs for strengthening the link between research and practice in the fields of education and the social sciences.

Introduction

The relatively recent proliferation of qualitative methods has had a profound impact on the research enterprise in education, health care, nursing, sociology, anthropology, psychology, management, information systems, etc., gaining considerable popularity among those fields that have a heavy bent towards practice. Yet for contemporary researchers interested in realizing the potential of qualitative designs, selection of an appropriate methodology and its operationalization in the field can prove daunting and not as superfluous as hoped. An “embarrassment of choices now characterizes the field of qualitative research” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 20) which can overwhelm students of qualitative methods and intimidate even more seasoned researchers attempting to advance their own research agendas or advise students in an informed and potentially rewarding manner. In this inquiry, we identify important issues that need to be taken into account when embarking on a qualitative research project, consider how scholars of this literature have organized this material, and offer suggestions as to how to begin to implement various approaches in the field. We provide a brief overview of the history of qualitative research, stress the importance of understanding the epistemological underpinnings of qualitative designs, and consider definitions, characteristics, and when to use qualitative methods. We also identify popular qualitative approaches and touch upon other pivotal considerations impacting their use. We underscore the need for a critical and analytic approach involving informed and systematic choices throughout all phases of a research project to fully realize the potential of qualitative designs for improving links between research and practice.

The History of Qualitative Research

Although the use of qualitative research has a long history in education and the social sciences (see Vidich & Lyman, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, for an overview of these traditions), Denzin and Lincoln’s (2005) “Second and Third Movements of Qualitative Research”—the *Modernist* and *Blurred Genres* phases extending from the early

1960's through the 1970s—marked the beginning of the “qualitative revolution” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2005; Charmaz, 2000) that rapidly gained momentum across disciplines. This era saw the publication of the canonical works of Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss’ (1961) *Boys in White*, Glaser and Strauss’ (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, Blumer’s (1969) *Symbolic Interactionism*, Geertz’s (1973) *The Interpretation of Cultures*, Guba’s (1978) *Toward a Methodology of Naturalistic Inquiry in Educational Evaluation*, Spradley’s *The Ethnographic Interview* (1979) and *Participant Observation* (1980), and the work of others particularly in the anthropology of education (e.g., George and Louise Spindler, Harry Wolcott, etc.). These scholars built upon early to mid-1900s pioneering ethnographic fieldwork of anthropologists (e.g., Boas, Malinowski, Evans-Pritchard, Radcliffe-Brown, Mead), and the “Chicago School” sociologists (e.g., Park, Burgess, Thomas, Wirth) to set the stage for the modern tradition of qualitative research and spark a shift in many camps from quantitative to qualitative designs.

Philosophical, Epistemological, and Theoretical Considerations

After becoming familiar with historical traditions contributing to contemporary forms of qualitative research, the next step is to tackle what scholars have referred to by a variety of terms including philosophical or epistemological perspectives, orientations, or traditions, interpretive paradigms or worldviews, theoretical underpinnings, traditions, orientations, or perspectives, or alternative approaches to science. (Hatch, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Glesne, 2011). Influenced by Kuhn’s (1970) notion of paradigm (Hatch, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Glesne, 2011), a philosophical orientation is conceptualized as a “worldview that underlies and informs methodology and methods” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 1), or a “basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17; and see Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 22). As Merriam (2009) cautions, however, “there is almost no consistency among writers in how this aspect of qualitative research is discussed” (p. 8).

For example, Hatch (2002) identifies five research paradigms (positivist, postpositivist, constructivist, critical/feminist, and poststructuralist), and poses ontological, epistemological, and methodological questions for each. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) discuss interpretive paradigms viewed as “the net that contains the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises” (p. 22). Newman (2006), in his thorough treatment of this topic, lists three alternative approaches to social science (positivist, interpretive, and critical), Merriam (2009) advocates four philosophical perspectives (positivist, interpretive, critical, and poststructural/postmodern), and Glesne (2011) presents these same four paradigmatic families. In his insightful and illuminating organizational scheme, Creswell (2007) discusses philosophical assumptions (ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical, and methodological), worldviews (postpositivism, social constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism), and interpretive communities (postmodernism, feminist theories, critical theory and critical race theory, queer theory, and disability theory).

Although potentially daunting to those unfamiliar with this material, gaining an understanding of these philosophical orientations provides a foundation for researchers to position themselves when conceptualizing their own research designs, a rationale for choosing qualitative methods (as opposed to quantitative) to answer a research question or questions, and why a specific approach (e.g., phenomenology, case study, etc.) and type of approach (e.g., constructivist vs. objectivist grounded theory) was selected over other options.

Definitions, Characteristics, and When to Use Qualitative Research

Given the extensive range of approaches that make up the family of methodologies falling under the rubric of “qualitative research”, it is not surprising that some of the leading scholars in the field have offered lengthy definitions of this enterprise (see Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 3; Creswell, 2007, p. 37). Presenting more concise but less encompassing efforts, Bogdan and Biklen (2007) define qualitative research as “an approach to social science research that emphasizes collecting descriptive data in natural settings, uses inductive thinking, and emphasizes understanding the subjects point of view” (p. 274), while Glesne’s (2011) definition reads, “a type of research that focuses on qualities such as words or observations that are difficult to quantify and lend themselves to interpretation or deconstruction” (p. 283).

There is also some room for interpretation among scholars regarding shared characteristics of qualitative designs that distinguish them from more traditional quantitative approaches, and, for that matter, the desirable attributes or competencies needed by the researchers themselves to conduct “good” qualitative research. Hatch (2002), Denzin and Lincoln (2005), Bogdan and Biklen (2007), Creswell (2007), Morse and Richards (2007), Corbin and Strauss (2008), Merriam (2009), and Stake (2010) all list central characteristics of qualitative research, finding common ground along a number of dimensions. Some of the more frequently cited attributes include long-term face-to-face research conducted in naturalistic settings, a focus on rich description and the understanding of participants’ points of view or meanings, the researcher as the primary data collection instrument, inductive data analysis, a concern with process, an emergent and flexible design, nonrandom, purposeful sample selection, and a holistic understanding achieved through collection and analysis of multiple sources of data and perspectives. Researchers purportedly benefit from having a humanistic orientation and are comfortable with ambiguity, analytical and introspective, willing to take risks, ambitious and dedicated enough to embrace the substantial commitment required to conduct qualitative research, flexible, open-minded, and able to see things from multiple perspectives. In effect, one must be able to stand comfortably at the intersection of art and science (see Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, pp. 4-6; Creswell, 2007, p. 41; Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 13; Merriam, 2009, pp. 16-18).

In a related vein, most scholars of qualitative methods also discuss criteria important for choosing to conduct a qualitative study (Hatch, 2002; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 2007; Richards & Morse, 2007; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Merriam, 2009; Stake, 2010). These criteria include such factors as the research problem or question requires it, to better understand an area where little is known, to make sense of complex situations, contexts, and settings, to learn how participants construct their worlds, to gain deep, rich and detailed descriptions of cultural scenes, to help empower individuals to share their stories and enact meaningful social change, and to generate theory where little exists (see Creswell, 2007, pp. 39-41; Richards & Morse, 2007, pp. 29-31). Of course, these attributes underscore the viability of qualitative methods to bolster the link between research and practice in practitioner-driven fields.

Selecting a Qualitative Methodology or Approach

We have provided several underlying characteristics shared in whole or in part by qualitative research designs that separate them from more traditional quantitative forms of

inquiry. As mentioned above, there are a seemingly endless number of approaches from which to choose, each different in varying degrees in terms of their epistemological underpinnings, theoretical assumptions, and *modus operandi* impacting all aspects of the research process. Hatch (2002), Denzin and Lincoln (2005), and Bogdan and Biklen (2007) identify and discuss various approaches to qualitative research, and Creswell (2007) provides a comprehensive table (pp. 7-8) of how other authors have historically organized this material.

For the purposes of this discussion, we find Creswell (2007), Richards and Morse (2007), Merriam (2009), and Glesne (2011) most instructive, because these authors identify popular contemporary methodologies, describe unique characteristics of each, and offer suggestions as to how to decide between them when planning one's research. In the most thorough treatment of this subject, Creswell (2007) systematically outlines the use of five approaches (narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study) derived from a lifetime of work both conducting research and teaching and mentoring students on qualitative methods. Similarly, Merriam (2009), another noted scholar within the qualitative tradition, outlines six approaches (basic qualitative research, ethnography, grounded theory, narrative analysis, critical research, and case study) in her well-conceptualized text on qualitative research. Richards and Morse (2007) provide practical overviews of phenomenology, ethnography, and grounded theory, whereas Glesne (2011) covers five "interpretive traditions of qualitative inquiry" (p. 16) including ethnography, life history, grounded theory, case study, and action research. Important references to consider when getting started are for basic qualitative research (Maxwell, 2005), ethnography (Spradley, 1979; 1980; Van Maanen, 1988; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Wolcott, 1999; Fetterman, 2010), phenomenology (van Manen, 1990; Moustakas, 1994), grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Glaser, 1992; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Clarke, 2005; Charmaz, 2006; Morse *et al.*, 2009; Babchuk 2010), case study (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003; Merriam, 2009), narrative (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), and critical research (see, Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2006). For a more comprehensive list consult Richards and Morse (2007).

Conclusion

We have taken initial steps in developing a conceptual guide for those wanting to learn more about qualitative methods. More complete guidelines would take into account several other central and integrally overlapping aspects involved in the design and implementation of a research project. These aspects extend and elaborate upon what we have presented here, taking into account a host of theoretical and procedural considerations. These include identifying a research area or problem, the use of literature in qualitative research, developing a qualitative purpose statement, writing research questions and sub-questions, selecting a sample, employing methods of data collection and analysis, presenting the findings, writing up qualitative research, the use of terminology, implementing computer software for qualitative data analysis, ethical considerations, and suggestions for writing theses, dissertations, and publications. Key texts that can provide further guidance in these areas have been identified above and include Creswell (2007), Richards and Morse (2007), Merriam (2009) and Glesne (2010).

In conclusion, it has been argued that qualitative research methods have become increasingly popular over the past few decades and are continuing to make strides in realizing their potential in practitioner-driven fields such as education, health care, nursing, and social work. As has been documented elsewhere (Babchuk, 1997; 2009; 2010), qualitative research

designs hold considerable potential for exploring problems germane to adult and continuing education, and underscore the increasingly popular belief that these methods can be uniquely effective for addressing a dynamic range of issues impacting research and practice in the field.

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How to Age Successfully: Achieving Life Satisfaction

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Abstract: Using four research projects, the authors have identified several characteristics of third aged individuals that can influence their sense of life satisfaction as defined in Bernice Neugarten’s theoretical framework developed fifty years ago as part of the Kansas City Study of Adult Life. Both quantitative and qualitative research areas are identified as ripe for additional investigation for researchers in adult education and other fields of study. The importance of research into this area is affirmed and the use of a highly reliable and valid instrument is available, the Life Satisfaction Index for the Third Age (LSITA).

Introduction

The authors have been involved in four research projects on the topic of Life Satisfaction using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The three quantitative studies have involved 1660 participants and the one qualitative project included 25 informants. The data and evidence from these projects as well as the current literature were probed using statistical and other analytical techniques to address the following research questions: What are individual characteristics and behaviors that can lead to greater life satisfaction and an improved sense of successful aging?

Happiness and life satisfaction have been topics of popular and scientific interest for several decades. In 1998, the incoming president of the American Psychological Association (APA), Martin Seligman, selected the development of research into what made individuals feel fulfilled, engaged and meaningfully happy as the theme of his year as the APA president. Psychology researchers responded to the APA president’s call for a greater emphasis on the investigation of enabling conditions that make human beings flourish (Wallis, 2005). Seligman indicated that “I realized that my profession was half baked. It wasn’t enough for us to nullify disabling conditions and get to zero. We needed to ask, what are the enabling conditions that make human beings flourish? How do we get from zero to plus five?” (Wallis, 2005, p. A1). Measurement tools that assess positive characteristics would be necessary in this search for mental fitness. In January 2005, Time Magazine selected “The Science of Happiness” for its annual special mind and body theme issue. Five years later the Journal of Gerontology: Psychological Sciences celebrated its 65th year and, in its hallmark issue, reviewed manuscript topics for the years 2000-2008. It reported that 17.4% of the 437 articles dealt with well-being as either a primary, secondary or tertiary subject making it the second most frequent focus area (Blieszner & Sanford, 2010). The subjective well-being of individuals over 55 continues to be an important research topic. And there are many areas that can be explored to both to identify what affects an individual’s sense of life satisfaction and to better understand the underlying theoretical framework of successful aging.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that was used in the four research projects was derived from the work of Bernice Neugarten and her colleagues in the Kansas City Study of Adult Life.

Conducted over fifty years ago, the study sought to develop a self assessment instrument that could be used to measure successful aging in individuals over the age of fifty five. Based on interviews of over two hundred respondents and the analysis of the resulting evidence, the researchers identified five components of the construct designated life satisfaction as follows:

Zest vs. apathy. The first rating scale, **zest vs. apathy**, relates to an enthusiasm of response to life in general and was not related to any specific type of activity, such as social or intellectual engagements. A subject who was enthusiastic about sitting home reading was scored as high as an energetic person was on this scale. Physical energy as well as intellectual energy and other highly involved pursuits contributed to a high score (Neugarten et al., 1961).

Resolution and fortitude. The **resolution and fortitude** scale measures the respondents' active acceptance of personal responsibility for their lives rather than passively accepting or condoning what has happened to them. Erikson's integrity is similar in conceptualization and relates to the meaningfulness of life and the lack of fear of death. Either taking too much self-blame or placing too much responsibility on others or the world in general would result in a low score on this component (Neugarten et al., 1961).

Congruence between desired and achieved goals. The third contributor to Neugarten's concept of life satisfaction is the perception of **congruence between desired and achieved goals**. The relative difference between desired and achieved goals caused one to be satisfied or dissatisfied with life in this rating (Neugarten et al., 1961).

Self-concept. A comprehensive assessment of **self-concept** in all of the dimensions including emotional, physical, and intellectual was used in establishing this score. This factor is based on one's present emotional, physical, and intellectual dimensions. Persons who do not feel old but are concerned with their appearance and judge themselves to be wise and competent tend to rate themselves higher on this factor. Past successful living may contribute to this component but only indirectly. Someone who thinks that the best is behind them and that they are not worthwhile will tend to score lower on the self-concept scale (Neugarten et al., 1961).

Mood tone. The final factor, **mood tone**, relates to optimism and happiness and other positive affective responses. Depression, sadness loneliness, irritability, and pessimism are feelings that would result in very low scores. Assessing life satisfaction is more complex than just measuring happiness but happiness with the present life state is an important contributor in LSR and LSI-A (Neugarten et al., 1961).

Research Projects

Four research projects and the evidence and data that they have developed have been used to address the research questions. They were, first, the study of the relationship between participation in adult learning events and life satisfaction using the original LSIA developed by Bernice Neugarten and her colleagues. This consisted of data from 885 adult participants in third age learning events. (Murk et al., 2000) Second, twenty-four of these participants were interviewed with the goal of enriching the understanding of the quantitative results (Murk et al., 2000) Third, a new instrument development study with 654 participants resulted in a more reliable and valid measure of successful aging, the Life Satisfaction Index for the Third Age, and an additional set of data to assist in addressing these proposed research questions. And, fourth and last, the LSITA was used in a study of first year Career and Technical Education high school faculty undergoing training and the mentors assisting in that training. This study was an effort to

determine the perceived overall Life Satisfaction of both the students and the mentors and measure any differences (Nickolich et al., 2010)

While all of these research projects have been reported, the research questions that were addressed used the theoretical framework to understand a concept other than successful aging itself or they had a specific narrow scope of inquiry. This analysis intends to use the evidence and data to enrich our understanding of the construct of successful aging and to suggest areas that would be potentially fruitful for additional research efforts.

Methodology

The quantitative data were subjected to correlation analysis to discover relationships that would address the research questions. The authors also formed an expert panel to analyze the qualitative research and findings for their specific impact on the life satisfaction and the adult education relationship.

Findings

The Murk et al. initial study used the original LSIA developed in 1961 and did not find any statistically significant demographic correlates with the LISA. In that study, the reliability of the LSIA was calculated at .77 which was approximately the average of the reliabilities calculated by Wallace and Wheeler. They found 157 research studies that had used a form of the LSIA and computed a reliability of .79 from 34 of these research projects that provided the data that could be used to determine a calculated average (2002). While this level of reliability is adequate for many purposes, a higher degree of reliability is desired for co-relational research.

In fact, the second study reported several statistically significant demographic correlates using the LSITA with a reliability of .935 with a similar sample population. In fact all but one of the demographic variables looked at in both studies was not a statistically significant correlate to successful aging as measured by the LSITA scale. Age, monthly income, marital status, the response to the item “with whom do you live” and the responses to the self-assessment items about financial status, health status, and activity level status correlated with the LSITA scores at the .01 probability level and employment status at the .05 level (See Table 1).

<i>Demographic Characteristic</i>	<i>Pearson r</i>	Significant
Sex		no
Age	-.232	.01
Monthly Income	+.240	.01
Employment Status	-.102	.05
Marital Status	-.175	.01
Education Level	+.145	.01
Living Arrangements	-.239	.01
Health Status	-.381	.01
Financial Status	-.381	.01
Level of Activity	-.319	.01

Table 1: Demographic characteristics and correlations to LSITA (N= 533)

These data demonstrate a positive relationship between income and level of education and life satisfaction as measured by the LSITA. Income was measured as the reported monthly income in dollars and education level was reported a range from elementary to doctorate in an increasing scale. Thus the greater the reported income and the higher the attained education level the greater the life satisfaction.

The characteristic of employment status was assessed by responses of full time to retired and a negative correlation would seem indicate that greater opportunity for leisure i.e. retirement was not as strong as the income opportunity provided by working. The relationship of marital status and LISTA, measured from married to an increasing score at widowed and divorced, would demonstrate that married individuals are more life satisfied with the negative correlation result. The characteristic of Living Arrangement was a response to the question “With whom do you live?” seeking to understand the level of independence of the respondent. The level of independence is directly correlated with scores on the LSITA since a lower score on this item meant more independence.

Finally, data collected included three status questions: health, financial and activity. All three are the most strongly correlated with LISTA scores and indicate that the better the individual felt about the status the higher the sense of life satisfaction. In summary, the demographic data from the LSITA development study indicate that a number of characteristics are at least somewhat associated with a positive sense of life satisfaction: income, continuing to work, educational attainment, having a spouse to live with, and a greater degree of good health, financial security, and a higher level of activity. Also, however, the older age one achieves, the less life satisfaction is realized. These findings raise additional research opportunities which will be discussed in the conclusion of the paper as well as insights from the other two studies.

The qualitative leg of the initial Murk et al. research effort involved structured face to face and telephone interviews of twenty-five of the survey respondents using fourteen open ended questions. The objective of the interviews was to deepen the understanding of the following research questions:

- 1) How do life circumstances influence lifelong learning among Third Age Learners?
- 2) Does life satisfaction among Third Age Learners impact their desire for lifelong learning?
- 3) Are Third Age Learners increasing their life satisfaction through continuing learning programs?

The participants included seventeen Caucasian females and eight males from ten Midwestern states who participated in Third Age Programs (Elderhostel, OASIS, and Learning Events). The average age of the participants was 69 years and the majority lived in urban areas. Their educational levels ranged from high school graduates to doctorates and most were currently married had two or more children and four or more grandchildren.

For many, family was described as the most important concept / theme in their lives. Many of the participants continued to work at least part time, while others volunteered in church activities, soup kitchens, Habitat for Humanity, and reading for the blind. Two former professors continued with their lifelong interest by reviewing books, articles, and authoring books. Gardening, painting, recreational activities, golfing, fishing and camping were activities that held great interest for these participants. Many were physically active and engaged in routine exercise activities. Reading books was considered important to them. The learners reported that television

and radio played a relative small part in their lives although education programs and National Public Radio (NPR) were often mentioned as their favorites.

When asked about the happiest and saddest moments in their lives the answers tended to revolve around family and relationships. Happiest moments included family get-togethers, weddings, births, reunions and vacations. The saddest times usually involved the death of a spouse, parent, child, or other relatives, or dear friends. Disappointment in life tended to relate to educational activities e.g. not going to college, not obtaining a degree, but also included the loss of physical activities or decreased mobility. When asked about meeting their life expectations, most responded that they had met or even exceeded their life expectations. Some respondents were disappointed in their children's life choices. Others were disappointed that they had postponed many of their goals and expectations to a later time due to familial responsibilities or financial circumstances. All of the participants had strong lifelong educational goals.

Some wanted to travel and learn about other countries and cultures, while others wanted to learn more about computers and technologies. All but those with limited eyesight wanted to continue reading books of all kinds; fiction, nonfiction, biographies, self help books and professional and educational journals. Most felt that they would continue in some formal learning experiences such as Elderhostel. Others returned to school to make career changes or for advancing in a second career.

The results from the qualitative study indicated that Third Age learners 1). Value cognitive reordering and engagement in new venues through active participation. 2) Have a commitment to lifelong learning that is present throughout their lives, and not limited to any specific events. 3) Are future oriented and directed. 4) Are committed to remaining physically, emotional, and cognitively healthy (as demonstrated by maintaining their current levels of functioning). 5) Demonstrated fulfillment through altruistic behaviors (engaged through family, neighborhood, social, and community activities). 6) Valued social interactions through family and collegial relationships and through group and educational activities.

The implication of the qualitative part of the study included that Adult Educators and Education Gerontologist should continue to be aware of the importance of providing stimulating educational challenges which allows for the development of learners as individuals. The study provided an intimate understanding of the personal circumstance for many Third Age Learners. This deeper understanding can enhance and enrich education practitioners' abilities to design and direct program targeted to Third Age Learners.

The final study for review involved administering the LSITA to 60 first year Workplace Specialist I faculty and 45 mentors with at least 5 years teaching experience taking part in a teacher training project. The mentors demonstrated higher life satisfaction as measured by the LSITA than the first year teachers. While the difference was statistically significant, the degree of difference was relatively modest and both the teachers and their mentors had higher than average scores on the LSITA with a mean score for the first year teachers of 156 and the mentors 162 and both 158.5. The ages of the participants were lower than the 55 years old and over on which the theoretical framework was based but it was felt that the instrument would produce replicable results. The 105 participants had 67 individuals under 50 years of age.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Researchers

The public and professional literature shows that the interest in understanding the concepts related to successful aging continues with many challenges still to be met. The authors have identified several opportunities for research applications based on the quantitative and/or qualitative use of Neugarten's theoretical framework. The LSITA is in the public domain and can be reliably and validly used in program evaluation studies, in co-relational research with attempts to discover relationships that can promote or impair an individual's life satisfaction, or in experimental designs that can test these same types of relationships. For example, life review programs can evaluate their outcomes, or a large group of participants in a variety of activities that include reminiscence as part of their programming can use several scales to determine relationships, or a life review with two groups can be measured in an experimental design.

For more details on the experimental design, a researcher could randomly divide a group of retirement community participants in a life review program into two groups of 20. Both groups would participate in the review sessions but Group 1 would go through the process first and then have the LSITA administered to them. Group 2 would have the LSITA administered and then participate in the life review. In this fashion, you have a treatment group and a control group to compare results but all get to participate in the life review.

The practitioner can also use the theoretical framework as the basis for an interview evidence gathering process to identify nuances in aspects of the theory of successful aging. Such questions as how and how long does the death of a spouse effect the life satisfaction of the widow or widower, or the death of a child or grandchild. There are five constructs related to life satisfaction in the theoretical framework that can be independently explored. Or the question of the difference between how men and women differ in their perception of life satisfaction would be worthwhile to research. Even if there is no statistically significant difference between their scores there may be dramatic differences in how they get to their scores.

In addition, while the LSITA, LSIA and their theoretical framework were developed with individuals over the age of fifty-five and in the Mid West of the United States, the instruments have been used in studies with a much more diverse age and culture with a good deal of success (Wallace & Wheeler, 2002).

And teachers and other individuals involved in adult education can rest assured that the principles of adult education in regard to designing programs for self-directed learners and to make the instruction relevant and meaningful to the student are compatible with achieving higher life satisfaction. They should also design research projects to assess those teaching strategies that will increase the attainment of successful aging.

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Leadership and Strategic Planning in the Community College

Judith K. Berry

Abstract: Characteristics of executive leadership (EL) in community colleges, the complexities of the campus environment, and a new leadership assimilation process are presented in this manuscript to understanding ways in which leaders can manage diverse situations on a community college campus. The community college that employs effective leaders will thrust their institution to the forefront, as an educational center of change.

Introduction

A substantial retirement of executive leadership on community college campuses is driving the importance of outlining new leader assimilation processes. A review of the literature written during the first decade of the 21st century about community college presidents reflected the importance of focusing on the leadership practices of individuals who occupy this position because of impending retirements. There is ample literature that documents the skills, knowledge, and behavior used by a president to manage a community college. For aspiring community college presidents, this information may assist them in preparing to succeed outgoing presidents. In 2010, executive leaders on community colleges are retiring with many having served over thirty years. There is a gap in the literature about new leader assimilation processes that can help ease the transition for the new leader and also the employee. This manuscript focuses on the practices of leaders in such positions as department chair, dean, vice president, and provost. It examines what workers expect of their leaders, synthesizes individual accountability, discusses the nuance of incivility on community college campuses, and analyses support systems that may benefit the new administrator as they step into the position where a veteran leader has recently retired.

The Characteristics of an Effective Leader

Practices of Exemplary Leadership

A significant contribution that leaders make to an organization is the development of workers as leaders (Ahn, Adamson, & Dornbusch, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Leaders know how to adapt, change, prosper, and grow regardless of priorities (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). Connors, Smith, and Hickman (2004) also acknowledged the importance of leadership development in terms of leadership accountability as a means for a company to achieve its strategic goals and objectives. These management consultants used the analogy of the excursion down the yellow brick road of Dorothy and her friends in the *Wizard of Oz* to explain the development of self-awareness to help articulate the notion that these travelers possessed the power within to get the results they wanted (p. 4). Self-awareness means that individuals must feel and act empowered to achieve desired results. In Dorothy's case, she needed to travel the yellow brick road long enough to gain awareness that only she had the power to go home anytime by simply clicking her ruby slippers. The yellow brick road scenario is about a journey that moves people from "ignorance to knowledge, from fear to courage, from paralysis to

powerfulness, and from victimization to accountability” (p. 4). This comparison suggested that consistent leaders move from being victims of circumstances to being accountable for consequences and outcomes, which leads to individuals and organizations accomplishing shared goals.

Contrary, Kouzes and Posner (2007) inferred that often employees suffer from “management whiplash” (p. 4) because of the endless change in management priorities, which can promote inferior work performance. These inconsistent priorities provoke symptoms in employees that may lead to a lack of motivation, hot-temperedness, unclear communication, annoyance, and frustration. A disenfranchised employee feels disempowered and frequently does not contribute fully to the vitality of the organization. Whereas, empowered employees’ presence is felt throughout the organization. These scenarios suggest that management ought to engage in Kouzes and Posner’s (2007) *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* that include (a) Model the way; (b) Inspire a shared vision; (c) Challenge the process; (d) Enable others to act; and (e) Encourage the heart (p. 26). Leadership accomplishment, however, is not entirely based on the single aspect of the leader’s own doing. The expertise and talent of many individuals, teams, and the organization itself are needed to realize organizational mission. Employee expectations of the leader also play a vital role with the five practices to illustrate the effective characteristics of outstanding leadership. Over seventy-five thousand employees worldwide indicated that they are willing to follow leaders who are also honest, forward-looking, inspiring, and competent (p. 29).

Employee Expectations of Leaders

Honesty is a significant factor in the leader-constituent relationship (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 32). Workers want to know that their leader is truthful, ethical, and principled. They are looking for leaders with integrity and character, which represents attributes tied to their own values and ethics. When followers do not know the set of values, ethics, and standards of the leader, there is no solid or authentic relationship that can be established and the company will tend to flounder in pursuing its mission. Forward-looking was also one of the most sought-after traits in a leader (p. 33). Employees stressed the importance of knowing ahead of time what the organization would “look like, feel like, and be like” (p. 34) when it arrives at its destination. Employees also look to leaders to be inspiring and have a get-up-and-go attitude toward their aspirations. They are also more accepting and comfortable when leaders are competent. Employees are more apt to follow leaders who have positive track records of getting things done. Individuals scrutinize leaders’ relevant experience to evaluate their sound judgment (Plinske & Packard, 2010). People in EL positions are expected to demonstrate more competence in strategic planning and policymaking and less in core technology operations. Work experience is about active involvement in “situational, functional, and industry events and activities, and the accumulation of knowledge and skill derived from participation” (Kouzes, & Posner, 2007, p. 36).

The Way Forward for Leaders and Followers

The crucial elements of personal and organizational accountability should be woven into the heart, soul, and character of the individual. This fusion means that developing leaders are ready to own and influence their destiny. They are powered by a commitment and hard work to help their organizations and institutions succeed. Accepting personal accountability helps them to rise above negative circumstances to get the job done. Connors, et al. (2004) coined accepting

personal accountability as residing *Above The Line*[®] that is, the willingness for developing leaders to stay in the frame of mind of being answerable and responsible for carrying out the necessary steps to complete projects and daily tasks on time and at quality levels. *Above The Line*[®] thinking is separated by a thin line, which distinguishes positive steps to succeed from excuses or grand stories created to justify failed attempts at completing projects and participating cooperatively. *Below The Line*[®] thinking is when developing leaders and followers languish in a vicious circle of victimization. They wallow in self-pity where they blame others for their failures for not finishing projects (pp. 10-11). To maintain *Above The Line*[®] thinking an attitude adjustment may be required of leaders and others. They must adopt a See It, Own It, Solve It, Do It[®] attitude (p. 13). Namely, *Above The Line*[®] thinking influences the success and commitment of many individual and team accomplishments that create a winning combination after much give and take on the part of leaders and followers as they rework and make adjustments to project components.

Social changes associated with developing effective leaders alter how contemporary organizations are managed. Gone are the days when corporate cultures promoted a command and control model that neglected individual choice and personal responsibility. Workers in the year 2010 want to work for organizations where they feel empowered to get results by emphasizing the “here is what I am going to do, what do you think” (Connors, et al., 2004, p. 31) model rather than approaching their work only after being told what to do. In this type of environment, employees who operate *Above The Line*[®] are willing to always ask, “What else can we do to rise above our circumstances and get the results we want” (p. 129)? Leaders and employees also must feel empowered by the concept of accountability, not trapped by it. Self-reflection and coaching others require persistence, tolerance, a support system, and proper follow-up. It is important for leaders to try out different ways (Vroom, & Jago, 2007; Connors, et al., 2004) to get employees focused on essential components that help move their organizations forward, after clearly defining the results they need to achieve. The next step is to always measure progress. When “progress is measured, progress improves” (p. 191). Expect from employees that they report regularly and thoroughly, analyze their activities in an effort to determine what more they can do to get results, and stand and deliver when it is time to report.

Encouraging Civility as a Community College Leader

Unacceptable Behavior in the Community College Culture

Despite preparation of leaders who manage community college campuses, they must handle conflict when civility breaks down. Incivility is described by Elsner and Boggs (2005) as rancorous and hostile behavior toward others. This kind of behavior has increased on college campuses and has led to unacceptable personal conduct and hate crimes including anti-authority philosophy, students who are continuously late for class and employees who are perpetually late for meetings and appointments; to more serious abuses such as student to student-, student to faculty-, faculty to faculty- assaults and murders, colleague to colleague deliberate destruction of careers. Basic courtesy, politeness, and high-quality manners often associated with being a good neighbor and, are also the proper etiquette extended to service workers in the community, have eroded. As a result, community college leaders must address unexpected and sometimes unprecedented incivility because of such erosion. Longtime veterans who have been engaged with community colleges over a significant period of time have been eyewitnesses to disfavored

handling of students, disorderly conduct on the part of students, mean-spirited behavior among colleagues, lack of value and appreciation for classified support staff, antagonism and hostility between administrators and faculty, and boards of trustees not performing as expected (Ahn, Adamson, & Dornbusch, 2004; Boggs, 2006; Eisner, & Boggs, 2005; Floyd, Maslin-Ostrowski & Hrabak, 2010; Malm, 2008; Murray & Kishur, 2008; O'Banion, 2009). These eyewitness accounts have set the tone for incivility.

Reasons for Incivility on Community College Campuses

Elsner and Boggs (2005) argued that American community colleges are deeply-rooted within the global society they serve and may subconsciously emulate these social patterns and behavior. The context displayed in social media and the press routinely attacks the personal integrity and character of individuals just because it can without any type of retribution. Declining resources have been also examined as one reason for the increase of incivility. During the budget cycle at community colleges each year, departments attempt to secure more resources for their areas out of the minuscule amount of funds available for allocation. This type of degradation is an assault on the character (O'Banion, 2009) of many colleagues in opposing departments and the humiliation that is experienced is long-lasting. Blame game thinking takes over as *Below The Line*[®] (Connors, et al., 2004, p. 11) attitudes of colleagues perpetuate the manipulation and false justification of “freedom of expression and thought” (Elsner & Boggs, 2005, p. 4), which is part of a covenant cherished by institutions of higher learning. Finger pointing and confusion are rampant to keep colleagues off-balanced. These off-balanced colleagues then answer the call themselves with *Below The Line*[®] thinking; that is, they fall victim to opposing colleagues. They call out accusations of one-sidedness, inequity, wrongness, and favoritism as a way to prove that the budget allocation decisions had to do with bias practices. Both sides resist moving to cooperation and collaboration as a means to get what they really want. They are unaware that they individually hold the necessary attitude within to get to a favorable solution where compromise is palatable. Eventually, there is a critical mass of unhappy people on campus, which leads to employees at all levels losing their credibility and, becoming ineffective (Pope & Miller, 2005).

Human Resources that Help New and Veteran Leaders to Prepare for and Resolve Sensitive Situations

Vaughn (2000), O'Banion (2009), and Elsner and Boggs (2005) made the case that the position of a community college EL is comparatively risky. The high-stakes status of such a position has thrust numerous leaders into becoming cautious in their approach to leadership since they fear that making a mistake will result in humiliation or job termination. According to Vaughn (2000), he noted that many executive leaders do not provide the leadership they are capable of providing because they fear failure (p. 81). What processes can be used to help them be successful?

New Leader Assimilation: Help New Hires Beat the Odds

A process developed at General Electric to help new leaders assimilate in the culture includes the following steps (Sartain & Finney, 2003, p. 98): (a) Convene a meeting with that person's new team members during the first week. With the leader in the room, give all the team

members the chance to introduce themselves; (b) Then, with the leader out of the room, the team should answer these questions: What do we want the new leader to know about us? What do we expect of this new person? What are the burning issues in our department? What are our concerns about the new leader? What does the new leader need to know about us as a team? What do we do well? Where do we need improvement? What do we want to know about the new leader? What are the major obstacles the new leader will face? Put the answers on a flip chart – but make sure they are anonymous so that the leader can not connect the comments to specific team members; (c) Reconvene the team with the leader to review items on the flip chart. Give the new hire a chance to ask questions about the comments and explore the ways in which he or she can take quick action on some of the issues. This helps the new leader plan an agenda for the first few months that is based on employee collaboration.

Retired Executive Leadership: An Untapped Resource

Counsel and support from executive leaders who have handled circumstances comparable to those that existing executive leaders are facing would assist in resolving problems more quickly and effectively. Vaughn (2000, p. 78) suggested that a pool of experienced, successful community college leaders could serve as a national example on how to use mature leadership. The new kind of leadership provided by retired community college presidents (p. 79) could be expanded to a broader group of retired executive leadership including deans, vice presidents, provosts, chief financial officers, and chief operating officers. These executive leaders may be willing to work supportively and mutually with the current community college EL because they are free to think more profoundly than was likely while they were in their leadership role. In other words, they would be able to express themselves “freely but not recklessly” (p. 81) while serving as a principal partner or coach to the current leader.

Leadership From the Heart

Kouzes and Posner (2007) advanced the notion that “loving to lead” (p. 351) has much to do with the sustainability and success of an organizational leader as does his/her formal credentials, knowledge, and technical skill set. This notion suggests that relying solely on the matching of leadership characteristics with a traditional leadership checklist is not enough to support and uphold the entire philosophy of what makes an effective leader. When the going gets tough, the effective leader relies on his/her heartfelt strength to lead the way and to stay the course in the midst of extreme pressure and difficulty. The leader has no problem surrendering to the security of this kind of passion because it reawakens the enthusiasm within to help to continue to move forward. As a result, this kind of leader is able to get up day after day and put in long hours at work just for the love of it. The researchers concluded that “staying in love with leading, with the people who do the work, with what the leader’s organization produces, and with those who honor the organization by using its products and services is an affair of the heart” (p. 351), which is an authentic mark of an effective, successful leader.

Summary

Apprehension sets in when a new administrator replaces a long-term leader. The new leader and the existing employees may be at odds with each other, which may lead to an unproductive environment. The study of leadership characteristics, an analysis of the

complexities of a community college campus and the development of new employee assimilation processes may assist with a smoother transition.

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How Learners Perceive They Construct Knowledge as Participants in Outreach Programs

Susan Yelich Biniecki

Abstract: The purpose of this interpretive qualitative research study was to explore how adult learners perceive they construct knowledge in connection to their participation in outreach programs. The study context involved three outreach programs focusing on the changing global order, the Katyń massacre, and Russia. The three main themes I drew from the study include: the dynamic learning process, influencers of knowledge construction, and individual experiences as connectors in the learning process.

Introduction

Outreach education involves intersecting initiatives identified as formal, non-formal, and informal learning or education, with learning and education often used interchangeably in the literature (Colley, Hodkinson, & Malcom, 2003). While some outreach programs might be described as non-formal enrichment programs (Taylor, 2006), some authors might choose to identify them as informal education (Marsick & Watkins, 1990), or as formal because of a university location (Clark, 2005). Rather than a rigid categorization of formal – informal education or learning, outreach encompasses overlapping leaves of education and learning.

The purpose of this interpretive qualitative research study was to explore how adult learners perceive they construct knowledge in connection to their participation in outreach programs. The complexity of learner participation is a necessary area of exploration to inform the creation of learner relevant outreach initiatives. What adult educators see as an educational domain or the goal of a program may not reflect that of the learners.

World affairs outreach education within this study is an important context in which we can learn about learners' perceptions of knowledge construction and the learning process. This context involves educational programs that resemble the complexity of many outreach initiatives – free-choice participation and varied learner motivations and abilities. While outreach education is a component of many organizations, the overwhelming emphasis in the field of international education associations within the U.S. is in two functional areas: international student and scholar services and study abroad (Association of International Educators, n.d.). Examining participants' knowledge construction at world affairs outreach programs could inform and broaden the conversation about international education in general. In addition, exploring adult learning in this context can inform other outreach education initiatives and help us understand the processes through which learners have constructed what they know.

Methodology

A constructivist lens framed this qualitative interpretive study, one which focuses on the learning process as the construction of meaning from experience (Piaget, 1972; Vygotsky, 1978). Methods of inquiry included semi-structured 45 to 90 minute individual interviews with twelve participants, a congruent data collection strategy for a qualitative interpretive study (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Interviews took place 6 to 9 months after the learner's participation in the

program. Research questions included: How do learners perceive they construct knowledge as participants in outreach programs? What influences learners' construction of knowledge? How do learners perceive their participation in the outreach program as part of their learning process? How do learners perceive context influences knowledge construction and the learning process? Using purposeful sampling, participants were those who had participated in at least one of three identified world affairs outreach programs in winter/spring 2009. These programs included: 1) a program featuring a guest speaker on Russia, 2) a large public forum on the U.S. and the Changing Global Order, and 3) a film screening of *Katyń* directed by Andrzej Wajda followed by a panel discussion. These three programs are representative of the variety of formats and locations of the organization's programs with a range of participant feedback.

Data were gathered by audio-taping conversations and interview transcriptions so that I could reference the interview in written form. Descriptive and reflective field notes were recorded in a field log throughout the data collection process to note what happened in each interview and thoughts or insights I had about interview process. I used inductive analysis to discover themes and patterns (Patton, 2002). Topic coding by hand was used to identify and organize all themes for categorization. Ten participants with assigned pseudonyms provided member checks including clarification of transcripts where necessary. The field log, developed matrices, the transcripts, and participant feedback served to triangulate the data.

Findings

The sample consisted of twelve participants: seven male and five female including four participants of Polish national origin. While the sample of those from Poland is out of the ordinary, particular groups may be present at specific programs. The three main themes which I drew from the study include: the dynamic learning process, influencers of knowledge construction, and individual experiences as connectors in the learning process.

Dynamic Learning Process

Learners perceived they constructed knowledge through a dynamic learning process. Throughout the interviews, individuals commented on their perceptions of how the outreach program "fit." They described the learning process as past knowledge and experience and the current information shaping each other.

Participants described their learning process on a detachment-emotion continuum sometimes moving from the continuum at various points in their learning process. For example, in relation to the *Katyń* program, Sara described identifying a practical use for the information at work where she connected families separated by war, but also described the program as a "slap in the face" because she felt she was well read and had never heard of the massacre.

In contrast with some other learning contexts, participants viewed learning about world affairs as a never ending process described as having an input of many sources with the outreach program as one of those sources. Jacek compared the learning process and his system of knowledge construction to that of the defragmentation of a computer. He went on to say:

You know in this global era there is a lot of information going around. You have to have some specific filter to...take all of those viruses immediately out. I don't want to learn why Paris Hilton is going to another party...It's a virus in my system, and it's just calling, 'Big alert, this is the wrong information,' so I'm just rejecting this immediately.

Jacek talked about the necessity to use many sources illustrating many participants' perceptions.

Tomasz's outreach education experience reflects this dynamic learning process articulated by participants. He emigrated from Poland as a young boy and was separated from his immediate family in probably the 1950s. He talked about his experience at the Katyń showing and reflected on the officers killed and then on the millions killed in other conflicts. He said, "When it's all in this perspective you lose the closeness to this. But, people, like I say, families that are left in Poland now, wives and children of these Officers that were killed. Let's face it, you know. It means everything for them." The outreach program for Tomasz was an input into a never-ending learning experience: his native country's history, his family's story, a country left behind, and a part of trying to make sense of past and current events.

Influencers of Knowledge Construction

Participants described various influencers of knowledge construction as important in how they made meaning of content. For example, the physical space of the outreach program and other learning spaces influenced their learning before, during, and after the program. Bob talked about the Russia program with his running group because the topic of nuclear disarmament was of interest to him. For Katherine who participated with her bus full of students in a fourteen hour round trip excursion, the bus was transformed into a learning space with lively discussion before and after the forum on the Changing Global Order. Clement blogged, Tomasz talked to a professor at the gym about the program, Sara conveyed the content to her staff at work, and Edward was reminded of his participation in programs as he read the newspaper. Polish born individuals mentioned the following reasons for participating in the Katyń program: to see what an American audience thought; to share the experience with fellow Poles; to show respect for the content; and to see the film in a place other than the home. Gosia said, "I did not want to bring this feeling into this house." These spaces of text, work, leisure, and the place of the outreach program were described as influencers in the learning experience.

Past experience was an influencer in knowledge construction and extremely varied. Although Ron and Clement both had experiences in Russia, neither conveyed detailed stories in the region that influenced their knowledge construction process in relation to the Russia program. Rather, their international career experience was described as a profound influencer in how they viewed the need for balance during the Russia and Changing Global Order program. Poles discussed their reflection on an authoritarian system imposed upon them and the residual effects from it in connection to their participation in the Katyń showing; however, they were not a homogeneous group. Whereas Jacek's family was listening to Radio Free Europe and Marek's father was put in prison for "speaking his mind," Gosia described that she grew up accepting more of the government's official portrayal. She felt the program challenged her even more.

Access to information was also an influencer. Most individuals had the time in their lives to participate in the outreach programs and keep up-to-date on current events. Marek, however, when asked if he had hobbies, said, "No. Not anymore. I'm just trying to survive." Marek had lost his job, his unemployment was running out, he had no health insurance, and he said that his health bills were going "up and up and up." These issues consumed his every waking moment. Most participants articulated the need to make an extra effort to find out about world affairs and that the content was not accessible in mainstream U.S. media.

Participants' self-identified future use for the content as well as expectations were also influencers. Maggie's co-participants expected a much shorter program and their impatience was a predominant influencer on her experience. If expectations were unmet some participants often could recall negative points of their experience, sometimes identified as learning.

In addition, the context of world affairs education, including the context of the specific world affairs program, was perceived to be an influencer of knowledge construction. It is not possible to homogenize participants' experiences or to say that a specific program evoked a common response for a specific group because the context of the program intersected with the context of individuals' learning experiences, connectors in the learning process.

Individual Experiences as Connectors in the Learning Process

Learners described their unique, individual experiences as connectors in the learning process which are the threads woven through the knowledge construction process, connecting the past, present, and future and through which the outreach program was woven. These connectors include different starting points from which to build knowledge as well as the process of reflection. While past experiences are influencers of knowledge construction, a holistic view of these personal experiences as connectors is also important. The outreach program was one learning experience that intersected in multiple ways with the individuals' learning processes.

Each participant had a unique starting point from which they constructed knowledge within their learning process relating to careers, regional experience, prior participation in outreach programs and learning or social intentions, not always mutually exclusive. Participants' learning took place in different contexts often framed around intentions and served as another starting point or a connector. For example, Clement, who felt he had a high level of expertise, said, "Why do I go [to the programs]? Because, you know, its solidarity." Sara said, "It is difficult to know what is a personal and a professional interest." Intentions were described primarily as educational and social or a combination of both.

Participants articulated reflection as a connector in their learning process and a facilitator in knowledge construction. Participants often described stepping back from an experience to closely examine its connection to their past experiences. For Edward, the base of knowledge was incorrect as he assumed the former Yugoslavia had been behind the Iron Curtain. At times participants described this reflection reinforcing what they already knew. Regarding the Katyń showing, Gosia said, "So any war anywhere in the world, really...I'm almost drawn to it, just to remind myself how awful that experience [is] and that humanity has to see it...It could be me." The reflection for Gosia was on the program as part of her entire experience connected to Katyń – her mother's stories, her experience in Poland, and the outreach program.

Discussion

This study suggests that learners' movement through formal-informal contexts of learning is integral to how they make meaning of experiences at the specific program and when they leave the event. Episodes of learning intersect and build on each other, which are important pieces in knowledge construction in outreach education. Scholars have focused on learners (Bilir, 2007), structure (Brennan, 1997), place (Clark, 2005), role of the educator (Eraut, 2000), and contextualization (Rogers, 2004) to distinguish formal, non-formal, and informal learning and education. This study supports Morgan-Klein and Osbourne's (2007) assertion that it may be

difficult to categorize some learning and education as we dissect it. Learning and education in an outreach context are reflexive in relation to each person's individualized process.

This study adds to the literature on lifelong (birth to death) and lifewide learning (formal to informal) by investigating how these learners incorporated outreach programs into their learning biographies (lifelong learning) and throughout the formal-informal continuum of education and learning (lifewide learning). This study suggests that it is necessary to examine both dimensions (Clark, 2005). Even with respect to time, the knowledge construction process for these participants was not a linear one as the term lifelong may imply. Past experience and the projection of a future use which may or may not relate to the participant's intention of participating may be present during the outreach program or post-program.

Participants described a complex web of connections, building onto each other with reflection playing a role in learning. Reflection enables us to correct distortions in our beliefs whereas critical reflection involves a critique of the presuppositions of our beliefs (Mezirow, 1990). Learner assumptions, such as Edward's misunderstanding of Yugoslav history, present challenges for organizations who serve learners with various levels of expertise. Reflection may or may not play a role in a complete transformative learning process. It may be a part of surface, deep, or tacit learning or may play a role in reinforcement rather than a complete change in outlook. Critical reflection rejects or adjusts previous knowledge whereas appreciative reflection pushes within the base of previous knowledge to illuminate important for individual growth and transformational learning (Le Cornu, 2009). Often referred to as reaffirmation, appreciative reflection may be very important to learners and to the sponsoring organization.

For some participants, reflection was a very emotional process. Emotions play powerful roles in learning and may help participants understand content and themselves (Dirkx, 2001). The role of emotion in learning is something we may wish to consider as we try to understand learners' knowledge construction. Emotion has often been associated with reflection, but the nature of the relationship between emotion and reflection is unclear (Moon, 1999). For example, in this study, Poles reflected on their own memories of a political system and Katyń as a symbolic precursor to occupation. They seemed to use the outreach program to make sense of memory, emotion, historical content, their current place in a new country, and how their native country had progressed. Emotion may be viewed as a barrier or facilitator of learning (Dirkx, 2001). However, emotion also can serve as a motivator for learning and is a part of the knowledge construction process that is less tangible than other pieces. These emotional experiences serve very different purposes for learners.

Implications for Practice

This study identified themes which can be helpful in program planning and outreach education. While we can point to participants' intentions for professional development or self-awareness, these concepts encompass different meanings for each individual. Therefore, challenges remain for program planners and outreach educators to determine whether they are indeed achieving their mission with diverse participants with self-defined learning objectives. This study suggests that examining a participant's complete outreach education experience prior, during, and after the program is important in understanding the knowledge construction process. For example, exploring incidental learning served as an important area of inquiry for this study and may indicate influencers of program aims. Often times an outreach program has "one shot" at making the connection with participants at events such as the ones examined here.

We may need to pull ourselves out of the formal, non-formal, and informal boxes to fully appreciate how the outreach program contributes to a person's entire learning process. We also may need to examine whether we, as researchers, educators, and program planners, resist calling some experiences "learning" due to our own biases. For example, in this study, the general goal of the programs, such as global awareness, may intersect with a person's learning biography and lifewide learning in a variety of ways. In addition, the program's intersection with an individual's identity or development was a repeated piece of the learning process. The study findings underscore that most often the "for enrichment" educational category may not be fully investigated enough. Learning cannot be separated from the learner.

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Transfer to Practice: Business Solutions Professional Certification Training Program

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Abstract: A qualitative method was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the Business Solutions Professional Certification Training Program. Evidence indicates that “deep learning” has commonly occurred among participants who applied learned knowledge and skills to their practice with noticeable effects on individual, organizational, and inter-organizational levels. The curriculum and pedagogy of the program tailored to participants as adult learners has contributed to its effectiveness.

Introduction

The Business Solutions Professional (BSP) Certification Training Program was developed and is being delivered through a partnership between South Central Michigan Works! and Michigan State University’s School of Human Resources and Labor Relations. The program is funded by Michigan’s Department of Energy, Labor and Economic Growth as part of Michigan’s 21st Century Initiative created in 2006 under the leadership of Michigan’s Governor, Jennifer Granholm. The overarching purpose of this initiative was to build a strong regional workforce development strategy. The 21st Century Initiative has three goals which are to 1) prevent Michigan’s manufacturing industries and jobs from leaving the state by adopting a lay-off aversion strategy, 2) support community-led efforts to address plant closings and lay-offs through the development of strategies that link workforce and economic development, and 3) create regional workforce development teams to implement these strategies and make a successful transition to new markets, new jobs, and new work skills.

The BSP approach is an innovative response to the changing needs of Michigan’s businesses and economy that requires a fundamental shift in the ways in which workforce development practitioners perceive and organize their work. BSP training fosters acquisition of new knowledge and skills among workforce practitioners to help them make the paradigm shift in their work and practice. In addition to workforce development professionals, the BSP Program also enrolls professionals from economic development, post-secondary education, non-profit organizations, and other community partners to meet the demands of the 21st Century Initiative.

The BSP approach emphasizes applying a business-focused, demand-driven collaborative process to help Michigan businesses retain current workers, create jobs, and operate competitively in a global market and to attract new business. Participants learn the importance of networking to develop strong relationships with businesses as well as with those who have access to resources or assets that businesses need to survive and thrive. Participants learn how to create ad hoc as well as on-going partnerships with those from other domains in order to provide comprehensive assistance to businesses. The Program consists of classroom training and fieldwork. The classroom training, which includes four two-day class sessions that are spaced over a four-month period, provides the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills required to apply a demand-driven, business-focused approach. Fieldwork allows the participants to apply their knowledge of the BSP Process to businesses in their region and to demonstrate their ability

to form productive employer relationships and to collaborate with partners to increase the value of assets to the business.

The BSP Certification Training Program Evaluation

Due to the large investment the State of Michigan is bestowing upon this Program, evaluation of its effectiveness is important to assess. Accordingly, a systematic evaluation design has been adopted that incorporates five levels of evaluation: participation, satisfaction, learning, application, and impact (Colbeck in Connelly & Millar, 2006). “Each level of impact is related to the preceding one, and the effort needed to gather convincing evidence increases with each level.” (p. 53).

One of the five evaluation components assessed how BSP Program participants transfer the knowledge and skills from the formal environment of the training to their everyday practice in workforce development. Transfer of learning to practice signifies what is referred to as “deep learning”, a kind of learning that “depends upon the combination of both knowing and doing” (Delahaye, 2005.) Even though this “deep learning” is highly desirable, its realization is oftentimes not guaranteed in professional training programs. Therefore, we need to collect research data to see if “deep learning” has taken place in the BSP Training Program through a specific curriculum and training pedagogy designed to foster such learning and transfer, and to foster fundamental shifts in the practitioners’ perspective on workforce development.

Research Method

This study employed a qualitative, interpretive design using the critical incident technique as the central research method. 15 BSP Program attendees participated in one-hour semi-structured interviews approximately six months following participants’ completion of the BSP Program. The semi-structured interview style allows the space for spontaneity while staying focused on addressing research questions (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Interviews were audio-taped, transcribed, and analyzed thematically. Two members of the research team engaged in gathering interview data in the field, exchanged insights, and provided feedback for each other in order to adapt and refine research to accommodate the evolving nature of this qualitative study (Creswell, 2007). By end of year 2010, fifteen more participants will be interviewed.

Three layers of coding were utilized in the process of data analysis, including open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). They were used to develop categories of information, interconnecting the categories and identifying themes pertaining to “deep learning”, and situating and re-contextualizing themes within participants’ stories to understand participants “deep learning” experiences. The researchers used constant comparison method in developing categorization and analyzing data (Creswell, 2007), meeting regularly to draw upon our collective knowledge and research expertise. This is an effective way of triangulating data for the purpose of reducing the effects of individual subjectivity and to increase research creditability and trustworthiness (Arminio & Hultgren, 2002; Creswell).

Research Findings

The findings in this paper are based on 15 critical incident interviews. Evidence from the interview data suggests that “deep learning” has commonly occurred among participants who completed the BSP Training Program. Most participants had cognitive, affective, and personal gains as result of the BSP Training. They also applied learned knowledge and skills in their workplace with noticeable effects that are manifested on individual, organizational, and inter-organizational levels. For the purpose of clarity, we have organized our findings into three main categories: 1) transfer to individual practice, 2) organizational effects and 3) inter-organizational effects.

Transfer to Individual Practice

The evidence from participant interviews suggests that the impacts on workforce development individuals and their practice are significant and multifaceted. The effects resulting from the BSP Training Program include participants’ expanded awareness, increased skills and confidence, positive change in work practices, change in perception in many aspects, and heightened job satisfaction.

First, the BSP training has increased participants’ awareness of services they could provide and resources they could use. This new awareness has excited and empowered them, as indicated by one participant who commented, “Now, we’re talking about solutions. We’re talking about a win-win situation. We’re talking about this isn’t the only thing that we can offer.” In addition, increased awareness of available resources and services has also enabled participants to act with more assurance and confidence when they serve their clients.

Second, participants not only learned technical skills such as fact finding, the ability to ask critical questions, asset mapping, and ability to deal with conflicts, but also learned analytical problem-solving skills and abilities such as thinking systematically and creatively in identifying business needs and finding win-win solutions. One participant commented,

So again, the whole asset mapping thing that we did in the class came into play.

Like oh, well, this is, you know, contact this person and that person. That kind of thing. And that was just right there on the spot. So just demonstrating that yeah, maybe it’s not in your particular lane but you can reach out and help the business accomplish what they need to accomplish.

Third, BSP training provided a streamlined approach for participants to follow, enabling them to alter their work procedures and process, shift the focus of their work and services, and transform their work through using network and referral system that has been established through the training. As a result, participants have started to operate in a much higher level to increase effectiveness and efficiency in their work.

Fourth, BSP training has influenced participants’ perceptions about self-efficacy, perceptions on the roles they assume, the duties they perform, their organization, and the relationship between their organization and their partners’. For example, some participants began to see their roles as a liaison between workforce development and business community, or as information conduit that gathers and disseminates information among various partners, or as a consultant helping business to solve the problems they face. One participant commented: “my job isn’t just job postings and resume searches. I need to help these employers in whatever I can.” Another participant indicated on how different it is when she assumes the role of a

consultant instead of service provider: “as a consultant of BSP, you can only do what your customer or client allows you to do.” Yet another participant feels she is relieved from the burden of trying to be expert of everything, “I don't need to be an expert in their field. I just need to know where to direct.”

Finally, BSP training has triggered positive feelings and increased job satisfaction for participants. They feel that they are an important part of something that is meaningful and has great potential to increase the quality of life for their community. One participant described it as an excitement, “I think [people] are excited to be a part of something that has great intentions and great possibility [i.e., BSP approach]”. Another participant derived meaning and inspiration from work that goes beyond the work itself and spoke with a sense of pride,

This training has given us a different perspective of our work, that we really are major players in the quality of life, and that employment really is critical to quality of life; and that is our specialty. We really are at the center of any economic development growth plan for any community.

Organizational effects

BSP training has influenced changes within participants' organizations, strengthening the workforce development system. As one participant pointed out, “we are a stronger team. Our workforce development system is better prepared, better able to work with the companies.” In addition, the BSP training has provided business service teams with helpful guides and useful tools, changed the focus of work to more employer-focused and service-oriented, developed new frameworks and formalized processes, formed new guiding principles and organizational norms, resulted in close in-team collaboration and increased overall work capacity of service teams.

For example, in some locations, BSP training triggered the formation of BSP teams in order to be more employer-focused and service-oriented. As one participant testified, “We probably wouldn't have formed a business services team if we didn't have the training.” In some other locations, differences have also been made in how work is done within existing teams through the streamlined BSP five-step approach. One participant commented, “From the class, we had teams of people going out to companies, operating under the five-step approach and preparing for outreach in a completely different way.” Another participant commented on the usefulness of BSP training for business services team,

Business solutions training really helped out, in helping us and guiding us in what we're doing... Overall, I think we've learned as our team has how we can better offer services and what we can add to our services...and the business services team is using the curriculum that was taught in class. We're trying to pull different pieces from it.

Moreover, BSP training has also led to changes in organizational image, structure, work flow, information sharing, and collaboration within workforce development system. Due to the emphasis put on business service, some agencies change their organizational structure accordingly. Some organizations re-structured and re-arranged resources to form business service team. One participant commented, “So what I did ... I've got two people at each center that are the client contact people. The ones that really are head of the business service team. Then there's maybe three or four at each center that are on the team.” According to participants, BSP training has gradually changed the image of Michigan Works that employers and other partners held in some places. One participant described the change, “ they thought Michigan

Works just dealt with homeless, welfare, you know, people that didn't want a work.” “and now, we have companies who are looking at us as, you know, they're looking at us differently.” And “our image is starting to change now. I really feel that. You know, that it is. So we're getting calls from economic development people and we're learning more about what they do.”

Inter-organizational effects

Due to the strong emphasis on partnering with other service organizations in BSP training, participants have a new understanding of partnership and its significance, becoming more willing and proactive to work with other service providers, agencies, and organizations to build partnerships. Partnerships have been used in many ways to increase service capacity for BSPs to serve the business community, which includes sharing information among partners, making referrals for each other, seeking input from other partners, and formalizing working relationship among partners to push inter-organizational collaboration to a higher level.

One participant commented on the increased service capacity through working collaboratively with partner organizations. It is quicker and more effective to identify employer's needs and respond to these needs when information is collected through the “antennas” of all partners and shared across board.

We (are) also in partnership with some of our other departments like the planning and development department and our Detroit Economic Growth Corporation, those guys, we have bolstered our partnerships up with those guys, as well as the MEDC (Michigan Economic Development Corporation) and even Wayne County Community College. In which if they run into a situation with a business where a business may be in a little trouble or they may have some needs, you know, that we might be able to help them with, they immediately alert us on that.

Implications and Discussions

The findings in this evaluation research indicate that the BSP Training Program has effectively helped participants engage in “deep learning” and transfer their learned knowledge and skills from the formal environment of the training to workplace practice. Identifying and discussing the strengths of the BSP Program have important implications for other professional training programs and those involved in the community of adult training and learning.

The BSP Program adopted an effective curriculum and pedagogy with the understanding that, as adult learners, participants are autonomous, practical, goal-oriented, and self-directed, with rich life and work experience. The strength of the program is in its ability to deliver a curriculum that is relevant, practical and directly tied to the participants' daily work. In addition, participants were very engaged in the process because active learning was used as the main pedagogical strategy in the training. Moreover, the BSP Training has operated under a paradigm that values constructing knowledge within a learning community. It not only emphasized active participation of each person, but treasured the background knowledge each person has brought to the table. Participants testified that the knowledge, diverse work experiences, and expertise that they brought to the training were valuable, and effective use of these resources did facilitate their learning.

The BSP Program has combined classroom teaching with experiential learning. Participants felt the fieldwork experience was highly worthwhile. Conducting projects in the field has provided them the opportunity to engage in real work situations, to apply what they learned in class, and to receive feedback on their performance. Mentoring provided during the fieldwork experience is an important piece, with one participant describing it as “holding your hands”, to help them get through the process and learn. Many participants agreed that experiential learning experience of completing a project is very effective when combined with classroom teaching, ensuring participants the readiness to apply BSP approach in their workplace after the training.

Finally, the BSP program has used the training to create favorable conditions for participants to transfer knowledge and skills to practice. Participants confirmed the importance of involving many stakeholders, not only for the purpose of learning itself, but also for the effective execution of the BSP approach after the training. It helped participants learn more about their potential partners and save time in promoting and executing BSP approach in workplace. It also helped participants form a statewide inter-organizational network that provides continual support for their effort and practice. Furthermore, the BSP program has included some of managers and directors in the training for one-day or half-day events. Participants pointed out its importance to the application of the BSP approach after the training, because support from the top of an organization is crucial for effective implementation of the BSP approach in workplace.

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Empirical Measurement of Perspective Transformation, 1999-2009

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Abstract: Mezirow wrote that transformative learning is the most significant developmental task for adults. But how can adult educators know the degree to which their efforts to help learners transform their perspectives are successful? As part of a larger study of transformative learning for nursing home employees, this literature review sought to discover the ways in which perspective transformation has been operationalized and measured in recent empirical research. Literature for the review included 51 studies conducted between 1999 and 2009. The vast majority (43 out of 51) used qualitative research strategies. The remaining studies used quantitative strategies or mixed methods. Some of the authors used Mezirow's theory of transformative learning as their framework; others used theories of perspective transformation or related terminology from other social science disciplines. Assessments were based on similarities between study outcomes and the overall concepts associated with Mezirow's transformative learning theory, general concepts specific to a different theoretical framework, or on numerical scores generated by an instrument. The paper concludes with a discussion of the feasibility of using transformative learning theory as a framework for measuring perspective transformation in nursing home employees and creating a standardized instrument to measure perspective transformation in adult learners.

Introduction

In the field of adult education, transformative learning involves learners critically reflecting on their assumptions and then either changing their perspectives or consciously deciding to maintain their previous views (see Cranton, 2006; Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 2008). According to Mezirow (1991), transformative learning is the most significant developmental task for adults. But how can adult educators know the degree to which their efforts to help learners transform their perspectives are successful? How can researchers compare their results across studies? How can educators and consultants compare their results across interventions? What can we learn from other academic disciplines in terms of measuring perspective transformation? Is there a quantitative tool that could be used to assess transformative learning within large organizations? In preparation for a study of transformative learning for nursing home employees, I sought answers to these questions by reviewing recent literature to find out which methodological approaches researchers have used to study perspective transformation and how researchers have operationalized perspective transformation in their studies.

Methodology

To be included in the literature review, the studies must have attempted to empirically measure or describe transformative learning, perspective transformation, or some other aspect of transformation in adults. Purely theoretical or normative publications on new approaches to transformative learning, ways in which transformative learning might be fostered, how learning facilitators can incorporate transformative learning into their curriculum, and the like were

eliminated. Articles that dealt with perspective transformation within cognitive, affective, or behavioral realms that closely resembled Mezirow's theory of transformative learning, even if they did not mention Mezirow or transformative learning theory by name, were included because different social science disciplines often use different terminology and models for similar phenomena. Search terms therefore included "Mezirow," "transformative learning," "transformational learning," "transformative learning theory," "transformational learning theory," "perspective transformation," and "transformation." I searched the following databases: Academic Search Complete, ERIC (at EBSCOhost), EBSCO Electronic Journal Services, PsycINFO, PsycArticles, Sociological Collection, Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection, Professional Development Collection, Electronic Theses and Dissertations (University of Georgia), MedLine, ProQuest Nursing and Allied Health Source, PubMed, Health Source: Nursing /Academic Edition, and AgeLine. Special attention was paid to studies of perception transformation in the aging and health sciences because my proposed research will be conducted within these fields. I also identified relevant references from Taylor's (2007) critical review of transformative learning research between 1999-2005. To narrow the search results, I focused on research published between 1999 and 2009.

Results

The literature review produced a total of 51 studies that attempted to empirically measure or describe perspective transformation. This section of the paper will describe the research strategies used in the studies and the ways in which researchers operationalized perspective transformation. Emphasis is on quantitative and mixed methods as these are the most promising for large-scale assessment of interventions.

Research Strategies Used in Empirical Studies of Perspective Transformation

Qualitative strategies. The vast majority of studies in the literature review (43 out of 51) used qualitative research strategies. Conrad, Haworth, and Lattuca (2001) divide qualitative research strategies into seven categories: ethnography, case study, phenomenology, narrative methods, grounded theory, participatory action research, and practitioner/teacher research. Examples of all seven types of qualitative research were present in the literature. Case study was the most prevalent. This type of qualitative research provides "intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit" (Merriam, 1988, p. 21) and encourages the reader to compare the subject of inquiry with their own experience and understanding and take an active role in thinking about how the case might generalize to other populations (Merriam, 2001, p. 194). The next most common qualitative strategies, in order of prevalence, were phenomenology, narrative methods, ethnography, participatory action research, practitioner/teacher research, and grounded theory.

Quantitative strategies. Seven of the studies identified in the literature review employed quantitative research strategies exclusively. Only one of them used what could be called a generic measure of transformative learning based specifically on transformative learning theory. Based on constructs from Mezirow's (1991) model of transformative learning, and Mezirow's definition of reflective thinking within the model, Kember, Leung, Jones, Like, McKay, Sinclair, Tse, Webb, Wong, Wong, and Yeung (2000) designed a 16-question, four-scale questionnaire to measure "the extent to which students engage in reflective thinking in professional preparation courses" (p. 392). Their quantitative instrument assessed four constructs: habitual action,

understanding, reflection, and critical reflection. Questionnaire items about habitual action and reflection inquired about the respondent's learning and reflection patterns in general. Items about understanding addressed the specific course in questions. Items about critical reflection asked questions about perspective change. These included: "As a result of this course I have changed the way I look at myself," "This course has challenged some of my firmly held ideas," "As a result of this course I have changed my normal way of doing things," and "During this course I discovered faults in what I previously believed to be right" (p. 395). The authors purposely excluded from the instrument the affective dimension of reflective thinking. The "Reflection Questionnaire" was demonstrated to be reliable (Cronbach alpha \geq .62) and valid through testing with undergraduate and graduate students in the health sciences (Kemper et al., 2000).

The rest of the studies used instruments that provided indirect evidence of perspective transformation through measures of various aspects of cognitive, affective, or behavioral change. Cragg, Plotnikoff, Hugo, and Casey (2001) administered the Professional Values Scale, a 17-question survey that used a seven-part Likert scale to measure values and attitudes along four dimensions—commitment/affiliation, autonomy, knowledge/theory, and holistic perspective—to measure perspective transformation in nursing students obtaining their degree by distance education. To "assess the impact of a palliative care educational component on the attitudes toward care of the dying in undergraduate nursing students," Mallory (2003) used the Frommelt Attitude Toward Care of the Dying scale, a 30-item instrument with a five-part Likert-type scale to measure nurses' attitudes toward providing care for terminally ill patients and their families (p. 306). Goldie, Schwartz, McConnachie, and Morrison (2004) used the Ethics and Health Care Survey Instrument "to judge the impact of an integrated medical curriculum, in which ethics and law is a core vertical theme, on students' potential behaviour when facing ethical dilemmas" (p. 943). Ligon, Ehlman, Moriello, and Welleford (2009) used visual analogue scales to measure changes in attitudes of undergraduate students toward older adults and aging after completion of an oral history project in an introductory gerontology class. To assess the "effectiveness of a university intergenerational service learning course on positively impacting students' knowledge and perceptions of aging," Knapp and Stubblefield (2000) combined two scales, the Facts on Aging Quiz I and the Facts on Aging Quiz II, to create a 50-item, true/false/don't-know instrument to assess students' knowledge of basic physical, mental, and social facts about aging. Brown (2005) used the Cultural and Educational Issues Survey (Version B), comprising four demographic items and 59 opinion statements with a 5-point Likert scale, to measure the effects of an alternative, transformative pedagogy on preservice educational administrators' attitudes concerning cultural and educational issues.

Mixed methods. Three studies combined qualitative and quantitative research strategies to understand perspective transformation. To evaluate the nature of, and contributors to, transformative learning in adult learners of English as a Second Language, King (2000) adapted the Learning Activities Survey–ESL Format instrument, a four-page instrument that included objective and free response questions related to the students' experiences and to specific aspects of transformative learning theory. Follow-up interviews were conducted with 24 of the 208 survey respondents "to augment the survey data with further inquiry and to evaluate the initial analysis of the data that had been gathered" (King, 2000, p. 73).

In a later study, the same author sought to understand the trends, changes, influences, facilitating factors, and barriers related to transformative learning for educators and their professor (King, 2004). To accomplish this, she administered the Learning Activities Survey to

gather information from the research participants (King, 2004). The four-page survey included “statements that describe the different stages of perspective transformation followed by free-response questions that allow respondents to describe the experience/s they consider applicable” (King, 2004, p. 158) and “a series of objective questions with checklists, multiple choice, and fill-in-the-blanks to gather information about demographics and what may have facilitated the participants’ transformative learning experiences” (King, 2004, p. 158). In addition, King (2004) interviewed the professor and used constant comparison to analyze the transcribed data.

Keith (2005) “investigated whether individuals would change their views of nursing facilities in response to volunteer activities in an ombudsman program and identified factors associated with transitions in perceptions as well as types of change” by using a questionnaire with one qualitative and several quantitative items (p. 125). Quantitative items included demographic information; numeric and yes-no questions about length of service and training received; five-point Likert-type questions to assess commitment to advocacy activities, strain experienced as a volunteer, positive effects of volunteering on other aspects of life, effectiveness of managing residents’ complaints; and a yes-no question about whether the volunteering in the ombudsman program had changed their view of long-term care facilities (Keith, 2005). If respondents’ perceptions had changed, they were asked to describe in what ways their perceptions and views had changed.

Operationalizing Perspective Transformation

For authors who based their studies on transformative learning theory, their conclusions about the existence and degree of perspective change were based on general similarities between their study outcomes and the overall concepts associated with transformative learning. For example, in a study of changing perspectives on issues of diversity in education, Brown (2005) explained Mezirow’s transformative learning theory within her “Theoretical Framework” section and then compared respondents’ pre-test and post-test answers on the Cultural and Educational Issues Survey (Version B) instrument with aspects of transformative learning theory that she had outlined earlier. For a study of the transformative learning that results from incorporating HIV/AIDS into one’s identity, Baumgartner (2002) spent approximately three pages describing the process of transformative learning and previous studies of the transformation process and then analyzed her results by looking for evidence of transformative learning and the transformation process in the narratives she had collected. Kember et al.’s (2000) study of reflective thinking, a very specific aspect of transformative learning, was the most specific in its operationalization. To assess critical reflection, the authors asked four questions:

4. As a result of this course I have changed the way I look at myself.
8. This course has challenged some of my formerly held ideas.
12. As a result of this course I have changed my normal way of doing things.
16. During this course I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right. (p. 395)

Even these specific items allowed room for interpretation, however, as the questions were open-ended.

Authors who studied perspective transformation within other theoretical frameworks based their conclusions on general concepts specific to the framework or on numerical scores generated by an instrument. Knapp and Stubblefield (2000) looked for statistical differences in pre-test and post-test scores on the Facts on Aging Quiz I (FAQI) and Facts on Aging Quiz II

(FAQII) as evidence of general changes in attitude toward aging. MacLeod, Parkin, Pullon, and Robertson (2003) looked for illustrative examples, themes, and patterns in written reflections and class assignments for evidence of transformation of students' perceptions of and attitudes toward caring for dying patients and their families.

Conclusion

Since Mezirow introduced the theory of transformative learning three decades ago, this topic has become the most widely discussed and widely researched in the field of adult education (Taylor, 2008). Empirical research has been conducted along the way in an attempt to define and measure transformative learning, but to date, there is not a single, widely accepted strategy or instrument that would allow researchers to more easily compare results across studies or that would justify the use of specific interventions for perspective transformation. The results of the literature review confirmed that transformative learning theory is an appropriate framework through which to study transformative learning for nursing home employees because it has been used effectively for similar research in clinical settings before. The quantitative instrument used by Kember et al. (2000) holds potential for measuring cognitive and behavioral aspects of reflective thinking and perspective transformation within Mezirow's (as cited in Kember et al., 2000) model of transformative learning. For my research purposes, however, measuring change in employees' affect as a result of transformative learning activities is also essential. Thus, it would be necessary to combine Kember et al.'s (2000) Reflective Questionnaire with an additional instrument to fully capture the perspective transformation hoped for. Perhaps because perspective transformation happens on so many levels (e.g., individual, organizational, cognitive, affective, behavioral), it may be impossible to develop a single, generic scale to capture every aspect. Rather, a more useful approach would be to use instruments that are specific to the type of change sought.

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Curriculum Design for Adult Learners with an Emphasis on Health Literacy

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Abstract: While health literacy addresses learners in the health care settings, its principles can be applied to any educational setting. This paper describes a collaborative curriculum design initiative involving four institutions that incorporated health literacy into the curriculum design process. Based on the collaborative experience, this paper examines the relationship between curriculum design, adult learning and teaching principles, and health literacy.

Introduction

Health literacy is the ability to read, understand, and act on basic health information; it is a public health concern that can be affected by age, race, and income levels. Dealing with consequences of low health literacy can greatly enhance quality of life and the safety of individuals and increase patient satisfaction. Studies suggest that individuals with low literacy often make medication and treatment mistakes, are often unable to conform with treatments, don't have the skills to negotiate the health care system, and can be at risk for hospitalization (Weiss, 2003). Health literacy is often overlooked in curriculum design. This paper describes a collaborative curriculum design initiative involving four institutions; explains how health literacy was incorporated into the curriculum design process; and examines the relationship among curriculum design, adult learning and teaching principles, and health literacy.

The Importance of Health Literacy

Health literacy is defined as a person's "capacity to obtain, process and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions" (Ratzen, 2001, 210). Health literacy has been identified as a crucial goal to improve health outcomes by the Institute of Medicine, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, the Joint Commission, the American Medical Association, and the American Academy of Pediatrics (Sanders et. al., 2009).

Close to half of all adults in the United States have limited functional literacy skills, representing a group of citizens that have difficulty reading complex texts and using documents that require specialized knowledge (Osborne, 2005). In fact, the 2003 National Assessment of Adult Literacy, published by the U.S. Department of Education, indicates that more than 70 million American adults cannot do basic health activities such as following an immunization schedule, interpreting a growth chart, or reading written medication instructions (Kutner, et. al, 2006).

Health care providers for children often overestimate the health literacy of parents and caregivers. Child health outcomes may be sensitive to caregiver literacy skills. Caregivers are often overwhelmed with complex recommendations for the care of children. In particular, children with special health care needs have complex medical conditions and treatment plans. Caregivers' ability to understand may impact the health outcomes of their child (Sanders et al., 2009).

Despite information about the importance of readability in health materials, most written information remains at or above an 8th grade reading level. Literacy is important in healthcare; life threatening errors can happen when individuals cannot read or comprehend written healthcare information (Osborne, 2005). To avoid these errors, developing instructional materials with health literacy in mind can serve as tools for fostering caregiver independence and autonomy, providing easy access to information, and creating a systematic curriculum for healthcare providers. In this case, health literacy goes beyond the ability to read and write; it is the ability to communicate and understand information. It is a joint responsibility of caregivers and healthcare providers involved in shared decision-making. As part of the grant R40 MC 08960 from the Maternal and Child Health Bureau (Title V, Social Security Act), Health Resources and Services Administration, Department of Health and Human Services, this paper describes next the nature of collaborative curriculum design initiative.

Collaborative Curriculum Design Initiative

The curriculum design initiative is one of the aims of a federally funded grant with the purpose of developing, implementing, and evaluating a systematic, competency-based care coordination education curriculum for caregivers of medically complex and fragile children. The grant project is a partnership of four institutions involving physicians, pediatric nurse case managers, social workers, a research coordinator, a graphic designer, and an adult educator who was recruited for her knowledge of curriculum design. The curriculum goal is to educate family caregivers about how to access and provide seamless inpatient and outpatient care for their children. These caregivers have children with complex health conditions that are often not well understood even by medical providers. By building caregiver coordination skills, the curriculum will stimulate more informed and responsible choices.

Using a systematic approach to support caregivers (adult learners) of children with special needs is essential to providing quality and safe treatment. The curriculum is designed to be taught to family caregivers by their nurse case managers or other providers. In the future, the curriculum sections will be disseminated to other independent learners so they must be able to stand on their own without a trained instructor.

Curriculum Design Process. The curriculum design was based on Cennamo and Kalk's (2005) collaborative model. This collaborative model follows a spiral approach, which proceeds through a series of steps that move to progressively more complete versions of the product being designed. Each phase incorporates essential elements of systematically designed instruction: learners' needs and characteristics, desired learning outcomes, assessments, instructional activities, and evaluation. The team of designers cycled through the phases of Define, Design, Demonstrate, and Develop, and revisited each of the essential elements of curriculum design. The model includes a fifth phase, Delivery, which includes the utilization of the curriculum with learners. The Delivery phase will take place in 2010. The curriculum design we used involved a collaborative problem solving process.

The curriculum design was evaluated using formative and summative evaluation approaches. Formative evaluations were conducted during the process of designing and developing the materials. Summative evaluation measured the effectiveness of the materials after they have been finalized. Formative evaluation ran throughout each phase in the curriculum design process. Designers built feedback loops into every deliverable, actively seeking

comments, criticisms, and suggestions from subject matter experts, family advisory group, colleagues, and potential learners. A family advisory group, comprised of caregivers of children with special health care needs, was consulted to discuss curriculum content, relevance, and readability. These review and revision cycles assisted in revising and refining the curriculum materials incrementally to be sure health literacy principles were part of the content design. The curriculum will be delivered using a learner guide and an instructor guide containing content material and activities.

Curriculum Design Materials. Curriculum materials have been designed with health literacy principles in mind. The overall content is divided into twelve manageable sections, each with a single focus and clear objectives. Within each section, information is presented with clear succinct headings. The use of bullets, text boxes, and ample white space allows for improved readability. Graphics are used to illustrate written content. Each section utilizes the same format: Objectives, Patient Story, What's It All About, Take Action, Check Yourself, Resources, and Forms. Educational objectives are limited to three or four key behavior outcomes. Each section begins with a patient story to introduce that topic and create a personal connection between the learner and the material. The information in each section focuses on behavioral actions rather than simply medical facts. The curriculum uses short sentences, active voice, plain language, pictures, examples, and a list of resources that present information in different formats including video and audio. Although Internet resources are provided in the curriculum, we recognize that such resources often require a higher level of health literacy.

How Health Literacy is Incorporated into the Curriculum Design Process

Health literacy is incorporated into the design process using adult teaching and learning strategies. A total of 12 sections are included in the learner guide. Each section contains consistent headings that directs the learner to a short story related to the section topic, what the section is all about, things to take action when talking with the healthcare provider, information and resources, a check yourself page as a summary of section topics, and section-related forms. Each section is carefully designed containing one or more of the following strategies: using Ask Me 3™, creating a learner-friendly environment, considering the literacy level, including easy-to-read materials, considering activities that promote interactive communication between learner (caregiver) and instructor (case manager), using alternative forms of communication through forms, graphics, and using universal design in print and on the web (font, type size, line length, pictures, etc.) (Mayer & Villaire, 2007; Osborne, 2005; Partnership for Clear Health Communication, 2010).

In the instructor guide, the same materials contained in the learner guide are included. However, it is organized in an instructional format with learning objectives, assessment strategies, and outcomes. Also, a detailed description of the activities to be accomplished with the learner is integrated into the instructor guide for easy access.

Ask-Me-3™. The curriculum follows a learner-centered approach; it places the caregiver at the center of the curriculum design. The learner is recognized and respected and plays an important role in decision making (Brewer, McPherson, Magrab, & Hutchins, 1989). This means that the learning process comprises an open attitude toward learner questions and encourages involvement. Ask-Me-3™ is a tool used to enhance communication through three simple questions: What is my main problem? What do I need to do? and Why is it important for me to

do this? This model was a key framework used to design the curriculum. The three questions are used throughout the curriculum in the template for each section. *What's It All About* addresses the question, What is my main problem? *Take Action* addresses the question, Why is it important for me to do this? *The Patient Story* highlights, Why is it important for me to do this?

Learner-Friendly Environment. The text-based materials are organized using visual cues to focus attention, organize information, and present content in small chunks. Bulleted points to highlight items, bold print headings, text lead-ins introducing bulleted lists, listed items with explanatory text, tables, and text boxes are used to create the learner-friendly environment. Bullet points are in the form of numbers, darkened circles, and check-off boxes. Numbers show sequential steps. Darkened circles mark important points. Check-off boxes imply the learner needs to take action. Before listing bulleted points, text lead-ins introduce readers to the information that follows as short phrases or complete sentences (Osborne, 2005). Bold print headings are used to draw attention to each new topic. Tables and text boxes are used to highlight key information, tips to follow, and provide a brief summary of the content presented.

Consistency is a key feature of the learner-friendly environment, so that the learner can understand the structure of the materials and access each section seamlessly. Consistency is used for grammar, punctuation, and lists. The use of explanatory text is to help learners scan for what they need to know or seek more information. Lists chunk information into three to eight items and allow learners to quickly view the content (Osborne, 2005). The layout of the materials follows a consistent template, so that the learner knows what to expect from each section. All materials are created to be printed in color. Colors were chosen to be easy to view and enhance the visual experience. However, colors are not critical to the learning process, recognizing that learners may be color-blind or see reprints in black in white.

Literacy Level. Because the curriculum is designed for learners with varied health literacy skills, the materials are created using plain language aimed at a 6th grade reading level. Plain language is used with the purpose of “presenting information that is clear, to the point, and directed to the target audience” (Health Literacy Innovations, 2008, p. 7). The Ask-Me-3TM tool exemplifies these three points. Our materials are well-structured and logically sequenced. Our goal is to have learners understand the information the first time they read or see it. We are all familiar with how difficult it is to navigate the health system, comprehend complex health-related information, and understand unfamiliar terms. Plain language entails putting complex concepts into understandable terms.

Plain language is utilized in the curriculum’s written materials. The following strategies were used to help learners understand the materials: organizing content by placing behavioral actions first, breaking information into small chunks, using everyday language to explain technical or complex terms, using white space to spread out content and to highlight important information, and using graphics and pictures that the learner can relate to and support the point being addressed (Health Literacy Innovations, 2008).

Activities that Promote Interactive Communication. The curriculum is designed with the aim of being used initially by a learner (caregiver) and an instructor (the case manager), but as the learner becomes more independent the materials can be used on an as-needed basis or as resources. When used as a teaching tool, learner and instructor participate in interactive conversations and practical applications (such as completion of forms, creation of calendars, scheduling of appointments, etc.). The important characteristic of the curriculum is the flexibility of the interactivity.

The main focus is the learner's needs and accessibility to the material at the time needed. From the instructor perspective, it is important to listen to the needs of the learner. From the learner perspective, it is important to become more independent and autonomous. The intent of the curriculum is to empower caregivers to better provide care for their children. Ultimately the caregivers are responsible for their own learning.

Alternative Forms of Communication. Communication can occur during hospitalizations, during medical visits in clinics, via telephone, or in the home. Therefore, the curriculum materials can be accessed through different formats. For each topic section, forms are included and are to be used based on the need and learner choice. In many cases, optimal learning will take place as learners complete the forms with the input of their health care providers. In addition to written materials, all topic sections will be available via the Web. More sophisticated learners will be able to download or complete forms directly from the Web. Each section has a resource list that provides alternate sources of information. These include contacts for government agencies and other community resources. Links to Web-based video and audio files provide opportunities for learners who are interested to access information in other formats.

Relationship between Curriculum Design, Adult Learning and Teaching Principles, and Health Literacy

Curriculum design is the process for defining, designing, demonstrating, and developing the different components of the competency-based care coordination education. Adult learning and teaching principles are the ways in which we look at the characteristics of the learner, the role of the instructor, the locus of learning, and the learning process. Health literacy is the transparent bridge that connects learners (caregivers) to knowledge in a more concrete, relevant, and efficient way. These three concepts come together in our collaborative project because the curriculum focuses on the adult learner, the collaborative team is diverse in expertise, and we use a systematic framework for designing instruction.

We use adult learning and teaching principles by focusing the curriculum on the learner, the individual who can decide what is important to learn. The curriculum design is based on this adult learner who has past experience to verify or invalidate information that is presented and want information that is meaningful and useful as needed (Mayer & Villaire, 2007). For that, the learner is recognized and activities with an emphasis on health literacy are incorporated. The ultimate goals of the curriculum are to provide access to information, affect behavior change, and foster learner independence.

Each team member brings relevant experience and expertise that contributes to the richness of the curriculum content and the design process. A diverse group of individuals with backgrounds in education, nursing, content, application, and health literacy can effectively feed on each other's knowledge. In addition, the team actively sought comments, criticisms, and suggestions from other individuals such as subject matter experts, colleagues, and potential learners. This feedback loop serves to assist in revising and refining the curriculum materials to ensure that the needs of the learners are part of the content design.

The systematic framework for designing instruction also focuses on the learner at the center of the design process. For every phase of the design process, team members assemble information and ask questions, synthesize information and solve problems, and check understanding and confirm work with the learner at the centered (Cennamo & Kalk, 2005).

Health literacy is the constant reminder about the learner during the design process. As designers create content and activities, plain language to communicate and apply concepts is incorporated into the materials. It connects learners to knowledge in a concrete, relevant, and efficient way.

Practical Implications and Conclusion

While health literacy specifically addresses learners in the arena of health care information, these principles could be applied to any educational setting. The approach for curriculum design with emphasis on health literacy can be transferred to other contexts such as business, industry, and the military. It is a matter of thinking about the learners first and providing written and verbal information at the learner's level. Consider how the curriculum relates to their needs, and apply educational principles that are flexible in nature. As curriculum designers we must understand the characteristics of our learners and incorporate them into teaching and learning. Health literacy goes beyond general literacy skills of reading and writing. The framework of health literacy should guide the presentation of complex information in ways that can be understood by learners of all ability levels. In the development of this curriculum, health literacy concepts were incorporated in all phases of planning, design, and implementation. When curriculum designers understand and utilize principles of health literacy as a foundation for all teaching aimed at adults will optimize achievement of learning objectives. Curriculums and materials that use health literacy will benefit more people in a broader range of settings.

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Faculty Strategies for Balancing Workload When Teaching Online

Simone C. O. Conceição and Rosemary M. Lehman

Abstract: As institutions of higher education increase their online course offerings due to market demands, faculty workload becomes a concern. This study surveyed 38 faculty members and interviewed 14 individuals, with a variety of backgrounds, who responded to an online survey. Findings suggest that faculty use design, support, teaching, and time allocation strategies to balance their workload. This study has practical implications for instructors, instructional designers, and administrators.

A large number of institutions are now offering online programs to meet market demands for convenience and flexibility and to compete in the world economy. For some public and private institutions, online education is another form of income without having to construct more buildings (Maguire, 2005), and has become a substantial type of revenue with growing enrollments (Allen & Seaman, 2008). These market demands are pressuring instructors to move their traditional courses to the online environment or create new online courses. Therefore, instructors are required to change the way they think about teaching, adapt their course design, and modify their teaching strategies for this new environment.

Effective online teaching calls for intentional design and a need to create a sense of presence. Creating a sense of presence involves a different mindset – an awareness and understanding of how to “be there” for the online learner (Lehman & Conceição, 2010). Designing, delivering, and evaluating online instruction often entails a distinctive type of workload in comparison to face-to-face instruction depending on the different components of the design process (such as content type, course format, strategies, instructor role, technology, and support) and influencing factors (such as number of courses taught, learner enrollment, level of instruction [undergraduate/graduate], etc.).

Online teaching workload has become a concern for both new and experienced instructors. This concern is frequently the result of pressure from the administration, a perception that the online environment is omnipresent and operates 24/7, a lack of understanding of the elements that comprise the online learning environment, inexperience in designing online instruction, and a lack of awareness of the importance of being present with learners online. With the increasing growth of online offerings and institutional demands, instructors are at a loss and feel overwhelmed by not understanding how to deal with this workload concern.

Until now, it has been difficult for instructors to find information and strategies they need to address this workload situation when teaching online. Most of the information found in publications is based on opinions and anecdotes shared by instructors, designers, or administrators (Betts, 1998; Bower, 2001; Carnevale, 2004; Coppola, Hiltz, & Rotter, 2002; DiBiase, & Rademacher, 2005; DiSalvio, 2007; Ehrlich, 2003; Euben, 2003; Hardy, & Bower, 2004; Thompson, 2004; Wilson, 1998). There is a dearth of empirical research in this area (Conceição & Baldor, 2009). The purpose of this study was to investigate what strategies faculty members in institutions of higher education use to balance their workload when teaching online.

Methodology

Data collection involved purposeful sampling of 38 online survey responses and 14 in-depth interviews from instructors who met the following criteria: work at 2 and 4-year higher education institutions, have taught totally online at least one course, and were willing to participate in the study. We used snowball sampling to recruit participants for the study. We recruited instructors from diverse disciplines and with a variety of experiences teaching online to provide a broad perspective. These experiences ranged from teaching undergraduate to graduate level courses, from new to experienced instructors, from 6 to 16 weeks course duration, from 10 to 100 course enrollees, from ad hoc instructors to full professors, and from public to private institutions.

We used the constant comparative analysis method, which focuses on comparing incidents to other incidents, incidents to categories, and categories to other categories to analyze data (Creswell, 2008). The aim was to use the responses from the online survey and interviews to explore emerging incidents and categories related to strategies used by faculty members to balance their workload when teaching online. Coding of data involved looking for themes and patterns based on our main research question: What strategies do faculty members in institutions of higher education use to balance their workload when teaching online? Participant interviews were used to triangulate data. We were able to cross examine the data from different perspectives.

Study Background

Study participants included new and experienced instructors from the disciplines of education, health care, natural sciences, computer sciences, business, and humanities. For this study, participants, when answering the survey or interview questions, were asked to select one online course that they had taught. Out of 38 responses, 47% of respondents selected an undergraduate online course, while 53% selected a graduate online course. Courses varied in duration from four weeks (5%), eight weeks (5%), 15 or 16 weeks (84%), and other (5%). Enrollment varied from 10 to 100 individuals in an online course. Study participants' experiences teaching online ranged from teaching the online course once (32%), twice (18%), three times (16%), and more than four times (34%). The 14 individuals who participated in the in-depth interviews also responded to the survey.

Findings

Findings revealed four major strategies used by faculty to help balance workload when teaching online: design, support, teaching, and time allocation.

Design Strategies

Design strategies included pre-planning, anticipating course responsibilities, prioritizing course activities, anticipating student learning needs, and reflecting on and revising courses already taught.

Pre-planning involved creating a table with planned hours to be spent during the entire course, designing the course ahead of time and remaining flexible to modify content and

activities during the course, drawing on past experiences to create and revise courses more efficiently, employing co-teaching, and using a cohort program model to reduce workload.

Anticipating course responsibilities depended on the number of jobs held and the nature of the online course. Faculty members, who taught for more than one institution, found themselves using more than one learning management system, and because of the number of jobs held used planning ahead as a strategy to anticipate course responsibilities. Faculty members who taught their courses with a colleague or had large course enrollment used the following strategies to reduce workload: created guidelines for co-teaching, shared responsibilities with learners, based course design on a textbook and its activities, and taught compressed courses during shorter semesters versus regular semester length.

Prioritizing course activities was an important strategy to balance faculty workload. This was accomplished through consistency in course design, automation, and balanced distribution of course activities. Having consistent design in the scope and sequence of the course modules allowed for a predictable course pace. Automation was achieved through the use of the quiz feature in the learning management system and the use of a quiz bank from the textbook. Balancing course activities within the online courses and other courses being taught helped prioritize faculty tasks ahead of time, yet allowed for flexibility during the delivery of the course.

When designing online courses, the majority of our study participants stated that they placed themselves in the role of the learner. This helped them *anticipate student learning needs* and preempt problems. To do this, they offered an online or optional face-to-face orientation as a way to get to know the students, build trust, and form a learning community. Some faculty also used visuals, audio, and video to assist content learning as a way to anticipate student learning needs.

For experienced faculty members, *reflecting on and revising past courses* were strategies that helped them reduce their workload when having to teach the course again. Some of the techniques used to keep track of their reflections included compiling notes into a notebook or a folder as the course progressed or at the end of the course, conducting mid-course evaluations, and documenting learner feedback, observations, and comments. This process of reflection and feedback helped faculty members become more efficient and effective in their online teaching for subsequent courses.

Support Strategies

Support strategies for faculty in our study were dependent on their level of experience in online teaching, type of course taught, and student need. These strategies were one-on-one support, peer support, institutional support, and external support. Faculty members who were new to online teaching or were teaching sophisticated online courses sought one-on-one support. *One-on-one support* included intensive training, instructional design assistance, content expertise, technology support, and Americans with Disability Act (ADA) and copyright compliance help. For courses with high enrollment, faculty utilized a teaching assistant.

Faculty members who were experienced with teaching online often used *institutional support* such as the help desk for short turnaround request for assistance in designing their online courses and support for their students by referring them to the help desk as needed during the delivery of the course.

Some faculty members relied on *peer support*. For that, they drew on their peers' experiences for new strategies to reduce their workload. Faculty also relied on *external support*

from other organizations (such as historical society and centers), web sources (such as YouTube), and conference sessions and networking.

Teaching Strategies

Faculty used a variety of strategies before and during their online course to balance their workload. These strategies involved administrative, facilitative, and evaluative tasks.

Some *administrative tasks* started even before the course began during orientation activities with students. These orientation activities included introductions through the exchange of personal information, informal conversations, and clarification of course expectations. During the online course delivery, administrative tasks involved communication, management, and support. Communication happened through announcements and postings in non-content related areas of the course. Management included assigning students to groups or teams, dealing with the technology, and monitoring student participation. Support consisted of providing technology assistance or helping students overcome learning difficulties. In all of these cases, workload was determined by student experience, technology use, and enrollment. To manage workload, faculty members sent weekly announcements to clarify course expectations and inform course changes, provided rapid responses to emails, offered specific virtual office hours for support, and used a calendar and the learning management system progress report to monitor student participation. For some faculty, these tasks were better managed when working from home rather than being distracted or interrupted at work.

Facilitative tasks involved faculty members interacting with students or encouraging them to interact with each other. To manage workload, faculty used the following teaching strategies: limit the number of postings during discussions, make use of group work to share class leadership with students, avoid group work when there was high enrollment, assign students to teams for project development, and involve students in sharing new ideas for class activities.

Evaluative tasks included evaluating student work and receiving formative course feedback. Strategies to manage workload related to the evaluation of student work involved using group grading rather than individual, peer grading, developing a grid for easy grading, printing assignments for grading from anywhere, and automating quiz grading through the learning management system. For online courses that required individual grading, one faculty member used two computer screens where one screen contained the source text and the other screen contained the target text to be graded. Another strategy that seemed to be a common method was the reuse of saved student feedback statements in a Word document for efficient grading. Formative course feedback was sought through mid-course evaluations for course improvement.

Time Allocation Strategies

Time allocation strategies were a major concern for all of our study participants. Faculty members took between 10 to 120 hours to design their online courses for the first time. This time varied depending on the discipline, support received, course enrollment, and technology used. Once the course was designed, faculty members spent 4 to 20 hours per week for teaching during course delivery. To manage their time, they needed to be organized, disciplined, distinguish between work and personal life, and yet be flexible.

Organization was essential for managing workload. To help with this organization, faculty members blocked out specific time for their course design and delivery prior to the course. This helped them know ahead of time how many hours they would spend on their online courses. For one faculty member, it meant being able to concentrate on focusing on actual teaching during course delivery, while for two others it meant being able to better balance their workload between their co-instructors and cohort groups. This pre-course organization also helped them allocate time for their non-course administrative, research, and service responsibilities.

A number of faculty members found that by carefully organizing their time, they were able to responsibly meet these commitments. Organization also took the form of scheduling specific time for virtual office hours. Three of the faculty members found this practice a time-saver for answering questions and meeting learner concerns. Two of them used the strategy of anticipating and setting aside time for periods when there would be either heavy grading or heavy discussion. This helped them more efficiently pace their need for involvement, thus avoiding major work tasks during the week of student assignment feedback.

Discipline was also essential, and in a number of cases, involved blocking out specific time during the day or weekend for learner responses and then sticking to it. One faculty member, for example, blocked out time each morning or evening to check on the online course. Another one checked the online course on a regular basis during the week and on the weekend. Yet, another faculty member checked the online course every day and, in addition, closed the office door when online, to prevent distractions. Discipline for two other faculty members was particularly important as a strategy for managing workload. Both taught for multiple online institutions and needed to be able to understand and work with several learning management systems and be knowledgeable about the policies and procedures of each institution.

Distinguishing between work and personal life required that faculty members set boundaries, so that their online work did not overwhelm their personal life. One faculty member, who has two small children and teaches exclusively from home, initiated clear boundaries by working during the children's naptimes. This faculty member knew that these times would have few distractions. Faculty members also found it important to set boundaries by managing student expectations through explicit communication about email response and assignment feedback. For example, several faculty members announced that they would respond within a specific time frame so that students would know exactly what to expect. Another strategy used was to complete course work when most alert after returning from the teaching institution to the home environment.

The selection of appropriate technology for online courses was a way to create *flexibility* during the course delivery. By creating PowerPoint slides, developing lectures in podcasts, and selecting YouTube video resources ahead of time, faculty were able to concentrate on their course teaching and save valuable time during the course delivery. Once created, these resources could be uploaded to the learning management system and result in time allocation flexibility for subsequent course offerings. Another strategy that saved faculty time was the use of a Word document template with examples of comments for learner assignment feedback. By using the template, faculty members were more efficient with their time.

Practical Implications

Understanding what strategies faculty members use to balance their workload when teaching online can be beneficial for instructors, instructional designers, and administrators. When instructors identify strategies for managing workload ahead of time, they can better plan courses during the preparation stages of their online courses and during course delivery. Also, depending on the course discipline, enrollment, and other academic workload, instructors can allot time prior to the beginning of the course and be more efficient during the delivery of their courses.

For instructional designers, understanding strategies that best work for faculty, they can assist instructors in organizing, prioritizing, and anticipating the various aspects of the course design. For administrators, by understanding faculty workload for online offerings, they can make better policy decisions and identify sound procedures for different disciplines and course enrollment.

This study can have practical implications for online educators, administrators, instructional designers, and policy makers interested in modifying the fields of educational technology, distance education, and instructional design as they relate to teaching improvement. The results of this study can influence leaders in higher education to address pragmatic concerns of online teaching and to meet the changing needs of our educational market demands.

Conclusion

As online education grows at a rapid pace in higher education settings due to market demands, instructors are being pressured to move their face-to-face courses to the online environment or create new online courses. When instructors undergo this type of pressure, they must look at their teaching from an open perspective, adapt their course design, modify their strategies, and rethink the ways in which they can prioritize and manage their workload. Our study of higher education faculty members, from a variety of backgrounds and experiences in online teaching, shows that instructors are using design, support, teaching, and time allocation strategies to balance their workload. If instructors become aware of what it entails to teach online, from design to delivery, and try to prioritize their online teaching workload in relationship to their other activities, they can become more efficient and effective in their position and personal life.

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UW Colleges Student Motivations and Perceptions About Accelerated Blended Learning

Leanne Doyle

Abstract: Nationwide, both online and blended learning enrollments are causing a paradigm shift in higher education as courses continue to shift from face to face (or traditional) formats to totally online or blended formats. The University of Wisconsin Colleges mirrors national trends in its increases in adult student enrollments, online enrollments and blended course enrollments. However, unlike most universities, UW-Colleges has tracked accelerated blended course enrollments making research possible. The purpose of this study was to determine the motivations and perceptions of UW-Colleges students having participated in accelerated blended learning.

There are several observations that may be drawn from this study. Students were very satisfied with wide variety of teaching strategies, online activities gave them the opportunity to learn in different ways than they do in face-to-face classes, and indicated they would enroll in another accelerated blended course. ‘Time’ was an overwhelming factor in their decision to participate in blended courses. As higher education becomes more competitive and faces increasingly strong competition for students with less traditional funding available, it becomes imperative to understand the motivations and perceptions of accelerated blended learners.

Introduction

In the fall of 2002, slightly more than 1.6 million students took at least one online course at U.S. degree-granting institutions. By the fall term of 2005, higher education institutions taught nearly 3.2 million online students. The overwhelming majority (over 80%) are studying at the undergraduate level (Allen and Seaman, 2006).

Author Jeff Seaman expressed frustration as online enrollments are captured in literature while blended learning enrollments are more elusive as very little data are being systematically collected at most colleges and universities. The lack of mechanisms for identifying blended courses in college databases creates a situation in which a large-scale study becomes difficult to conduct and vulnerable to misinformation (as cited in Picciano & Dziuban, 2007, p. 10). Consequently, there is a dearth of empirical research on the effects of blended learning. While early research indicates that blended learning can be as successful as either online or face to face instruction, Vignare states there is a great need for more study on its effectiveness (as cited in Picciano & Dziuban, 2007, p. 37).

There appears to be two population segments driving the shift towards blended learning. The first segment is adult students, of which there were approximately seven million in 2006, and it is projected there will be eight million in 2010. While the number of students of all ages enrolled in college courses has doubled over the last 30 years, the number of adult students has tripled during the same time period (Aslanian, 2006). More than half of today’s postsecondary students are financially independent; more than half attend school part time; almost 40 percent work full time; and 27 percent have children themselves (NCES, 2002). Additionally, most adult learners are highly motivated and task-oriented (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Adult students, greatly pressed for time, willingly enroll in blended learning courses and programs.

The second segment, the Millennial population, has a preference for online learning over that of face to face learning. This generation is very comfortable using technology. The learning and communication style of the Millennial generation is through multi-media. Born between 1981- 2001, the Millennials are the most computer literate of the generations to enter the workforce. Learning for them has moved into web-based tools such as web-ct, online journals, and iPod downloads. Online courses and tele-courses are part of their flexible learning options.

Overall, the Internet-based learning styles ascribed to Millennial students increasingly apply for many people across a wide range of ages, driven by the tools and media they use every day (Dede, 2005).

In addition to online learning, another trend in higher education is that of accelerated learning. By definition, accelerated learning programs are structured for students to take less time than conventional (often referred to as traditional) programs to attain university credits (Wlodkowski, 2003). Again, there appears to be modest research completed in this area of study.

The University of Wisconsin Colleges mirrors national trends in its increases in adult student enrollments, online enrollments and blended course enrollments. However, unlike most universities, UW-Colleges has tracked accelerated blended course enrollments making research possible.

Results

The population for this study was UW Colleges students having participated in accelerated blended learning in autumn or spring 2009-2010. The instrument used was a survey (Appendix B), and it was distributed to 651 students (N=651) through Checkbox, a Web-based tool. The survey was active for approximately a three-week period during which four e-mail messages containing the survey link were shared with students. Additionally, there were three e-mail messages requesting instructors remind their accelerated blended learning students to participate in the survey. There were 83 students (n=83), or 12.74%, having completed the survey. The response was low; however, it was felt that a three-week survey activation period was sufficient.

The respondents included 54 females and 29 males. Birth dates ranged between 1960 and 1991 with the mean birth year being 1983 or age 27. Fifty-nine (71%) of the respondents were full time students and the remaining 24 students were part time (taking fewer than 12 credits). Although accelerated blended courses were offered at seven campuses, 83.2% of the respondents attended courses at UW-Fond du Lac, UW-Fox Valley and UW-Washington County, all campuses within the greater Fox Valley or central eastern Wisconsin region. Thirty-seven (45%) of the respondents took courses from UW-Fond du Lac. It was possible there was a higher response rate from UW-Fond du Lac as the researcher works at UW-Fond du Lac, knows the UW-Fond du Lac faculty and they may have encouraged greater participation from their students.

The survey was divided into three categories: pedagogical aspects, social aspects, and logistical aspects. Within the pedagogical aspects category, 69 (83%) respondents indicated they agreed or strongly agreed that accelerated blended learning can be as effective as face-to-face learning in the classroom. Sixty-seven (81%) indicated they agreed or strongly agreed that sufficient time was given to complete assignments. Seventy-two (87%) respondents indicated they agreed or strongly agreed that their instructor used a wide variety of teaching strategies

while sixty-seven (81%) agreed or strongly agreed that online activities gave them the opportunity to learn in different ways than they do in face-to-face classes.

Within the social aspects category seventy four (89%) of respondents indicated they strongly agreed or agreed that they feel comfortable posting comments on D2L yet 38 (45%) indicated they strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, 'I am more comfortable putting my thoughts on D2 versus voicing them in class' and 33 (40%) respondents indicated they neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Lastly, twenty eight (34%) strongly agreed or agreed that 'in an accelerated blended course there is a greater feeling of community with fellow students' to which 40 students (48%) neither agreed nor disagreed.

Finally, logistical aspects indicated that 61 (73%) of the respondents considered themselves fairly skilled in technology, while 17 (20%) considered themselves power users and only five (6%) identified themselves as novices in technology. Twenty-one (26%) respondents participated in an orientation prior to starting their class and the orientation was provided by either student services (10 respondents) or the course instructor (10 respondents) and one 'other' response. Of those having participated in an orientation, thirteen (62%) felt it was helpful and the remaining eight students were divided among neither agreed nor disagreed, disagreed or strongly disagreed. Of those not participating in an orientation, twenty-nine (48%) of the respondents indicated they were not aware of an orientation being offered.

Thirty (36%) respondents found out about their course through a website. Twenty-four (29%) respondents found out from an advisor. Twenty-two (27%) respondents found out about their course through 'other'. Sixty-five (78%) of the respondents indicated they enrolled in an accelerated blended course because 'it fit my schedule'. Students overwhelmingly preferred classes be held on Mondays through Thursday nights with the preferred class meeting times being 6:00 p.m. and 5:00 p.m. followed by 4:00 p.m. and 10:00 a.m. Lastly, seventy four (89%) the respondents indicated they would enroll in another accelerated blended course.

Qualitative analysis was used with two open-ended questions that asked respondents about both the positive aspects of accelerated blended learning and the challenging aspects of accelerated blended learning. These responses gave the researcher a far deeper insight as to the perceptions of the students.

Students overwhelmingly listed 'time' as being a positive aspect of participating in an accelerated blended course whether it be less course time, completing class work at a convenient time, freeing up time for other activities including family and work, less wasted time, and doing everything on one's own time. Two other trends noted included being better able to fulfill family obligations when participating in this method of instruction, and students liked being responsible for their own learning.

Conversely a challenge identified with accelerated blended learning was identified as students being responsible for their own learning. A few examples of such responses included, "Our professor literally left the learning up to us," "having to rely on yourself to answer your questions," and "learning the material on your own instead of having a teacher lecture it to you." The issue of time arose again as students mentioned getting assignments done 'on time' when having 'less time.' Students also repeatedly mentioned the words 'fast paced' in describing the challenges of accelerated blended courses. As one student commented, "Very fast pace, you have to get your game face on!"

Discussion

There are several observations that may be drawn from this study. Seventy-two (87%) respondents indicated they agreed or strongly agreed that their instructor used a wide variety of teaching strategies while sixty-seven (81%) agreed or strongly agreed that online activities gave them the opportunity to learn in different ways than they do in face-to-face classes. This supports the basic principles of adult learning theory and movement away from the often used transmission model of instruction. Research shows that learning is deeper and more meaningful when students are actively involved in the learning process rather than passively receiving information (as cited in Beckwith, Cunniff, 2009). Furthermore, this type of instruction may offer more students academic success as it takes advantage of using multiple intelligences.

Although 69 (83%) respondents indicated they agreed or strongly agreed that accelerated blended learning can be as effective as face-to-face learning in the classroom, it is interesting to note 18 (22%) respondents strongly agreed or agreed, 43 (52%) neither agreed nor disagreed and yet another 22 (26%) respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement 'I have learned more in accelerated blended classes than in regular face-to-face classes.' Perhaps this suggests that while accelerated blended learning can be as effective, students do not perceive they learn more than in a face-to-face courses. This supports research that online education can be at least as effective as traditional classroom instruction. (as cited in Bonk, Kim, 2006).

In responding to the open ended questions about both the positive aspects and challenges of accelerated blended learning, 'learning the material on your own' was a response frequently provided as a challenge of accelerated blended learning. As students must take more ownership in their learning, versus attending a course where lecture may be the norm, it may be helpful at the onset of a course for instructors to explain to their students that learning is deeper and more meaningful when students take an active role in the learning process. This may alleviate student feelings of abandonment by the instructor and that the instructor is not doing his or her job.

While the vast majority of respondents 74 (89%) indicated they feel comfortable posting comments on D2L it is interesting to note that only 38 (46%) *feel more comfortable* putting thoughts on D2L versus voicing them in class.

Of the 70 responses to the open ended question, 'What are the positive aspects of participating in accelerated blended learning?' 34 respondents (49%) included the word 'time' in their answer. Specifically they appreciated *courses taking less time* (7 weeks) versus semester long courses, the opportunity to focus on *one course at a time*, and less time in the classroom meant *more time for homework* assignments. Time was such a strong theme repeatedly identified by students that this may be an effective word if used in the promotion of accelerated blended courses (printed materials, websites, etc.).

The overwhelming majority of students (78%) indicated they enrolled in accelerated blended learning courses as 'it fit my schedule.' Given the importance of time to these students and having courses available that accommodate their schedules suggests accelerated blended courses need to be offered at times based upon the needs of the students. Students want their courses offered with face-to-face sessions on Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays with Tuesdays being the most preferred (Table 2). The preferred course times were 6:00 p.m. followed by 5:00 p.m. and tied for third place was 10:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m.

From this study it was anticipated the researcher would learn the expectations and attitudes of accelerated blended learners. This information will be of value to both administrators

and faculty as is assessed student satisfaction of accelerated blended learning. As there is a *complete void of research* on this topic area, the research results make a meaningful contribution to the understanding of the perceived expectations and attitudes of accelerated blended learners. This study will be made available to faculty and administration from the participating institution at a colloquium presentation, perhaps via an online employee newsletter and through the researcher's LinkedIn page.

The low survey response rate (n=83) suggests hesitancy to draw conclusions; however, student response consensus to a multitude of survey statements and questions may suggest possible trends.

Results of this research provide UW-Colleges with a starting point to continue measurement of student motivations and perceptions about accelerated blended learning. Perhaps future surveys could be available to students within a shorter time frame after course completion ensuring a better survey response rate. Another suggestion is that instructors of accelerated blended learning be made aware of the survey and are asked to support student participation knowing the focus is not the instructor rather the pedagogical aspects, social aspects and logistical aspects of accelerated blended learning.

Conclusion

Several of these survey responses mirror and confirm the research conducted by others. Overall it appears students were satisfied with their accelerated blended course experiences and 74 students (89%) indicated they would enroll in another accelerated blended course. This exceptional level of student satisfaction may be something the UW Colleges will want to use in future promotion of accelerated blended learning.

As higher education becomes more competitive and faces increasingly strong competition for students with less traditional funding available, it becomes imperative to *understand the motivations and perceptions of accelerated blended learners*. Most importantly, and as stated previously in this research, was the fact that unlike most universities, UW-Colleges had tracked accelerated blended course enrollments and this research was made possible. It appeared the UW-Colleges are experienced rapid enrollment in the accelerated blended courses and given the satisfaction levels as evidenced by the survey respondents, this growth will continue.

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HRD--Leadership Training for Women on the Lower Rungs of the Organizational Ladder; A Qualitative Study

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Abstract: This case study examined the responses of a group of women to a series of classes on leadership development, modeled after the Academy for Community Leadership. This opportunity was offered to a group of workers who are not normally slated for this type of training. Through a series of eight two-hour classes the participants were introduced to various topics related to leadership such as leadership styles, teambuilding, workplace diversity, problem solving, communication and action plan development. The data collection methods included a weekly evaluation, journaling, non-participant observation and a post-session interview. The results revealed that the participants had increased their self confidence, and they felt better prepared to do their current job. They expressed aspirations to continue their education as well as to seek promotions. They came to understand the qualities of leadership that they already possessed as well as areas for improvement. The results of this qualitative study suggest that leadership training should be offered to groups such as CNAs, direct support professionals and others on the lower rungs of the organizational ladder who are not typically offered this type of training.

Introduction

Organizations that are committed to investing in their workforce provide opportunities for human resource development. The importance of human resource development cannot be underestimated. A focused effort to develop talent should result in a more productive and innovative workforce which consistently delivers quality customer service (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

DePree (1989) pointed out that an important responsibility of leaders is to help “identify, develop and nurture future leaders” (p. 14). Unfortunately, those already in leadership positions are often the ones who are selected for further leadership development. According to Kristick (2009), “leadership development is often reserved for senior executives” (p. 50).

Parks (2005) in her book, *Leadership Can Be Taught*, explained “that people cannot simply be told what they need to know in the complexity of practice. They must learn to see for themselves” (p. 5). She suggested the opportunity to practice leadership; to learn by doing. She outlined a method where a class itself becomes an opportunity to learn from the social group that develops. Even though traditional teaching methods are utilized such as lecture, readings, videos, group discussion, reflective writing and coaching, she goes beyond this to use the group itself as a sort of laboratory to discover the strengths of the students.

The opportunity for leadership training for women on the lower rungs of the organizational ladder is limited. They may not see themselves as having the potential to assume leadership responsibilities. Women in this group may not have the opportunity for non-formal leadership development training. In this study I described, using a case study method, the experiences of a group of women employed on the lower rungs of the organizational ladder as they progressed through a leadership curriculum.

According to Merriam and Simpson (2000), “case study has been used to describe and/or evaluate the efficacy of a new program or new approach to ongoing problems” (p. 111). I observed the struggles that the group was faced with as well as how they coped with the issues as they emerged (Stake, 1995). There were opportunities to observe the leadership styles of the participants in this group as well as how those styles might have been enhanced during the eight-week course. According to Stake (1995) “the real business of case study is particularization, not generalization” (p. 8). I set out to capture, describe and analyze the experiences of one particular group of women. This group was treated as one single case study.

Organizational succession planning typically focuses on the top positions with an emphasis on how the organization can replace leaders who might move on to other positions or retire. This study provided an avenue for those at the lower rungs of the corporate ladder to enhance their leadership skills. This type of training may help this particular group realize their promotional potential in this organization or choose a more active role in their community. This study intended to discover emergent themes for this group by describing the participant responses to this experience. The thick description could help others understand this experience from the participants’ perspective (Stake, 1995). The study increased understanding of the experiences of this particular group of women by examining their reflections on the eight-week course along with their perceptions of their increased leadership abilities.

Description and Findings

The topical areas delivered during the eight-week series included an overview of leadership styles, team building, cultural awareness, problem solving/consensus building as well as communication and leadership. One speaker was asked to encourage the participants to write their own action plan for further leadership development. Finally, during the last session, the president of the company joined the group to share some of his leadership experiences and insights.

According to Stake (1995), “case study research is not sampling research. We do not study a case primarily to understand other cases. Our first obligation is to understand this one” (p. 4). The participants in this study were Residential Assistants (RAs) who work in a group home setting, providing supervision and support for adults with intellectual disabilities /developmental disabilities. The individuals held non-leadership positions, providing administrative assistance to the Residential Coordinator. The RAs did not supervise any staff. However, direct support professionals (RLIs) look to them for guidance and as role models at each work site.

The RAs range in age from early twenties to late fifties. All of the individuals in my study were women. Their educational backgrounds ranged from having a GED, being a high school graduate, to having had some college level classes.

The participants were given a homework assignment to complete the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator survey online. According to Rutzick (2007), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was designed in the 1940s by Katharine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers, a mother-daughter team. They based the assessment tool on Carl Jung’s psychological types. The MBTI categorizes 16 personality types in a combination of Extrovert-Introvert, Sensing-Intuiting, Thinking-Feeling and Judging-Perceiving.

Each study participant was asked to complete an online evaluation through the internal e-mail system within 48 hours after the conclusion of each class. The questions were those presented in the Critical Incident Questionnaire as developed by Brookfield (1995).

After the conclusion of the eight-week course, a post-program interview was conducted, within two weeks, with each individual. This was a semi-structured interview designed to encourage the participants to describe what this experience was like for them. Seidman (2006) noted, “at the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience” (p. 9).

The post-program interview questions sought to identify strengths that participants discovered about themselves during the course as well as how this knowledge may help them both at work and in their community. According to Grafanaki (1996), “the use of qualitative methods of collecting data promotes reflexivity, self-awareness and empowerment of the parties involved in the research, by giving voice to people to tell their stories in their own words” (p. 6). To protect the confidentiality for the participants of the study, pseudonyms were assigned.

Mona wrote in her journal that she strives to “be a looker, looking at the ordinary to see the unusual.” She went on to write that she wants to use “an open mind to choose the best, not settling for just any answer.” Other qualities of a leader Louise noted included the desire “to teach/lead them [clients and staff] to do the right thing.” Kathy also mentioned the necessity of “the wearing of different hats on different days, depending on needs.” Mona expressed her ideal of a leader by writing in her journal summary “that the full measure of a person is not to be found in the person himself, but the colors and textures that come alive in others because of him.” She went on to elaborate that this includes “[taking] initiative when there is a need, to do something about it. To seize the moment, recognize what your team members need, and help them to do the best they can. Thinking ahead, anticipate what problems might arise and know what it will take to reach the objective. Spend time wisely, get ahead of deadlines or help someone else. Recognizing and doing what needs to be done before you are asked, to take action, launch a goal.”

In the area of communication Louise noted that, “we also learned that good communication isn’t just speaking; its body language, writing, signs, videos, illustrations as well.” Fay noted that it is important “to communicate what is expected and follow through with it.” Samantha reflected in her journal about “just how much your body language says to people.” Fay, during her interview, shared that she has learned about “communication and teamwork. I know that I’m trying to use that, especially with the transition that we are having.”

Another topic that seemed to have a huge impact on the participants was teamwork. Mona enjoyed “listening to the speaker explaining about teamwork, the different personalities it takes to make a good team.” Kaye discussed “talking about teamwork. Leadership is what we used to think as being one person stepping up and taking over, which it really is but if you have a whole team that is backing you up it helps. . .we can all do it together.”

Other general responses to the training centered on self-esteem and things that participants had learned about themselves. Samantha wrote in a weekly CIQ that she realized “how important we are when it comes to helping the RC run a smooth group home.” While Louise noted she “had not differentiated [her]self as a leader so much and [is] starting to do that now.” Kaye shared in her interview that she “can actually be a better leader.” She also shared, “It showed me where I need to improve and that I need to step out more.” She liked one quote from the second speaker “be yourself, don’t be the shadow.”

I hoped to discover that the RAs, through their exposure to leadership ideas and perhaps increased self-esteem, would indicate an interest in moving into leadership roles. When sorting the data, I identified a category I labeled aspirations. Mary noted in her homework assignment that she has a goal for “further education and to move up the ladder . . . possibly to become an RC or Area Residential Coordinator.” April listed a goal to “obtain a degree.” Kaye also listed a goal to get a “degree in psychology.” Mona listed “training and school.” Kathy did so as well by noting “more education.” She also wrote about getting her “own business.”

Several themes have emerged. Morse and Richards (2002) noted that, “researchers often seek more abstract ideas or general themes in data. By a *theme* we mean a common thread that runs through the data” (p. 113). Most of the participants expressed surprise and appreciation that the learning process was fun. They discussed learning from each other and finding out that they share common issues. They expressed the realization that we all have the potential to be leaders. The essence of this realization is that leadership is not dependent on a designated role but is a set of characteristics that can be enhanced through training. Another theme is that education and training often reinforce the desire for further education and increased self-esteem. An additional theme was the desire for further education and promotional advancement.

Conclusion

It was interesting to note the participants’ appreciation of the time spent together with their cohorts. Learning from each other, as well as learning from the various speakers, is one of basic foundation blocks of adult education. Human Resource Development addresses the more formalized aspects of training employees in the workplace. Through this structured series of classes, the participants had an opportunity to experience a culture of learning as described by Longo (2005). He noted that through community education, we can see “ordinary people as producers, not consumers; actors, not spectators, and teachers, not students” (p. 9). This time together allowed the group to create their own community of learners. Scarlett mentioned that they have had “great speakers and great participators.” This class gave participants an opportunity for personal reflection and to learn about their peers. This led to a greater appreciation of their role as an RA. They also began to appreciate the support they can offer to each other. The idea that we are all in this together was shared by Jane when she mentioned that, “you can learn from other people who are in the same position you are. You learn different ideas on how they handle things maybe you hadn’t thought about.”

This case study attempted to discover the responses to training provided to a group of employees who would not normally be selected for leadership training. Leadership development is typically reserved for those who are already in a designated leadership position within an organization or those who are being groomed for such. By analyzing the responses to this leadership development class, it appears that leadership training could be beneficial to all segments of the organization, not just those at the top. The enhancement of leadership characteristics should not be confined to a select few. By broadening the reach of this type of training, the notion of servant leadership could be introduced as “shared authority, empowerment and building a community of trust” (Daft, 2005, p. 230).

This research project, providing leadership training for women on the lower rungs of the organizational ladder, allowed me the opportunity to change my understanding of leadership. I began the project with the belief that the Resident Assistant participants in the study may not see

themselves has having the potential to assume leadership responsibilities. After concluding this study, I see that I was defining leadership as attached to a particular role or position within an organization. This study has revealed to me that leadership skills and attributes are not restricted to a particular position; that anyone within the organization can develop leadership characteristics. In that sense, this research study has been transformational for me. I have studied leadership in the formal academic setting, through non-formal learning settings, such as conferences and seminars, and in an informal way through observations of leaders. I have previously attached “leadership” to a particular position within an organization or in the community. This study has led me to believe that leadership is a much broader and more inclusive cluster of attributes that can be enhanced for anyone in any setting.

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The Transformative Educator: Sustaining Initiatives in Adult Teaching and Learning

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Abstract: Transformative educators live their lives on the cutting edge of experience with eyes wide open. They are as receptive to the risks and challenges of everyday life as they are to the spontaneous learning opportunities surfacing in their classrooms. Transformative educators are authentically minded teachers who help learners identify with ever shifting learning dynamics, and they guide their students through these challenges intact and unafraid. It is a tall order, and many adult educators feel overwhelmed by the responsibility. Consequently, this paper offers insights into the transformative art form to help practitioners understand the process, clarify purpose and meaning, and sustain transformative initiatives.

Sustainability and Transformative Perception

While many scholars speak to the value of transformative learning they simultaneously confess to the challenges of designing and implementing sustainable initiatives. Meeting the propensities of learners' interests amidst the ever changing reality of life in the real world requires an unusual temperament on the part of adult educators because identifying with learners on cognitive, affective, and imaginative levels requires a voice of reason addressing students' psychological proclivities, desperately seeking self-expression through transformative development (Mezirow, 1991, 2000). These are the raw materials educator and learner share by accepting the responsibility of bringing them to fruition. As Dirkx (2008) and Taylor (2007, 2008) explain, transformative educators must be challengers, risk takers, and supportative simultaneously. Robust thinking of this magnitude is very different from the predictability of instrumentally structured programs that often limit creative exploration of intrinsic phenomena. According to Cranton (2000) and Taylor (2008) the structural integrity of a transformative initiative is exclusively dependent on the energy and imagination teacher and learner liberate in the classroom. In other words, Mezirow's 10 principles are holistic in content, intentionally avoiding a mechanical, paint by numbers approach. Consequently, individuals' unique insights are a constantly moving target seeking meaningful resolution.

For these reasons, transformative educators strive to establish believable learning climates that can assist learners in the application of their skills, talents, and passions. As Cranton and Carusetta (2004) found, authenticity transcends fear and self doubt particularly when the learning environment provides innovative strategies to focus them. How well educators succeed in delivering initiatives becomes the litmus test for effective transformative practice. Brock (2010) evidenced these qualities by addressing how self-expression carries original thinking into reality. "Knowledge as a stimulus to unblock minds and create new mind habits may be an increasingly relevant objective for 21st-century college curriculum" (p.124). Mezirow (1991) describes these resources as *conative* features which transformative educators seek to illuminate in order to awaken perceptions. "We can only see ourselves, our experiences, and others through our own eyes" writes Cranton (2000, p. 182) underscoring how original thinking

is the benchmark of sustainable perception and an essential element to the enrichment of transformative classroom experience.

Given the abstract nature of thought and the illusive intangibles of individual experience, transformative educators seek to focus these very real energies by providing tacit and active visionary support to heighten participants commitment to the various stages of transformative growth and change (Mezirow, 1991). For these reasons, collaborations, improvisations, games, and performance pieces help learners explore pathways of self-discovery without authoritarian control, which can obstruct creative imagination (Spolin, 1999). These strategies involve focusing unvoiced intrinsic thoughts in the moment, so learners can uncover, test, and instantly apply new, meaningful perspectives. Students associate new learning with learning how to think (Brock, 2010) therefore cognitive and affective phenomena that resonate with daily life should be captured intellectually before they disappear as quickly as they arrived. As Davis-Manigaulte, Yorks, and Kasl, (2006) explain, this is the world of the artist, heralding a process that cannot be reproduced except through active cognitive and affective self-expression. Creative revelation can spontaneously appear in a matter on moments whenever the thoughts and feelings of original thinking ring true, plucked from the wellspring of inherent genius (Spolin, 1999). These phenomena are the creative insights that transform dysfunctional *habits of the mind* (Mezirow, 1991).

The dynamics Dirkx (2008) and Taylor (2008) find missing from the current level of transformative understanding underscores the challenges imposed by the contrasting realities of classroom life, and life in the real world. Taylor (2000) writes, “More research is needed with particular emphasis on identifying the inherent components of the transformative process” (p. 292) signaling a need for greater risk taking that can transcend status quo illusions and allow learners to self-discover unique innovation. Cranton (2000) writes, “Transformative learning involves reconstructing a frame of reference [making it] more dependable and better justified” (p. 181). Ruth-Sahad and Tisdell (2007) respond, “when connection and intuition blend with separate and scientific forms of knowing” (p. 119) transformative perspectives are intensified. Sustainable transformation is therefore accompanied with a self-directed, critically reflective reasoning that recapitulates privately held hopes and fears to advance the natural emergence of original thinking freed from the deception of psychological fear (Brookfield, 1994; Dirkx, 2008).

Transformative learning plays by a different set of rules than mechanical, paint by number approaches because it draws its genius from tacit, holistic insight and awareness. Davis-Manigaulte, Yorks, and Kasl, (2006), Dirkx (2008), and Taylor (2007) speak to the advantages of achieving an intrinsic alliance between cognitive rationality and affective emotional creativity. When instrumental and communicative domains of knowledge creation become self-directed, learning becomes increasingly individualistic, personal, and meaningful (Mezirow, 1991). As a result, these learners create collaborative classroom situations transforming the learning environment into a holistic, diverse, and self-perpetuating community of learners.

Emancipatory Knowledge and Sustainability

Emancipatory knowledge is a cognitive and affective state of personal freedom that is a direct result of transformative learning (Cranton, 1996; Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 2008). Once emancipatory knowledge is achieved, learners find it very difficult to regress to a less self-aware state of being (Brookfield & Preskill, 2009; Elsey, 2009). Participation, group chemistry, and

self-reflection has somehow allowed learners to fully explore classroom experiences through the eyes of ones' attitudes, perceptions, and fondly held beliefs resulting in the formulation of new perspectives which jettison less satisfying habits of mind. Taylor (2000) states "It is the 'habit of the mind' that is expressed as a point of view" (p. 293) and authentic transformative classrooms encourage self-expression to help learners articulate intrinsic beliefs. In the process, participants may surface new understanding. Cranton (1996), Dirkx, (2008), and Taylor (2008) confirm these observations stating that familiar predispositions generally do not seek conscious justification because learners have grown to accept them over the years. Since intrinsic thought is a private, individualistically motivated phenomenon, exploring habits of the mind through creative games and exercises (for example) can add an interesting intellectual presence to transformative learning environments encouraging self-exploration and the resolution of private psychological conflict. New perspectives can now be explored through heightened classroom activities to help explore attitudes and beliefs, which may have lost their effectiveness.

Transformative educators conduct their classrooms as secure, almost sacred safe havens of knowledge creation. They are sensitive and respectful as learners explore and share their habits of mind. Hopefully, they themselves have courageously performed their own intrinsic homework. These qualities combine to take adult education to the level of art.

Accessing one's inherent gifts is a fundamental feature of fine arts programs where perception and self-awareness figure prominently in curriculum design. Having come to these understandings early in my own career, it is exciting when Davis-Manigaulte, Yorks, and Kasl (2006), Mezirow (1991, 2000) and Taylor (2007) recognize the universal link between transformative learning and the arts. Mezirow (2000) explains, "Imagination is central to understanding the unknown; it is the way we examine alternative interpretations of our experience by 'trying on' another point of view" (p. 20). Critical to transformative learning and the arts is self-reliance, and as Mezirow states, students who practice self-discipline, focus, and concentration as part of classroom activities promote personal growth and development *without being told how to do it* (Spolin, 1999). "Effective participation in discourse and transformative learning requires emotional maturity--awareness, empathy and control--" (Mezirow & Associates, 2000, p. 11). These qualities allow us "to gain greater control over our lives as socially responsible, clear thinking decision makers" (Mezirow & Associates, 2000, p. 8).

Understanding that sustainability is a product of action, Lang (2004) explored how imagining ones' self as a creative artist opens doors "to see oneself as a creator that can cause something to exist or occur" (p. 136). Fleischer (2006) remarked how imagination assembles new levels of strength helping adult learners transform antiquated *meaning schemas* "that we often unconsciously employ as we interpret our world and also interpret ourselves acting in that world" (p. 149). Consequently, transformative educators are making huge strides forward every time they conceive of their learning environments as vehicles supporting personal freedom.

Emancipatory knowledge is an outcome of sustainability; a testimony to the diversity of an authentic learning environment and its ability to confirm new meaning (Cranton & Carusetta (2004). "This has resulted in a collective, a community of practice, in which we expect to be able to find the best way of teaching regardless of who we are as individuals" (p. 6). According to Brock (2010), Kasl and Yorks (2002), and Ruth-Sahad and Tisdell (2007), when classrooms support healthful learning climates each participant becomes a teaching resource, and their social consciousness and holistic philosophy sustains transformative initiatives. Learners' rich history and uniqueness offer fertile opportunities for understanding the mechanisms of the self, and the

unique proclivities that inspire them. Exploring emerging phenomena together moves participants beyond self-imposed limitations making transformative learning a journey of opportunity.

Transformative Learning as Art Form

Viewing transformative learning as an art form heightens students' perceptions of self and peers by engaging a *more than real* excitement that raises the commitment to learn. Dedication to the growth and development of the individual critically reflects upon the commitment of the artist as viewed through the lens of self-expression. Once established, creative freedom drives the transformative learning process, increasing levels of collaboration, discovery, and trust. The resulting chemistry spontaneously encourages healthy climates emanating from the imaginative integrity of its learners. In other words, making contact with learners' very substance transcends the limitations of status quo expectations placing learners in touch with their inherent uniqueness (Mezirow, 2000). It is an extraordinary chemistry generally unavailable through instrumentally driven protocols, which tend to impose structural restraints. In contrast, art form learning empowers students to utilize more of themselves for several reasons. First, it places students at the center of the learning process requiring personal responsibility. Second, exploring intrinsic thoughts and feelings *in the moment* forges connections that address problem solving and decision-making choices facing learners in everyday life. Third, when learners communicate through their own intrinsic voice, they become better listeners to the ideas and thoughts of peers cultivating diverse relationships that help transcend dysfunctional habits of mind. Fourth, because intrinsic honesty is transparent, students commit to the learning process and each other.

Allowing learners to move beyond intrinsic fear thresholds is the hallmark of healthy learning climates (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004). Instead of unquestioningly accepting information, becoming judgmental, or blasé, art form learning captures eccentricities as opportunities of self-expression. Such personal freedom encourages participants to welcome unusualness then explore it for meaning in exercises and games. Like the painter with paint or the sculptor with mallet and stone, a new perception enters learners' consciousness and finds expression in the transformative classroom. Courageousness and action exposes fear of the unknown as the paper tiger it is. Some educators may acquiesce suddenly appearing opportunities because they have awakened some element of the unknown, yet it is the world of the artist who disassembles fear to use its contextual elements in the production of transformative experience (Brookfield & Preskill, 2009; Dirkx, 2008). Once this journey is begun, new awareness informs almost every aspects of learners' lives, perpetuating the commitment to change.

Art form awareness brings psychological strength to the forefront of the transformative experience by engaging conative and affective proclivities on multiple levels that illuminate diverse perspectives (Lang, 2004). Comprehension moves our lives forward; thus, transcending the status quo and opening the door to life long learning. For example, the rational structure of Mezirow's ten principles are similar to the tenets of improvisational theater (Spolin, 1999) because both have the power to open windows of opportunity and make abstract ideas concrete.

It is the willingness of learners to safely tread upon coveted intrinsic ground that provides an unlimited supply of material for transformative exercises. Under these conditions, students

“courageously enter the area of the unknown, to release momentary genius within” (Spolin, 1999, p. 3). For example, one of the most interesting and rewarding strategies combining improvisation with Mezirow’s theory is to leave the class totally in charge of a session. This is an advanced technique, but to schedule an absence leaving the class in charge of itself is an incredibly self-empowering experience, further strengthening bonds within the learning environment.

It is a personal commitment between educator, learning environment, and student that liberates sustainability through purpose, vision, and action. In my experience, transformative initiatives work best when the content is spontaneously created, based on the structure provided by the rules of exercises and game. These rules are negotiated between educator and student to determine purpose and objective. As Spolin (1999) reminds us, “it’s more fun that way” (p. 6). When self-structured material is based on readings, discussion, and self-reflective journal documents, vested interests serve to strengthen and challenge participants into achieving their goals, thereby enriching the transformative experience. Achieving expectations through individually crafted presentations asks learners to fully develop their thinking collaboratively as they work through the obstacles which will inevitably appear as part of the creative process. The extent of this connection cannot be forecast, because the progression of a collaboration is impossible to predict. Nevertheless, when objectives of exercises are strategized by educator and learner, transformative results seem to build upon one another, raising the stakes.

These are challenging tasks, yet the rewards are great for the community of learners. While transformative change is abstract in theory its practice is rationally grounded through group agreement. Ultimately it is action that makes imaginative phenomena real and valuable for learners but it is structure that provides a sense of security to move beyond trepidation and achieve sustainable transformative development.

Conclusion

As Cranton (2000) and Mezirow (2000) advocate, healthy learning environments welcome creative intervention. They center on transforming personal obfuscations that might undermine the spontaneous qualities students bring to the classroom. For those educators most familiar with rigidly structured syllabi, fearlessly experimenting with collaborations and impromptu presentational techniques may seem overwhelming, yet these explorations into the unknown are directions transformative initiatives need to pursue and propel Mezirow’s theory forward (Taylor, 2007, 2008). Researchers interested in transformative studies can consider a wide variety of methodologies focusing on physical, intellectual, and intuitive levels. Action and case study research is well suited to imaginative learning climates and ethnographic studies surrounding culture, gender, and race are well conducive to intrinsic learning phenomena. Studying them through original exercises produces strong data capable of extraordinary findings.

Self-expression through original thinking reveals the essence of who we are as human beings. A basic element of transformative learning occurs when educator and student applaud transformative change through the excitements they create. Individual initiatives leading to change empowers learners with the confidence to believe in their own unique ideas. They in turn are applied in everyday life. By playing intrinsic roles individuals, collaborators, peers, and educators find flexibility and security informing growth and change. These skills are a major source of adult learning and I cannot underemphasize the importance of educators conducting

their own intrinsic homework to be better prepared to recognize transformative moments in their classrooms. To that end, I would like to see teacher education programs trigger transformations allowing educators to refresh their hard earned experience and academic credentials and to remain authentic to our students who courageously hope to achieve a fresh persona through transformative moments. Avoid any rush to judgment and instead find future directions for adult education by drawing transformative ideas from a variety of contexts, including the sciences, literature, and the fine arts where the perceptions I have described have their origin.

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Transcending Fear Thresholds through Innovative Adult Learning: Transformative Educators and their Courageous Classrooms

Max Elsey and Michelle Glowacki-Dudka

Abstract: Because of the unique nature of each individual participant, transformative learning challenges educators to risk innovative approaches in teaching and learning strategies. While many practitioners see the potential of theory-based approaches, taking creative energy to fruition is another challenge altogether. Transformative learning plays by a different set of rules than traditional, instrumentally driven climates because most of the learning is intrinsically motivated. It is this abstract reality that many adult educators find so difficult to comprehend and implement. We seek to illuminate these tacit dynamics and show how diverse perspectives augment growth and development in university classrooms.

Transcending Fear Thresholds

Transformative learning has blossomed into a multi-faceted phenomenon with remarkable potential, yet it often remains theoretical with only limited attention paid to cultivating imaginatively productive classrooms. Taylor's (2007) updated review of empirical studies (1999-2005) exposes the persistent similarities of studies in spite of the tremendous intellectual depth and creative potential of Mezirow's theory. Taylor (2000) demonstrated that educators have difficulty "reconstructing frames of reference" (p.181) which can obfuscate original thinking. It is not the theory itself which has resulted in similarities of empirical studies but rather a paucity of creative risk taking on the part of educators. This situation becomes slightly more palatable considering the personal psychological investment educators are asked to make. Too often we tend to think of transformative change through overly structured syllabi leaving marginal room for imaginative creation, however as Taylor (2000, 2007) explains, transformative classrooms cannot thrive by following paint by numbers approaches.

For these reasons, we view transformative learning as an art form in hopes of moving the work forward to transcend the limitations of familiar perceptions which have locked our field in a persistent commonality. Imagining change and taking action toward change are two very different processes and often adult educators are reluctant to take sufficient risks that could transcend fear thresholds, *for fear that the initiative might fail*. Consequently, it is easier to *play it safe*. Fearfulness in exploring the unknown is a travesty upon adult education.

Taylor (2007) warns of the challenges facing educators attempting to create transformative classrooms. He states, "fostering transformative learning is much more than implementing a series of instructional strategies...it involves the development of an acute awareness of student attitudes, personalities and preferences over time, and as signs of change and instability begin to emerge, educators can respond accordingly" (p. 187). Yorks (2007) writes, "A danger is that inexperienced educators will underestimate the challenge of implementing transformative learning in practice" (p. 184). Dirkx (2000) further expresses potentially dangerous psychological influences which often arrive when adult educators are alone with overwhelming intellectually inspired thoughts.

Without conscious participation, we are much more subject to compulsions, obsessions, and complexes, which may be the darker, more unconscious manifestation of the individuation or transformation process. (Dirkx, 2000, p. 2)

The *dark side* Dirkx describes refers to the private intrinsic sense of self that simultaneously informs educators' best skills and genius as well as recapitulating self-doubt. As Brookfield (2000) states, "when we attach the qualifier *transformative* to some form of practice (as in transformative leadership transformative counseling, transformative teaching) it immediately becomes imbued with weighty significance" (p. 140). Calling one's self a *transformative educator* is indeed fraught with risk yet emancipatory centered educators will always be drawn to its limitless intellectual possibilities. It is here where the overtly rationalistic, instrumentally driven sensibilities of our practices can censor innovation for fear of uncovering and facing (unafraid) portions of self most in need of being transformed (Brookfield, 2000; Davis-Manigaulte, Yorks, and Kasl, 2006; Dirkx, 2008). In other words, educators drawn to transformative learning must fearlessly walk the talk.

Nevertheless, Brock (2010), Kreber (2010), and Lawrence (2008) state that risk-taking brings clarity to tacit intangible elements provided the temperament of the classroom encourages personal freedom. Mezirow (1991, 2000) and his mentor Habermas (1971, 1986) strongly encourage creativity, communication, and imagination as a way to transcend fear thresholds. While rationality describes the skeleton of Mezirow's theory and his famous 10 stages of growth and change, it is the moment-to-moment classroom reality that transcends defensive reasoning and fear. For example, The stanchly realistic perspectives of Newman (2008) found renewed emancipatory pathways from a weekend workshop he attended. In spite of Newman's rationalistic sensibilities, the workshop leader fearlessly reached beyond familiar expectation to plumb the reaches of the unknown self. Had a less astute person led the sessions, it is unlikely Newman would have been so deeply moved.

What is this chemistry of change that transforms fear thresholds? Elsey (2009) and Lawrence (2008) found artistic ways of perceiving to be so different from memorization, labeling, or rote instruction that learners' imaginations hopes, and fears are suddenly liberated by the excitement and energy of the moment. In spite of harbored resistances, which all learners carry into our classrooms, significant change will occur provided the learning environment is healthy Cranton and Carusetta, 2004). Brookfield (1994, 2000) persuasively explains how critical reflection inspired by well functioning climates liberate students to affectively self-assess learning needs, and overcome long held obstacles, while simultaneously entertaining new possibilities. Brookfield believes this process opens pathways to insight and illumination formerly cloaked in arrogance, cynicism, or self-doubt. Whatever the source, these are Transformatively rich contexts affecting the majority of adult learners, each in their own unique way.

Art Form Risk Taking as Harbinger of Change

Art form risk taking is one of the most exciting avenues for self-expression learners can experience in their quest of transcending fear thresholds. Transformative educators know how to create learning environments that set these dynamics into motion. To achieve the best of both worlds, art form environments establish rationalistic structure through the rules of the game,

exercise, or presentation (it's more fun that way) providing structural security that frees risk taking without being told *how to do it* (Spolin, 1999). The more diverse the classroom's population, the more exciting these dynamics become. Mezirow's (1991) number one principle warns educator and learner to prepare for *disorienting dilemmas* and their inevitable clash with dysfunctional attitudes and behavior. Ironically, fondly beliefs and attitudes which have lost their edge over time in fact hold one residual virtue by pointing the way to personal growth and change. The intrinsic self perceives before/after contrasts, and in a truly artistic juxtaposition of past, present, and future self, learners unequivocally sense a reinvigorated sense of self simply because the learning environment *permitted it to happen* (Spolin, 1999).

If the learning environment is conducive, the intrinsic conflicts Brookfield (2000), Dirkx (2008), and Taylor (2007) cite are transformed by the excitement of the moment allowing new learning to achieve meaningful consciousness among participants. Ironically, this perspective is a departure from the tenets of critical reflection and it's well established emphasis on private cognition and rationality. Let us not forget that *disorienting dilemmas* arrive immediately and unannounced in art form environments permitting instantaneous responses that avoid the ruminations of critical reflection (Brookfield, 1994, 2000). Artistic perception allows learner and educator to see divergent perceptions through unbiased eyes, tacit and holistically celebrated through security and trust between educator, student, and peers. Such empathy transforms status quo attitudes and behavior for no reason more that the chance grow and learn among like minded individuals. Consequently, heightened self-awareness, and artful risk taking will inevitably diminish consternations, fear, and urgency through action. Learners and educator commit to this pathway of transformative growth and change thus making it very distasteful to regress to a less robust self or to the recesses of a murky and obsessive critical reflection (Brookfield and Preskill, 2009).

Should some unwitting intrinsic fear emanating from the adult educator be either tacitly or verbally imposed upon learners, the transformative environment will suffer. Cranton and Carusetta (2004) state that whenever fledgling insights of self-awareness make contact with extrinsic reality, learners are immediately met with three choices: Do I say nothing for fear that my idea may be worthless, stupid, embarrassing, or wrong; do I make defensive excuses for my current situation; or do I fearlessly seek out change? Too often adult classroom environments stop short for reasons aggravated by insufficient leadership, tending to frighten students most in need of change. Transformative educators welcome these defense mechanisms because they reveal subtle *conative* features of the self (Mezirow, 1991). They casually ignore protestations, tacit or voiced because they confidently trust in themselves and their learners to intuitively recognize dysfunctional attitudes precisely at moments that engage courageous forms of self-expressions of growth and change. Transformative educators are skilled in overcoming their own intrinsic anxiety. They use self-knowledge to support and comfort learners while staying alert to spontaneous opportunities that can illuminate fledgling insights, *in the moment*. They fearlessly pursue this direction and apply innovative exercises, discussions, and collaborations that feed on the chemistry of the moment, simultaneously building trust while opening doors to an endless cycle of self-perpetuating awareness and vision.

Johnson-Bailey and Alfred (2006) take on a different approach to transformative learning. They describe transformative learning as "the only medium in which we exist, learn, and teach" (p. 51). For the non-privileged learners, especially people of color transformative learning is the means to adapt and survive within power-poor positions. "We were taught and

had to learn difficult lessons that would change our way of existing in this world and would ultimately keep us safe” (p. 50). Recognizing that the diverse positionality of their students, they frame lessons of “inclusion, empowerment, and intellectual growth” (p. 52) as transformative education. In this way the classroom becomes a safe and trusting environment for multiple voices to be heard, and self-reflection to occur. When students feel safe, they are much more likely to challenge dysfunctional belief systems and undergo a transformative experience.

Transformative Learning as Rational Art Form

Davis-Manigaulte, Yorks, and Kasl (2006) create transformative classrooms through the use of pastoral music, symbolic imagery, and learners’ inherent proclivities to form a more complete learning experience. Since transformative learning is at least one part logic and two parts imagination, “it requires a healthy interdependence between affective and rational ways of knowing” (p. 27). Fleischer (2006) focused his theoretical lens on transformative Christian theology challenging students toward original interpretations of traditional symbolic imagery. Fleischer uses Old Testament stories and vernacular to help learners collaborate plausible reinterpretations of modern day relevance. Finding clarity helps students interpret confusing passages of text while underscoring the ageless universalities of life.

In Glowacki-Dudka’s practice, she incorporates art projects, six-word memos, and poetry, as well as yoga and other forms of movement to encourage creativity and multiple sensory learning. In one class, a student team presentation used an outdoor scavenger hunt and compass route to connect with learning theories and theorists. Another group used bubbles as a metaphor for the fleeting nature of ideas and learning that transcends the tangible. By allowing the students to bring their imagination to presentations and assignments, the impact of learning is greatly increased and remembered beyond the one semester. Encouraging multiple ways of learning and interaction with one another also poses opportunities for transformative learning as the student move beyond being self-conscious and hesitant to participate. With the fear of embarrassment removed, the level of reflection and transformation is heightened.

Elsy’s practice uses learners’ proclivities to unlock unique perceptions through self-directed initiatives. His use of theater improvisation helps learners perpetuate understanding through cognitive and affective risk taking, unlocking creative genius in everyday life. For example, one of his students recently participated in a copper hunting expedition at Michigan’s Keweenaw Peninsula. Jake experienced a moment that was uniquely transformative. Alone and on his own he suddenly recognized the distinctive pale green color of oxidized copper amidst a sea of blanched rock.

I suddenly saw everything clearly with a perception and understanding
I never would have gotten from a lecture or textbook. I remembered our
improvisations which are very much a journey of searching, and that enabled
me to explore the unknown without frustration, self-doubt, or fear.

In one transformative moment, Jake brilliantly captured the artistic essence of transformative growth and change. He was not led to his discovery by a paint by numbers approach but created an original perception through his own unique lens, demonstrating the personal freedom of the artist.

Demystifying the creative process by making it accessible to our students creates independent thinkers. Incorporating activities that go beyond the usual and customary are indeed risky, but unless adult education can fearlessly take on this role, it is doubtful that status quo perceptions will grow and change. Learners' eccentricities and proclivities provide special, unique qualities, which mold and focus the creative lens. This process is not fabricated but earned through trust, solidarity, leadership, and participation. If by chance the participants represent a richly diverse population, the learning opportunities and the challenges will be excitingly increased.

Conclusion

We advocate that adult educators continue to make strides by taking imaginative, fearless approaches to teaching and learning. Creating innovative learning environments that challenge and engage students of diverse backgrounds on many levels is a significant strategy for engaging transformative learning. Emancipatory classrooms are not simply composed of instrumental constructions or cookie cutter frameworks, but instead are imaginative and creative art forms to expose and assimilate the mechanisms of individual learning. Once educators courageously step into the unknown and personally explore their own historically rich defenses, they will find self-confidence to develop their own personal reflective pedagogy and use that knowledge to augment their teaching and learning agenda. Emerging intact from what Brookfield and Preskill (2009) and Dirkx (2008) refer to as the other side, adult educators may feel sufficiently confident to consider themselves transformative educators.

We implore those predisposed to defensive reasoning and judgment to move forward, and find their own unique transformative center. In doing so adult education will be enriched, and find itself better equipped to utilize the unlimited palette of personalities who trust in us enough to enroll in our classrooms. Great expectations will inform the progressive development of Mezirow's esteemed theory, and hopefully offer adequate guidance for the creation of transformative activities that engage thinking and feeling in the moment. By encouraging adult learners to transcend the limitations of the familiar adult educators will create transformative classrooms and themselves personally find equanimity for a self-fulfilling and meaningful life.

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From Research to Practice to Researching Practice

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Abstract: The Midwest Research to Practice conference faces a diminishing audience of adult education doctoral programs and students who want to learn the academic skills of presenting research. This paper presents another option for this conference to be able to better connect with Master's degree students and the recent alumni who are adult education practitioners. The co-authors of this paper, one who works as a graduate level faculty member and one who works in community development and educational reform, believe that the conference may serve as a reality check for practitioners who are trying to bring new knowledge and skills about social change into a workplace. While adult educators often sit in power-poor positions as middle managers and consultants in larger organizations, they are able to find creative ways to negotiate power to best serve their learners. We propose multiple ways to enable practitioners to test out their skills before being fully exposed to the barriers and challenges of a resistant workplace. We conclude with a call for action among colleague to explore opportunities such as creating a new certificate of performance in adult education practice.

Introduction

At the close of the Midwest Research to Practice (MWR2P) conference last year, there was an engaging discussion on the challenges our conference is facing, like other small conferences, this conference faces low attendance coupled with reluctance among the members to assume the coordination of the next 2010 meeting. Why are we in this situation? Several answers were suggested including: a) reduced budgets for faculty and graduate student travel; b) in hard times priority is given to other professional meetings over MWR2P; c) the closing down or merging of existing adult education academic departments with other “professional” departments in our membership universities; and d) shifting of professional opportunities in which fewer positions or hires are being made in traditional adult education programs for our doctoral graduates.

Discussion on these and related issues was lively and included an air of urgency. It was suggested that this group of issues pointed to a trend that has been unfolding within the field for several years. Budgets are tight, departments are being closed or merged, and students come to adult education to enhance their own professional development within their respective fields of practice. This discussion led to reflection on the original intent of the MWR2P conference and whether to revisit who we are and where are we going as a small professional conference. The historians in the group pointed out that the original intent was to provide an opportunity for graduate students (mostly doctoral students) to gain experience in publishing their research findings in a professional setting—research to practice. Is this still a viable strategy given the changing nature of the academic, research, and practice environment in which adult education operates? Alternative ideas were explored including changing the name of the conference (and subsequent call for papers) and, perhaps, giving greater billing to what adult education practitioners are encountering in their non-academic areas of practice such as nursing, business, engineering, ABE, HRD, etc. A consensus emerged that the original intent should remain the primary focus of the MWR2P conference and its emphasis on providing opportunity for the next

generation of research scholars in adult education to conduct their research studies with opportunity to present their findings in a relatively safe yet professional, peer review environment.

Practitioners Concerns

The closing discussion at the 2009 MWR2P conference raised an interesting question. Can the changing environment in which our small conference operates provide opportunity for renewed commitments and sustainable growth over the next five to ten years? Clearly, graduate programs in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education serve students who come from many sectors and many backgrounds, including health, social services, business and industry, and education. Since there are few if any undergraduate programs in adult education, our students come from a wide variety of undergraduate programs, usually discovering adult education after they have practiced adult education in the field for a number of years.

Accordingly, graduate programs in adult education seek to provide the theoretical and philosophical framework to undergird our students' practice as well as practical tips and skills to add to their toolkit (program planning, evaluation, grant writing, critical reflection, and much more) (See the *CPAE Standards for Adult and Continuing Education*). Many of the students enter the programs with experience from practice; they come to a Masters level graduate program for theory; and they return to their field of practice. Many leave with the expectation of being able to apply the newly learned theory in ways that will bring desirable change in their own practice, the environment in which they work, and to benefit the participants in their programs. Regretfully, many are greeted with skepticism and resistance among their colleagues and find themselves ill prepared to deal effectively with the change process that awaits them. This expectation in conjunction with the challenges that our graduates encounter while attempting to produce change actually provide a wellspring of opportunity for on-going collaborative research among the academic faculty, current Masters and Ph.D. students, and the alumni base of most adult education programs and departments. In fact, finding ways to connect with this alumni base may be a strategy for not only sustaining and growing the MWR2P conference but also creating opportunities for scholarship and participatory research into practice to improve practice among those engaged in practice.

This paper and presentation will explore how the academic faculty can better connect with the field of practice to help teach our students how to navigate through the changing terrain of their workplace. Often the university seems very disconnected from the world of practice where our students live and work. How can faculty be in better tune with the big issues of social change that occur outside of academia, so that we can be role models for the masters and doctoral students that we teach? Faculty purport to train their students to enter, negotiate, and navigate these community spaces without being immersed in them directly.

The co-authors to this paper, Dan and Michelle, both work with adult educators to help them initiate change in their own thinking and practice. Dan is able to work with practitioners to help them recognize and overcome barriers as they work to reform and improve schools and life in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Michelle works in the graduate classroom at Ball State University in Muncie, Indiana to gain trust in order to teach models of social change and reflective practice. We seek to answer this question: **How can we create a better model of common ground for social action, community development and scholarly research both theoretical and applied?** We believe that the conference could be a safe space for graduates of adult education programs

to return and reflect on their experience trying to implement this new learning back in the real workplaces. Here are brief descriptions of the ways that both co-authors engage their learners and practitioners.

Connecting with Real World Examples - Michelle Glowacki-Dudka

As an adult education faculty member, I am able to work with students in Masters and Doctoral programs who usually are coming from another field of study and employment. The students that we serve are usually over 25 years old and they take courses at the local campus, at extension campuses, or through the Internet. Knowing that classroom experiences need to be reinforced by connection to lived experience, I encourage students in many of my courses to go out and talk with adult learners, practitioners, planners, teachers, and others to observe their practice and understand their contexts. Since adult educators often serve at the margins (Wise & Glowacki-Dudka, 2004) of their fields in middle management or consulting positions, I like to have the students learn about how these practitioners attend to or negotiate issues of power. Cervero and Wilson (1994) began to write about issues of power in program planning. They have continued their work and it helps to serve my students in considering these barriers and strategies for their own experience. I am consistently surprised at the creative ways the students have negotiated for more power and control of their workplaces. Those learners who have not been in tuned with these issues, begin to understand the world in a different light.

In my teaching, I also use Brookfield's (1995) reflective practice tools of the Critical Incident Questionnaire to gauge the progress of the classroom and the learning journal summaries to gauge the learning outside of the classroom. These tools help the learners examine their inner learning and what is most significant to them at that time. While I do not require students to have transformative experiences in the classroom, I do want to give them the tools to examine their assumptions, recognize their position of power, and reflect on their practice.

Once the students are able to understand and use these skills, it would be wonderful to have a place to enact them after they have completed a graduate program and are out in the real world. The conference could serve that purpose.

The Center for Urban Community Development – Dan Folkman

The Center for Urban Community Development (Center) is a programming unit within the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, School of Continuing Education. The Center's mission grew out of the social turmoil of the 1960s when it was created by the University of Wisconsin-Extension to create an urban extension program within the central city of Milwaukee. Today, the Center works with a wide range of nonprofit, public, and private organizations in addressing community development issues facing local residents, neighborhoods, and urban areas generally. Its historic origin, however, remains at the core of Centers current vision and mission.

Vision: Educational programs aimed at bridging the social, intellectual and political gap between mainstream institutions and people from diverse, low-income, and marginalized communities through community education and participatory action research strategies.

Mission: As faculty and academic staff engaged in community development practice we design, promote, and facilitate action-learning programs in which people from mainstream institutions and members from community-based organizations and local residents learn to dialogue, plan, and act collectively to address common needs, issues and concerns.

The participants in the Center's program activities are focused on addressing specific community needs or issues and are not necessarily seeking to further their own education through formal university studies. Accordingly, interest in adult education theory is tempered with a focus on practice and how to address immediate and often intractable issues facing their community and the children, families, and adult learners they serve.

This focus on praxis provides the Center with an opportunity to engage practitioners in addressing issues of social and organizational change within the context of their own practice and to explore why overcoming the status quo and producing change is so difficult when the will and resources are available.

An example of the Center's programming activity is a job-training program being developed and implemented through a collaborative partnership that includes nonprofit community agencies and local businesses. The need is the exceptionally high and persistent unemployment rate among central city residents. Current research has documented an extensive network of job-training programs within the greater Milwaukee area coupled with widespread discontent among local employers with the results of these training programs. In short, employers complain of a high turnover rate that stems from a lack of basic employability skills among the trainees they hire. The research recommendations include designing job-training programs with greater involvement of the employers in all phases of the program design, implementation and evaluation process. The challenge is to create a program planning and implementation environment that includes both the job-training agency and the future employers of its trainee graduates. A critical added dimension would be to include the trainees in the design of the program as well as recipients of training services and employment.

Over the past several months, the Center has helped to create this kind of planning environment. A nonprofit neighborhood center has been working with a local economic development corporation and several area employers in designing a job-training program. The participating employers are committed to not only hiring from among the program graduates but also participating in the development and teaching of the training curriculum. In a separate but parallel program, an employment club has been operating that includes parents from a charter middle school that is located in the above mentioned neighborhood center. The participants in this employment club have contributed substantially to the design of the emerging program. Eventually, the employment club concept will be integrated into the job-training program that is being created.

At the time of this writing (July 2010), this collaborative group has secured funding of more than \$600,000 from a local foundation and a Wisconsin state agency. Training is scheduled to start in August 2010. The results of this training program and the learning about what it takes to create and sustain this kind of public-private partnership could be the basis for a conference paper and presentation in next year's MWR2P conference. Also, the implementation of this program could serve as a model and demonstration program to foster similar initiatives. Further, this program could provide a research and/or field experience opportunity for graduate students in an adult education masters or Ph.D. program.

Conclusion and Suggestions

In our opening comments, we pointed to the changing environment within which many graduate programs in Adult and Continuing Education must operate. One way to address these changes is to see them as opportunities to grow and develop new programmatic initiatives within our respective areas of practice including graduate education, research, and field applications. The following are several ideas that we wish to explore with colleagues during our conference presentation with the intent of enlisting several colleagues to co-design a field practicum that would: a) Include a certificate of performance in adult education field applications; b) online adult education courses that would be of interest to both students graduating from our programs or thinking about returning to school graduate studies; and c) create a renewed stream of papers and presentations at our annual MWR2P Conference.

A Certificate of Performance in Adult Education Field Applications.

Many of our students come with extensive experience in their respective fields. This prior experience serves as background against which to reflect on the adult education literature and to explore how it may be applied back in one's work setting. Many graduate programs include field work and practicums through which to gain some field experience. Imagine if this was taken to a new level where it was possible to earn a certificate of performance as an adult education practitioner. This opportunity may not only be of interest to graduates of our programs but also to practitioners who are beginning to think about returning to school. Such a practicum could be a vehicle for testing the waters as part of their decision making process. This also could enable students to gain credit through experience.

An Online, Multi-school/Campus Program.

This Certificate of Performance program could be a collaborative venture among several Adult Education programs in different schools throughout the Midwest. Online classes can accommodate this distance learning framework while local action projects would be designed and implemented by the class participants. The faculty at the local campus would serve as advisors, coaches, and mentors for the students throughout the project implementation process. Students thinking about entering a graduate program could actually complete an action research class, earn credits, and decide if returning to school was the right thing at this time. Recent graduates could use the certificate as additional credentialing in their respective field. They would also gain direct experience and coaching services as they struggle with the real world realities of introducing change and innovation into their practice environment. The faculty participating in this program would have direct access to real world practice settings and the opportunity for research into the theory and practice of adult education.

The Annual MWR2P Conference.

The annual Midwest Research to Practice Conference can be a vehicle for sharing what is being learned about producing sustainable change through the efforts of field practitioners enrolled in this certificate program. Envision a stream of papers and presentations from field practitioners that document efforts at implementing change, identify challenges that emerge from within the practice settings, design strategies to address barriers in practice, develop theories-of-

action that have produced results, and suggest mechanisms to adapt this learning to other practice settings.

Convene an Action Inquiry Group.

The purpose of this paper and conference presentation is to explore these ideas among colleagues and to gauge whether there is sufficient interest to explore these ideas further. If there is interest, a planning group can be created that would work together on developing these and/or related ideas. One immediate and practical outcome would be to develop, identify, and encourage a stream of conference papers and presentation for next year's MWR2P conference. The planning group could also report progress in developing additional ideas such as a certificate of performance as mentioned above.

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The Power of Andragogy / Adult Learning for Living a Viable Future

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Abstract: The Sixth UNESCO International World Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) was hosted by the Government of Brazil in Belem, Para, from 1 to 4 December 2009. This working conference, conducted interactively in an andragogical manner, provided an important platform for policy dialogue and advocacy on adult learning and non-formal education at the global level. Large and small group sessions on various topics contributed to the production of the final document – Belem Framework for Action: Harnessing the Power and Potential of Adult Learning and Education for a Viable Future. The conference brought together 1100 people from 144 UNESCO Member States, United Nations agencies, multi- and bi-lateral cooperation agencies, organizations from civil society, the private sector, and learners from all world regions. I was a member of the Official USA/UNESCO Delegation to CONFINTEA VI. UNESCO holds one of these conferences somewhere around the globe once every 12 years. The real question is how and to what extent will the hope and expectation of Implementing this Belem Framework for Action, as a guide for adult education and learning around the globe, be Enacted and Monitored in the areas of Lifelong Learning, Adult Literacy, Policy, Governance, Financing, Participation – Inclusion and Equity, and Quality?

Description of the Practitioner Concerns

The Sixth UNESCO International World Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI – Living and Learning for a Viable Future: The Power of Adult Learning) was hosted by the Government of Brazil in Belem, Para, from 1 to 4 December 2009. This working conference, conducted interactively in an andragogical manner, provided an important opportunity to make visible the power of andragogy [the art and science of helping adults learn], to produce The Belem Framework for Action Document, and became a platform for policy dialogue and advocacy on adult learning and non-formal education at the global level. The conference brought together 1100 people from 144 UNESCO Member States, United Nations agencies, multi- and bi-lateral cooperation agencies, organizations from civil society, the private sector, and learners from all world regions. I was a member of the Official USA/UNESCO Delegation to CONFINTEA VI. Some of the major objectives of CONFINTEA VI included : 1. to push forward the recognition of adult learning and education as an important element of and foundational factor conducive to lifelong learning; 2. to highlight the crucial role of adult learning and education for the realization of current international education and development agendas (EFA-Education for All; Millennium Development Goals; UNLD-United Nations Literacy Decade; LIFE-Literacy Initiative for Empowerment; and, DESD-Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, 2005/2014); and, 3. to renew momentum and commitment in developing the tools for implementation in order to **move from rhetoric to action**. Whether and/or how these objectives will be accomplished in the ensuing 12 years around the globe is of major concern. What this really means is finding the appropriate approach for moving this forward from developing the Belem Framework for Action document (the printed rhetoric that was finalized and accomplished in Belem) to taking action and doing what the document actually

says. The adopted definition of adult education from the Belem Framework for Action (2009) document was the same as had been espoused in previous CONFINTEA Conferences:

adult education is the entire body of ongoing learning processes, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, and improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction to meet their own needs and those of their society. (p. 5)

The Importance of the Concern to both Research and Practice of Adult, Continuing, Extension, and Community Education

One of my long standing research findings is that bringing together the voluntary aspect of adult learning, the adult education messages of international bodies, and the desires for improving adult education within local settings is critical but not a natural fit. The power of andragogy / adult learning research is suggested by Dusan Savicevic (2006, 2008) saying that in 40 years he observed adult education research in the USA, not one major study had been conducted that did not mention andragogy as a concept. The power of andragogy / adult learning in practice is suggested by Cyril Houle (1996) who said that Knowles' work in andragogy remains the most learner-centered of all patterns of adult educational programming. He states that andragogy influences every other system, with the leaders knowing that they should involve learners in as many aspects of their education as possible and in the creation of a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn.

The Belem Framework for Action was adopted to help guide the nations in the next 12 years into our adult education future towards lifelong learning, namely the six pillars of learning: to know, to do, to be, to live together, to change, and to develop sustainability. Lifelong learning seeks to address global issues and challenges, such as equipping us with necessary knowledge, competencies, capabilities, skills, values, to exercise our rights, to take control of our destinies, to build and achieve equity, tolerance, inclusion, sustainability, alleviating poverty, and achieving a knowledge-based society.

There are sections and recommendations in the Belem Framework for Action on: Lifelong Learning, Adult Literacy, Policy, Governance, Financing, Participation – Inclusion and Equity, Quality, and Monitoring the Implementation of the Belem Framework for Action. The Annex of the Document addresses global and educational issues and challenges. One major resource they emphasized for moving this forward is Malcolm S. Knowles' "Andragogy in Action: Applying Modern Principles of Adult Learning." This provides 36 case examples of andragogy being applied in eight different categories of organizations.

However, there is still one lingering concern. Although the Belem Framework for Action may be viewed and used as a helpful guide by educational institutions and associations to voluntarily develop what they seek to accomplish in adult education for the next 12 years, it could easily be misunderstood as a mandate for certain actions and standards, if an andragogical approach is not employed in its implementation. This was obvious during the Belem CONFINTEA VI. There were those who were pushing for including language in the Belem Framework that would be mandating that certain actions be taken by all the nations. Most prominent in this regard was the desire and insistence on the part of some in the drafting committee, that 6% of GNP of each nation's budget be devoted to education. For this body of

1100 people at a UNESCO Conference to try forcing this kind of action upon governments of 144 nations is at best overwhelmingly ambitious, and at worst tantamount to making certain that the Belem Framework would not have been finalized and supported by consensus of those present. Much time was spent at the Conference, especially by the drafting committee, dealing with this thorny issue. The resolution of this issue came down to not a mandate but a wiser wording as follows: "...we commit ourselves to accelerating progress towards achieving the CONFINTEA V recommendation to seek investment of at least 6% of GNP in education, and working towards increased investment in adult learning and education" (Belem Framework for Action, 2009, p. 4). This was not the only issue in the Belem Framework that caused disagreement, and the drafting committee (with the close observance and assistance of various national groups who were concerned with and heavily invested in the outcome) spent almost countless hours seeking to bring consensus.

Recommendations

While they acknowledged the achievements and progress since CONFINTEA V, they were cognizant of the challenges with which adult educators are still confronted. Recognizing that the fulfillment of the right to education for adults and young people is conditioned by various considerations, following are parts of the recommendations made. (Belem Framework for Action, 2009).

Adult Literacy

Especially brought to the fore was literacy, which is the foundation of all of all other learning. Literacy is an indispensable foundation that enables young people and adults to engage in learning opportunities at all stages of the learning continuum. The right to literacy is an inherent part of the right to education. It is a prerequisite for the development of personal, social, economic and political empowerment. Literacy is an essential means of building people's capabilities to cope with the evolving challenges and complexities of life, culture, economy and society. The ultimate goal is to prevent and break the cycle of low literacy and create a fully literate world.

Policy

Policies and legislative measures for adult education need to be comprehensive, inclusive and integrated within a lifelong and life-wide learning perspective, based on sector-wide and inter-sectoral approaches, covering and linking all components of learning and education.

Governance

Good governance facilitates the implementation of adult learning and education policy in ways which are effective, transparent, accountable and equitable. Representation by and participation of all stakeholders are indispensable in order to guarantee responsiveness to the needs of all learners, in particular the most disadvantaged.

Financing

Adult learning and education represent a valuable investment which brings social benefits by creating more democratic, peaceful, inclusive, productive, healthy and sustainable societies. Significant financial investment is essential to ensure the quality provision of adult learning and education.

Participation, Inclusion, Equity

Inclusive education is fundamental to the achievement of human, social and economic development. Equipping all individuals to develop their potential contributes significantly to encouraging them to live together in harmony and with dignity. There can be no exclusion arising from age, gender, ethnicity, migrant status, language, religion, disability, rurality, sexual identity or orientation, poverty, displacement or imprisonment. Combating the cumulative effects of multiple disadvantages is of particular importance. Measures should be taken to enhance motivation and access for all.

Quality

Quality in learning and education is a holistic, multidimensional concept and practice that demands constant attention and continuous development. Fostering a culture of quality in adult learning requires relevant content and modes of delivery, learner-centered needs assessment, the acquisition of multiple competences and knowledge, the professionalization of educators, the enrichment of learning environments and the empowerment of individuals and communities.

Monitoring the Implementation of the Belem Framework for Action.

Drawing strength and impetus from our collective will to reinvigorate adult learning and education in our countries and internationally, we commit ourselves to the following accountability and monitoring measures. We acknowledge the need for valid and reliable quantitative and qualitative data to inform our policy-making in adult learning and education. Working with our partners to design and implement regular recording and tracking mechanisms at national and international levels is paramount in realizing the Belém

Framework for Action. The agreement reached at the conference gave anticipation that to the ends mentioned in the documents, commitment of the nations would be forthcoming to the extent it could be garnered from each nation. This would be coupled with asking support from UNESCO and its structures to follow-up and monitor this at the international level.

Statement of Evidence to the Belem Framework for Action included in the Annex

The Annex addressed global and educational issues and challenges indicating that although 43.5 % of the world lives in poverty at less than \$2 a day, we are facing structural shifts in production and labor markets, while many still lack basic literacy skills, a number of concerted international efforts herald progress on these, with adult and lifelong learning being key components in meeting these needs, and raising the education level of people by a single year brings with it a corresponding 3.7 % in long-term economic growth and a 6% increase in per-capita income.

Also indicated was that progress in adult learning and education has been made since CONFINTEA V in 1997, held in Hamburg, Germany. The major documents produced at that conference are entitled: *The Hamburg Declaration* and *Agenda for the Future*. Some nations have introduced comprehensive adult learning and education policies and legislation, with some enshrining adult learning and education in their constitutions. Literacy plans, programs and campaigns have been reactivated and accelerated in some member states. Gender-sensitive adult learning and education programs have increased. Effective systems of information, documentation, monitoring and evaluation for adult learning and education have been introduced. Adult learning flourishes when connected with other sectors of society.

It was apparent that challenges remain for adult learning and education. A crucial expectation that adult learning and education would be rebuilt after CONFINTEA V was not met

by the time of CONFINTEA VI. The role of adult learning and education in lifelong learning continues to be underplayed. Not enough far-sighted and adequate funding for adult education and learning has been forthcoming. Primary focus of adult learning and education needs to shift from vocational and professional education and training toward a more comprehensive and varied approach. In many international settings, adult learning and education are referred to sparingly and almost exclusively as adult literacy. The lack of professional education opportunities for educators of adults has been detrimental to adult learning and education, and has impoverished the fabric of the learning environment, equipment, materials and curricula.

Various Approaches that have Attempted to Deal with the Concerns

I participated in CONFINTEA V in Hamburg, Germany where the Hamburg Declaration and Agenda for the Future documents were produced. I used them in my Master and Doctoral Adult Education Academic Program, but always with an andragogical approach. I used those documents in my International and Comparative Adult Education Graduate Courses at the University of Missouri-St. Louis; and, I used them at numerous adult education conferences for looking toward helping to build the future of adult education. In addition, I used them in corporate adult education, internationally in a number of different countries (Germany, Italy, Mali in Western Africa, Austria, Brazil, Peoples' Republic of China, Thailand, South Africa, Slovenia, Australia) and they worked well with the andragogical approach. The 2009 Belem Framework is the same type of document as the 1997 Hamburg Documents. Consequently, it would appear that using the same andragogical approach this time may meet with the same level of success.

Since the CONFINTEA VI Conference in Belem, I have already presented or will present, in an andragogical manner, the perspective of the "Belem Framework for Action – Harnessing the Power and Potential of Adult Learning and Education for a Viable Future" document to: An international educational group (Missouri, USA / Para, Brazil Partners of the Americas); a regional adult education conference (Missouri Valley Adult Education Association); a state adult education conference (Missouri Association for Adult, Continuing, and Community Education); my Graduate Andragogy Courses at Lindenwood University; an upcoming issue of *Adult Learning* (published by the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education); the 2010 Annual International Literacy Day Workshop with the faculty and doctoral students at the Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand; the 2010 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, Extension, and Community Education, and it will be published in the conference proceedings; and, I will present these materials at a number of other adult education conferences including the 2010 American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), and the Commission on International Adult Education (CIAE) of AAACE.

Numerous UNESCO CONFINTEA VI Documents including the "Belem Framework for Action" are available for reading, downloading and printing from the following website: <http://www.unesco.org/en/confinteavi> This website will provide: Access to each day's (December 1-4, 2009) activities; the proceedings of the five regional preparatory conferences conducted in 2008; history of the six CONFINTEA conferences; documents from previous CONFINTEA conferences; national reports from the five regions; a Global Report on Adult

Learning and Education (GRALE) from 154 UNESCO member nations; and, new archives from various preliminary meetings and follow-up meetings related to CONFINTEA VI.

Discussion of the Conference Theme – Linking Theory and Practice

Linking theory and practice reflects the idea of congruence – making our walk and talk consistent with each other. This means that if an andragogical approach is used to implement practice and generate theory, it seems that we will not get caught in the dilemma of communicating, “do what I say, not what I do.” Some excellent background thinking and educational theory went into the creation of these CONFINTEA V and VI Documents. For a year prior to each CONFINTEA Conference, UIL (The UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning) convenes five regional preparatory conferences around the world. This is for the purpose of generating and recording the ideas in document report form from that region about what they consider to be the most important issues and needs in adult education that need to be addressed. These five regional documents and other adult education conference documents become part of what is included in the final CONFINTEA document. An approach for bringing this together from around the globe, thus exemplifying and enacting modern adult education principles (andragogy), may prove to be most beneficial for addressing these practitioner concerns and serving well the constituencies in each of our adult education and learning spheres of influence.

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An International Capsule of the History and Philosophy of Andragogy

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Abstract: Andragogy was first authored by Alexander Kapp (1833) a German high school teacher. He asserted andragogy as education at the man's age including self-reflection, and educating the character as primary values in human life. The most cogently knowledgeable and articulate of all scholars that have researched and practiced in andragogy is Savicevic (2006a). After writing extensively internationally on andragogy for 50 years, he observed that since his first visit to the USA in 1966, up through 2006, tracing andragogy on USA universities is that there had not been a single serious study on adult education and learning that did not refer to andragogy as a conception. Houle (1996) asserted that Knowles' work in andragogy was the most learner-centered of all patterns of adult educational programming and influences every other system because of its creating a climate in which adults can most fruitfully learn. This research is based on 290 English language documents, representing 14 time periods in which there has been a foundation laid for research in the adult education field that has discussed the pro and con of andragogy. If the past is prologue, there will be a continuous stream of study and research on andragogy into the future.

Introduction

The research question of this study is: *What are the major foundational English language works published on the history and philosophy of andragogical research, theory and practice within the field of adult education and human resource development?* This study was based on 290 documents which included the concept of andragogy. The report of each document was placed in the order of the chronological years they were published. Fourteen sections/eras of this research follow.

Early Appearances of Andragogy, 1833-1927

The term 'andragogy', as far as we know, was first authored by Alexander Kapp (1833), a German high school teacher. In the book entitled '*Platon's Erziehungslehre*' (*Plato's Educational Ideas*) he describes the lifelong necessity to learn. He turns his attention to adulthood – Andragogy or Education in the man's age [a replica of this may be viewed at the following website] <http://www.andragogy.net>. The term andragogy lay fallow for many decades. Nonetheless, in the 1920s Germany became a place for building theory and another German resurrected the term (Reischmann, 2004).

Rosenstock-Huessy (1925) posed andragogy as the only method for the German people and Germany, dispirited and degenerated in 1918 after World War I, to regenerate themselves and their country. He suggested that all adult education (andragogy), if it is to achieve anything original that shapes man, which arises from the depths of time, would have to proceed from the suffering which the lost war brought them.

About the same time, Lindeman (1926) from the USA traveled to Germany and became acquainted with the Workers Education Movement. He was the first to bring the concept to America that andragogy is the method for teaching adults. The term was published in English

only a few times in the first 100 years it existed. However, the use of andragogy increased in the almost eighty years that followed, which brings us up to the writing of this article.

Andragogy's Foundation Being Established, 1964-1970

Knowles (Knowles, 1970; Sopher, 2003) acquired the term in 1966 from Dusan Savicevic. However, after becoming acquainted with the term, Knowles infused it with much of his own meaning garnered from his already extensive experience in adult education.

Applying Andragogy To Human Resource Development, 1971-1973

Ingalls (1972) provided the first handbook guide to using andragogy in helping adult educators [they called them 'trainers' in those days] become more systematic and consistent in their engaging learners in the learning process. This was developed and tested in a branch of the US Government. Knowles (1973) focused a full application of his conception of andragogy toward the Human Resource Development (HRD) Movement. He worked vigorously in the corporate sector and thus saw the importance of testing and relating andragogy within it.

Self-Directed Learning Skills To Implement Andragogy 1975-1981

Knowles (1975) published his guidebook for learners and teachers on the topic of Self-Directed Learning relating it to Andragogy. For him, andragogy was the underlying philosophy, and self-directed learning was a means to implement andragogy.

Ingalls (1976) added to the idea of using andragogy in corporate settings. Mezirow (1981), developed a charter for andragogy. Suanmali (1981) found support and agreement among 174 adult education professors and practitioners for Mezirow's charter.

Strengthening Andragogy Among Growing Resistance 1981-1984

Allman (1983), who was associated with the Nottingham [UK] Andragogy Group, considered the strong connection between brain plasticity (fluid intelligence) and adult development. She asserted that Mezirow's (1981) and Knowles' (1970, 1980) understanding of andragogy could be linked and merged with her idea. Nonetheless, some lack of enthusiasm about Knowles' andragogy concept was reflected by Hartree (1984). She expressed the feeling that Knowles' andragogy did not live up to what she interpreted as his desire for its becoming a comprehensive learning theory for adult education. Jarvis (1984) wrote that the theory of andragogy had moved into the status of an established doctrine in adult education. However, he thought it did not have the grounding in sufficient empirical research to justify its dominant position. Not to be deterred at this point, Knowles (1984) presented the first book in which he cites thirty-six extensive case examples of applying andragogy in practice. In it he revealed what worked and what did not.

European Base Stronger than American Base of Andragogy 1985-1988

Young (1985) perceived the European concept of andragogy as being more comprehensive than the American conception. Ross (1988) connected the concept of andragogy and its value with some of the research on teacher effectiveness. He believed that teachers' behavior relates to student achievement. Davenport (1987) challenged the theoretical and practical efficacy of Knowles' theory of andragogy. He suggested that adult education would simply be better off to drop the word from its lexicon.

Foundation of Trust Undergirds Andragogy Despite Debate 1989-1991

Henschke (1989) developed an andragogical assessment instrument entitled, Instructional Perspectives Inventory (IPI), with the central and strongest focus on the teacher trust of learners. Nadler (1989) stated that Human Resource Development (HRD) is based in learning, and every HRD practitioner should have an understanding of the theories of Adult Learning. This was a crucial observation, because many in HRD have overlooked that consideration. Long (1991) speculated that although Knowles' form of andragogy is weak in empirical confirmation, it has survived the criticism leveled against it. Griffith (1991) credited Knowles as being the best-known American adult educator, with his orientation toward andragogical practice.

Scientific Foundation Of Andragogy Being Established 1991-1995

Savicevic (1991) provided a critical consideration of andragogical concepts in five western European Countries, and five eastern European Countries. He credited J. A. Comenius in the seventeenth century with being regarded the founder of andragogy. At this time, there was again strong criticism of American andragogy, and that coming from Candy (1991) in Australia. Moreover, he articulated changing the concept of self-directed learning to autonomous learning.

Kaminsky (1993) suggested that whether we have knowledge for naming something academically or not, we may still be practicing pedagogy, andragogy, or any other 'gogy' or 'ism'. This is the reason she selected that idea from hooks (1994). Kaminsky found Mr. Ferro's remarks snobbish and exclusionary sounding as it appears that he does not want anyone, other than 'linguists', to try and name the world, or even to make up new ways of naming things. She argues that he wants that job to belong to the expert name-makers, who, it seems, can never be adult educators, let alone people who have never seen the inside of a college or high school. Poggeler (1994) listed trends which he hopes will be helpful for future development of European andragogical research. These include at least: International knowledge, "development-andragogy" of the Third World, and understanding the "lifeworlds" of the participants. Zmeyov (1994) clearly supported andragogy. He stated that the most important trend in adult education in Russia is the application and further development of Knowles' (1970, 1980) theory of adult learning, or andragogy.

Momentum Against Andragogy vs. Asserting Its Value 1995-1998

Welton (1995) asserts that "the 'andragogical consensus'... formulated by the custodians of orthodoxy in the American Commission of Professors in the 1950s and solidified by Malcolm Knowles and others in the 1960s and 1970s, has unraveled at the seams" (p. 5). He articulated that the fundamental accusations expressed are because this perspective inadequately serves the interests of the disenfranchised in North American society. Van Gent (1996) asserted that andragogy has been used to designate the education of adults. He considered that its future lies only as a generic term for adult education

Antecedents To Andragogy Being Extended and Broadened 1998-2000

Henschke (1998a) asserted that long before the term andragogy appeared in published form in 1833, ancient Greek and Hebrew educators used words that were antecedents to andragogy. His definition of andragogy moved in the direction of calling it a scientific discipline of study.

Draper (1998) presented an overview of the historical forces influencing the origin and use of the term andragogy. He concluded, "Tracing the metamorphoses of andragogy/adult education is important to the field's search for identity." (p. 24). The most comprehensive of all the publications on andragogy is a book that includes thirty of Savicevic's (1999) publications within a twenty-six year period. His work has addressed how andragogy has and will shape all aspects of adult education.

Boucoulas (1999) insisted that refined methodological or epistemological tools and indicators are critical for sound research in comparative andragogy. However, the role and influence of the 'self' of the researcher in the research process, is an equally critical element to be considered.

Savicevic (1999b) indicated that Knowles was inconsistent in determining andragogy and thus had caused much confusion and misunderstanding. The most glaring mistake of Knowles was that he declared andragogy as a 'model' for teaching even in pre-school, thus moving it away from just applying to adults. He also declared andragogy as a scientific discipline.

Empirical Research of Andragogy Being Encouraged 2000-2003

Billington (2000) found that with sixty men and women, there were a number of key factors relating to implementing andragogy. If they were present, it helped them grow, or if they were absent, it made them regress and not grow.

To the arguments questioning the value of Knowles' approach to andragogy, Maehl (2000) addresses the philosophical orientations of a number of adult educators. He suggests that Knowles led in the direction of making andragogy quite humanistic that gained wide adoption in the field.

Grace (2001) considered that Knowles' andragogy as a theory of how adults learn was losing much of its punch by 1990 as a result of the discussion and controversy surrounding it. He felt that Knowles' perspective is too much caught up with extraneous matters.

Rachal (2002) clearly identified seven criteria suitable for implementation in future empirical studies of andragogy. Those criteria are: Voluntary participation, adult status, collaboratively-determined objectives, performance-based assessment of achievement, measuring satisfaction, appropriate adult learning environment, and technical issues.

Distance Education Bridges European and American Andragogy 2003-2004

By this time a connection was emerging between andragogy and distance education. Simonson, et al. (2003) identified a number of characteristics needed in distance education systems designed for adults that are derived from Knowles' concept of andragogy. Illeeris, (2004) is not an andragogue, but a pedagogue. He indicated that he is quite in line with Knowles' agitation for andragogy as a discipline, which is different from the pedagogy of children's schooling and upbringing.

Hesitation by Some While Many Still Stand By Andragogy 2005-2006

Sandlin (2005) admitted that andragogy was a cornerstone of adult education for many decades. Notwithstanding, she has serious reservations about its prominence, and critiques it within the areocentric, feminist, and critical adult education perspectives. Stanton (2005) related the andragogical concept to the concept of readiness for self-directed learning. There was not

only congruence between the two, but also the Henschke (1989) Instructional Perspectives Inventory [IPI] was validated as an almost perfect ‘bell-shaped’ measurement of an andragogical facilitator.

Another use of the principles of andragogy is in the public school setting. The purpose of Stricker’s (2006) research was to determine the attitudes of principals toward teachers as learners. He found a gap between how the principals viewed themselves and how the teachers viewed them.

Knowles’ Prominent Long Range Contribution to Andragogy 2006-2009

As if seeking to culminate and bring together all these valiant efforts, Savicevic (2006b, 2008) does a thorough historical tracing of the converging and diverging of ideas on andragogy in various countries. He lays a scientific research foundation for andragogy being the studying of the learning and education of adults. He also perceived Knowles’ position in sustaining andragogy over the long range of its history into the future.

Although Newman (2007) declared he was not a fan of andragogy, he said that in his estimation Knowles had contributed something to adult education and andragogy that was quite unique. As he thought it through, he came to the conclusion that Knowles provided a means to assess the needs of adult learners, and he could not detect that any other adult educators provided such. They only had talked about assessing adult learner needs.

Isenberg, (2007), provides a break-through framework for bringing together the interaction of andragogy and Internet learning. She presents a dynamic design to meet the goal of the International Commission on Adult Education for the Twenty-first Century, focusing on five pillars of lifelong learning: To know, to do, to live together, to be, and to change.

Conclusion: Implications of Findings to Practice, Theory and Research

Each of the historical and philosophical findings could well be tested one’s practice, theory, and research to determine if they are in line with the readers’ personal and professional perspective. Houle (1996) said that Knowles’ work in andragogy remains the most learner-centered of all patterns of adult educational programming, influences every other system, and reminds us of the importance of learners’ active involvement in the learning process, which creates a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn. This elongated chronological presentation of its history and philosophy lifts up a theory of andragogy that may help us pause for giving it deeper consideration in our theorizing. Savicevic (2006) views Knowles’ as having a prominent place in helping to establish andragogy as a scientific discipline of study. Each of us in our research may choose to have a part in making this a reality in the future .

Space limitations did not allow the inclusion of each reference that was cited in the paper. Thus, a copy of all the references cited in this paper is available upon request from the author at the following e-mail address: jhenschke@lindenwood.edu A more extensive version of the author’s research conducted to date on the history and philosophy of andragogy is available at the following website: <http://lindenwood.edu/education/andragogy.cfm> This is found under Henschke’s Published Works in 2009: [A Perspective on the History and Philosophy of Andragogy: An International Sketch](#). In *Proceedings of the Commission on International Adult*

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African American Males' Motivations for Participation in Health Education

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Abstract: In recent years, there has been an increased interest in the health of African Americans. This is due in large measure to health disparities racial and ethnic minority groups face in the healthcare system. Despite advances in health care, these groups still lag behind. More programs have been instituted to provide health education to minority groups. And while some members from these groups may participate in health educational activities, others do not, particularly men. Studies have adequately explained adults' motivations; few have explored African American men's motivations to participate in health education. We discuss three primary reasons of motivations of African American men. The findings can assist program planners and health educators in developing recruiting strategies to attract African American men to learn more about health.

Introduction

The field of adult education continues to expand. Customarily, we read about the advantages and disadvantages of using various instructional techniques (Galbraith, 2004), characteristics of an effective adult educator (Brookfield, 2004; Guy, 1999), and characteristics about adult learners (James, 2003; Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007). In addition, new topics, such as spirituality (Fenwick, English, & Penwick, 2004) and consumerism (Sandlin, 2007), are gaining more attention. Traditionally, research was conducted quantitatively, but there has been a paradigm shift and now adult education researchers (Alfred, 2009; Rogers, 2005) have explored the lived experiences of adult learners. One of the most voluminous researched areas of adult education is participation. From the research we have learned why adults are motivated and deterred from participating in educational activities. Despite the attention the topic has garnered, some groups are still overlooked and we understand little about their motivations or barriers to participation. This lack of knowledge cuts across many fields including health.

Every year we seem to learn about new medical advances. In addition, technology and medicine have coalesced to provide healthcare opportunities like never before. Adults are living longer and are more conscious about their eating habits. Injured soldiers that have lost a limb due to war can resume a somewhat normal life with advances in prosthetics. Pace makers are monitored from hundreds of miles away. Although medical advances are changing the lives of many, health disparities still exist. A contributing factor is a lack of knowledge about healthcare. Another factor is the disparities in health care treatment among racial and ethnic minority groups (Skarupski, et al., 2007). In many urban areas, organizations have collaborated with one another to provide free health screenings, informational packets, and health educational offerings. Yet, some adults do not participate, thus failing to learn how to enhance or maintain their overall well being. Learning what motivates adults to participate in health education can assist health educators in enhancing targeted programs for hard to reach adults. The purpose of this study was to explore African American males' motivations for participating in health education.

Adult Education Participation

Adult educators have examined participation among adult learners for several decades (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Boshier, 1991; Hawkins, 2007; Kjell & Desjadins, 2009). Generally, studies focus on the barriers, deterrents, and motivations of adults. It is hard to confine participation to one factor. "Participation appears to be the result of a combination of factors" (Boeren, Nicaise, & Baert, 2010, p. 53). Costs and time are often cited as barriers to participation. Costs can be prohibitive for some adults. A lack of resources, inclusive of a lack of energy or stamina and personal and professional responsibilities (Malhotra, Shapero, Sizoo, & Munro, 2007) also prevent adults' participation.

A major motivation for participation often reported in the literature is job enhancement/professional development. Other motivations include a love of learning, social interaction, social stimulation, and enhancement of communication skills, just to name a few. Motivations vary among groups of learners; the context of learning impacts motivations as well (Isaac, in press). Among childcare workers, Hawkins found that they participated to improve childcare programs. Soldiers have participated in educational activities to prepare for their transition to civilian life and older adults may participate to enhance their technological skills (Mulenga & Liang, 2008). Adults have a number of reasons for participating in adult education. Some are consistent among adult learners. However, some are unique based on the learner, subject matter, and the context.

"Although some studies have done an adequate job in explaining adults' motivations in general, most have failed to include an analysis of race" (Isaac, Guy, & Valentine, 2001). Hence studies have explored the motivation for participation of African American males. Most studies of participation focus on groups of learners in general or women in particular. In a recent review of the literature, one study of African American men was located. In a study of incarcerated African American males, Schlensinger (2005) found that they were motivated to participate in correctional education more so for "non-educational reasons" (p. 236). They included the opportunity to meet with other incarcerated men. Some reasons were manipulative in nature. For example, participating allowed them to get out of their cell for a while; for others it was a monetary benefit. They received money for attending and used the money for other uses such as purchasing contraband. The findings support the notion that the context and learner impact participation motivations.

African American Males and Health

Concerted efforts have been made to raise the health consciousness of Americans during the past two decades. Television commercials no longer focus on the common cold. Issues of diabetes, hypertension, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), and AIDS now fill the airwaves in an effort to promote healthy lifestyles. This is significant considering the extant health disparities in the U.S. Poor health status is one indicator of health disparities, differences in the incidence, prevalence, mortality, and other health-related conditions that exist among specific groups in the U.S. One method used to eliminate health disparities and thus improve health is by engaging in health promotion activities, activities that lead to a higher level of health and based upon a desire for health rather than an avoidance of disease (Pender, Murdaugh, & Parsons 2006). Health promotion activities help individuals maintain or improve well-being. While there has been sufficient literature that examines health promotion activities in general, little has been

conducted that focuses specifically on African American men. Although there has been a significant decrease in the age-adjusted mortality rates for 10 of the 15 leading causes of death for all Americans (Heron et al., 2009) along with an increased life-expectancy for males and females and African Americans and Caucasians, there remain differences in mortality rates when comparing African Americans to Caucasians.

Various explanations have been proposed to account for the health disparities among African American men, including barriers faced by all regardless of race or ethnicity: (a) lack of health insurance, (b) being without a regular health care provider, and (c) challenges in obtaining care once the decision is made to seek care (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2005). However, if these are barriers faced by all, what accounts for the significantly inferior health status of African American men? Researchers (Cheatham, Barksdale, & Rodgers, 2008; Ravenell, Whitaker, & Johnson, 2008; Royster, Richmond, Eng, & Margolis, 2006) have identified additional barriers faced by this group that must be addressed if their health status is to improve. These include (a) socioeconomic status, specifically employment status, (b) masculinity, or male gender socialization, and the need to not appear weak or less of a man by admitting illness or the need for health care, (c) lack of awareness of disease signs and symptoms, (d) lack of awareness of the need for preventive care (e) mistrust of the health care delivery system, (f) the negative clinic experience, (g) religion, including religious fatalism, (h) criminal background which makes securing employment, especially employment with health care benefits and adequate pay difficult, and (i) cultural and linguistic differences. Accordingly, until these issues are addressed, we may continue to witness health disparities among African American men.

The concept of health promotion, “the science and art of helping people change their lifestyle to move toward a state of [optimal health](#)” (O’Donnell, 1985, p. 5), is not new. However, health-oriented education has gained traction in adult education literature in recent years (Hill, 2004). Simultaneously, various organizations and agencies have enhanced their efforts to offer health seminars and workshops for targeted groups such as African Americans, Hispanics, and African American men. Despite their intentions to raise the health consciousness of Americans, research indicates that African American men are not participating in such activities, which may result in their disproportionately higher incidence and prevalence of chronic diseases (Thompson, Talley, Caito, & Kreuter, 2009).

To eliminate health disparities, adults should engage in health promotion activities, which motivate a person to achieve a higher level of health (Pender, 2006). Various researchers have noted health promotion research focusing on African American men has not garnered significant attention (Cheatham et al., 2008; Thompson et al., 2009; Underwood et al., 2009). The purpose of our research study was to examine health promotion activities in a group of African American men. Our specific research question was: “What motivates African American males to participate in educational offerings about healthy lifestyle behaviors?”

Methodology and Findings

Using convenience sampling, African American men enrolled in a “Male Wellness and Health” (MWH) program sponsored by Fathers’ Support Center (FSC) in St. Louis, MO, were asked to participate in the study. FSC was selected because of its longevity in providing educational programs for men, most who are African American. FSC has received several

awards including the Governors Award for Service Excellence. Once volunteers were identified from the MWH program, two focus groups were conducted. Inclusion criteria included (a) being enrolled in the MWH program, (b) being able to read and understand English, and (c) self-identifying as African American. In exchange for their participation, each participant received a gift card. During the focus groups, participants were asked to respond to semi-structured questions developed by the researchers based upon a review of the literature and specific research aims. Both focus groups were tape recorded and the tapes were transcribed.

Open coding to identify common words and phrases and triangulation of data were used. We found three major themes which described the men's motivations for participation—scare tactics, modeling, and personal desire.

Modeling was used to describe how the men wanted to be role models for others and how other people served as role models for them. Several of the men indicated that their children motivated them to learn about health. They wanted their children to be healthy and felt it was important for them to set a good example for them. For some of the other men, other people in their lives motivated them. For example, one participant stated, "My mom is 72 and she gets around. . . . and she walks, she goes to the pool and does those little swimming aerobics things. . . . that is motivating to me." Another man said, "When you see . . . a person in our class who really is our speaker, . . . and he's 64 and he runs three miles every day" it motivates him to want to learn more about health.

Some of the men stated that learning about certain health topics and issues scared them and motivated them to want to learn about health. In talking about the warning label on cigarettes, one participant stated that, "If anything got a warning label on it, you don't need to be doing it." A bad report from the doctor also served as a motivator. For one participant, "a bad doctor's report . . . that would motivate me if the doctor told me that you are not physically right." Along those same lines, another participant indicated if there were more examples of how bad a person could be living, it would motivate him to learn more about health. In other words, if he saw a man whose leg was amputated because he did not take care of himself, it would serve as a motivator. For example, one participant stated, "With all these [illnesses and diseases], with what everybody's coming with makes me want to take charge of my health."

Along the lines of personal desire, some men just wanted to be healthy. One participant, who has a significant other, felt that it was important "to have myself together" in order to keep up or be established with her. In one instance, a healthy lifestyle was ingrained from childhood experiences. One man indicated his mother made dinner every day and a vegetable was always included. "She, . . . we always had fruit and veggies in the refrigerator." He went on to say that he always remembered to take care of himself.

The motivations for the men in this study were inconsistent with most findings. The topic (health), context, and participants provided unique contributions to the adult education participation literature. Nonetheless, the findings from this research can broaden our understanding of African American males' motivations for participating in adult education. Understanding their motivations to participate in health promotion activities will aid adult educational programmers and health educators in providing educational activities and learning opportunities that can enhance participation and learning among African American men and, at the same time, enhance the likelihood of their participation in future health promotion activities.

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Merging Business and Adult Education to Create an Online MBA Degree Program: Concern over Sustaining the Andragogical Approach

Susan Isenberg, Ph.D.

Abstract: Merging business and education models for transformative change is possible and desirable, though not a natural fit (Isenberg, 2009). Further, sustaining the transformative change requires a leader who is educated in the practice and principles of andragogy—“the art and science of helping adults learn” (Knowles, 1970, p. 43). A private university in the Midwest is adding an MBA online program starting in Fall 2010 based on its traditional program. The School of Business sought professional development in applying andragogical principles to online learning. The MBA online professors participated in an 8-week online course on the topic. The practitioner concern is that although the new MBA online courses may somewhat apply andragogical principles because of the MBA professor development, the andragogical focus may not be sustainable because those managing the program may not be educated in the practice and principles of andragogy. A sample of postings by the MBA professors show positive changes in knowledge, understanding, attitude, value, and interest in the topic, but there is concern, too, that skill may not be developed in applying the new learning. Perhaps an 8-week professional development course is not enough to create transformative sustainable change to a new MBA online program.

Introduction

At the MWR2P 2009 conference in Chicago, I presented research on merging business and education models for transformational change—a lived experience about a struggling community hospital that added an andragogical process to the preexisting unsuccessful business process to create and sustain transformational change. The new employee driven change cycle that I facilitated as Director of Transformation was discovered to parallel a learning process (as perceived by the learner) toward self-direction (Taylor, 1986), and a business process called Six Sigma’s DMAIC (define, measure, analysis, improvement, control) for quality improvement created for manufacturing by Bill Smith at Motorola in 1986. An important finding was that the president who was responsible for creating the change was unable to sustain the change. A new president is now managing the change and the hospital is thriving. The first leader was the visionary but the second leader was a creative leader (Knowles, 1990) characterized by “releasing the energy of others” (p. 183) and was educated in and practiced the principles of adult learning—prerequisites for managing the change process (Isenberg, 2007). This grounded theory study resulted in a new merged model and a new theory. The theory was that merging business and education models can result in transformational change, but sustaining change requires empowered and creative leadership (Knowles).

One year later, I embarked on a similar experience in a very different setting. As a faculty member teaching in the new andragogy specialty emphasis area EdD program at a large private university in the Midwest, I was invited to educate the School of Business professors this spring/summer in applying adult learning principles to online learning as they create an online MBA (Masters of Business Administration) degree program – the university’s first online degree

based on a long-standing successful face-to-face program. In other words, the courses will be the same, only online. The business school's goal was to begin teaching online MBA courses in fall-spring 2010. The concern is that although the online MBA program may be designed with an andragogical focus as a result of four MBA online professors taking the summer course for credit and four more MBA online professors auditing the course, the andragogical focus may not be sustainable because the online learning process will be managed by the School of Business with a dean that may not represent empowered and "creative leadership" (Knowles, 1990).

The Importance of the Concern to both Research and Practice of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education

One of my 2009 research findings was that merging business and adult education to create change is critical but not a natural fit. Online degree programs are very popular among students and universities because of their convenience and efficiency. The challenge for a new online degree program that addresses the needs of the adult learner is "not simply to provide teaching that is as good as in the traditional classroom but to use the instructional tools and methods in ways that achieve *better* or *different* learning outcomes" (Latchem in Carr-Chellman Ed., 2005, p. 190). Universities enlightened by the research on improving adult learning that apply andragogical principles to the design of online degree programs but do not apply andragogical principles to the management of an online degree program may not achieve better or different learning outcomes. Such a program may end up being something very different if managed by a traditional education leader.

Various Approaches to Deal with the Concerns

There has been a natural fascination with the topic of andragogy among the business professors that began over a year ago when I facilitated a voluntary university wide faculty development session on the adult learner. Two business professors attended and saw the application of the learning to their school. Then, one of the same professors took the first two courses in the andragogy emphasis specialty area EdD program last fall. Interest in andragogy has increased and the program is growing. Meanwhile, the business professors are aware of my published research on applying andragogical principles to online learning and said "we think you can teach us something that we need to know" as they begin to design courses for their new program. As a result, I met weekly with the business faculty as part of a task force to plan the program and have agreed to continue to meet with the task force for the next several months as the team finishes the online course development and the program is implemented. Initially, they asked me to conduct a "one-day training session" for the MBA online staff to learn about the andragogical approach, but were agreeable to enroll business faculty in an 8-week online summer course titled Applying Andragogical Principles to Online Learning in which the final project is to design or design and create an andragogical online learning experience. At the time of this writing, the 8-week course is over. Course artifacts in the form of MBA online professor posts will be shared for discussion.

Discussion of the Conference Theme – Linking Theory and Practice

If the new online MBA program has an andragogical design, it should have an andragogical leader to manage it, so it does not slip back to being a traditional program. But, perhaps a one-course learning experience for business professors and an andragogically designed

online program is not enough. Perhaps university structure should be addressed to change the role of andragogy faculty from resource to consultant, not seeking to have power over other university programs, but instead seeking to have power with other university programs to improve adult learning.

The 8-week Course

Description of the Course

The 8-week online course was held in June and July 2010. There were eight MBA online program professors who participated – four audited the course and four took the course for credit. Other participant backgrounds included public school teaching and administrating, university teaching and administrating, librarian services, mathematics, public school finance, nursing school, and the military. The total number of participants was 14, 12 at the doctoral degree level and two at the master's degree level.

The course was based on the principles of andragogy and the syllabus was underpinned with the Knowles (1973) five adult learner assumptions: (a) increasingly self-directed, (b) learner experience is a rich resource for learning, (c) learning readiness is the result of developmental tasks of social roles, (d) need for immediacy of application, and (e) learning is problem-centered. The learning objectives were created from the six adult learner competencies: knowledge, understanding, skill, attitude, value, and attitude (Knowles, 1980, p. 240) and the required activities were each matched to one of the learner competencies – weekly postings, leading a reading assignment discussion, giving an online presentation on a topic of interest related to the course, and designing or designing and creating an andragogical online learning experience. The learning process was based on Knowles (1984, 1995) eight elements of an andragogical model: (a) preparing the learner, (b) establishing a climate conducive to learning, (c) having a mechanism for mutual planning, (d) designing their own learning plan, (e) helping the learners carry out their own learning plans, and (f) involving the learners in evaluating their learning. Participants were called course colleagues and the learning was carried out using individual learning contracts. My challenge to the course participants was to “not simply provide online teaching that is as good as in the traditional classroom but to use the instructional tools and methods in ways that achieve better or different learning outcomes” (Latchem 2005, p. 190).

Three elements of the course were potentially new and different for participants who had never experienced an online course or who had experienced only a traditional online course. First, participants were only required to post once in response to the weekly assigned reading discussion strand, which were facilitated by course participants. My intent was to avoid what participants could perceive as busy work. I did not respond to every student post to avoid being the dominant voice, but responded to each student with an equal number of posts. Just as in a face-to-face classroom, I sought to be effective by not being the “sage on the stage” but instead the “guide on the side” (Zemsky & Massy, as cited in Carr-Chellman, Ed., 2005, p. 247) jumping in when I had a opportunity to expand, clarify, or add to an important topic raised by a participant. A second course element that was potentially new was my trust in the participants to contribute in their own unique way as a result of the course assignments, my instructions and feedback, and resources, without telling them what to do. And third, participants were involved in the mutual planning of their own learning through learning contracts and in re-evaluating their own learning.

Participant Postings

Participant postings provides fodder for discussing the practitioner concern regarding sustaining an andragogical approach in applying the andragogical principles to an online MBA program. A research study has not been conducted on the results of this course, but I will share some MBA online professor posts that may provide a structure on which to build a discussion. I modeled what I was teaching, which was to foster course participant self-directed learning. Therefore, using Taylor's (1986) four phases of the journey toward becoming self-directed as perceived by the learner (disorientation, exploration, reorganization, and equilibrium) seemed like a logical way to organize the posts of the MBA online professors as they progressed through the 8-week online course.

Weeks 1 and 2 – Disorientation

In the first few weeks of the course, the MBA online professors were learning about andragogy for the first time from the required reading assignments. There seemed to be a disorientation tone to their posts (Taylor's [1986] Phase 1 of the journey toward becoming self-directed). Here are a few examples from MBA online professors from weeks 1 and 2:

- "I have been teaching college for 32 years, including graduate level teaching for 29 years. In all that time, just about everything I have learned about teaching has come from either direct experience or from comparing notes with colleagues. In common with most American higher-ed academics whose careers grew outside schools of Education, I have never had a course in how to teach. . . ."

- "I am amazed at the fact that all of the information I have read in the foreword . . . thus far seems like a foreign language to me. I am embarrassed to admit that I have never taken any education classes."

- "One of my concerns regarding . . . self directed learning theory is a fear of being criticized for not teaching, not providing value, etc. . . . I'm curious about the evidence that indicates that students expect to be more self directed, than teacher directed - I suspect there are many adult learners who want to be directed and influenced by the teacher's thoughts. Might some of these students flounder or feel like they've been ripped off, if a purest approach is taken?"

- "We do not have captive audiences that will read and respond as we think they will during their self directed learning experiences because they may be concurrently chatting, my spacing, . . . while listening to music, texting, surfing and emailing – constant information overload, while taking our courses. . . . This is a completely different paradigm for most who know controllable the factors of a physical classroom."

Weeks 3 and 4 – Exploration

In weeks 3 and 4 of the course, the tone of the MBA online professors seemed to change to more of an exploration tone (Taylor's [1986] Phase 2) – a tone more open to possibilities. Here are a few posts from weeks 3 and 4:

- "The self direction should apply for pursuing those individualized contract items."

- "As facilitators of learning, how do we encourage the students in our classes to learn enough from the class and make it worthwhile if they do not have interest in the topic?"

-“I guess environment does matter, but I think it could be argued at any level that if someone doesn’t want to learn, they’re not going to.”

-“Relevance. This is the key. . . The art and science of teaching includes finding the common ground to make any topic relevant to the student.”

Weeks 5 and 6 - Reorganization

Taylor’s (1986) reorganization phase of the journey of the learner (as perceived by the learner) toward self-direction is when there is a new understanding that emerges, a sense of resolving the issues that surfaced in the disorientation phase. Here are some MBA online professor posts from weeks 5 and 6:

-“When it comes to concepts, as instructors, we are all probably good at setting the right context for our concepts and applications – but, it may be more challenging since you won’t readily be able to conduct conversations or read body language or facial impressions . . . More frequent assessment and follow-up will probably be needed.

-“Online could be better for the students who have a more difficult time grasping the material, but it seems that several barriers will have to be overcome.”

-“I am beginning to come around with respect to my own feelings about online education. On a larger scale, I think there will be a lot of prejudice to overcome, for a long time and especially at higher levels.

-“I think that allowing the students to learn at their own pace will be a benefit for both the advanced learners and those that struggle with the material.”

-I think that once the adult learners see that the material is relevant regardless of where they fit in their company’s organization chart, they will want to learn and master the material.”

Week 7 and 8 – Equilibrium

Taylor (1986) argued that “sharing the discovery” is the transition that leads up to the final phase of the journey toward becoming self directed, equilibrium, when the learner’s new perspective is applied and refined. A few MBA online professor posts in the final two weeks of the course seem to indicate a consolidation of course material with less emotion.

-“This course has made me more empathetic to the students as well as opened my mind to more approaches for them. I will try to build in more self directed learning and have more trust in my learners.”

-“I absolutely now know how much I do not know about andragogical principles, which means I have a lot more to learn. I hate to say that I found out how ignorant I am, but it is the truth.”

-“I think I’ve found out that I’m not as open-minded as I may have intended to be, especially with regard to adult learning. In a review of my Internet learning project, I am still wrestling with the notion of trust and perhaps self-direction. I do understand and appreciate the concepts, but I think that putting them into practice, either from wanting to conduct an efficient class, or where I’m wanting to ensure that the student is acting with integrity, i.e., when it comes to assessments, or being self directed enough to learn the fundamentals of the course, as I see them. You could say that I am more sensitive to the principles, but still not living and breathing it.”

Conclusion

A sampling of posts from MBA online professor over the 8-week course, Applying Andragogical Principles to Internet Learning seems to show movement in the following competencies: knowledge, understanding, attitude, value, and interest. Skill in applying the concepts is not well developed. The pattern of the posts seems to follow Taylor's four phases toward becoming a self directed learner. The practitioner concern is that one course may not be enough to cause sustainable change in the behaviors of the MBA online professors toward their application of andragogical principles in what they do and how they do it. Additionally, though the Dean of the School of Business asked the MBA online professors to take my course, he has not taken the course. I will continue to work with the business professors for the next several months to finalize the implementation of their new MBA online program, but there remains a concern that andragogical changes to the program can not be sustained without an andragogical leader managing it.

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Using the Principles of Adult Learning to Facilitate Self-Directed Dissertation Writing

Beth Kania-Gosche

Abstract: Traditionally, faculty expect doctoral students to be self-directed when writing a dissertation, but little is done at the program level to facilitate this self-directedness. After a needs assessment of students and faculty, I created a dissertation writing course based on the principles of adult learning and best practices of teaching writing. The Spring 2010 pilot of the course consisted of 36 Ed.D. students. In the course, students wrote a learning contract and determined which dissertation writing workshops they would attend based on their needs. Also, students chose a partner for peer review of dissertation writing. At the end of the course, students presented their research findings and progress. In this study, I explored how and if the course designed to support dissertation writing facilitates self-directedness in Ed.D. students. I also investigated how the course changed the students' perceptions of dissertation completion. Results indicated that some students made great progress while others stalled. However, all students felt the new course was helpful, and data demonstrated that most students were engaged. Further longitudinal research is needed to track these students as they continue work on their dissertations. Recommendations to other doctoral faculty who may want to implement a similar course are included.

Introduction

Recently, the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS) completed a seven-year project on Ph.D. Completion and Attrition, and their results come as no surprise to doctoral faculty. Their report expressed concerns about doctoral student attrition and demonstrated the extended time-to-degree for many in doctoral programs. "At the aggregate level, the data showed that 57% of doctoral candidates in the sample completed their degree programs within a ten-year time span," although rates differed by discipline and program (CGS, 2010, p. 3). Although the issue of time-to-degree and lack of completion in doctoral programs has been debated in the literature (e.g. Nettles & Millett, 2006), few practical, low-cost solutions have been proposed at the university or program level. In this study I focused on a doctorate of education program, recognizing this understudied population in dissertation completion research which is often focused on Ph.Ds.

As doctoral programs, particularly Ed.D. and other practitioner programs, become increasingly populated by working adults, the principles of adult learning need to be adopted for not only coursework but also dissertation writing. The concepts of andragogy and self-directed learning are especially relevant to dissertation writing. The words of Knowles (1980, p. 98) apply directly to the dissertation, "You don't just throw them into the strange waters of self-directed learning and hope they can swim." Becoming a self-directed learner is not an easy process, and undoubtedly, dissertation writing produces angst in students and their supervisors alike. Unlike many courses, the end result of dissertation writing is not a grade. Students must set and follow their own deadlines, and dissertation research is essentially centered on a problem. However, doctoral faculty cannot assume that students will be self-directed and successful with no support. While this particular study focuses on Ed.D. students, I believe the struggles of

dissertation writing extend to other disciplines as well, perhaps even to other self-directed projects required for graduate degrees, such as a thesis.

The report by the CGS (2010) and other research studies too numerous to list here recommended more support for students in the dissertation writing phase of their program. “There is widespread recognition that students at the dissertation stage feel isolated and vulnerable and universities are putting into place a number of efforts to help students overcome these feelings and remain on track” (CGS, 2010, p. 57). While this report gave some brief examples from different universities participating in the project, more research is needed into specific interventions for doctoral students and the process for developing them.

In this paper, I outline an innovative approach to facilitating dissertation writing for graduate students at the end of their coursework, combining the principles of andragogy with the best practices of teaching writing and online learning, following the recommendations of the Ph.D. Completion project (CGS, 2010). I investigated the following research questions: How does a dissertation writing course facilitate self-directedness in education doctoral students? and How does a dissertation writing course change doctoral students’ perceptions of dissertation completion?

This pilot project, implemented in Spring of 2010, combines theory with practice to offer a possible solution to an ongoing problem for many doctoral institutions. After developing and implementing a course based on the principles of andragogy, I followed the advice of Knowles, Holton, & Swanson (1998) to evaluate it qualitatively. While it is too early to determine if this intervention increases graduation rate, I believe that increasing self-direction in the dissertation writing process and creating awareness of dissertation expectations and policies will lead to increased satisfaction for both faculty and students.

Development of the Course

The focus of this paper is the dissertation writing course, the last course doctoral students take at my institution. Students enrolled in this six credit hour course after successfully completing comprehensive exams. Previously, this course consisted of independent study with the dissertation advisor with a few group meetings to explain policies and procedures. After a needs assessment of faculty and students as well as an in depth investigation into the research on dissertation completion, I piloted a new format for the dissertation writing course based on andragogical principles.

The needs assessment began by interviewing Ed.D. students at various points in the program about their experiences with dissertation writing. I held focus groups with doctoral faculty and with the Fall 2009 dissertation writing classes. The needs assessment also consisted of an electronic, anonymous survey of Ed.D. students in our program. The survey examined student satisfaction with many aspects of the program, but I used the results centered on dissertation writing and relationships with chair and committee to inform my course development.

In the needs assessment, students indicated they felt their dissertation chairs and committee members were overworked, making it difficult to even find a chair or receive effective feedback. Faculty expressed frustration with students’ writing abilities and lack of self-directedness. They also, at times, felt overwhelmed with the volume of student work they were expected to read. The majority of Ed.D. faculty at my institution served on more than 10

dissertation committees at any one time. As a result of this, the students' timeline for dissertation completion often did not correspond with reality. Faculty needed time to write quality feedback, and they recognized how each person had a different style for dissertation supervision. Students complained that procedures for submitting dissertations and the process for scheduling a defense were unclear and confusing. Some students expressed a need for more help with writing.

After examining the data from the needs assessment and reflecting on my own experiences as a doctoral student and a dissertation final reader, I began to develop the course. I examined the content and skills students would need to write a quality dissertation and created a series of workshops, each centered on a different topic related to dissertation writing. Workshop topics included APA citation style, IRB submission, and common grammar errors. I invited many different guest speakers including a librarian, a statistician, and alumni of the program. This new format also consisted of an online component consisting of peer review of dissertation drafts with a partner, following best practices in teaching writing, and student presentations of their research at the end of the course.

The first assignment in this class was a learning contract, following the model of Knowles et al. (1998) who suggested this as the best vehicle for facilitating self-directed learning. Students wrote goals and selected workshops and other resources to help them meet these objectives. I then compared these learning contracts with the progress the students actually made.

I incorporated other aspects of andragogy as well. As Knowles (1977, p. 209) stated, "The single most important one [of the seven process design elements] is establishing a climate that is conducive to learning, that is dominated or characterized by trust, by informality, by openness, by mutual respect, warmth, caring, etc." I used an interactive teaching style, and the workshops took place in a computer lab, where students could immediately apply concepts to their own dissertations. My own teaching style is informal, and I encouraged students to stop me at any point with questions. "The conversation made a comfortable climate, in turn my volunteers shared much more info!" one student wrote in a workshop reflection. "Love the openness to ask questions when we have them, and love that you even see when we have confused looks!" wrote another. As a recent doctoral recipient, I did not present myself as the expert. Instead, I viewed myself as the students' peer. Modeling (Henschke, 1998) was an essential component of the course. I frequently used my own writing as examples in the workshop, and I gave my own dissertation defense presentation for the students in the course. I believe this perspective helped me design the course to be as student-centered as possible.

Over the course of a semester, I offered 16 workshops, and students were required to attend at least eight. In this way, students could choose the workshops that fit their needs, and this allowed them to have a more flexible schedule. Workshops were also available to any students who had completed all coursework but not the dissertation (ABDs). All materials from the workshops were posted on the course website. In this way, the information was available to students when they were ready. Students also read their partner's dissertation draft and offered feedback, as did the instructors of the course, modeling the expectations. This allowed for peer interaction and helped the students learn from reading the work of others. The final assignment for the class was for students to present their dissertations in a mock defense, as preparation for the real event. The collaboration and support offered by the students and instructors in the class were deliberately designed, based on research of dissertation completion, best practices in teaching writing, and adult learning.

Methodology

I collected qualitative data from learning contracts, workshop and presentation reflections, discussion board postings, student work before, during, and after the course, and my own reflections as one of the instructors of the course. In addition, I collected descriptive quantitative data including number of discussion board posts, time spent on the course website, workshop attendance, number of new pages written during the course, and references added during the course.

The participants in this study, the students in the course, consisted of 36 students, 14 male (39%) and 22 female (61%). Twenty of these students were Caucasian (55%), and 16 (44%) were African American. Most of these students held jobs within public school systems: the primary audience for the Ed.D. at this institution. All of these students successfully completed comprehensive exams and all other doctoral coursework.

Of the 36 students in the class, 24 (67%) attended eight or more workshops, and 11 (30%) attended ten or more. At the beginning of the course, students were in various stages of dissertation writing. Seven had already obtained IRB approval and had collected or did collect data the semester of the dissertation writing course. Five students received IRB approval sometime during the semester or immediately following. IRB approval was a struggle reported by many students in the course, and I also noted it in the needs assessment.

At the end of every workshop, students wrote a reflection, responding to several questions that changed depending on the workshop. This was how we kept track of attendance. This was data that I used to improve subsequent workshops, and I am still referring to them to improve the workshops for next semester. These reflections were almost all positive, and the last question for the reflection asked students how they were going to apply what they learned to their own dissertation. I also asked students what they learned from the workshop and was often surprised at the result. For example, in the avoiding common grammar errors workshop, almost every student wrote he or she had learned the difference between parentheses and brackets. I only spent about two minutes on this topic, but apparently, it was the most memorable.

Student Perceptions and Progress

Students who were self-directed learners flourished in this course, although they may have been successful regardless of the support systems offered. Rather than a trial and error approach, where students submit a draft to their chair and wait for feedback, students knew the expectations at the beginning, before writing. I offered suggestions for specific strategies to aid their writing. Reverse outlining was a technique I recommended, as well as creating graphic organizers or tables to synthesize information in the literature review. However, some students struggled to make progress, although they participated enthusiastically in the workshops.

The workshops changed students' perceptions of dissertation completion, providing clear expectations and explanations of procedures. Many students had the perception that the chapters should be written in a linear fashion, finish chapter one, then move on to chapter two, etc. Early in the class, some students refused to work on later chapters until they had earlier ones completely polished, despite my assurances they would need to revise again after collecting data.

One of the most powerful ways I found to change students' perceptions was through sharing my own writing and experiences. In an early workshop on organizing the literature review, students in groups critiqued an excerpt. The groups were scathing in their criticisms, but then I shared that the literature review was, in fact, from my own dissertation. I actually welcomed the comments and felt I was modeling accepting constructive criticism. Students wrote in their workshop reflections comments such as "having a successful example of a finished product was helpful" and "I think I that I will go back through your sample paper and highlight items I need to include in my paper." I offered examples from published articles as well, often pointing out typos or weaknesses in the research while still discussing the strengths. I believe this gave students a more realistic view of the dissertation—that it would never be perfect, that no research was perfect.

Discussion

Although other institutions may handle dissertation writing credit hours differently, a series of regular workshops as a support for dissertation writing could be implemented anywhere. While some writing centers have used this approach campus-wide, few departments have used this systematic intervention. I chose not to detail each individual workshop here. Instead, I would encourage each department to conduct a needs assessment, asking both faculty and doctoral students where their struggles lie in dissertation writing. One of the most motivational workshops was the alumni panel, when Ed.D. graduates from the previous semester were invited for a question and answer session. Each department should determine its own workshop topics, as well as decide who to invite and if attendance is optional or mandatory. The workshops can be one way to connect with ABD students who may be frustrated or stalled with dissertation writing. The importance of the group gathering weekly and supporting each other should not be overlooked, since dissertation writing is often a solitary activity. Over the summer, several students told me how much they missed the weekly class meetings.

One faculty member should take charge of the logistics of developing topics and scheduling workshops speakers as well as finding space, but the actual cost of this intervention is very little. As with many programs, implementing the workshops a second semester should be smoother, and attendance should be higher. This intervention could be especially important in departments where faculty chair a large number of dissertation committees. Rather than relying on word of mouth, the department can disseminate information about dissertation expectations and process directly to the students. In my course, documents from each workshop were also available online to all students enrolled in the course, which participants indicated they appreciated greatly. In this study, the participants expressed their enthusiasm for the workshops again and again; many saying they wished the workshops had been offered earlier in the program. However, this information may have been available to students earlier, but they may not have been ready for it, again consistent with andragogical principles (Knowles et al., 1998). This is also the rationale behind offering the workshops to ABD students, so they can come to the workshops when they are ready.

Conclusions

While the effects of this intervention continue to be studied, the dissertation writing course is one support departments can easily offer to support their doctoral students during dissertation writing. Development of this course should begin with a needs assessment to develop the topics for the workshops. Each workshop had a focused topic with an expert presenter, and the learning environment was informal, interactive, and supportive. The course could even be aligned with the 12 or more dissertation writing hours many programs require. This is one way to make doctoral programs more student-centered, adapting the principles of andragogy.

However, implementing the dissertation writing course is not enough, it must be continually evaluated. I have already made changes to the course for the Fall of 2010, and I continue to track the pilot cohort from Spring of 2010. I hope to see some of these students return to workshops in the Fall of 2010. I have now made materials from these workshops available to all doctoral students, not just those enrolled in the course. Once a month, I will hold writer's workshops where students can meet in groups and individually with me, as well as report progress to the entire class. This will facilitate reflection and allow students time to apply the concepts from the workshops to their dissertations. Students indicated in their workshop reflections from the pilot implementation that the pace was overwhelming at times. I will continue to refine the course each semester to better meet the needs of each cohort of students.

The issue of doctoral student attrition cannot be ignored. "Paradoxically, the most academically capable, most academically successful, most stringently evaluated, and most carefully selected students in the entire higher education system—doctoral students—are the least likely to complete their chosen academic goals" (Golde, 2000, p. 199). Perhaps one solution is to use andragogy to support the self-directed learning necessary to complete a dissertation.

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The Effects of Literacy on Rural Women in Mali: Transformation through Empowerment

Maimouna Konaté

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to examine the effects of a literacy program on its participants and understand how the program empowered and informed the women. Further, the study sought to understand how these women affected changes in their families and how they transformed their community. Using data collected in Lassa, Mali, the article shows how the program has helped the participants to develop positive behavioral changes through consciousness-raising to make sense of their world through sharing experiences, and take actions for positive changes about their lives and the community. The article suggests that when literacy programs and education are built on the experiences, skills, and rich knowledge of people and communities, they can be powerful tools to provide people ways and strategies to break out illiteracy, poverty, and powerlessness.

Introduction and Contextual Background

Mali is a landlocked country located in West Africa with a population of about 13 million inhabitants. It is estimated that more than 70% of the population live on an income of \$2.00 per day. Women who represent 51% of the population are the majority living in rural areas and below the poverty line. Rural girls and women in Africa face intertwined problems of poverty, hunger, and disease, which relates to limited access to education and high levels of illiteracy among women (Shibeshi (2006). Girls in Mali, like girls in most parts of the developing countries, do not have access to basic education, or drop out of school at an early age (Geoghegan, 2005; UNICEF, 2005). Chronic poverty, gender inequality, and lack of school facilities continue to constraint school enrollments. The literacy rate is estimated at 39.6% for females compared to 46% for males (CIA-World Factbook, February 2009). Educating rural populations remains one of the main challenges for the achievement of Education for All, and the Millennium Development Goals (UNESCO, 2007). Adult literacy is perceived as an alternative to fill the gap, but most of the time literacy programs are only designed to teach the participants how to read, write, and do computations. However, by participating in a literacy program, *Yiriwaton*, a group of rural women in Mali, was able to make sense of their lives, improve the living conditions of their families and their community. *Yiriwaton* is a basic literacy program implemented in Bambara, the Mali national language. *Yiriwaton* was created in Lassa in 1998 with the cooperation of Luxemburg and Mali to provide functional literacy skills to women of Lassa. The program was developed with the philosophy that literacy skills alone are not sufficient to prepare learners for their active participation in the socio-cultural, political, and economic decisions related to the development of their families and their community. It is a participatory and empowering program for non-formal adult education in rural Mali. The program for women, which started as a literacy program was developed to reinforce the socio-economic activities leading to the well-being of the family and the community.

Presentation of Problem, Purpose, and Research Questions

Education for rural girls and women has a great impact on the socio-economic development of a society because girls and women are the pillars and backbones of their communities. Although African girls and women are responsible for the survival of their families, they do not have access to basic education or they drop out of school at an early age, due to socio-cultural and religious factors. It is assumed that *Yiriwaton* has had a major impact on the lives of the women of Lassa because of an increase in literacy rates, positive behavioral changes, open-mindedness, and socialization among women (Keita & Diallo, 2001). However, little empirical research has been conducted to find out how the program has empowered its participants and their community. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of a literacy program on its participants and understand how the program empowered and informed the women. Further, the study seeks to understand how these women affected changes in their families and how they transformed their community. This study answered the following questions: (1) what motivates the women to join the literacy program? (2) What is the impact of the literacy program on the lives of the women? (3) What is the significance of a literacy program in community development and empowerment? What are the women's perceptions of empowerment and transformation?

Methodology

A qualitative case study research design was used to provide a descriptive research account of women's experiences with *Yiriwaton* (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Lancy, 1993; Reinharz, 1992, Yin, 2003). Stake (1995) defines a case study as "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi). The study sought to understand rural women's experiences and perceptions of education, empowerment, and transformation. I conducted the fieldwork in Lassa, a rural community in Commune IV of Bamako, Mali in 2007. I recorded personal narrative accounts of women who were married, had children, young, and old. Data were collected by means of document analysis, participant observation, community dialogue, and individual tape-recorded interviews. The participants in community dialogue were selected purposefully to provide variation in age, family size, marital status, and experience.

Results

Based on the research questions, this article has four sets of finding. The first finding relates to the motivation of women for joining the literacy program. The second finding deals with the impact of the program on the participants' lives. The third finding presents the results regarding the significance of a literacy program on community development and empowerment. The fourth and last one reveals the participants' perceptions of empowerment and transformation.

Women's Motivation to Join the Literacy Program

Based on the participants' accounts, poverty was one factor that pushed them to join the literacy program. Most participants believed that illiteracy was the cause of their lack of financial

resources and they thought that by learning how to read and write, they could gain rich knowledge and skills, which could open doors for them. Nassira stated: “I never attended formal education and I always believed that illiteracy was the cause of my poverty. When I heard about the program, I jumped on the opportunity, hoping that by getting literacy skills I would be able to get a job that would allow me to get some money.” Macani added: “To tell the truth, I joined the program because of money. We, the women of Lassa are poor. We thought the program would solve our poverty.” This view corroborates with Raditloaneng & Mulenga (2003)’s finding that states that poverty is associated with illiteracy and gender inequalities. Therefore, women’s low levels of functional literacy and lack of appropriate training inhibit their ability to contribute meaningfully to reap economic gain from their labor and to access leadership positions and take part in decision making in their families and their communities.

Impact of the Literacy Program on Women

The women agreed that the program was a significant tool that provided them education and life skills. By participating in the program, the women experienced positive behavioral changes that led to individual and social empowerment and community development. Most participants said that they secured privacy in life, improved family conditions, and developed growing interest in children’s education. Nassoumba felt good about being able to write and read her letters without seeking for the help of anybody. By doing so, she was able to have a private life. The women showed great interest in the education of their children, especially the education of their daughters. Their participation in the literacy program and the changes they experienced as a result of their literacy education taught them the importance of educating their children, and especially their daughters for better life and families. The program has also helped the women to be aware of the knowledge they received about their health, their children’s health, and the health of their families.

Based on their testimonies, it is clear that the participants were aware of the importance of literacy to improve their livelihoods and open-up new doors for their children and a better life for them and their children. By engaging in learning and acquiring life skills, these women were able to understand the circumstances that shaped their lives and made decisions for themselves, which can be referred to conscientization (Freire, 1970). As a result of their participation in *Yiriwaton*, the participants developed self-confidence and self-esteem through consciousness-raising (Lephoto, 1995). They talked about losing their shyness and their participation in decisions affecting their lives. This result corroborates numerous findings that education is a means of empowerment of women (Freire, 2000; Kreisberg, 1992; & Stromquist, 1993, 2002). By participating in *Yiriwaton*, the women acquired skills, which allow the women to generate income to take care of themselves, their children, and help their family financially. The program taught the women how to process food, dry fruits and vegetables, make fruit juice, dye clothes, do gardening, and cattle breeding. They also operate a cooperative where they sell cereals such as rice, millet, maize, and other food related items which is beneficial to the whole community. Yassa stated: “I never developed any skills that could allow me to make money. The program taught me skills that can allow me to generate income if I work hard”. Through consciousness-raising the women as a group were able to reflect and act within their social setting and initiate income-generating activities. Through these activities the women were able to improve their economic conditions and change their life experiences. They were also able to help their children have access to school.

Significance of Literacy Program in Community Development and Empowerment

Yiriwaton became not only a learning site where the participants received knowledge and skills, but also a social space where women meet to discuss the issues that affect them and their community. Through theater production, the women organized plays, songs, dances, and sketches as means of entertainment at the village assembly place to share with the community members the information they had learned in the program. In so doing, they informed and raised the community members' awareness about specific issues such as family, health, and environmental issues. They also participate actively in cleaning the village on a regular basis and their contribution in providing the needy with food in form of a loan is a big help for the community. They raised money and helped one-another with social activities such as their daughters' weddings, funerals, and naming ceremonies. They also raised money and contributed to any activity toward the improvement of their community.

Women's Perceptions of Empowerment and Transformation

Economic independence was a form of transformation that had occurred in the women. Based on the interviewees' accounts, transformative learning took place as a result of their participation in the literacy class, income-generating activities, and women's informal discussions. The participants dared to leave the home, which is the main place for a woman in the Mali culture to attend activities and meetings. In so doing, the women transformed the family culture in spite of alienating their in-laws. This corroborates with Freire (1970) who states that empowerment does not occur freely to the oppressed, but at a price. The women confirmed that the development of the learning and income-generating skills led to discovery of positive self-esteem and awareness of their potential and capabilities, which made them, see themselves differently from other women who did not participate in their program. They related the activities of the program to their own advancement and that of their families and their community. They believed that collective action allowed them to maintain solidarity, sisterhood, and friendship with one another, which is an evidence of empowerment to them. The women noticed some changes in their lives and families after they learned how to read and write in Bambara.

Conclusion and Implications

The context of this study is a literacy program dedicated to empowering women through literacy skills and income-generated activities in Mali. Girls and women play a significant role in the development of a nation. Educated girls and women can contribute to reducing the poverty of a society and enhancing its human health system. The research is important to the practice of adult, continuing, extension and community education because in addition to reading, writing, and doing computations, rural women need skills that help improve the livelihood of their families and their community. The results of this research will influence the mind-set of the Malian policy makers to increase investment in literacy programs for rural girls and women. Illiteracy is a big challenge that adult educators must face in order to facilitate women's empowerment in the Third World, and especially in post-colonial Africa. Literacy training can play a significant role in the women's movement for social change, for it is an important tool for

conscientizing the disadvantaged in support of organizing them to take action for their development.

The results will inform adult educators about the importance of designing literacy programs in ways that help the participants acquire skills leading to decision-making strategies and community development. This study expands the researcher's understanding of the situation of rural women and girls in Mali in terms of literacy education for survival. The result will contribute to relevance, effectiveness, and impact of empowering literacy programs for rural women and girls. Such literacy skills will allow them to acquire knowledge that will help them understand their world, challenge the patriarchal norms in Mali, and create strategies for change for "literacy is seen as one of the mechanisms through which adults come to understand the world and through the process of becoming literate, become empowered to act rather than being acted upon" (Freire, 1970). Freire articulates that literacy training plays a crucial role in the women's movement for social change especially in developing countries. It is a primary tool for conscientizing the poor for organizing themselves to take action necessary for their emancipation and development. This literacy termed by Freire (1970) as emancipatory literacy can allow the rural women to develop strategies that will help them to be more self-confident and self-reliant and teach them how to mobilize their resources.

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Teaching with Soul: Toward a Spiritually Responsive Transformative Pedagogy

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Abstract: The transformative dimensions of adult learning emphasize processes of fundamental change occurring both within the learners themselves and with their relationships with the broader world. In this paper, we conceptualize this process as inherently spiritual and discuss its implications for a spiritually-informed transformative education grounded in the work of soul.

Studies on transformative learning are well documented (Mezirow & Taylor, 2009). Many of these authors view transformation as a rational process of critically reflecting on habits of mind (Mezirow, 1991) in order to uncover distortions and replace them with more inclusive perspectives, a view that Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) refer to as a “psychocritical approach” (p. 132). However, an increasing number of scholars and practitioners are paying attention to the extra-rational dimensions of transformative learning. Relying on a depth psychology perspective that emphasizes the role of the unconscious, emotions, and the imagination (Boyd, 1991; Dirkx, 2001), this perspective stresses a kind of alchemical transformation that seems to extend beyond our reasoning, rationality, thinking, or even critical reflection. In either case, at the core of this process of learning is the self of the learner, his or her relationship with the broader world, and notions of developmental change. This process of learning and change is experienced at both a deeply personal and a collective level. Not only is the learner changed but his or her relationship with the world, and aspects of his or her worldview are profoundly transformed.

While scholars have emphasized the role of critical reflection, in this paper we want to focus on transformative learning as imaginative engagement that can be characterized as a seeing through and coming to know by way of symbol, metaphor, or image. We understand this dimension of transformative learning as inherently spiritual and, following Jung, we refer to this view as a “psycho-spiritual” perspective. This paper explores the transcendent and the deeply personal as two interrelated dimensions of the spiritual in transformative learning. For purposes of discussion, we refer to these two manifestations as spirit and soul.

What Is Spirituality?

Spirituality is difficult to describe or define since spiritual experiences often cannot be expressed in words, yet one knows intuitively when one has had a spiritual experience. In recent years, however, scholars have been writing about spirituality in higher and adult education. While they offer somewhat different understandings, their work reflects common elements. Looking across cultures and different faith traditions, King (2008) points out that the word spirituality refers to different kinds of experiences and practices but “They all share characteristics that are deemed to be life enhancing, holistic, and greatly supportive of human well-being in the widest sense” (p. 3). Palmer (1993) describes a spiritual experience of the world as “an organic body of personal relations and responses, a living and evolving community of creativity and compassion” (p. 14). Jung (in Corbett, 2007) characterized the spiritual as reflecting the “symbolic life” (p. x), suggesting that “We know that there is more to life than we

see on the surface, because we feel a connection to a deeper love, a deeper power, and sense a call to a Larger life” (Corbett, 2007, p 2). Miller (2002) writes, “When we view life from a spiritual perspective, we see ourselves connected to something larger than ourselves (p. 95).” Teasdale (1999, in Chickering, Dalton, & Stamm, 2006) describes being spiritual as “a personal commitment to a process of inner development that engages us in our totality” (p. 7). King (2008) reminds us that “The ‘spiritual’ is often mentioned when we want to name a reality greater than ourselves, a power or presence that goes beyond the individual person” (p. 4). This something larger than ourselves has a mysterious quality that can give rise to a sense of awe and wonder. Others characterize the spiritual as an experience of mystery, of the unknown, the ineffable. King (2008) further argues that the spiritual has a deep relationship with the imagination and represents a lived experience that is connected to our bodies, to nature, and to relationships. Tisdell (2007) refers to spiritual experiences as “shimmering moments” that occur in the everydayness of teaching practice, often experienced as *Aha*’s when the content, and lifeworld of the learner suddenly come together in very real and meaningful ways. These moments have strong affective or feeling components, a point Corbett (2007) emphasizes regarding an experience of the numinous or the sacred.

We suspect that the reason many adult educators and practitioners do not explicitly recognize or address the spiritual dimensions of their teaching is the confusion between spirituality and religion. For some these concepts are inextricably related; however, we are not talking about religion in any formal sense. Like King (2008) our interest in spirituality cuts across a wide variety of religious traditions, cultures, and practices.

In this paper, we use the term “spirituality” to mean the interconnectedness within the self, between self and other and with the unknown. Spiritual experience, then, refers to a lived experience that supports the development of the human person in a broad sense, engages the person in the symbolic experience of a reality that is greater than oneself, reflects a sense of the sacred, mystery or awe, and is deeply connected with our emotions and our bodies. While often beyond words, the spiritual refers to experiences that are deeply and profoundly meaningful.

The Relationship of Spirituality and Transformative Learning

There is a long-standing tradition with respect to the intersection of education and spirituality and this relationship has manifest itself in a recent surge of research projects, books, and articles on this subject (Chickering, Dalton, & Stamm, 2006; English, Fenwick, & Parsons, 2003; Palmer, 1993; Tisdell, 2003). The transformative potential of spiritual experience has also long been recognized (King, 2008) and is captured by numerous ancient stories and images within a variety of faith traditions. Recently, scholars have also turned their attention to the spiritual aspects of transformative learning (Campbell, 2010; Dei, 2002; Kazanjiian & Laurence, 2002).

We argue that spiritual issues are inherent in the kind of deep learning that we understand transformative learning to be. Transformative learning evokes the kinds of questions, issues, and concerns that mirror the characteristics described earlier with regard to the meaning of a spiritual experience. As suggested above, transformative learning engages the self of the learner in deep and intimate ways both with one’s self and with the outer world. While both psycho-critical and psycho-spiritual perspectives to transformative learning suggest a process that is deeply personal and intimate, the learner develops a greater sense of self and meaning through a lived experience

in which she or he realizes a connection with reality that is greater than one's personal life. This form of learning engages the adult in relationship with an "other," drawing one out of his or her previous frames of reference and encouraging integration with a deeper reality.

We can think of transformative learning as manifesting both immanent, or experiences of soul, and transcendent dimensions, or experiences of spirit (Hillman, 2000). Experiences of soul emphasize the concrete, deeply personal nature of transformative learning experiences (Dirkx, 2001). They are reflected in emotion-laden images that seem to spontaneously and autonomously manifest themselves within the learner's consciousness and are experienced in and through the body. Sometimes these images suggest an experience of dark or negative emotions, such as lack of confidence in one's self as a learner, fear of failure, doubt or shame, and anger with authority figures are readily evoked within settings of adult learning. In other situations, these images may reflect the learners' experience of joy and ecstasy in the creation of a poem, a beautiful interpretation of a piece of music, or being able to solve a very difficult mathematical problem. Whether negative or positive, the emotions arise spontaneously, beyond the learner's ego control.

Whether difficult and painful or joyful and ecstatic, powerful, emotion-laden learning experiences can, paradoxically, also foster awareness of a reality greater than the immediacy of these deeply, personal experiences. They seem to beckon the learner to a reality beyond herself or himself, to a connection with a more transcendent reality. The learner begins to see that dependency, fear, doubt, shame, anger, and mistrust of authority figures are aspects of timeless stories that transcend culture and historical periods. The deep joy and awe that arise within acts of creativity often remind us of the mystery of the creative process and the limited role of the personal self in this process. Such experiences are both characteristic of our deeply personal lives and the ageless stories of people in other places and times. These experiences bear witness to the presence of spirit within one's life (Hillman, 2000), a life-force that seems transcendent and transpersonal, a power greater and more mysterious than one's self.

These experiences are potentially transformative because they evoke and awaken within the learner aspects of the self previously unknown, unrecognized, or unaccepted within the learner's life. The learner no longer seeks to purge the self of the disrupting and distorting influences of emotions, images, and assumptions. Rather, the learner begins to accept these qualities as aspects of who they are and he or she seeks to know them better, to treat them as semi-autonomous aspects of the Self, with lives of their own, and of creating a way of living in unity or wholeness with these aspects of the Self. Learning to accept and embrace such realizations of one's life, whether the dark emotions of difficult experiences or the joy and ecstasy of love and creative experience, is what we refer to as "soul work" (Dirkx, 2001). A powerful dimension of this experience is the growing realization that such emotion-laden images connect us more deeply with both who we are as individual persons and with the timeless stories of humanity.

Fostering a Spiritually-Grounded Transformative Education

While there is limited literature that explicitly names the connections between spirituality and transformative learning, it exists nonetheless using different language to describe this phenomenon. Some of these terms include holistic education, presence, inspiration and awe. A spiritually-grounded transformative education reflects a holistic, integral perspective to learning.

It seeks authentic interaction and presence, promotes an active, imaginative engagement of the self with the “other,” and embraces both the messy, concrete and immediate nature of everyday life, as well as spirited experiences of the transcendent.

Miller (2005) identifies three interlocking principles of holistic education including connectedness, inclusion and balance. Connectedness involves integration of rational and intuitive knowledge, mind and body and also connecting with the spirit or soul in education. Inclusion refers to designing a curriculum for a diverse group of students. Balance is described as harnessing all of the complementary energies of the universe in our teaching.

Kornelsen (2006) uses the term *presence* to refer to the process of being authentically human with one’s students. This may mean a willingness to let go of a planned agenda in order to connect with students in the moment. According to Kornelsen (2006, p. 77) “the teacher and the group may experience heightened feelings of consciousness and synergy and a sense of physical and emotional well -being.” In a similar vein, Senge et al (2004, pp. 13-14) describe presence or being present as “deep listening” and letting go of old ways of seeing and the need to be in control. Rather than letting go, they speak about “letting come... When this happens, the field shifts and the forces shaping a situation can move from re-creating the past to manifesting or realizing an emerging future”. It seems to us that this letting come attitude would serve to create the conditions where transformative learning is likely to occur.

Hart (2000) uses the term *inspiration* to describe an extrarational way of knowing that allows access to deeper levels of meaning – what we understand as spiritual. This way of knowing is simultaneously transcendent or ascendant such as an intense connection with the other and descendent or a deep connection within the self. This level of connection is often spontaneous and unanticipated. For inspiration to occur one needs to be open and receptive to the experience or to adapt a state of not knowing. For Hart, this means moving beyond our waking consciousness by tapping into knowledge that was always there but veiled or hidden.

Similarly, Ortega y Gasset (1969, p. 50) teaches about paying attention to our taken for granted knowledge. “When we discover them [evident truths] for the first time, it seems to us that we have always known them, but had not noticed them;. . . Therefore it is true that truth is discovered; perhaps truth is no more than discovery, the lifting of a veil or a cover from what was already there.” In transformative learning, we connect deeply with both our personal stories and the ageless stories of humankind. As educators concerned with providing meaningful inspiration filled opportunities for our learners, we first need to create a spirit of openness and receptivity so that knowledge might surface into our conscious awareness.

Mathew Fox (2006, p. 51) talks about teaching with awe. “Awe opens the door in our souls, in our hearts and minds. Awe is bigger than we are – like the sacred is bigger than we are- and so it pulls us out of ourselves, it touches on transcendence.” The subtitle of Fox’s book is *Reinventing the Human*. To teach then is not only about facilitating skill development but also about creating more passionate and compassionate human beings.

Implications for Adult and Continuing Education

In this section we offer some concrete suggestions for fostering the spiritual within transformative education. While transformative learning may happen in any learning situation, and spirituality is a part of our everydayness in teaching, making it explicit is not a given. Giving voice to this dimension requires attention to the emotional dynamics that characterize teaching

and learning and engaging these emotional issues in imaginative ways. We offer the following suggestions to help educators intentionally create contexts that honor and give voice to soul.

Adults often enter the learning environment carrying many of the day's issues and concerns with them. To help them actively and imaginatively engage the subject it sometimes helps to begin with a process called "centering". Centering is an opportunity to transition between work and other activities to bring one's full presence into the learning environment and to effectively listen to one's emotional response to the subject and to the context. Examples of ways to center include reflecting on a poem, musical composition or piece of artwork, bringing an artifact to class that is symbolic of oneself, creating a metaphor to describe one's state of mind, or simply using a brief moment of silence before beginning the session's work.

Journaling, storytelling or visualization can help learners develop an imaginative approach to reflection. If educators avoid the tendency to use reflection in overly analytic ways, these activities can help learners connect with and give voice to the emotional dimensions of experiences that inform their learning. Creative or artistic projects assist learners to move from the cognitive domain to a more aesthetic and symbolic mode where spiritual and transformative learning is more likely to occur. Embodying a learning process through individual or collective action moves the learning from the theoretical to the practical and opens us up to the possibility of change.

In the doctoral program at National-Louis University students are asked to "trust the process". They are encouraged to learn tolerate ambiguity and rest in the unknown, having faith that the answer will arrive. As Hart (2000) suggests, "Trust builds a bridge between the known and unknown and then allows us to temporarily cross into this other world where inspiration exists... This world may not be revealed or reached without our faith and trust." (p. 47)

Perhaps one of the most important approaches to fostering spiritually-grounded transformative learning is to recognize and become aware of our own emotional and spiritual dimensions. As Palmer (1998, p. 1) so eloquently expresses, "we teach who we are". Getting in touch with and honoring these dimensions in ourselves, helps us to be more open to paying attention to and making space for these domains of learning within our students.

Concluding Thoughts

One might reasonably question what is gained by viewing the process of transformative learning from a spiritual perspective. We suggest that a spiritual point of view underscores both the importance and the complexity of the problem of meaning in transformative learning. Whether one is working with the psycho-critical perspective of Mezirow or the psycho-spiritual approach of Boyd and his colleagues, central to the deep change implied by transformative learning is a re-framing of one's understanding of the self and its relation to the world. In transformative learning, we "re-story" our lives in ways that allow us to be more authentically present to ourselves and in our relationships with others and the broader world. In so doing, we come to differentiate and discern the qualities that make up the selves that we are and how timeless stories of humanity are lived and expressed through the qualities that make up who we are as individuals.

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The GED Experiment and Policy Related Research: A Model to Inform Evidence Based Practice in Adult Literacy Education

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Abstract: This paper reviews the findings from existing GED statistics and policy-related research reports that have utilized longitudinal data-bases to track GED test takers and the effects of the GED; and it uses the GED data-based system as a model to envision a national adult literacy data-based system.

Introduction

In a relatively short period of time, the General Education Diploma (GED) has been transformed from an obscure military-related credential to the primary second chance credential for high school non-completers. The first tests were administered in 1943 to returning World War II (WWII) veterans to certify their skills for postsecondary education. It worked! A total of 39,000 individuals were tested in 1947 (Tyler, 2004). Also in 1947, veterans represented a tremendous boost to the enrollments of postsecondary institutions; they constituted 49 percent of college enrollment in the U.S. Since 1943 more than 17.3 million individuals have passed the GED tests. For the first time, over one million individuals took the tests in one year in 2001, and they represented one fourth of the high school diplomas (plus GED) issued in 2001. It is now thereby considered a major component in the U.S. educational system (Tyler, 2004).

Although the GED has demonstrated its historical importance as a second chance credential within the U.S. educational system, it is essentially a giant experiment that affects the lives of millions of adult learners and their families. However, unlike much of adult education, the GED Testing Service maintains a carefully organized and researchable data-base that utilizes the Social Security numbers of participants, and thereby provides the means to link these outcome data with other government data-bases. These collective data-bases provide a highly reliable means for researchers and policy makers to systematically assess the effectiveness of the GED credential via the monitoring and tracking of GED test takers as they pursue the GED, enter employment or the military, obtain job training, and (or) pursue postsecondary opportunities. These data have been used by researchers to address a number of questions regarding the effectiveness of the GED in assisting test takers to take advantage of educational and employment opportunities. However, the information available from the research on the GED has been under-utilized by adult education practitioners, and we have failed to view this data-based system as a model to inform evidence-based practices in adult literacy education.

The purpose of this paper is to: a) review the literature and findings from existing GED statistics and policy-related research reports that have utilized longitudinal data-bases to track GED test takers and the effects of the GED; and b) use the GED data-based system as a model to envision a national adult literacy data-based system that could foster effective research to inform evidence-based adult literacy practice. The following questions will be addressed: *How have longitudinal and data-based research efforts informed stakeholders regarding the effectiveness of the GED credential? How can the research efforts that generate findings regarding the effectiveness of the GED be used as a model to guide the needs for research to inform policy and evidence-based practice in adult literacy education?* Several topics will be discussed in the

paper: source of future GED students; research results regarding the effectiveness of the GED; and a framework for a national evidence based system to track the inputs and the effectiveness and efficiency of adult literacy education programs and services.

Source of Future GED Students

A major source (i.e., inputs) for the GED are the students who fail to complete HS. Tyler and Lofstrom (2009) argue that the national high school dropout rate has remained somewhat stable (i.e., between 22 and 25 percent) over the recent decades. Due to the variability of the high school dropout statistic, Tyler and Lofstrom (2009) argue that the high school graduation rate is a more informative statistic. Drawing on a study by Heckman and LaFountaine, they conclude that the overall current graduation rates are in the 75 to 78 percent range. It is highest among whites (84%) and lower among Hispanics (72%) and African Americans (65%). The numbers of HS students leaving early is problematic because of the increased literacy demands in our Information Age society, and the fact that they add to an existing low-literate adult population.

Demographics of U.S. Non-Completers

In 2005, 39 million (18%) of U.S. adults aged 16 and older lacked a H.S. diploma. About 3.3 million youths (ages 15-24) were school non-completers in October 2007; which represented 8.7 percent of the 37 million non-institutionalized, civilian youths in the U.S. at that time (Cataldi, et al., 2009). Those without a high school diploma often seek a rite of passage into employment, postsecondary institutions, or training programs via adult literacy programs.

Adult Literacy a Rite of Passage

As a rite of passage, only a small fraction of those eligible participate in adult literacy programs each year. For example, in a presentation to Congress, Keenan (2009), indicated only about 2.3 million adults (5.9% of non-completers) enroll in adult education programs: 45% enroll in English literacy programs; 41% in ABE (i.e., for reading and math below the 8th grade level); and only 14% in Adult Secondary Education (9th – 12th). When viewed by ethnic group: 44% of participants were Hispanics, 26% were White, 20% were African American, and 8% were Asian. Regarding the ages of participants, one third (i.e., 850,000) were between 16 – 24 years old.

Rite of Passage (Delayed?)

The adult literacy path to GED completion is paved with obstacles, particularly for students of color. Many learners who start, never complete the journey. The dropout rate among adult literacy students is unacceptably high. Although they tend to overcome a number of institutional, situational, and dispositional barriers to attend the classes; up to 74% dropout, many in the first 3 weeks (Quigley, 1997). Relying on students' self-reported perspectives, the reasons for leaving the programs vary; however, among other factors, students have cited transportation, family issues, financial constraints, time demands, violence/safety issues, and others (Quigley, 1997). However, these perspectives cannot be verified via other data. There is no national or state level longitudinal data base on adult literacy students that links their participation from HS through adult literacy programs and among programs. Therefore, it is not possible to determine the longer term patterns of students' participation behavior. Nor can our existing data tell us the extent to which the behaviors of students represent the same behaviors they exhibited in high

school or if they have adapted new patterns of behavior toward education. In addition, our data management systems cannot determine the extent to which students “stop-out” of adult literacy programs, how often they attempt to complete the same (or similar) programs, or if they completely give up on their efforts to attain an education. Nor can these systems provide information on the extent to which adult literacy programs which often differ in philosophical orientation (e.g., individualized classes vs. group or class-based instruction, employment-oriented vs. social change, and others) may be most successful (or least successful) with different types of students.

Research Results Regarding the Effectiveness of the GED

In contrast, to adult literacy data systems, the data-based system maintained by the GED Testing Service (GEDTS) has been increasingly linked to longitudinal data bases, thus allowing researchers to address some of the most important research, policy, and practice questions regarding the long-term benefits and liabilities of the GED. In an extensive review of the GED research literature, Tyler (2004) identified the following longitudinal data sets that have been linked to GEDTS data by researchers. 1) A data set constructed by the Social Security Administration in concert with the GEDTS and several state departments of education (Tyler et al., 2000). 2) The sophomore cohort of the High School and Beyond (HS&B) Survey (used by Murnane, Willett, and Tyler, 2000), included two cohorts from a nationally representative sample of high schools: the 1980 senior class, and the 1980 sophomore class. Both cohorts were surveyed every two years through 1986, and the 1980 sophomore class was also surveyed again in 1992. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2009a). 3) The National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NCSY97) (employed by Murnane, Willett, & Boudett, 1999), consists of a nationally representative sample of approximately 9,000 youths who were 12 to 16 years old as of December 31, 1996. Youths continue to be interviewed on an annual basis (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). 4) The National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NEL88) (used by Berkold, Geis, & Kaufman, 1999) was initiated in 1988 with a cohort of eighth graders. These students were then surveyed again via four follow-ups in 1990, 1992, 1994, and 2000 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2009b). 5) The Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) is a multistage-stratified sample of the U.S. civilian non-institutionalized population. It is a continuous series of national panels, since 1994, with sample sizes ranging from approximately 14,000 to 36,700 interviewed households (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). It has been used to project a longer horizon regarding the postsecondary and training experiences of GED holders.

Demographics of Current U.S. GED Test Takers

Data from the GEDTS indicates in 2008, the average age of U.S. GED candidates was twenty-five years old. The average number of years out of school before testing was about eight years. The average age of those who passed the tests was 24 years. A total of 79 percent of the candidates were taking it for the first time, and 76 percent of them passed. Repeat candidates represented 21% of test takers. Of these, 50% of them passed the tests. Whites (52%) were much more likely than other race/ethnic groups to take advantage of the GED tests. Of the remaining test takers, only 23.75 were African Americans, 19.25 were Hispanics, 2.5% were American Indians, and 1.5% were Asians (GED Testing Program Statistical Report, 2008). Also, only about one out of one hundred non-completers pass the tests each year. For example, in 2008,

only about 1.9 percent of the high school non-completers took the tests; 1.6 percent completed all five tests, and 1.2 percent passed the tests.

Realizing the Dream

The data based longitudinal studies have provided significant insight into the nature of the GED and the benefits that would most likely accrue to those who complete the credential.

What are the Economic Payoffs to a GED?

A perpetual question regarding the economic benefits of the GED is whether or not GED recipients will earn higher wages than school non-completers who did not obtain the credential. Tyler et al. (2000) found that GED recipients earn ten to nineteen percent higher earnings than other similar school non-completers. However, these benefits accrue only to dropouts who leave school with low skills. Their data indicated the GED is an economically valuable credential for non-completers, but only for those who leave school with weak cognitive skills. Using data from the sophomore cohort of the HS&B survey, cognitive skills were measured using scores from a math achievement test that all the students took at that time. Low-skilled dropouts were those at the bottom quartile of the 10th grade score distribution. They concluded there is apparently no payoff for non-completers who leave high school with higher skills.

Tyler (2004) summarized the findings of nine studies which employed longitudinal designs and data sets, e.g., GEDTS and the Social Security Administration, High School and Beyond Survey, the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, etc.) since 1997 to examine the economic returns to a GED. He concluded, recipients of the GED had a five percent greater chance than other non-completers of getting a full-time job, but HS graduates had a greater chance for employment (Boesel, 1998). Recipients of the GED had eight-to-ten percent higher earnings than foreign-schooled individuals who hold a regular HS diploma from their country of origin (Tyler, 2004). Another finding from the studies is that the economic payoffs for GED recipients take time to accrue. That is, after one year, the wages of low-skilled, male GED holders tend to increase about 1.5% over those of low-skilled uncredentialed non-completers. After five years, the wage difference is 6%, and statistically significant (Tyler, 2004).

Researchers have also tracked GED recipients into the military and compared their results with others. Boesel (1998) analyzed their performance in the military. In 1983, three year attrition rates were: 22% for HS graduates; 45% for GED recipients; and 52% for HS non-completers. As a consequence, the U.S. military implemented a three-tier educational classification system for recruits: 1st tier HS diploma holders; 2nd tier GED and other alternative degrees; and 3rd tier HS non-completers. From 35,000 to 40,000 GED recipients still enter one of the services each year.

One of the major reasons non-completers indicate they pursue a GED is to attend postsecondary education. This is a worthy goal. Using NLSY data, researchers have determined that each year of college results in a 10.8% hourly wage differential between GED holders and other school non-completers (Murnane, et al, 1999). In this same study, only 12% of GED holders completed at least one year of college, and 3% acquired at least an associate's degree (Murnane, et al, 1999). Using data from the SIPP, Bauman and Ryan (2001) found that about thirty percent of GED recipients had some postsecondary education, but no degree, and 8% had a bachelor's degree. In a different study, Boesel (1998) found that although their college grades were similar to those of H.S. graduates, GED recipients were statistically, less likely to complete

their college programs than H.S. graduates. Only 50% complete associate degrees; and 2% complete bachelor's degrees (Boesel, 1998).

Researchers have also investigated the level of training success among GED recipients. For those who received a year of on-the-job training, there was a 44% hourly wage differential. Only 18% of male GED holders obtained any on-the-job training, and the median time was only 63 hours (Murnane, et al, 1999). The off-the-job training provided by government or school-based sources to male GED holders did not yield measurable effects on their wages. The median amount of training was 569 hours. However, female off-the-job training is associated with earning gains of \$1,239 in each subsequent year, and an increase in the hours worked. The median training time was 527 hours (Boudett, 2000).

Ending the Nightmare: Our Role in Facilitating the Dream

A Framework for a National Evidence Based System

Researchers of the GED have the luxury of measuring the outcomes of the GED test credential via a highly systematized data-based system that allows the tracking of individuals from taking the tests, to their efforts in the military, employment, postsecondary, and training settings. The GED data-based system provides a model for the development of national evidence based system that has the potential to produce systematic data-based research results which can significantly inform practice decisions and increase the effectiveness, and efficiency of our programs and services, and thereby enhance the learning experiences of students. However, measures of inputs and the effectiveness of processes involved in adult literacy programs are much more difficult and complex to assess. The National Reporting System is a good start for adult literacy, but more such systems are needed and they should be linked.

Evidence based support for policies and practices can significantly enhance the learning experiences of students and increase the effectiveness, and efficiency of our programs and services. However, such a system requires, large scale experimentally designed and mixed methods research studies. Also, a national system of regional research centers and think tanks are needed to develop a pool of veteran researchers and train future researchers. Lastly, the field should seek to support teams of researchers who are committed to the long-term investigation of important questions and consistently informing policy makers and practitioners.

Conclusion

Because GED test-takers must provide social security numbers on their applications, researchers are now able to utilize longitudinal data-bases to track GED test takers and the effectiveness of the GED. Although significant long-term employment and wage benefits accrue to GED holders; far too few of them attend and complete college, especially a 4-year degree. While similar questions exist regarding the long-term personal and social benefits of adult literacy programs; the existing data systems do not allow for the effective integration and linking to existing data systems to facilitate research into the long-term effectiveness of adult literacy programs.

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Urban Adult Literacy Education: Using Concept Mapping to Reach Young Students of Color

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Abstract: While the high school dropout rate has shown steady improvement during the last decade, it is still unacceptably high among students of color. They make up a large percentage of the 3.3 million youths who have not completed H.S.; however, they are the least likely to take, complete, and pass GED tests. Concept mapping could offer for young urban adult learners the opportunity to make meaningful, fully integrated, and supervised connections between their lived experiences and the knowledge explored in literacy classes. This paper explores the potential use of concept maps as an instructional intervention in adult literacy programs.

Introduction

Two major strategies to improve the literacy levels adults in the general population involve increasing the high school completion rates of school age youth; and enrolling school non-completers into adult literacy programs (which were initiated with the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964), and assisting them to take and pass the General Education Diploma (GED) tests (which began in the 1940s). However, over the past few decades these strategic initiatives have not produced the desired results.

While the high school dropout rate has shown steady improvement during the last decade, it is still unacceptably high among students of color. For example, in 2007, 21.4% of Latinos, 8.4% of African Americans, 6.1% of Asians and Pacific Islanders, and 5.3% of White students dropped out of high school (Catelli E.F. et al., 2009). In 2005, 39 million (18%) of U.S. adults aged 16 and older lacked a H.S. diploma. However, proportionately people of color were more likely to be among those without a H.S. diploma. Thirty-five percent of Latinos, 20% of Native Americans, and 18% of African Americans did not complete H.S. compared to 12% of Asians and Others respectively, and 10% of Whites (GED Statistical Report, 2008). For the majority of these adults, adult literacy classes and a General Education Diploma (GED) represent an avenue to develop and document their literacy attainment. However, only about 2.3 million adults (less than 6% of those eligible) enroll in adult literacy programs each year (Keenan, 2009). Of those who participate, the majority are students of color. For example, Keenan (2009) indicated that 72% of adult literacy participants were students of color compared to 26% who were White. This low rate of participation is made more alarming when we consider that in a given year up to 74% dropout; many in the first 3 weeks (Quigley, 1997).

Using Cross's (1982) framework of barriers, Quigley (1997) identified several factors associated with each of the barriers to influence non-completion. For example, *situational barriers* included transportation, family issues, and others. *Institutional barriers* included red tape, poor geographic access, lack of handicapped access, inconvenient scheduling, irrelevant courses, and others. *Dispositional barriers* concerned attitudes in general and specific attitudes towards education, cultural and value differences between adult literacy students and their teachers (Quigley, 1997). Quigley identified dispositional barriers as demonstrating the most potential for significant intervention to stem the dropout rate. Given that teachers and students

are very likely to see the world differently, he concluded that practitioners and researchers need to pay more attention to the world as seen by students.

Additionally, like the secondary schools that preceded them, adult literacy programs tend to be least effective with young students of color (many found in urban areas). They make up a large percentage of the 3.3 million youths who have not completed H.S.; however, they are the least likely to take, complete, and pass GED tests. For example, in 2008, the majority of GED candidates were White (52%), followed by African American (23.7%), Hispanic (19.2%), American Indian (2.5%) and Asian (1.8%) (GED Statistical Report, 2008). Similarly, the majority of those who passed the tests were Whites (60.2%), followed by African Americans (18.3%), Hispanics (17%), American Indians (2.1%), and Asians (1.8%). Lastly, only about 1.5% of school non-completers take and pass the GED tests each year (GED Statistical Report, 2008), and only 2 percent of those who receive a GED actually complete a four-year college degree (Tyler, 2004). Apparently, students of color are not well prepared to take and pass the GED tests, and those who do succeed too often fail to successfully pursue and complete postsecondary education.

As evidenced by some controlled experiments with low-achieving inner-city school children (Guastello, Beasley, & Sinatra, 2000) many young students of color are fully capable of mastering the content of adult literacy classes and perhaps successfully preparing for postsecondary education opportunities. However, the literacy problems experienced by these learners are typically exaggerated for several reasons: a) their K-12 and adult literacy programs still rely heavily on rote learning as a primary means to assist them to obtain knowledge, and their teachers do not have the means to identify and correct how these learners develop their knowledge base; b) the programs tend to focus on the attainment of abstract decontextualized knowledge, students thereby tend to perceive that their informal learning experienced in the urban community outside of the educational system is devalued within the classroom; and c) most academically challenged adult learners never really learned “how to learn.” In an Information Age, where people are inundated daily with information from a broad range of old and new media sources, e.g., television, radio, computers, Internet, handheld devices, and others, students who have learned to learn via rote memory are poorly prepared to mentally process the mass of information at their disposal. Consequently, our current approaches to addressing the adult literacy instructional needs of young students of color has not kept pace with literacy skill demands that have sprang from the increased pace of technological innovation. Any improvements in adult literacy instruction must address the fundamental way we think about the teaching and learning process and the way students make sense of their learning experiences.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the potential use of concept maps as an instructional intervention in adult literacy programs. Based upon the Assimilation Theory of Learning (Ausubel, Novak, & Hanesian, 1978), concept maps are schematic devices for representing a set of concepts in a meaningful framework of propositions (Novak & Gowin, 1984). Supporters of concept maps argue that as humans, we think and learn with concepts. Therefore, learning meaningfully means relating new knowledge to what we already know. Through the use of concept maps, adult literacy instructors can assist learners to connect their existing knowledge to new content, i.e., when they are aware of how learners store these concepts hierarchically and how they differentiate these concepts as their learning grows.

Concept mapping could offer for young urban adult learners the opportunity to make meaningful, fully integrated, and supervised connections between their lived experiences and the

knowledge explored in literacy classes. Therefore, the paper will address the following question: *How can adult literacy programs and GED instruction in these programs utilize concept maps to more effectively address the instructional and learning needs of young adult students of color?* Several topics will be discussed: a conceptual framework for concept maps in adult literacy programs; and an exploration of approaches that adult literacy practitioners should consider to successfully integrate the use of concept maps into their programs.

Conceptual Framework for Concept Maps in Adult Literacy Programs

As evidenced by the dropout rates experienced by adult literacy programs, students are unlikely to be inspired and motivated by the standard curriculums of most programs. Taught by predominantly part-time teachers utilizing individualized instruction and some classes; such curriculums often rely on abstract decontextualized knowledge in a generalized form that effectively disconnects the academic content of classes from the lived experiences and meaning perspectives of students. These curricula and teaching approaches can thereby contribute to an ineffective pattern of rote learning that failed many adult literacy students in their earlier educational attempts. The effective use of concept maps in adult literacy classes has the potential to assist students to more meaningfully connect their academic learning experiences with their existing knowledge, and to learn “how to learn.” This skill could serve them invaluable in an Information Age where information is abundant, but it must be accessed and effectively processed mentally in order to be added to the new knowledge of the recipient.

Concept Maps: Description and Theoretical Base

Arguing that both concepts and propositions composed of concepts are the central elements in the structure of knowledge and the construction of meaning, Novak and Gowin (1997) based their work on Ausubel, Novak, and Hanesian’s (1986) Assimilation Theory of Learning. This theory identifies concepts and propositional learning as the foundation upon which individuals construct their own idiosyncratic meanings. This theory contrasts rote learning (i.e., the acquisition of new knowledge via verbatim memorization and arbitrarily incorporated into the knowledge structure without interacting with previous knowledge) with meaningful learning in which learners must choose to relate new knowledge to relevant concepts and propositions they already know.

Because they attempt to represent meaningful relationships between concepts in the form of propositions, concept maps are different from other graphically-based instructional approaches (e.g., flow charts, cycle diagrams, and predictability trees) that adult literacy educators may have used in an attempt to assist students to graphically represent their learning efforts. Novak and Gowin (1997) argue that an effective concept map has the following elements:

- ***Ten to twenty-five key concepts***--concepts are the mental images we have for words, particularly objects (e.g., job, employment, family, community, computer, Internet) and events (e.g., employment search, family reunion, block party, word processing, Internet search) that are perceived regularities relevant to a particular topic. However, everyone will not have the same mental image of the same concepts. Pictures or graphical representations are used to depict the learner’s understanding of the meaning of a set of concepts (Daley, Canas, and Stark-Schweitzer, 2007).

- **Linking words**—these words (e.g., are, where, the, is, then, with, and others) are used together with concepts to construct propositions that are stored in an individual's cognitive structure via rote or meaningful learning. Integrative reconciliation is employed to synthesize and demonstrate understanding via linkages and connections across bodies of knowledge (Daley, Canas, & Stark-Schweitzer, 2007).
- **Subsuming** — this represents a hierarchy of concepts in which lower-order concepts are subsumed under higher-order concepts (or the reverse), i.e., either general (most important) to specific (least important), or specific to general (Novak & Gowin, 1997). The hierarchy of concepts is context dependent, i.e., it is based on the learner's perceived regularities.
- **Progressive differentiation** — this is a process in which learners organize concepts into more and more complex understandings, i.e., breaking them into component parts.

An important attribute of concept maps is the potential to share meanings, i.e., visual representations of conceptual meanings offer learners and instructors an opportunity to share, discuss, and revise their understanding of concepts, propositions, and the relationships between new and existing knowledge. Also, conceptual learning is fostered via critical thinking, synthesis, and shared meaning (Daley, Canas, & Stark-Schweitzer, 2007).

Research Findings: Benefits of Using Concept Maps

For over 25 years, concept maps have successfully impacted students' learning in various levels of education, e.g., elementary and secondary education, higher education, medical education, and others (Novak, 1990). Recently, they have been increasingly employed in adult education and related fields, e.g., Human Resource Development (HRD). For example, in an integrative literature review of over 300 research papers presented at three different concept mapping conferences, Daley, Conceicao, Mina, Altman, Baldor, and Brown (n.d.) identified six themes that captured how concept mapping can facilitate theory development and research within HRD. One of these themes included "teaching and learning." To promote student learning, Daley, et al. (n.d.) found that concept maps have been employed for a variety of purposes, i.e., as advanced organizers, for educational group activities, to improve reading and comprehension, to teach math, as part of sharing teaching experiences, and as a self-reflection and self-regulation tool. As an instructional strategy, Daley, et al. (n.d.) found concept maps have been used as a tool to organize instruction and to gather student feedback on learning, and to assess students' understanding of science concepts and science language production. In terms of content areas, the range of papers focused on engineering, math, physics, medical education, photography, pharmacy, entrepreneurial behavior, and business planning. The learners ranged from kindergarten, elementary, middle and high school, undergraduate and graduate students, medical students and business learners.

Empirical research studies on the effects of concept maps on students' learning have generally found positive results when compared with other instructional techniques. Although no studies were identified of learning outcomes for adult literacy students, several controlled studies have been conducted with K-12 students. For example, in one study in an urban setting, treatment groups using concept mapping improved reading comprehension scores among low achieving urban seventh grade students by six standard deviations when compared to a traditional read and discuss instructional technique (Guastello, et al. 2000). While, it is clear that in its 25 year history, the concept maps developed by Novak and Gowin (1984) have been

increasingly embraced by scholars and practitioners from a wide variety of fields and disciplines; they are still under utilized in adult literacy programs and classes. It should be possible for literacy instructors to master the use of concept maps and to effectively integrate them into the teaching/learning process without a significant amount of disruption in their current routines.

Incorporating Concept Maps in Adult Literacy Classes

In the past, literacy teachers may have resisted the use of concept maps for several reasons. First, the original concept maps required students to handwrite the maps and the process was a bit clumsily and disorganized from the learners' perspective and they could thereby lead to learner frustration. However, concept maps are now digitized and accessible via Internet based programs, e.g., Cmap Tools (Daley, et al., 2007). This tool has been designed to support the development and elaboration of individual and group-based concept maps, and to link them to other web-based maps. Cmap Tools also provides a search mechanism, which allows users to right-click on a concept and search for information on the Web that is related to that concept and that specific map (Daley, et al., 2007). The retrieved information can lead to the development of a knowledge model. That is, the learner can use the information to build a more elaborated map or a new map. Maps constructed from the readings could complement (or be linked to) the original map. The collection of concept maps and linked resources on a particular topic represents a students' knowledge model (Daley, et al., 2007).

Second, teachers may not possess the knowledge and confidence to use the maps themselves. This issue can be addressed via professional development workshops. This process should follow several steps (Novak & Gowin, 1984; and Daley, Canas, & Stark-Schweitzer, 2007). 1) Define a focus question, i.e., a question that clearly specifies the problem/issue that the concept map should resolve. 2) Identify and list the key fifteen to twenty-five concepts that apply to the knowledge domain of the map. 3) Rank order these concepts, i.e., identify the most general concepts first and place them at the top of the map. 4) Identify the more specific concepts that relate in some way to the general concepts. 5) Tie the general and specific concepts together with linking words in some fashion that makes sense or has meaning to you. 6) After the preliminary map is constructed, look for cross-linkages between the general and more specific concepts. 7) Discuss, share, think about and revise your map.

Third, teachers may have been concerned about the time commitments students would require to master to the concept mapping process. Many students who enroll in adult literacy classes are seriously concerned about their time utilization in classes and the tangible results from their learning efforts. Concept maps provide tangible evidence of their learning progress. By comparing initial maps with subsequent maps on the same topics, students can clearly see the extent to which their knowledge of a particular topic has grown. They should thereby view their time invested in learning to use concept maps as time well spent.

Fourth, some teachers may think that concept maps are too complex a challenge for their students. Novak (1990) has reported that elementary-level students and students with special needs have been successful in their use of concept maps. Therefore, concept map making skills should be within the ability range of adult literacy students. Fifth, teachers may not know how to integrate the maps into their teaching practice. Concept maps could be first introduced to new students during the initial Intake Orientation. Teachers could use a pre-instruction workshop to teach students how to construct concept maps via Cmap tools. For young urban learners, this process can be made more engaging and culturally relevant by asking students to create a map of

one of their favorite hip-hop songs. During students' class activities, they can produce concept maps of the topics they are studying which can assist students in clarifying a topic and teachers can use the maps to provide feedback, and identify student misunderstandings. Teachers can also use the maps as assessment tools for understanding student thinking and reasoning processes, and comparing student maps to their own expert maps of the same topics.

Conclusions

Regardless of the philosophical orientations of teachers and administrators, adult literacy practitioners can successfully integrate concept mapping into their programs. Although they have been underutilized in adult literacy programs, they offer the potential to be a "difference maker" in the lives of many young urban adults who seek to improve their life chances via adult literacy classes and the GED.

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Student-Faculty Interaction: Using a Webcam as a Teaching and Learning Tool

Liliana Mina

Abstract: This action research project examined the nature of one-on-one interaction between the instructor and her seventeen students via Skype which allows live audio and video communication through a webcam. The goal of the project entailed identifying strategies that facilitate students' cognitive and professional development during their internships in community-based social service agencies, educational programs, and faith-based organizations. Results suggest course manageability, the nature and frequency of interaction, and trust can impede authentic conversations between the students and instructor. Implications for practice include ways instructors can facilitate teaching and learning for students interning or participating in work-related training programs.

Introduction

The onslaught of computer mediated communication systems has changed the nature of teaching and learning especially at the post-secondary education level. More colleges and universities are using the Internet to deliver online courses to remain innovative and competitive, offer alternative learning formats, and enhance student-faculty interaction (Allen & Seaman, 2005). Online education requires different skills. This type of learning requires the ability to engage, interpret meaning, plus negotiate relationships in an environment void of facial cues and body language. Experts agree that online courses have to involve learners differently than face-to-face instruction (Conrad & Donaldson, 2004). Several researchers note that online learning places greater demands on students than the traditional classroom format (Moore & Kearsley, 2003; Bates & Poole, 2003; Palloff & Pratt, 2003).

Rather than to teach the course online, I decided to use my computer and broadband Internet connection to video and audio conference with each student enrolled in Administrative Leadership 630 Field Work in Schools, Agencies and Institutions (AD LDSP 630) is a three credit internship course that is designed to give students the opportunity to apply their skills and knowledge of their academic major in a work-related environment. Since the internship placements varied between academic programs, majors, agencies, and locations, using Skype enabled me to regularly interact with the students to discuss their internship activities and document their academic progress. I sought to increase the students' sense of connectivity with the instructor and at the same time offer an innovative approach to teaching at a distance.

The impetus for the research project emerged from what occurred during the third scheduled set of Skype meetings. At that point, I noticed that the interaction with the students did not elicit meaningful discussions. Instead I was sensing that our synchronous interactions were strained and perfunctory. Consequently, I elected to use Action Research (AR) to document my own teaching practice in order to identify what strategies are most beneficial to the students' successful and enriching internship experience.

AR is often associated with teacher empowerment because it enables the teacher to collect data and solidify the connection between research and application (Johnson, 2005). Imbedded in the process is to develop an action plan or provide insight into the nature of the

experience. The tenets to an action research project are to: 1) conduct a literature review; 2), identify a research question or interest area; 3) plan a method to collect the data; 4), systematically collect data; 5) develop an action plan based on the obtained information; and 6) share results with others especially colleagues (Holly, Arhar & Kasten, 2005). One overarching question guided the investigation, collection of data, and analysis of my teaching and learning practice: How is live communication with my students via Skype influencing my teaching and learning practice?

Literature Review

For this action research project, I used seminal distance education literature to guide my investigation. Borje Holmberg's (1995) theory of distance education reaffirms the importance of student-faculty contact. For Holmberg, quality in distance teaching and learning must be meaningful to the student and centered on the student's interest. Involving the student in the learning process through personal relationships with peers and instructors increases the likelihood of personal involvement with the subject matter. Furthermore, through *guided didactic conversations* students are more likely to be motivated and thus the more effective the learning. According to Holmberg, the role of the teacher is to facilitate the process and to encourage critical thinking, not memorized (rote) and mechanized learning. The responsibility of the teacher is to act as compassionate motivator and to create for the student a sense of belonging. Holmberg contends that an engaging academic atmosphere and well-established sense of community encourage and motivate students to learn. The author refers to student-faculty interaction as a guided educational exchange of ideas comprised of active learning activities, structured reflection, and discussions.

Verduin and Clark (1991) also identify personalized communication between the student and instructor as paramount to effective distance education for adult learners. Verduin and Clark maintain that instructors should create an educational environment where exchange of ideas, discussions and differing opinions are shared without fear of repercussion. Furthermore, the authors encourage instructors to collect pre-assessment information such as academic background, employment history, educational goals and learning styles preferences and link the students' characteristics with learning activities that are compatible and consistent with the students' educational aspirations.

Context of the Study

The internship job descriptions varied by agency as well as by the intended learning outcomes identified by each student. Besides observing and participating in job-related activities under the supervision of an agency employee, the internship required the completion of 150 contact hours. Most students worked an average of 10 hours per week. They worked in such agencies as Planned Parenthood of Wisconsin, a Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender community resource and advocacy center, an Adult Basic Education program servicing the Southeast Asian and Latino community in the greater Milwaukee area, and an after-school reading program for K-6 grade students. Seventeen students enrolled in the class and they range in age from 22-55. There were nine females, eight males, and seven students of color. Skype meetings occurred on a bi-weekly basis.

The face-to-face portion of the course entailed: 1) attending an orientation workshop at the beginning of the semester on professional behavior in the workplace; 2) conducting an oral presentation to classmates at the end of the semester about their internship; 3) submitting a professional portfolio and a reflective summary of the internship activities; and 4) coordinating a site visit between the instructor, the student and site supervisor. A formal evaluation by the supervisor was completed during the site visit or mailed shortly after. Upon completion of the course the students were expected to:

- Describe the history, mission, philosophy, and management structure of the organization.
- Identify the connection between their academic major, courses taken, and theoretical underpinnings of the profession.
- Identify and discuss ways to expand and improve the internship experience for both the student and the sponsoring agency.

Methodology

The approach to this study was based on a phenomenological philosophy. The fundamental belief in phenomenological research is that reality is intrinsically subjective and relative to the circumstances (Moustakas, 1994). Understanding social interactions influenced the nature of the teaching and learning experience; thus, a qualitative study grounded in the in the phenomenological tradition was appropriate (Creswell, 1998; Moustakas, 1994). The first stage of the project entailed developing a mechanism to systematically collect the data. I developed a chart for each student which enabled me to easily insert notes during and after each discussion. The chart contained the student's background information such as major, academic standing, synopsis of their intended learning outcomes, and a description of their duties. I also noted the length of each conversation including making sure to schedule the next Skype meeting. The average time for each discussion averaged between 15 to 20 minutes.

The second stage involved judiciously reading each discussion entry and immediately writing (free style) on my perceptions of the interaction. The third stage entailed a detailed analysis of the discussions with an emphasis on how I responded to their thoughts, feelings, and views on how their internship experience was progressing. After each entry, in a diagrammatic form I color-coded words, comments, and the responses the students made. Lastly, I created a concept map that enabled me to identify major themes, my reactions, and subsequent behaviors.

Findings

Two issues emerged that were influencing my teaching and learning practice: My urgency to complete the activities logs and the assumption that the social nature of teaching and learning via videoconferencing was easy, comfortable, and fluid.

My first *aha* moment was accepting the fact that course manageability was overwhelming and as a result I was guilty of mechanized instruction. Managing the class proved to be a daunting experience. I realized that the way I was interacting with the intern was delineating their responses. My emphasis was on making sure that their activities log were up to date and completed accurately. The conversations centered on how they were completing their assigned tasks and following the agency's procedures. Issues revolving neatness, timeliness, attention to detail, following directions, and the quality of the work encompassed my conversations with the

interns. When I spoke with the students, I wanted to know if they were keeping busy, looking for things to do, and showing interests in improving their skills. I was also very concerned that they kept their supervisors abreast of their activities.

The second eye opening experience happened when I looked back at how the orientation session was conducted at the beginning of the semester. I recalled that we did not discuss the internship sites in-depth or the reasons why the students selected them. The focus of the orientation was on professional expectations and issues revolving confidentiality. As I re-read my journal, I concluded that visual and voice interaction in real time was not enough to create a sense of connectivity and trust with the students. Authentic conversations with my students take time and patience. I also had to acknowledge that for some students using Skype as a means to engage in the course content was disconcerting because they were used to a face-to-face classroom mode of instruction.

Changes

Changing my interaction to some extent occurred by chance. I had scheduled a meeting with one of the students which turned out to be during his dinner hour. As we started the conversation, he informed me that he was cutting up the vegetables and would need to move around as we spoke. Needless to say, I felt that he was not taking the class seriously since his attention was not on the course content. As the discussion progressed and I relaxed, he informed me that he was having a very difficult time navigating the culture of the organization. After that meeting, I e-mailed the next student and suggested having our Skype chat over coffee. The nature of the subsequent conversations changed dramatically with all of the students. For some students, scheduled conversations worked best because of their multiple commitments. Other times, I e-mailed the students informing them that I planned to be on Skype during specific dates and times and that we could meet as the calls came in. This technique proved to be very viable. In certain instances, the student just wanted to check-in and others wanted to reflect on the week's events including how they were able to participate in professional development workshops and conferences.

I did not abort my documentation process, but instead made concerted attempts to ask questions about their activities and how they related to previous course work and their lived experiences. Below are some of the questions that changed the nature of my discussions with the students.

- What tasks do you believe are out of bounds for you during your internship? How are you handling the situation?
- What do you do if you are asked to do work that is outside of the scope of the internship?
- How are you managing cultural differences in the workplace?
- What assumptions did you bring to the internship? How are they changing?
- In what ways, can I help you maximize your internship placement?
- How are you applying your classroom learning to a particular situation?

As the class progressed, students of color consistently commented that they appreciated and valued the one-on-one interactions with me. One student mentioned that she had never sat down and talked to any of her instructors during her undergraduate years. Another student

discussed the difficulty she was having with her site supervisor. She believed that since she was at least twenty years older, he felt uncomfortable giving her directions and feedback. In certain instances too, there were personality conflicts with the site supervisors that the students needed guidance or at least to have the opportunity to be heard.

Conclusion

Besides using action research as a lens to document my experiences, I was also guided by Brookfield's (1995) work on becoming a reflective teacher and Freire's (1985) critical pedagogy. One of the most critical reflection points entailed situating the project with emancipatory social theory which emphasizes that reality is socially constructed by political, economic, and social forces. Concomitantly, my interpretations and experiences acted as points of transformation in my roles as teacher, researcher, and practitioner. I highly recommend using Skype and other videoconferencing software to supervise students interning. The following techniques were particularly relevant to my interaction with each student.

- Involve the student in how the supervision process is to occur.
- Teaching can be more efficient and effective by reducing the number of activities (discussion topics) that are to be addressed for each meeting.
- Ensure that students are aware of the time commitment outside of the internship hours.
- Clarify the roles between the instructor and site supervisor.

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Conducting a Thorough Literature Review: Is This the Most Challenging Step in the Educational Research Process?

Firm Faith Nelson and Angela Titi Amayah

Abstract: The research reputation of an institution affects the success of virtually every aspect of the institution: its ability to recruit high quality students, faculty, and financial support (Koropchak, 2003). However, preparing researchers to conduct good research is challenging (Labaree, 2003). In the face of perennial concerns and pressures to reform the quality of education research, the United States education research journals have placed priority on methods of data collection and analyses and other similar issues. In turn, the emerging literature on preparing graduate students has emphasized methodological sophistication as the answer to advance education research. Yet to try to improve education research by focusing on methodological superiority is to put the cart before the horse (Boote & Beile, 2005). To this end, the researcher investigated the challenges that graduate students encounter, particularly in relation to the literature review. The researcher surveyed 17 classes that consisted of primarily graduate students within the College of Education at a Midwestern university. Conclusions resulting from the study indicated that although priority should be given to improving all aspects of the research process, the preparers of educational researchers need to place greater emphasis on the literature review followed by the methods sections of the research.

Introduction

The centrality of the literature review has been overlooked by some faculty in the education research community in preparing graduate students to conduct scholarly literature reviews. This shortcoming is rooted in faculty's misunderstanding of the role of the literature review in education research, which they perceive as an extensive summary of prior research (Boote & Beile, 2005). As such, manuscripts produced by both current graduate students and alumni in higher education have been criticized by journal editors and review boards for being poorly written and limited in review of the literature (Boote & Beile, 2005; Grant & Graue, 1999; & LeCompte, Kligner, Campbell, & Menk, 2003). Moreover, methodological training cannot occur in a vacuum, and increased training in research methods alone will not lead to better research. Instead, researchers must recognize the centrality of the literature review in graduate research preparation and broaden their understanding of what the literature review entails. Cutting-edge research contributes to what will be in the textbooks of the future (Koropchak, 2003). Involving graduate students in the research process provides an enriched experience that better prepares them for success at the next level, which in turn will enhance the quality of the workforce. Further, scholarly research, which demands a thorough literature review, is important because it provides intellectual stimulation that is vitally linked to the educational process.

This paper highlights the results of two of the major research questions investigated in this study: *What sections of the research process do graduate students find challenging?* and *To what extent are students' research interests related to their perceived research challenge?*

Literature Review Preparation

Knowing the literature in One's Field. Tuckman (1999) posited that every serious research project includes a review of relevant literature. Similarly, Boote and Beile (2005) reported that a researcher cannot perform significant research without first understanding the literature in the field and that not understanding prior research clearly puts a researcher at a disadvantage. Richardson (2003) asserted that anyone earning a doctorate ought to be a steward of the field of education with all the rights and responsibilities. Moreover, to become an effective researcher, teacher, administrator, or leader is to know the literature in one's field. And the best avenue for acquiring knowledge of the literature (beyond taking courses and comprehensive examinations) is the dissertation literature review. Galvan (2004) noted that students are often frustrated to learn that there are no preset minimum on either the number of research articles to review or on the length of a review chapter. He therefore informed students that the two main goals for a literature review are first to provide a comprehensive and up-to-date review of the topic, and second, to try to demonstrate a thorough command of the researchers' field of study.

Literature Review Preparation. A critical success factor in preparing graduate students to conduct adequate literature reviews is setting criteria for judging the finished product. Some researchers argue that early educational research textbooks placed more emphasis on search techniques, data collection methods, analysis, and interpretation rather than the literature review criteria and process. While both students and faculty could glean the importance of the literature review to high quality research in these earlier texts, authors offered limited guidance on what constituted a well-written literature review (Boote & Beile, 2005; Creswell, 2002; & Galvan, 2004). More recent authors have discussed and provided guidance on the centrality and process of the literature review. Among those authors are Creswell (2002) and Strike and Posner (1983) who suggested that the literature review criteria should include the following: (a) relate present study to current literature in the field, (b) provide a framework for comparing study results with other studies, (c) clarify and resolve problems in a field of study, (e) present a new perspective on the literature and (e) satisfy established criteria for good theory.

The process for conducting the literature review is also very important in meeting set criteria for an adequate review. Granello (2001) applied Bloom's taxonomy in providing a mechanism for enhancing the cognitive complexity of students' literature reviews. In effect, students can advance to each of the six levels of educational objectives, from least to most complex, in writing more comprehensive literature reviews. For example, a student is likely to summarize the main points of an article in his or her own words but not distinguish between the quality and relevance of sources at the second or comprehension level of the taxonomy. However, at the fourth or analysis level, the student is likely to break down the main parts of the article, identify themes and patterns, and draw original conclusions after analyzing the information presented (Granello, 2001). Professors can also use the taxonomy for guiding and grading students' literature review layout and academic format. At the lowest or knowledge-level, papers are usually formatted according to articles read rather than themes, and display a strong use of quotations. In contrast, at the highest or evaluation level of the taxonomy, papers are organized according themes and present a thorough discussion on the pros and cons for the topic supported by relevant literature. Conclusions drawn are based on objective evaluations of the research findings (Granello (2001).

In addition, Creswell (2002) provided a five-step process to assist students with conducting efficient and effective literature reviews that included "identifying terms to typically use in your literature search; locating literature; reading and checking the relevance of the literature; organizing the literature you have selected; and writing a literature review" (p.86).

According to Passmore (1980) when considering the criteria and standard used to evaluate dissertations, we need to keep in mind that most people with doctorates in education do not go on to pursue research careers. However, Boote and Beile (2005) contended that dissertations of any format should demonstrate that the researcher thoroughly understands the literature in their area of specialization. They related the concern which seem to originate from the practice, perhaps common among students, of writing literature reviews as part of dissertation proposals and then using the same literature in the dissertation with little revision. Thus the literature becomes a static artifact rather than a dynamic part of the entire dissertation. The authors recommended that, in contrast, candidates should continually revisit their understanding of the literature throughout the dissertation experience.

Research Design

This quantitative study utilized the descriptive type (classification) of research and was investigative in nature. The target population was a convenience sample of graduate students pursuing master's or doctoral degrees at a Midwestern university ($N=136$). These students had at least one research class and or were directly involved in educational research.

The researcher developed and utilized a self reported survey. The survey and the questions were guided by pertinent information from the literature review. The researcher pilot-tested the survey with a sample of graduate students in the College of Education ($N=14$). Based on the pilot-test and critiques from subject matter experts in the field, the researcher modified the survey and it was approved by the Human Subjects Committee at the aforementioned university.

Findings

The findings of this study were examined to ascertain its congruence with the literature in the higher education research field. Of the 136 respondents that participated in the study, 55 (40%) were male and 80 (59%) were female. One respondent did not indicate his or her gender.

Summary of Research Question One

What sections of the research process do graduate students find challenging?

Overall, in comparing the students' perception of the level of challenge between the *Introduction, Literature Review, Methods, Finding, Conclusions and Recommendation*; Table 1 indicate that the Literature Review was perceived as the most challenging section of the research process with a total of 65.4%. Research has shown that the Literature Review process begs more attention from the preparers of educational researchers. Hence, there needs to be a shift in the research preparation paradigm to correct the knowledge gap in order to make the literature review less daunting for the graduate researchers in education.

Level of Challenge	Introduction Background	Literature Review	Methods	Findings/ Results	Recommendation and Conclusion
A. Very Challenging	14.0	22.8	21.3	16.9	11.8
B. Challenging	29.4	42.6	40.4	39.0	30.9
C. Somewhat Challenging	38.2	20.6	22.8	20.6	29.4
D. Not at all Challenging	11.8	4.4	4.4	8.1	11.8
E. Do not know	5.9	9.6	10.3	15.4	15.4
Total for A&B	43.0	65.4	61.7	56.8	42.7
Total for A B & C	81.2	86.0	84.5	77.4	72.1

Table 1. Respondents' Overall Challenge Rating of the Sections of the Research Process

Research Question Two. To what extent are students' research interests related to their perceived research challenge?

A Pearson's correlation was conducted to show the relationship between (a) Research Interest Index ($M = 2.97$; $SD = .66$); and (b) Research Challenge Index ($M = 2.33$; $SD = .61$).

Indexes	Statistic	Research Interest	Challenge Index
Research Interest	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.34
	N	136.00	130.00
Challenge Index	Pearson Correlation	.09	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.34	.00
	N	130.00	130.00

Table 14. Correlation between Research Interest and Challenge

The results of the correlation in Table 15 indicated that there was no statistical significant relationship at the .01 and the .05 level of significance between the students' *Research Interest* and the *challenge* they associated with conducting their research $r(128) = .085, p = .336$.

Summary of Research Question Two. The non-statistically significant correlation between students' *Research Interest* and their *Research challenge* $r(128) = .085, p = .336$ indicated a positive linear relationship. The positive relationship means that the students

indicated that as their research challenge increased their research interest tend to increased and vice versa. The correlation determinant ($r^2 = .007$) is .007%. This means that only .007% of the variability in students' research interest can be explained by the research challenge index alone.

The result of the statistically insignificant relationship between students' perceived research interest and their perceived research challenge means that the students indicated that the level of challenge that they associated with their research had no significant relation to their interests in current or future research activities. Admittedly, this result may be surprising for some researchers, however, the review of literature supports the argument that when considering the criteria and standard used to evaluate research, we need to keep in mind that most researchers in education do not go on to pursue research careers and that most teach, administer or lead.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of this study reveal that the most challenging section or chapter (indicated by summing the percentage of respondents' ratings for 'most challenging') was the *Literature Review* followed by the *Research Method, Findings, Conclusion* and the *Introduction* Section. Conversely, the least challenging section (indicated by summing the frequencies of the respondents rating for 'not at all challenging') was tied between the *Introduction* and the *Conclusions* sections. These sections were followed by the *Method* and the *Literature Review* sections respectively. The instructors of educational researchers need to place greater emphasis on the literature review and the methods sections of the research since these two sections were rated by the respondents as the most challenging steps of the research process.

Professors can also use the Bloom's Taxonomy to provide a mechanism for enhancing the cognitive aspects of students' literature reviews. Graduate students should be expected to move through Bloom's stages of cognitive development, from comprehending to applying, to analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating the literature. Students should be encouraged to pursue various research courses earlier in their program and build their research products more aggressively as they progress through their program. In addition, graduate students need to be more aware of the research resources available to them and be proactive in accessing these resources as they progress through their studies. Also, more research seminars could be made available to graduate students. In relation to future research, this study should be revised and replicated to include other colleges and universities and several other variables could be correlated to test other significant relationships, to present more robust analyses which would reveal more distinguishing factors.

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Career and Technical Education (CTE) First Year Teacher and Experienced Mentor Life Satisfaction Study

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to measure perceived professional and personal life satisfaction of Indiana Workplace Specialist I (WS I) faculty and their mentors. Workplace Specialist I teachers are all first year Career and Technical Education (CTE) faculty who must complete the WS I training program to be eligible for the Workplace Specialist II teaching license. These new teachers bring significant professional skills and experience to the secondary classroom; but none had completed traditional teachers college training before licensing. WS I faculty are assigned mentors during the first year of training. Mentors have at least five years of K-12 teaching experience and are typically CTE faculty.

At a WS I / Mentor training workshop, 84 first year WS I faculty and 68 mentors were asked to take the Life Satisfaction Index for the Third Age (LSITA) in an effort to determine perceived overall life satisfaction; 105 participated in the study. The 45 mentors had perceived life satisfaction higher than that of the 60 first year WS I CTE teachers. The results of the statistical analyses revealed statistical significance at the 0.1 level (0.068).

When analyzing only those age 50 and over, the results of the statistical analyses revealed a statistical significance at the 0.05 level (0.023) between the perceived life satisfaction results of the 10 first year WS I faculty and the 37 mentors. Mentors age 50 and over had a higher level of perceived life satisfaction than the first year WS I faculty age 50 and over.

Introduction

Unwanted employee turnover is one of the largest and most costly problems organizations face. Various studies (Hundley, et. al., 2007 and Drizin & Hundley, 2008) report that the costs associated with employee turnover can average upwards of \$25,000 per employee, because of lost productivity, loss of intellectual capital, and the direct and indirect expenses of recruiting, selecting, and training new employees. Beyond costs is the relationship employee loyalty has on an organization's ability to serve customers and succeed in an ever-competitive global marketplace. Employee loyalty is directly associated with organizational success, including its impact on performance, innovation, professional and life satisfaction and retention. Employees with low levels of professional and life satisfaction are less loyal than those who report high levels of professional and life satisfaction (Hundley, et. al., 2007).

Despite the importance of finding and keeping good employees – and the direct relationship employees have on the organization's overall ability to succeed – several K-12 school districts face challenges in the retention and motivation of their workforce. According to the 2003-2004 U.S. Dept. of Education Schools and Staffing Survey, about two-thirds of public schools with teacher vacancies in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) areas such as biology, physical sciences, math and technology reported difficulty in filling those posts. This compares to only 41% reporting similar difficulties in filling English/Language Arts

positions. For well over a decade, school districts across the U.S. have struggled to recruit and retain effective STEM faculty in general and math teachers specifically. This problem appears to be more acute in schools serving high poverty student populations (Boyd et al., 2006; Boyd et al., 2008; Hanushek et al., 2004). Historically, this has meant that often middle and high school STEM teachers are teaching out of field (Ingersoll, 2003). The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (Barnes, Crowe & Schaefer, 2007) has estimated the cost of replacing teachers, who turn over in the early years, at \$15,000 to \$20,000 per teacher in our largest urban schools. The additional cost of remediation for students who lack expert teachers more than doubles that amount.

However, according to Arthur Levine, President of the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation and former Dean of Columbia University's Teachers College, "We can help retain teachers by ameliorating the key problems that cause them to leave: poor salaries, bad working conditions, low status, and too little preparation for the classroom... (Education Week, 2008)." This research examined more than external conditions that impact STEM teacher retention, such as working conditions, salary, preparation and low status. This study examined the very essence of why and if high school STEM faculty, especially Career and Technical education (CTE) teachers, are satisfied with their professional and personal lives.

Research Questions

Do the mentors for the first year Career and Technology (CTE) occupational teachers as a group have a higher life satisfaction than the group of first-year CTE occupational teachers, as measured by the LSITA? Do the mentors, 50 years of age or older, for the first year occupational teachers as a group have a higher life satisfaction than the CTE occupational teachers, 50 years of age or older, as measured by the LSITA?

The Importance of the Research

This research examined more than external conditions that impact STEM teacher retention, such as working conditions, salary, preparation and low status. This study examined the very essence of why and if high school CTE faculty, especially career and technical education STEM teachers, are satisfied with their professional and personal lives.

Methodology

The quantitative data has been subjected to variance analysis techniques to answer the research questions. The authors will form an expert panel to analyze the qualitative research and findings for their specific impact on the adult education relationship.

Status of Research and Summary of Findings

At a training workshop, 84 first year CTE faculty and 68 mentors were asked to take the Life Satisfaction Index for the Third Age (LSITA) in an effort to determine perceived overall life satisfaction; 105 participated in the study. The 45 mentors had perceived life satisfaction higher than that of the 60 first year teachers. The results of the statistical analyses revealed a statistical significance at the 0.1 level (0.068).

When analyzing only those age 50 and over, the results of the statistical analyses revealed a statistical significance at the 0.05 level (0.023) between the perceived life satisfaction results of the 10 first year CTE faculty and the 37 mentors. Mentors age 50 and over had a higher level of perceived life satisfaction than the first year faculty age 50 and over.

Implications

It is imperative that CTE administrators not underestimate the power of experienced CTE faculty to serve as mentors, coaches and professional role models for junior faculty. It is also imperative that meaningful and directed pedagogical training be given throughout this first year of teaching, as it is important to the well being and retention of the new faculty. These interventions have increased satisfaction by the first year faculty, coupled with an increased self perception of adequacy in terms of classroom management, lesson planning, and teaching. We believe that this should increase first year teacher retention in these critical fields.

Further research needs to be conducted to determine if the perceived effectiveness of WS I training, or additional years of teaching, has an effect on the perceived life satisfaction of new WS I faculty. In addition, it may be useful that similar research be conducted on other STEM areas. While Career and Technical education is important, and not all CTE areas are necessarily in STEM areas, it would be useful to know how other STEM faculty perceive life satisfaction. Comparative research should be undertaken to determine if other STEM professions (such as medicine, physics, computer and information technology, engineering, statistics, etc.) have similar or different results between experienced professionals and novice workers. Finally, research should be conducted to determine the relationship between teacher self efficacy and perceived life satisfaction.

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SEWA Academy: Leadership Training in Ahmedabad, India

Meena Razvi

Abstract: The majority of women in India work within informal, unregulated work sectors earning minimal, unsustainable wages (Rao, 2004). Unable to access formal job markets where they are discriminated because of their lack of education, skills, and low caste, females within low-income communities throughout India (both urban and rural) are forced to participate in poorly paid self-employment. Indian authorities have often discriminated low-income working women by refusing to protect or provide them with necessary permits, imposing unnecessary fines, confiscating their goods, and hindering access to their markets and customers. The Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) is a unique multi-trade union that provides an academy to train low-income union members and future grassroots community leaders. This paper presents research results of how SEWA Academy conducts leadership training among illiterate and low-literate women in India, and highlights important and critical evidence of the need for alternative and innovative learner-centered adult education practices among under educated and illiterate communities within non-western settings.

Introduction

Women in India mostly work within informal sectors without medical or social security benefits; within the mercy of government authorities, informal money lenders that charge high rates of interests, and families that do not provide them with adequate education or skills. For centuries, Indian women's labor has been invisible within labor markets and their voices have remained silent within mainstream adult education literature.

Western concepts of gender equality and empowerment have not penetrated successfully into Eastern cultures. An Indian woman's positionality is dependent upon complex social and economic factors that hinder poverty alleviation and empowerment within low-income sectors (Razvi, 2007). A critical shortage of formal jobs in India combined with gender disparities marginalized the female workforce forced to earn subsistence-level incomes within unregulated informal sectors.

This study combines gender, economic, and social development as an epistemological lens to explore the status of Indian women within informal work sectors and their struggle towards the transformation of a hegemonic society. An interdisciplinary conceptual framework influenced the examination of poverty alleviation of marginalized women: Gandhian ideology of community, self-reliance, and nonviolence; feminist theory; and National Human Resource Development. For a full description of the theoretical basis for this study see Razvi (2007).

Grassroots leaders at SEWA challenged dominant social and economic structures to promote the status of low-income women, proving that poor women are capable of banking, union membership, and other privileges previously reserved for the formal and middle-class sectors (Rose, 1992).

Linkage of Research to Practice

This research study links adult education theory and practice within one non-formal, non-western context using research methods that include: digital photographs, journaling, observations, and interviews with SEWA staff, trainers, and eight grassroots leaders.

The following critical questions were used to explore the strategies and resources SEWA Academy uses to promote empowerment, gender equity, and sustainable development:

- How does a non-governmental organization (NGO) educate illiterate/under educated rural/urban community grassroots leaders?
- What strategies and resources are utilized by SEWA Academy trainers?
- What strategies are used for retention/transfer of knowledge?
- How does SEWA Academy feed/house/transport rural leaders for four days of training?
- How does SEWA Academy reach trainees at offsite and rural areas to conduct other programs?
- What equipment/resources/planning are required?
- How do SEWA trainers promote participant engagement during programs with trainees that are nervous and very shy?
- What are the outcomes of SEWA Academy's intervention in the lives of poor working women?
- Importance to Adult Education Research and Practice: Capacity Building Through Training Programs

SEWA

The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) is a unique trade union for low-income self-employed women founded in 1972 by Bhatt, a female Gujarati lawyer. SEWA's objective is "economic regeneration and the social uplift of self-employed women" (Patel, 1995, p. 135). SEWA was the first organization to declare that self-employed women were important contributors to the national economy. Because larger trader unions refused to accept low-income women as union members, SEWA emerged as a women's wing under the larger Textile Labor Association (TLA). The TLA was founded in 1917 by Mahatma Gandhi who influenced Bhatt's vision to organize self-employed women within informal work sectors to gain visibility for the plight of poor working women in India (Rose, 1992). SEWA's affiliation with the Gandhian philosophy was influenced by Mahatma Gandhi and encourages low-income women to take control of their lives. SEWA's membership consists of low-income self-employed women from various backgrounds and religious beliefs working within multiple trades and services (Rose, 1992). SEWA classifies the informal sector into four categories:

- Vendors and hawkers
- Home based workers
- Service providers and service contractors
- Producers (Raval, 2001)

SEWA is both an acronym and a Gujarati word that means *service*. As SEWA became more popular, during a dispute in 1981 the male executives of the TLA ousted SEWA for refusing to curtail its feminist activities. As a result, Bhatt declared that SEWA would be organized as an independent trade union staffed by females to protect itself from additional male

influence or exploitation (Rose, 1992). SEWA organizes women from multiple trades, classes, castes, and ethnic divisions into a powerful union and political force to educate and empower working women in India. With its headquarters based in Ahmedabad, Gujarat, SEWA grew to become an important social, economic, and political union and social movement that creates culturally specific pedagogies.

One branch of SEWA provides an academy for training female union members into future grassroots community leaders (mostly on a voluntary basis with a minimal daily stipend dependent upon number of members recruited). Observations of a four day leadership training program and one movement training program form the basis for this paper.

Without the TLA's constraints, SEWA flourished, membership increased and SEWA developed female-friendly objectives, multiple strategies, and services such as SEWA Bank, workers' cooperatives, SEWA Academy, social services, and insurance programs (Patel, 1995). Each of these entities are formally independent but fall under "the umbrella of the SEWA union and are managed by the same top leaders" (Patel, p. 144). SEWA's approach is to highlight female workers as important contributors to the economic development of India.

SEWA Academy

SEWA Academy began in 1991 (SEWA, n.d., p. 3) to offer non-formal training programs, conduct research, and prepare grassroots leaders. Seven SEWA trainers in the Academy conducted approximately 12 to 13 training sessions per month for members. SEWA staff worked a six-day week from Monday through Saturday.

Charwar Taleem (Movement Training). Study participants reported that self-employed women's awareness of their social inequalities and legal rights were barely or completely non-existent. Because awareness is a prerequisite towards social transformation, SEWA membership entitles women to a two-day *Charwar Taleem* (movement training) provided by SEWA trainers who built awareness of patriarchal attitudes that inhibited women's development. Many women believed that their informal incomes did not classify them the right to be called working women and often self-classified as nonworking or housewives during census surveys.

SEWA trainers presented pie charts about gender disparities in order to surface covert methods of gender exploitation and income and asset disparities. Trainers explained how men owned 99% of all assets although women often contributed to the household income. Critical reflection helped women to value their unpaid household labor and self-employed incomes as important contributions to society. SEWA trainers explained how women coerced into submission and isolation could learn to speak out against oppressive practices with activities designed to promote awareness such as rights to a minimum wage, quality education for females, equal share in assets, equal pay for equal work, and how to obtain microloans from SEWA Bank. Instructors encouraged women to value their experiences as useful knowledge and to use that knowledge to increase their sense of self-worth. Reflection of personal experiences facilitated an understanding of the truth regarding gender inequalities.

One powerful activity taught women to break the cycle of submission and silence by learning to speak out. Instructors encouraged women to speak their own names in public (perhaps for the first time) by prompting, "*bolo ben*" (speak sister). As one instructor pointed out, "*baira, ben, dikree, wav, sasu* (women, sisters, daughters, daughters-in-law, mothers-in-law), we have many roles as women" (personal communication, M. Parmar, January 22, 2004). Because women often lacked the confidence to speak their names in public through conditioning

designed to hide their identities, instructors encouraged each trainee until she could speak out her full name. This powerful exercise was captured on a video camera and replayed to the class during the second day to reinforce their transition from the shadows of social invisibility into asserting their presence as valuable citizens. Movement training posited the need to change perceptions about access of education for females. The following excerpts reflect the evolution of participants' awareness and confidence during training:

Instructor prompts shy women by saying, "*bolo ben*" (speak sister). Many women are too shy to say their own name. Instructor continues probing: *Kekloo bharnela cho?* (how much education do you have?), *Kekla varash SEWA ma?* (how many years in SEWA?). (M. Parmar, personal communication, January 22, 2004).

Can you clap with one hand? asks the instructor. What if all the women in the village get together and talk to the *sarpanj*? (Council of five elders). If something is broken or there is no water, or road problem, you can join and work together. People will listen to you and you can speak with one voice. If we women stand together and protest against bad treatment people will pay attention. (M. Parmar, personal communication, January 22, 2004).

Charwar Taleem was a powerful tool that promoted cognition of social inequalities and the power of organization. Students practiced in a safe environment with careful coaching from experienced trainers who facilitated their awareness and solidarity as union members. Powerful chanting of phrases like "*hum sub ek hain*" (we are all one) promoted solidarity and empowerment. Informal education was critical for women's perspective transformations regarding gender discrimination.

Kadam Taleem (Leadership Training). Rural female farm workers attended one interactive four-day onsite program at SEWA Academy in Ahmedabad called *Kadam Taleem* (Leadership Training) that was initiated in 1993 to recruit and train local grassroots leaders. The goals of leadership training are to:

1. Stress the importance of one's identity and value as a woman
2. Increase group awareness
3. Understand Gandhian ideology
4. Comprehend SEWA's goals and the place of working class women in Indian society (SEWA, n.d.)

Trainees in Ahmedabad were housed at an offsite lodging facility owned by SEWA and provided daily transportation to SEWA Academy. For local offsite sessions, trainers traveled in vehicles owned by SEWA; out of state sessions required travel by train and overnight lodging. Trainers took all necessary supplies such as charts, graphs, TV, and a video camera to each session. All meals were provided by SEWA.

During *kadam taleem* women learned how to organize, discuss gender identity, and learn strategies to counter gender inequalities. Encouraged by the instructor, one 30 year old farm worker spoke out her full name: *Valiben Naranbhai Choudhri* (personal communication, January 28, 2004). Class participants were often extremely hesitant to speak their husband's name so referred to them as their "mister." One instructor explained the meaning and strength of a trade union: "individually, they [poor women] cannot demand their rights because they have no union" (J. Vaghella, personal communication, January 29, 2004).

Deep-rooted traditional customs that drained the resources of the poor and restricted women were openly questioned and discussed during class. Instructors promoted alternative socially-equitable solutions to existing issues such as high costs of marriages and dowries; and gender, religious, caste, and class discrimination. Das (2001) believes that economic growth will weaken the old caste system and lessen the “occupational rigidity” that is so pervasive in India (p. 154). SEWA instructors helped women build interpersonal communication skills so they could speak out against such social injustices and recruit women as SEWA members. Trainees were encouraged to take a leadership role in their communities to initiate social change. As one instructor explained, “If one woman does it, others will follow” (M. Parmar, personal communication, January 30, 2004).

Several SEWA executives and senior staff made periodic presentations to this class to reinforce the importance of civic action. Shaikh, Secretary of SEWA, exhibited confidence and solidarity during a guest presentation by stating, “We can make changes. You are leader sisters (R. Shaikh, personal communication, January 30, 2004).

Most of the trainees had rarely stepped outside of their villages, yet traveled long distances of up to four hours by car to prepare for grassroots leadership. Several class participants became anxious about the enormous task ahead of them, but Shaikh provided reassurance by saying, “You have to be patient. You are a leader... *Kadam* means “step” (R. Shaikh, personal communication, January 30, 2004). Another guest speaker echoed, “Action is a footstep” (M. Parikh, personal communication, January 30, 2004). Instructors provided practical information such as how to plan and conduct effective meetings, how to gather and recruit SEWA members, and how to provide information about SEWA to community members. Other activities inspired women to build critical thinking skills by describing their lives before and after joining SEWA.

Learning for illiterate participants presented a challenge of recall and retention because of their inability to write notes during class. Instructors facilitated retention by frequently asking attendees to verbally summarize what they had learned at the end of each session. Non-formal instructional strategies such as role-plays, field trips, games, discussions, and case studies also helped to build retention.

Training illiterate women presents challenges but SEWA instructors use interactive learning methods suited to the abilities and contexts of their trainees. Because SEWA does not provide training for every possible instance, grassroots leaders rely upon learning on the job. If leaders are unable to resolve an issue by themselves, they ask their supervisors for advice. As they continue to work leaders become exposed to various gender issues and through experience and guidance from SEWA staff, learn the best strategies for action.

Contributions to Knowledge and Practice

Research results show important and critical evidence of the need for alternative and innovative learner-centered adult education practices among under educated and illiterate communities within non-western settings. SEWA Academy reaches out to isolated women within low-income communities of India to provide non-formal and informal training at onsite and offsite locations at no charge to participants. SEWA Academy, one branch of the organization, recruits, trains, and empowers poor women with the help of SEWA trainers who deliver membership and leadership training within urban and rural communities throughout

India. In addition, both staff and members at SEWA participate in local, national, and international conferences to spread the results of their efforts towards improving the social, political, and economic status of poor working women in India.

Important implications include leadership capacity within low-income communities, strategies for training illiterate and under-educated working women, knowledge and resources to reach poor women in rural and urban areas, and the results of SEWA Academy's efforts in empowering low-income women in India. SEWA academy's innovative training practices promote sustainable development of under-educated adults to help develop critical thinking, social, and political consciousness regarding their socio-economic status. As a result, working women are empowered with the capacity to improve their status in the home and the workplace while also sharing their knowledge with community members through voluntary grassroots leadership to promote national human resource development.

Breaking the cycle of long established gender biases in India will require continued practice and patience among each additional generation of women. Exposure to SEWA Academy's teachings combined with grassroots leaders' sustained efforts to bring awareness and empowerment among isolated females throughout India indicate that a non-Western feminist model has the power of sustainable development for low-income working women in India. Scholarly debates continue regarding whether and how low caste and low-income working women can gain access to much needed formal job markets that are critical to the social and economic development of the national workforce in India laboring within informal and unregulated job markets. SEWA Academy provides evidence of practical applications to promote and sustain gender equality in India through learner centered adult education practices. Conclusions recommend that sustained efforts from government, non-government, public, and private sectors are critical for national workforce development in India.

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Adult Learning Perspectives and Motor Learning Models: An Investigation of Commonalities

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Abstract: Researchers have yet to agree on an approach that supports how adults best learn motor skills. The literature fails to adequately discuss adult motor learning from an adult educational standpoint; instead, the subject is largely addressed by other disciplines. This investigation attempts to integrate seemingly disparate models and perspectives in order to enhance understanding of adult motor learning. Several potential integrations are noted: (a) the representational framework common to motor learning models and reflective practice; (b) the overlapping theoretical bases of modeling and experiential learning; (c) the shared active learning emphasis in chaining, motor programs, variability of practice, analogy learning, and the experiential perspective; and (d) the use of embedded motor learning practices within situative settings. Research should further examine how variables unique to didactic instruction impact the modeling approach, and how situative settings naturally utilize motor learning models.

Introduction

Motor learning occurs when individuals learn how to move muscles in a precise way (Tiemann & Markle, 1983). Such learning is a significant part of adult vocational and technical education practice, and theorists have long acknowledged how it differs from other forms of learning. Mezirow (1990), for example, has suggested that how to do something or how to perform involves *instrumental learning*, a process differentiated from the more closely scrutinized *communicative learning*. A unified pedagogical approach to motor learning, however, remains conspicuously absent in adult education. As a result, educators searching for effective methods must turn to outside disciplines, which often provide contradictory explanations and propose dissimilar learning activities. Educators, then, are faced with a myriad of choices: motor programs, variability of practice, analogy learning, modeling, chaining, etc. In addition, learning activities based on these models are often imbedded within adult learning perspectives that concomitantly affect adult motor learning. If as Ingvaldsen and Whiting (1997) have argued, choosing a particular theoretical perspective on motor learning constrains subsequent instructional methods and activities, how do adult educators proceed?

The current state demonstrates a real need for a coalescent approach to adult motor learning that builds upon congruent models and perspectives. Although the author acknowledges this need, it is not the intention of this paper to specify prescribed teaching techniques; rather, it is to empower educators with interdisciplinary knowledge that may lead to more effective practice. This investigation will attempt to analyze adult learning perspectives and motor learning models for commonalities that may facilitate the attainment of that goal.

Adult Learning Perspectives

The paper begins with a general overview of didactic, experiential, and situative approaches to adult learning. The three perspectives were selected based on their frequent use and applicability to pedagogical activities that promote motor skill acquisition and performance.

Didactic Approach. Brouse, Basch, and Kubara (2005) describe the didactic perspective as one in which the educator, acting as expert or authority, disseminates information to the learner. In their view, didactic participants are seen as passive recipients of knowledge, largely uninformed, and needing to be fixed. A didactic approach to motor learning may use lecture or demonstration and rely on the belief that adults acquire skills by obtaining verbal or visual information. Learners are given no opportunity to practice the motor skill in the educational setting, and are expected to independently transfer mental images into concrete motor skills. Ingvaldsen and Whiting (1997) suggest the implication of these types of approaches (i.e., those that rely on establishing inner standards or mental images) is that motor skills can be acquired solely through mental training.

Experiential Approach. Dewey (1938) states that, “All principles by themselves are abstract. They become concrete only in the consequences which result from their application” (p. 20). His view emphasizes one of the foundations of the experiential perspective, i.e., the learner is active and learns by doing rather than observing. Ingvaldsen and Whiting (1997) support this view, arguing that motor learning is the process by which an individual’s movement behavior changes due to experience. This perspective is often manifested in “hands-on” education, which directly involves the learner in motor activities, including the manipulation of instruments and tools. In Kolb’s (1984) view, experiential learning is synthesized of four elements: (a) concrete experience, (b) reflective observation, (c) abstract conceptualization, and (d) active experiment. Although reflective observation and abstract conceptualization do not require physical performance, they are essential for learning. This is consistent with Dewey (1938) who argues that experience alone does not constitute learning; rather, learning occurs when individuals connect current and past experiences to create meaning. Experiential learning, then, involves more than simple repetitive practice; it includes reflective activities that allow learners to decide if/how the skill relates to prior learning, as well as to educational or occupational objectives.

Situated Approach. The situated perspective emphasizes context. It suggests that learning can only be understood when considering the practice as a whole, including the wealth of relations within the community and the world that are indelibly intertwined with knowledge or skills (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It departs from other perspectives by de-emphasizing isolated skills, instead focusing on direct participation in the context and community in which the skill is practiced. For example, a masonry student may learn how to trowel a mortar bed by constructing the exterior wall of a home, on a job site, alongside an established expert. The student, then, learns the motor skill in the procedural, social, and environmental context in which it has meaning. The approach closely resembles the apprenticeship model, focusing on the importance of the master/apprentice relationship. However, Lave and Wenger (1991) caution that situated learning oftentimes departs from more contrived vocational apprenticeship programs, specifically in the area of *legitimate peripheral participation*, a process understood to describe a learner’s engagement with the tools, social networks, and processes used within a community of practice.

Theoretical Models of Motor Learning

The following section describes five theoretical models of motor learning, which are based on theories from disciplines such as behavior analysis, kinesiology, sport psychology, and cognitive psychology. These models were selected according to their prevalence in the literature.

Chaining. Chaining as defined by Leslie and O'Reilly (1999) is "a process whereby a series of discrete behaviors are linked together to achieve some reinforcing outcome" (p. 250). A skill, the authors argue, consists of a sequence or chain of individual responses. When a learner performs the final response in the sequence, a form of reinforcement is obtained which indicates the end of the chain. Each individual component of the chain reinforces the previous step and functions as a discriminative stimulus for the next. Distinguished from "whole" teaching methods, which present the skill as a single behavior, chaining focuses on its "parts" (Walls, Zane, & Ellis, 1981). In short, when an instructor teaches a motor skill using this model, the larger skill is deconstructed into smaller, more manageable skills which are presented and practiced sequentially until the whole skill is mastered.

Motor Programs. Schmidt (1982) defines a motor program as an abstract memory structure readied in advance of the movement. When executed, muscles are contracted and relaxed causing movement without using feedback to correct for errors in selection. Instruction, therefore, focuses on the whole skill, with corrections made to the entire performance rather than a component of it. Schmidt (1982) distinguishes two types of motor programs: (a) those that are very short in time (i.e., 200 msec or less), and (b) those that last longer (e.g., a few seconds). Longer motor programs involve what he terms "closed-loop control," requiring the brain to utilize two abstract mechanisms he calls the "executive" and "effector." The "executive" commands the "effector" to carry out a specific motor function, and in course the "effector" signals relative movement information back to the "executive" in a process labeled *feedback*. Closed-loop control permits the learner to alter and control the motor program as it occurs. Schmidt (1982) maintains that this type of feedback allows learners to correct "errors in execution," which occur when individuals choose the correct motor program but perform it incorrectly. This is in contrast to "errors in selection," which do not allow for this type of feedback, as learners have selected the incorrect program to execute.

Variability of Practice. Asbell (1989) argues that variability in practice promotes the correct performance of a motor program regardless of environmental parameters. When discussing the use of motor programs in teaching motor skills, Asbell (1989) suggests that variability drills should be guided by an instructor. Keeping practice conditions constant while varying the practice will prevent confusion and help learners develop a flexible motor program. Further, he argues, variability of practice works to create a more adaptable motor skill by delaying the establishment of invariant characteristics until an adaptable pattern has been formed through multiple performance variations. Therefore, initial repetition of identical performance is to be avoided.

Analogy Learning. A number of researchers state that motor learning occurs both implicitly and explicitly. Reber (1993) largely defines implicit learning as skill acquisition without knowledge of the information underlying performance. Masters (1992) describes explicit learning as knowledge composed of facts and rules that individuals are aware of and able to articulate. One possible explanation for skill breakdown is the conscious processing of explicit knowledge (Masters, 1992), an idea based on the conscious processing hypothesis (Hardy,

Mullen, & Jones, 1996), which, it is understood, states that individuals have limited working memory resources. Learners, therefore, who consciously attempt to control new motor skills, utilize more of these resources, resulting in increased performance errors. Masters (1992) argues that by limiting explicit knowledge acquisition and fostering implicit learning one can prevent skill breakdown under pressure. One such method is analogy learning (see Liao & Masters, 2001). Learners are given a familiar verbal representation (i.e., an analogy) which they are then instructed to focus on, minimizing the use of working memory on underlying rules or information pertaining to the skill. The role of the analogy is to assimilate the information and rule structure of the new skill in an uncomplicated biomechanical metaphor that can be reproduced by learners (Liao & Masters, 2001). For example, learners may be asked to “butter the bread” rather than focus on complex verbal instruction when applying mortar to the underside of a tile.

Modeling. Bandura (1986) argues that the majority of human behavior is learned by observation through a process he terms modeling. Catina (2000) argues for the superiority of this approach when compared to verbal instruction, stating that visual demonstration produces cognitive representations or “mental blueprints” which guide future action. In Bandura’s (1986) view, modeling occurs largely by four subprocesses: (a) attention, (b) retention, (c) production, and (d) motivation. The attention subprocess requires learners to have interest in the modeled behavior, to absorb the characteristics of the event and its relevance. The learner must then retain the behavior in an abstract representational form in memory, either visually or verbally. During the production subprocess, the learner performs the skill and measures it against the representation acquired during the retention subprocess. This allows the learner to adjust the response in accordance to the representational standard. Last, the learner must be motivated through external, vicarious, and/or self-incentives to perform the behavior; simply observing the skill and having the physical and cognitive ability to perform it are inadequate to ensure learning.

Discussion

The perspectives and models discussed reveal a multitude of disciplinary approaches used to facilitate adult motor learning. There are, however, common themes that run throughout. For example, motor programs, variability of practice, analogy learning, and modeling are representational models, i.e., they rely on systems of representation and classification that are largely internal and unobservable (Ingvaldsen & Whiting, 1997). The experiential perspective utilizes representational activities such as reflection, which Fenwick (2000) argues is largely situated within the constructivist perspective, a representational theory of learning concerned with the construction of knowledge and meaning derived from *experience*. This shared framework may prove useful in their integration. How can representational models be utilized to construct knowledge and meaning? How well do they align with constructivist views on experience and knowledge construction?

The findings also reveal other potential unifying themes. Although paradoxical at first, Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory, a foundation for the modeling approach, and Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning theory, appear to share common ideals. Bandura’s (1986) attention phase overlaps considerably with Kolb’s (1984) concrete experience phase, both stressing the need for the learner to have interest in and heightened feelings toward the subject or activity. The former’s retention phase corresponds with the latter’s reflective observation and abstract

conceptualization phases, emphasizing watching the subject or activity and thinking about its relevance and impact on one's life. Last, Bandura's (1986) production phase naturally aligns with Kolb's (1984) active experiment phase, both emphasizing action or doing. These commonalities reveal the potential to integrate modeling activities in experiential settings in order to better facilitate motor learning.

A third connection is seen between the experiential perspective and the following models: motor programs, variability of practice, analogy learning, and chaining. Each model inherently places the learner in an active role and, therefore, integrates well into experiential settings. These models should no longer be viewed tangentially to the experiential perspective but rather as integral tools for teaching and learning motor skills through doing and action. Future researchers may wish to quantify reflection's affect on adult performance in the aforementioned models.

It is also important to consider how motor learning models can be incorporated within the situated perspective. Considering its emphasis on natural contexts and activities, there appears little room for rapprochement. The very introduction of practices based on these models would invariably alter the natural environment and thereby render it contrived. Lave and Wenger (1991) express resistance to pedagogical practices in situative settings, stating, "Gaining legitimacy is ... a problem when masters prevent learning by acting in effect as pedagogical authoritarians, viewing apprentices as novices who 'should be instructed' rather than as peripheral participants in a community engaged in its own reproduction" (p. 76). However, when the authors describe the apprenticeship practices of Vai and Gola tailors – citing them as models of true legitimate peripheral participation – it appears as if backwards chaining is already in use. In addition, situative settings appear to be highly conducive to modeling approaches. In fact, educators utilizing a didactic or experiential approach may benefit by mirroring their modeling practices after those in situative environments. This potential area of inquiry may provide researchers a better understanding of how situated and contrived learning differs, as well as how pedagogical intervention can be utilized unobtrusively in natural environments.

A final unifying theme emerges from the close relationship between didactic learning and modeling. Several questions remain, however. The didactic perspective's reliance on lecture or demonstration – with no opportunity for practice – often means learners delay performance for significant periods of time. Learners, therefore, receive no feedback and are faced with a vast number of contextual variables. The failure to account for delayed performance, absence of feedback, and contextual variables raises significant questions regarding the effectiveness of modeling in didactic settings. Further research is needed to investigate these variables' impact.

Conclusion

Brookfield (2004) has argued that adult educators build their practices on strong theoretical underpinnings based on predictive understandings of how learners will respond. Accordingly, a primary goal of this investigation was to offer adult educators a theoretical foundation from which to base pedagogical motor learning activities. It is the hope that the proposed research initiatives influence future practice; however, current practitioners may find some of the findings immediately useful. For example, experiential practitioners may discover that chaining, motor programs, variability of practice, and analogy learning models align well with their current approach. In addition, they may find that the use of these models, in conjunction with current practice, results in more effective adult motor learning. Situated practitioners may find that activities based on these models are easily embedded within natural

contexts. As a result, they may wish to examine how these practices affect motor learning and performance when compared to their usual methods. Last, didactic practitioners may wish to incorporate active models in their practice in response to the concerns raised in this paper. The author's aim in conducting this investigation is to demonstrate the need for a more unified understanding of how adults best learn motor skills. It is the hope of the author that the research opportunities presented here spark an interest in others to further investigate the interdisciplinary possibilities inherent in the study of adult motor learning.

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Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Lao and Vietnamese International Graduate Students: Implication to Adult Education

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Abstract: Cross-cultural adjustment of Lao and Vietnamese international graduate students in the U.S. is a dynamic process. For these students, academic failure means significantly more than just the loss of money and time; hence, they believe that they must make appropriate socio-cultural adjustments at all costs. Five major themes emerged from the data collected from thirteen Lao and Vietnamese graduate students interviewed: motivation to come study in the U.S., adjustment difficulties, coping strategies, desired characteristics of learning environment and support programs, and adjustment outcomes. The differences in the Collectivist and Individualistic core values, which shape Asian and American educational systems contrastingly, are the major causes of their adjustment difficulties. To overcome these difficulties they students employed certain stress coping strategies. This research's results have implications on both international higher education and adult education as they can be used to design instruction and the support programs that aim to make the learning experience more meaningful to these students.

Introduction

Furthering education in America, especially at the graduate level, can be a means for success in social mobility for many students, especially for those who come from developing countries such as Laos and Vietnam. However, their educational achievements depend on their social, cultural, linguistic adjustment competence vs. mainly to scholastic ability. Cross-cultural adjustment difficulties facing international students from non-English speaking countries are multi-dimensional (Erichsen, 2009). Factors such as cultural discrepancies, family background, geographical distance, social interactions (Lee & Rice, 2007), language ability, discrimination and ignorance, and legal regulations (Fatima, 2001), can form barriers to their academic performance and social adjustment. The support from the institutions is important, and since Asian cultures place high importance on academic achievement, for Lao and Vietnamese students in particular, academic failure means more than just the loss of money and/or time.

American universities are enjoying the rapidly growing number of Lao and Vietnamese students who previously preferred to study in the former Soviet Union and Eastern European countries. According to Opendoors (2009), with the total number of almost 13,000 students in the 2008-09 academic year, Vietnam jumped from the 20th place in the 2006-07 academic year to the 9th in the list of top countries sending students to the U.S. Their enrollment in the U.S. universities is beneficial to the universities and to the country in many ways (Altback, 1991). Therefore, this qualitative research sought to explore their cross-cultural adjustment process and patterns. Five major themes emerged from the data gathered through the interviews of thirteen Lao and Vietnamese graduate students. These include motivation to study in the U.S., adjustment difficulties, coping strategies, desired characteristics of the learning environment and support programs, and adjustment outcomes. Understanding the cross-cultural adjustment experiences of

these students is vital for American educators and higher education administrators. Their desired learning environment and the level of dedication by faculty as well as support programs that emerged from the body of this new knowledge could be beneficial for educators when developing curricula and designing instruction that aim to make the learning experience more meaningful. By doing so, it would demonstrate that American universities are committed to providing all students with an adult friendly learning environment and relevant education.

Theoretical Framework

Ward, Bochner and Furnham (2001) consider “the cross-cultural contact as a major stressful life event” (p. 7), and refer to the cross-cultural adjustment process as a kind of transitional process that is involved with affective, cognitive and behavioral responses. These are important for psychological and sociocultural outcomes. Since cross-cultural adjustment process of sojourning individuals, such as the Lao and Vietnamese international students, can be so dynamic, I collected and analyzed my data within the following three theoretical frameworks:

Hofstede and Bon’s (1996) Individualism–Collectivism model. I found that their first three out of five dimensions of national culture that include power distance, uncertainty avoidance and individualism are relevant to explaining the cross-cultural adjustment experiences of the Lao and Vietnamese students who were accustomed to learning in institutions shaped by cultural values are starkly different from that of the American institutions. Furthermore, the cultural model of self in Triandis (1989) and Markus and Kitayama (1991) is useful in explaining the difficulties in the social and psychological adjustment process.

Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) stress and coping. This framework explains that how an individual decides to cope with problems depends on her/his appraisal of the stressfulness of the situation. She/he does so through considering “both contextual and personal characteristics” (Aldwin, 2008, p. 564,) involved with that situation. Aldwin (2008) amplifies this model arguing that culture also plays an important role in stress and coping strategies as it affects this process in four ways: (1) It guides an individual to identify what type of stressors exist in the society that individual may encounter; (2) how individuals in a given society appraise the condition causing stressfulness; (3) what types of “coping strategies [one can use to cope with the stress] in a given situation” (p. 565); and (4) through institutions in a particular cultural setting, it informs its members about what coping strategies may be available for them.

Kim’s (2001), integrative model of cross-cultural adaptation. This model explains that when "an individual is in contact with his/her new cultural environment, s/he often goes through a spiral-like process-stress, adapt and growth” (Kim 2001, p. 339). In this cross-cultural adaptation perspective, culture shock is viewed as a pre-condition for growth.

Research Method

An interpretive qualitative method was used to describe the cross-cultural adjustment experiences of thirteen students studying at six universities across the United States. This method included a semi-structured interview approach. Following Merriam (2002), I used purposeful sample and snow-ball sampling strategy, which helped me to locate five female and seven male students with ages ranging from 25 to 35 who have not received a Bachelors’ degree in an

English speaking country. As suggested by Emerson, Fretz and Shaw (1995), I kept field notes for each interview and immediately transcribed it to make a tentative data analysis using “constant comparison” method, which includes three steps as follows:

- (1) *Coding*: the main-point approach as recommended by (Glaser and Strauss, 1967);
- (2) *Sorting*: an analysis program called N* VIVO; and
- (3) *Visual display*: *Inspiration* software was used to draw “a diagram of [a concept map] on [a] paper with lines linking related issues, and concepts [were] display[ed] graphically in the conceptual framework of the final report” as suggested by Weiss (p. 162, 1994).

Also, I grouped these concepts together according to their commonality in order to identify major themes, which became the results of my study. I used the ‘audit’ trail, which tracked the decisions made during the process as a way to ensure the validity. I also used the triangulation method with three data sets collected in three different ways as suggested by LeComp’s (2000): i) the questionnaire form, which aimed to obtain answers to the following questions: (a) their motivation to study in America, (b) the dynamic factors affecting their adjustment process in the new environment, (c) how they cope with these adjustment difficulties, and (d) what the universities can possibly do to help them cope better with their adjustment stress; ii) face to face interview; and iii) answers in the personal reflection sheet, which is similar to the questionnaire form. According to Patton (2002), by doing so the credibility and the trustworthiness of qualitative research findings could be enhanced.

Summary of Findings

The results of the study informed us that Lao and Vietnamese international students have a strong desire to acquire knowledge and graduate with an American degree. Yet, they suffer considerable stress stemming from the discrepancies between the cultures and the educational practices in their home countries and that in America. Following are five findings:

Motivation to Come Study in America

The decision for pursuing higher education in America for all participants is mainly due to the desire for superior education. As explained by Somdy, a female student from Laos “It has always been my dream (since I was young) that I want study in the States because as we know, the United States offers the best education in the world”. Also, they chose the U.S. as their educational destination not only because of the qualities of its graduate schools, but also because of its clout in the world. All of them perceived that American graduate schools have the best education because they have the following qualities: relevant knowledge and skills to their needs, English speaking based institutions, high quality faculty, the upholding of democratic values, and embracing diversity. In addition, theirs and their families’ value which views an American graduate degree as a crucial vehicle for social mobility is also another reason. Based on Ward (1996) who amplified Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the motive behind their migration to the U.S. is important for understanding their cross-cultural adjustment process.

Adjustment Difficulties

To meet the new demands in American graduate programs, all participants had to go through not only academic, but also socio-cultural and socio-psychological adjustment processes. The discrepancies between the cultures and the educational practices that they were accustomed to in their home countries and that in America, language, the stark difference between the former and current living environments, all combined together made their learning experience considerably stressful. This often leads them to culture shock in many aspects. As Somdy, who was shocked by the communication patterns in American classroom, reported that “I think the most culture shock, or dynamic factor that I faced during my two year experience...is the participation in the classroom because I was taught in the Lao education, or in Asian culture to be very reserved”. On the other hand, she said “in America, most of the people, if they know something, or even if they don’t know, they always want to participate in the discussion during the classroom.” The cultural barrier facing these participants, from the Hofstede and Bon’s (1996) Individualism-Collectivism perspectives and within the cultural model of self in Triandis (1989), Markus and Kitayama (1991), could result from the discrepancy in their “construals of self, of others and of interdependence of the [two] (p.1) and that of American students. As Asians, these participants whose culture places importance on the relatedness and “connectedness among individuals”, they find it difficult to adjust to the way of communication of Americans who “seek to maintain their independence from others by attending to the self and by discovering and expressing their unique inner attributes” (p. 1), as doing so it is contrasted to their core value.

Coping Strategies

Being strongly motivated by their clear academic goal, their sense of efficacy, as well as their desire for superior education is the main motivation for their educational achievement in America. However, in order to achieve their goals, all participants reported that they employed several stress coping strategies, which could be grouped into three main categories: prior arrival preparation, managing change by making up limitation, and developing new perspectives toward the new expectations, in their adjustment processes. As Khai, a male Vietnamese student said “To achieve any goal, studying is not enough. We have to learn from everything, from everyone around us, and be proactive. Don't be passive. That is what I am trying to do.” Within the culture learning perspective, Khai has mostly utilized both informal and incidental learning processes to cope with these cross-cultural adaptation problems.

Also Khamsing who considered himself as a shy person tried to learn to change himself by observing models and understanding American classroom expectations said “During the presentation, I have to talk, as now I know that it is necessary for me to talk...‘Look at other people’, I told myself, ‘how shy they are. They still talk’. Sometimes, their tongues even freeze, they still try to talk.” Doing so, it encouraged him to speak. As suggested in the Lazarus and Folkman (1984)’s stress and coping model, these participants’ stress coping strategies are likely varied depending on the stress experienced by individual and his/her cognitive appraisals of the situations as well as the availability of his/her coping resources, such as prior knowledge about American culture and exposure to the dynamic learning environment. Based on his stress appraisal of situation, Khamsing felt that the needs to speak in the class was urgent and necessary for him. So he decided to employ the managing change, which focus on “making up limitation” as a way to increase his coping resources, which allowed him to cope with stress.

Adjustment Outcomes

Overall participants reported the feeling of growth and valuing of the experiences in their American education. They believe that it helped broaden their horizons, which foster their sense of growth and efficacy. Their cross-cultural interactions and perseverance in overcoming language and cultural barriers, as well as academic adjustment problems, resulted in three important outcomes: satisfaction with academic achievement, feeling of change and unanticipated personal growth. As Khuan, a Lao female student, after being in the new environment for some time and employing certain coping strategies. She made up her limitation by changing some features of her old culture and adopting some new norms. She stated, "I have become a more confident person." This research finding supports Kim (2001)'s perspective mentioned above concerning stress adaption and growth.

Desired Characteristics of Learning Environment and Support Programs

These participants suggested improvements could be made in the following five areas: a caring and understanding faculty that provided more guidelines in learning techniques, patient American classmates, more international students in the classroom, appropriate orientation in learning American culture, and some intervention programs prior to arrival and during the beginning period of the graduate program.

Conclusions and Implications

The insights into the cross-cultural adjustment experiences of Lao and Vietnamese graduate students are important for both higher education and adult education. These students' desired learning environment and their needs of special support from faculty could be useful for adult educators in identifying which aspects of their teaching approach and classroom environment nature foster these students' learning and accelerate their adjustment. This would enable educators to adjust their teaching styles and curriculum so that they can avoid empowering one group of learners and silencing the others. As suggested by Alfred (2005), adult educators can create a change in their classroom culture by including "a cross-national or pluralistic perspective in the curriculum when appropriate, and [by] promot[ing] diversity as an asset and not as a deficit" (p. 10). As such, it would help these students overcome their cultural barriers, which is significant not only for their academic performance, but also their identity development. Moreover, the results of this study are also important for higher education institutions in general and especially for those that aim to respond to the growing needs of students with diverse backgrounds brought about by the emergence of social and economic factors as observed by Merriam and Cafferella (1999). Given the fact that these students have limited knowledge of American culture, they need both internal and external support. As observed by Antonia Darder (2005) who addressed on her keynote in the 9th Urban Forum at UWM that while "most U.S. universities enjoy and proudly announce that they have students from all over the world learning on their campuses, their administrators and educators do not really take any serious measures to form a support community or design programs that really address the needs of these students" (November, 2, 2005). Thus, based on their social and cultural needs, higher education institutions can improve their campus' environment by encouraging the educational policy-makers to launch a campaign to create a heightened awareness of the existence of multiple cultures and the presence of international students,

especially those from Asian countries. Unless they do so, they cannot help students with unique needs, including Lao and Vietnamese international students, reach their academic goals without significant negative experiences. Nor can they ensure that their graduate education programs will be able to provide a chance for all students to succeed, regardless of their ethnicities, nationalities and historical backgrounds.

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Trust in Online Collaborative Groups - A Constructivist Psychodynamic View

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Abstract: Open and sustained discussions within diverse collaborative online groups should provide opportunities for adults to reshape their thinking, deeply understand the subject content, have their voices heard and respected, and expand their epistemic development. These possibilities turn on issues of trust among the group members; the ability to trust differences and epistemic concerns. That is, the ability to trust thoughts that are different from our own is influenced by the learners' ability to be open about their beliefs and to develop healthy self-other relationships within their small groups. Additionally, the ability to collaborate may present epistemic challenges for the students and hinder their capacity to trust their own and their fellow students' ability to help them learn and hinder the capacity of the group-as-a-whole to grow and develop. This paper discusses previous research (Smith, 2008; 2009) results demonstrate that student groups use various pathological defense strategies to avoid the types of discussion necessary to fully engage in the difference as well as explore their epistemic concerns. These issues become trust issues for the group-as-a-whole to resolve, which it fails to do. Implications for adult and continuing education are discussed.

Introduction

Although trust represents one of the most critical issues facing online groups, the need to work with others through the text-based online environment can make trust issues more salient. Nevertheless, the research on trust in the online collaborative educational group (OCG) yields contradictory results, which leaves educators with many unanswered questions about how to help identify and facilitate trust issues in these groups. For example, the often recommended social measures, such as team building exercises and communication tools, that are designed to facilitate a successful learning environment, decrease (Jarvenpaa, Shaw, & Staples, 2004) or increase (Walther & Brunz, 2000) trust in the OGC. Similarly, high communication levels has positive (Jarvenpaa, et. al., 1998; Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2007) negative (Jarvenpaa, et. al., 2004), and no significant effects on trust (Jarvenpaa, Shaw, & Staples, 2004). Adult educators are left with unclear directions about how to recognize and facilitate trust issues as they arise in the online collaborative group.

Many scholars such as Dirks and Ferrin's (2001) who research trust assume a certain direct rational and conscious relationship between a person's perceptions and the other person's behavior. Dirks and Ferrin contend that this direct trust model work is more appropriate for structured settings. A strongly structured situation has clear processes to produce outcomes with little ambiguity and uncertainty. Individuals assess low trust risks in these situations and are able to act in trusting ways. Moderate trust models, the second part of Dirks and Ferrin's model assumes that trust provides conditions under which outcomes such as cooperation and high performance are likely to occur, but assumes no direct relationship. This model takes a psychological approach to trust; individuals rely on past personal and professional trust experiences to assess trust risks in the current situation. The moderate models are best for weak

structures with high ambiguity and uncertainty such as those found in the OCG. The weak structure forces the person to immediately attend to the task and leaves little time to assess trust risks. The person is thus left to rely on their past perceptions of trust. These issues are important for collaborative heterogeneous work. Nevertheless the moderate trust models focus narrowly on the individual, thus it ignores the paradoxical, emotional, and unconscious issues related to trust in the OCG (Smith 2008; 2009).

Smith (2008; 2009) found that trust issues are group level issues around fear of differences and epistemic challenges that are highly emotional, paradoxical and unconscious. Thus failure to work with a more complete picture of trust issues leaves adult educators vulnerable to unwittingly take actions that destroy the group processes and thus, the merits of collaborative learning. Using the online group as the unit of analysis this paper demonstrates how trust is paradoxical and related to the nature of the collaborative group even before individuals enter the group. These issues surface continually throughout the life of the group and become both individual and group trust concerns. The (Kegan, 1982; 1994; Ringer, 2002; Smith & Berg, 1987, Stapley, 2006) help to highlight these issues. The paper ends with a discussion on ways adult educators can understand ways to best understand and facilitate trust issues in these groups.

Conceptual Framework

Collaborative learning as used in this work is defined as a process by which small, heterogeneous, and interdependent learner groups co-construct knowledge (to *achieve consensus* and *share classroom authority* (Bruffee, 1999). The heterogeneous groups confront complex, real-life situations that are messy, ill-structure and have no clear resolution or right answer (Bruffee, 1999). The goal of group work is to shift the locus of control in the classroom from the teacher to the student peer groups (Bruffee, 1999). Learners are entrusted with the ability to govern themselves, in order to help them acknowledge dissent and disagreement, and cope with differences (Bruffee, 1999; Flannery, 1994).

While collaborative learning groups also make heavy use of subject matter, they are more interested in using this information to help address the assigned problem, rather than to facilitate mastery of it among individual learners. As students work in small heterogeneous groups, they learn both the subject matter content, appropriate problem-solving and critical thinking skills, and the skills necessary to work together collaboratively (Bruffee, 1999; Flannery 1994). Students are considered co-constructors of knowledge (Bruffee, 1999), rather than consumers.

Consensus is critical to the process (Bruffee, 1999), because it is only through consensus that the group members are required to listen, hear, understand, and finally accept the view point of fellow group members. When students are forced, through dialogue and deliberation, to come to consensus, they must work harder to consider all viewpoints, in order to reach agreement (Flannery, 1994). As students engage in the necessary group work, it is necessary for the groups to embrace difficult, paradoxical issues that pull them in opposite and often contradictory directions (Smith & Berg, 1987). For example, the ability to openly share information with the group requires learners to expose aspects of the self: that is, their strengths and weaknesses and hopes and fears (Smith & Berg, 1997) at a time when they are not sure that they can trust the members of the group with their thoughts. The process of learning to work through these difficulties is made more complex by the variety of differences that characterize group members.

In an environment that relies on the social construction of knowledge, individual differences, such as cognitive (Shelley & Shelley, 2004) and epistemic development (Schommer, 1998), psychosocial development (Erickson, 1963), race, gender, national origin, age, and prior knowledge and experience, can contribute to widely differing world views, frames of reference, values, and beliefs. Developing interdependency means learning to work with and across these differences, a challenge recognized at virtually all levels of education. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) state that trust usually involves the ability to *accept vulnerability* based on the belief that another's intentions and behaviors will be positive. According to these authors, trust becomes especially problematic when the trusting party must take risks to work interdependently with other people.

In collaborative learning, students call into question, through self-reflection or self-critique, the assumptions, values, beliefs, symbols, and rules of conduct that characterize their existing ways of meaning making. Learning collaboratively can also involve a dramatic shift in one's views of teaching and learning. Central to this shift are changing perspectives on the nature of knowledge and roles of the teacher and one's peers in the learning process. Collaborative learning in which students share classroom authority and co-construct knowledge requires students to operate from a more advanced epistemological development. Much of the literature on epistemological development assumes a linear progression to epistemic development. For example, Perry (1970) asserts individuals evolve through predictable stages, which represents changes to one's epistemological development.

From the constructive-developmental perspectives (Kegan, 1982; 1994), ideally epistemological development should result in self-authorship, the ability to see oneself as an active creator of knowledge, and to distinguish one's own thoughts and feelings from those of others. Self-authorship is needed to work in the heterogeneous consensus collaborative group. According to Piaget (1950), humans move through significant differences in their organizing structures (assumptions) regarding knowledge and learning, which they use to make meaning of their learning experiences. During early stages, learners view the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge and themselves as passive recipient of the teacher's knowledge. The ability to evaluate differing points of view is limited.

Perry (1970) asserts these meaning-making structures evolve through predictable stages, which represents changes to one's assumptions about knowledge and learning (epistemological beliefs). According to Perry and other scholars e.g. (Kegan, 1982, 1994), individuals in early stages of epistemological development have simple, dichotomous views about knowledge. Epistemological development represents movement toward more complex views about knowledge, a focus on the evaluation of different points of view, and the ability to perceive oneself as a knowledge creator. This more advanced epistemological development is characteristic of self-authorship.

These processes often challenge pre-existing epistemic assumptions and engender group processes that potentially evoke powerful emotions among group members that, until recently, have been virtually ignored in much of the trust literature on the OCG. Kegan (1982, 1994) who asserts that movement from simplistic epistemic assumptions to self-authorship is very emotionally laden. Learners, who confront collaborative learning that requires them to learn the content among peers without traditional instruction, may experience an imbalance between their beliefs and the demands of new learning expectations (Kegan 1982, 1994). Trust issues around ability may be heightened. Learners in earlier stages of epistemological development are unsure

of their own ability to co-construct knowledge, have limited ability to shift through different perspectives that their heterogeneous groups represent, and they are unsure if the group can meet their learning needs. Trust in this case has little to do with individual group member behaviour, but may reflect underlying epistemic issues that the learners import into the group.

Furthermore, the ability to resolve ill-structured problems is also characterized as a developmental process (King & Kitchner, 1983; 1994) that leads to epistemic cognition ‘the ability to understand the nature of ill-structured problems and to construct solutions to them’ (King & Kitchner, 2002: 38). These authors characterize the developmental movement from a pre-reflective ways of reasoning about ill-structured problems to epistemic cognition. In the prereflective stage, individuals believe that the knowledge to solve problems come from experts who have the right answers. Individuals in the more advanced stages called epistemic cognition understand that real world problems may not have simplistic or right and wrong answers. Furthermore, people with epistemic cognition accept that they have the ability to solve the ill-structured problems and do not need to rely on experts.

Yet, the imbalance between current beliefs and course demands (collaborative learning) can create a strong emotional need that becomes so powerful that the learner is forced to retreat and re-examine their meaning making structures and thus encounter developmental opportunities. Working through these emotionally-laden tensions is often influenced by unconscious forces both within individuals and the group-as-a-whole (Ringer, 2002; Smith & Berg, 1987, Stapley, 2006). While the individual members retreat because they are unsure that it is safe to collaborate, the group-as-a-whole needs them to risk to trust and engage the collaborative process.

The inability to take the risk to trust the collaborative process is also mediated by self-other relationships. Researchers e.g. (Ringer, 2002; Smith & Berg, 1987; Stapley, 2006) explain that individuals with ill-developed and ill-differentiated self-other relationships respond to risks such as trusting, with harmful ego defenses such as splitting, projecting, and blaming. The presence of the harmful ego defenses places the focus on trust rather than the underlying issues that the members import into the group such as fear of exposure, having their contributions to the group product deleted, fear that they will not learn without traditional instruction, and fear of abandonment when the group does not seem to include them. These defensive mechanisms circumvented the collaborative process in the online groups. The focus on trust rather than the underlying intimacy and epistemic issues threw the groups-as-a-whole into the trust paradox with little hope to move forward.

Smith and Berg characterize the paradox of trust as a ‘conundrum of a cycle that depends upon itself to get started’ (p. 115). The ability to trust depends upon the pre-existence of trust. The paradox represents a powerful push and pull struggle between the group-as-a-whole and the individual members. The group-as-a-whole exerts unconscious pressures on the individual to take the risk to trust and engage the collaborative process. Individuals in early stages of epistemological development are not only unsure that they can do so, but are also unsure of their group members’ ability to help them.

These important developmental and group dynamic issues exaggerate the challenges that adult learners face in their small online groups (Smith, 2008; 2009) as well as opportunities for individuals to confront and work on self-other relationships (Smith & Berg, 1987, Ringer 2002) through the exploration of trust related fears. Smith and Berg (1987) explain that by living with apparent contradictions and shifting the focus from the *idea* of trust to the *process* of trusting,

learners can work through their fear, seek to connect more deeply with other group members, and achieve a more developed sense of self within the group.

When the problem is framed in this manner, it is relatively easy to understand why so many online learning groups end up being dominated by a few voices, with other members simply offering the path of least resistance. Students settle for surface learning reflecting a failure of collaborative learning (Bruffee, 1999). A collaborative approach to learning is not primarily about a technique or method for accomplishing a learning task. Rather, collaborative learning represents a process of meaning-making and initiation into a community of scholars, a form of deep learning (Weigel, 2004). To the extent that individuals within the group do not or cannot experience the joys and struggles associated with this process, they fall short of what it means to engage in collaborative inquiry (Bruffee, 1999).

Conclusion, Implications, and Recommendation

Smith (2008; 2009) concluded that many of the online groups in her study failed to engage in conversations that would allow them to derive the benefits of collaborative learning because they were unable to trust one another and move toward understanding differing opinions, behavior epistemic challenges prevented them from trusting the collaborative process. Although, these issues persisted throughout the semester, a few groups were able to end the trust paradox when they finally stopped focusing on trust and began to discuss their fears. Others were able to move out of the paradox when they began to see that the collaborative process was actually working.

Smith (2008; 2009) suggests three implications for adult educators. The instructor must develop the capacity to identify and hold in consciousness apparent contradictory and paradoxical group movement regarding trust (Smith & Berg, 1987). When instructors intervene, they need to place as much focus on the group process as the course content. Second, instructors must understand the group-as-a-whole process. Smith and Berg contend that when members explore the underlying fears that cause the tension, opportunities group individuation remains possible. Educators therefore need to encourage and nurture this process. Instructors thus need to be very careful that their interventions to help the group deal with their conflict do not interfere with this process. Many instructors try to resolve conflicts with rational conflict resolution techniques, which may prove inadequate and serve to deepen the paradox.

Third, on the one hand the students reveal that the ability to have meaningful engagement about conflict issues via CMC is diminished. On the one other hand one could view this perspective as defensive behavior that allows the groups to blame the computer for their failure to have meaningful; conversations about their blaming behavior. Additionally, the lack of visual cues allowed the participants to hide their true feelings, which may have allowed more ego defense behavior. The defensive strategies such as denial, withdrawing (little participation), splitting and projecting, engaging in fantasies such as threats to leave the group and go to one that did not have the same issues are both adaptive and destructive. When used as adaptively, the group-as-a-whole serves as a container or holding environment for the defensive behavior until the member can make more rational assessments of their situation. In this way the group-as-a-whole can help the groups manage their fears. When used inappropriately the defensive behavior becomes destructive and serves to diminish effective communication about significant issues such as trust and the ensuing conflict.

Further research is needed on the ways in which the online environment helps or hinders the group development process through the use of adaptive and/or destructive defense mechanisms.

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Retention of Women of Color in STEM Doctoral Programs

Missy Soto and Christina Yao

Abstract: Most research studies examine only gender or racial and ethnic identity, with little attention given to women who identify as underrepresented minorities (URM) within science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM); furthermore, current STEM research on women and URM focuses on reasons for departure rather than on student persistence. Therefore, the current qualitative study is important because it analyzes the factors that lead to doctoral STEM persistence, considering both gender and ethnicity. Our central research question is: what are the experiences and outcomes affecting Women of Color's persistence in STEM doctoral programs? The following themes emerged from our study as most salient to the participant's persistence: financial, socialization (peer and faculty), motivation (preference for long-term goals and degree completion), group affiliation and external support systems. This study makes a case for the need to integrate group affiliation and external support systems in effort to retain this population. Proposals of how this study could enhance the persistence of Women of Color in STEM doctoral programs at institutional departments and programs is based on bringing awareness to academic staff of the factors that successful Women of Color in STEM doctoral programs assert contribute to their persistence.

Introduction

Doctoral student persistence for all demographics in the United States is at a rate of approximately 50% (Lovitts & Nelson, 2000). With such low persistence rates, the future of American knowledge creation and research productivity is at risk since doctoral programs serve as a primary source for generating future scholars and field experts through research training and productivity. This phenomenon is of further concern when compared to the doctoral completion rates of underrepresented minorities (URM) and women in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM). Increasing the representation of women and URM in STEM fields has become a national priority as evidenced by policy and research funding initiatives sponsored by governmental organizations such as the National Science Foundation and the U.S. Department of Education (Millett & Nettles, 2006).

Women of Color, whether they are faculty or students, must constantly navigate and negotiate these White male-dominated fields, "which has traditionally devalued their lived experiences, discourses, and ways of producing knowledge" (Souto-Manning & Ray, 2007, p. 281). Thus, much talent is typically lost at transition points of the educational pipeline, specifically from undergraduate degrees to advanced degrees.

Current STEM research on women and URM focuses on reasons for departure rather than on student persistence. Additionally, most studies examine only gender or racial and ethnic identity, with little attention given to women who identify as underrepresented minorities within science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Therefore, the current study is important because it analyzes the factors that lead to doctoral STEM persistence, considering the intersection of both gender and ethnicity. Furthermore, the current study has implications that may lead to success for this particular demographic to cultivate talent through programmatic and

departmental changes by learning from those who have been successful. Our central research question is: what are the experiences and outcomes affecting Women of Color's persistence in STEM doctoral programs?

In the current study, URM includes U.S. citizens and permanent residents who identify as Black/African-American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaskan. URM and Students of Color will be used interchangeably in this study.

Literature Review

Women's participation in STEM doctoral programs has increased in the past 40 years. For example, the number of women who earned doctorates in STEM increased from 9% in 1973 to 47% in 2007 (NSF, 2009). While this may appear to reflect progress for women in education, women are still leaking through the educational pipeline. "Leaky pipeline" is a metaphor frequently used to "describe the fact that women are underrepresented in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) careers" (Blickenstaff, 2005, p. 369). The pipeline refers to students from secondary school through higher education and into the workforce or academe. This is especially true for Women of Color in STEM. Of those conferred STEM Ph.D.s, URM women made up only a small percentage. In 2007, the demographic profile of Ph.D.s granted were 4.6% Asian/Pacific Islander women, 3% Black women, 3% Hispanic women, and 0.3% American Indian/Alaska Native compared to 32.7% White females (NSF, 2009). The persistence of Women of Color in STEM doctoral programs who achieve degree completion has remained consistently low and remains a pressing issue.

Currently, there is a surge in the number of underrepresented students amongst the college-age population; however, few undergraduate minorities are continuing beyond the bachelors degree level to obtain doctoral degrees in the STEM fields (United States Government Accountability Office [USGAO], 2006). Additionally, international students make up a high percentage of doctoral student enrollments in U.S. STEM programs. In engineering alone, international students were awarded 57% of all conferred doctoral degrees in 2004 (Chubin, May, & Babco, 2005). In 2006, the U.S. awarded the largest number of STEM doctoral degrees compared to other countries; however, of those awarded degrees, domestic students earned only 11% compared to international students from China who earned 21% and students from Europe who earned 19% (National Science Board, 2010). Thus, the U.S. is educating and training more international students than cultivating its own talent, which is problematic due to anticipated retirement projections.

The United States is expecting a growing retirement rate in the science and engineering workforce, which is currently comprised of mostly White males in the STEM workforce (Chubin et al., 2005; Millet & Nettles, 2006). However, White males in the STEM fields are expected to decrease from 70% in 1997 to an anticipated 26% in 2050; thus, it is imperative to encourage the talent of all Americans, especially those historically underrepresented in doctoral programs, to ensure a strong and diverse workforce (George, Neale, Van Horne, & Malcom, 2001).

Theoretical Framework

We are utilizing Nettles and Millet's (2006) conceptual model of doctoral student experiences and Sedlacek's (2004) noncognitive variables (NCV) as the frameworks in our study

of factors that lead to persistence of Women of Color in STEM doctoral programs. It is important to note that the five core areas of Nettles and Millet's (2006) empirical model (financial support, socialization, research productivity, student satisfaction, and degree completion) are not exhaustively representative of all aspects critical to doctoral experiences. Thus, we are incorporating Sedlacek's NCVs as a complementary framework in effort to further understand attributes that may contribute toward or play a role in doctoral student persistence. Although Sedlacek (2004) proposes eight NCVs, our study will focus only on two NCVs relevant to the current study: positive self-concept and preference for long-term goals.

Our rationale for using these two frameworks is based on three reasons: first, Nettles and Millet's (2006) conceptual framework is empirically grounded in a study specifically focused on doctoral students. Our second rationale is due to the two frameworks' holistic approaches that incorporate internal and external factors in doctoral students' experiences. Finally, Nettles and Millet (2006) created a model based on doctoral students' experiences and outcomes. In addition, the use of two NCVs allows us to flesh out additional experiences and factors that impact doctoral student retention that is not covered in Nettles and Millet's model.

Methods

We sent emails to professional contacts, peers, student group listservs, and student organizations in an effort to recruit participants for this study. We interviewed four participants, but were only able to use the data from three interviews due to one participant revealing her "All But Dissertation" status and was not intending to complete her doctoral program. All individual, in-person interviews occurred in late March 2010 and were scheduled for one hour.

The participants are all current doctoral students at a large, public doctoral extensive university in the Midwest. All three participants fulfilled the criteria of our study: domestic or U.S. permanent resident, enrolled in a doctoral STEM program, completed at least one full academic year of coursework, and a Woman of Color. "Mary" identifies as an African-American woman in the Department of Pathobiology and Diagnostic Investigation. "Lola" is a Puerto Rican woman in the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, and "Carolina," who identifies as biracial (Native American and African American), is a student in the Department of Psychology-Behavioral Neuroscience. The participants ranged in age from 28-37 years old.

We asked a total of 12 questions, including three general background questions and seven questions grounded in our theoretical framework.

Research Results

Of the theoretical themes investigated, the following emerged as most salient to the participant's persistence: financial, socialization (peer and faculty), and motivation (preference for long-term goals and degree completion). As we analyzed the data, two additional themes emerged that are not addressed by our theoretical frameworks: group affiliation and external support systems.

Financial. Financial support was the most important factor reported by our participants that attributes to their persistence. All three participants receive some form of financial support to cover the costs associated with being enrolled in a doctoral program. The sources of funding are through their program, department, institution, or through an external organization in the

forms of graduate assistantships, external fellowships, financial aid, grants, and loans. Our participants attribute the central role that funding has on their retention for reasons such as peace of mind and increased research productivity.

Socialization. Participants described two distinct socialization needs that have been fulfilled in their doctoral experience--interactions with fellow doctoral students and interactions with faculty (both formally assigned faculty advisors and informal faculty mentors). When asked about their interactions with peers, the three participants further compartmentalized their peer interactions into two distinct groups: peers in their research labs and minority scholar support programs. Participants reported it necessary to feel cohesion in their lab with lab mates and highlighted the importance of having at least one faculty mentor who supported them in non-academic ways such as the personal aspects of their mental well-being, awareness of parenthood responsibilities, or emotional support.

Motivation and Determination. Motivation and determination for degree completion was the third common theme that emerged from the interviews. Specifically, the participants addressed the influence of their preferences for long-term goals and positive self-concept towards their degree completion. All three participants stated that they had an early interest in science, technology, engineering, and/or math, much of it fostered by a parent or a former teacher, and they decided to continue their interest through pursuing an advanced degree. Additionally, all three participants discussed a future career goal that required the need to obtain a terminal degree in their field.

Group Affiliation. An overarching theme from all three interviews was the importance and desire to connect with others from their racial and ethnic background. The issue of feeling “different” arose as a consistent theme when discussing their socialization and interactions with individuals in their programs. Participants attribute the ability to connect with others who are from their racial and ethnic background a factor to their persistence.

External Support Systems. We define external support systems as the availability of more than one person from whom participants seek and find support. The external support systems mentioned by the participants included spouse/partner, family, friends, and peers from minority scholar support programs. Additionally, one participant mentioned spiritual faith. All participants asserted that having an external support system was a key factor to their success.

Implications

The results of the current study align with issues raised in the literature review as well as factors leading to persistence found in our theoretical framework. Motivation and determination were individual characteristics that were driving the participants’ intrinsic desire to complete their Ph.D. Each participant stated that they would complete their degree despite existing challenges, such as the intensity of their research. Their drive is the factor that is motivating them to persist in their program. These intrinsic factors, such as motivation and determination, are beyond the control of institutional or programmatic influence. However, departments and programs should be aware that these are characteristics that may be found in successful Women of Color in STEM. Ideally they should start with their undergraduate population on their campuses in order to cultivate and retain the talent that already exists on their campus, particularly women and underrepresented minorities.

Financial support emerged as the most important practical factor outlined by Nettles and

Millet's (2006) conceptual framework. This is demonstrated by Carolina, who has guaranteed funding throughout the duration of her program. She emphasized that financial troubles would negatively impact her productivity if she were distracted by money problems. Although Carolina and the other participants possess strong internal drive for completing their degree, the need for financial support demonstrates the importance of both intrinsic and practical factors that lead to persistence. Fundraising efforts to create scholarships and fellowships that support high achieving URM and women should be a priority to support these student populations. It is important for the departments to ensure financial stability for their students, especially Women of Color, in order to minimize anxiety and maximize productivity.

Socialization is the interpersonal component of doctoral student persistence. Interestingly, we learned that our participants identified most strongly with their peers in their research labs. All three participants made a distinction between peer interactions in lab and peer interactions in other areas of their program. Most of their peer socialization is housed in the lab; however, minority scholar support programs were equally as important to their socialization for Lola and Carolina.

Interactions with faculty also emerged as a factor in their persistence; however, their experience contrasts with the definition by Nettles and Millet (2006). The participants' socialization with faculty focused on the personal aspects of their interactions that went beyond academic and professional training; rather, the faculty members who are instrumental to their success treated them as people, rather than a "work horse," as described by Mary.

To retain Women of Color, all faculty need to foster supportive lab environments, even if the department or program may be perceived as being non-inclusive to women and underrepresented minorities. In addition, faculty need to be aware that their interactions with Women of Color goes beyond training them for their profession. In fact, the personal aspects of faculty interaction were reported by the participants as being more important to their retention and satisfaction in their program.

Race and gender emerged as additional layers to the socialization piece of the doctoral experience as described by our theoretical framework. This is an important component to the participants' socialization, both with their peers and with faculty. The participants reported very low representations of domestic women and underrepresented minorities in their programs and departments, whereas there is a high representation of international students. This is consistent with the current literature and trends that reflect the current status of Women of Color in STEM (Chubin, May, & Babco, 2005; Cronin et al., 1999; NSF, 2009).

In order for departments to better serve this population within STEM academic disciplines, it is important for departments to recognize the need for this racial/ethnic connection. Furthermore, they should provide information about existing minority scholar support programs or organizations on their campus. Ideally, colleges and/ or departments should make effort to create programs or communities that support the needs of URM who share the same academic discipline. This should be a minimum effort because it plays a role in their retention, and it would likely result in recruitment efforts in terms of appeal to potential students.

External support systems was a theme that consistently emerged when we asked the question: what has helped you be successful? Although this theme did not fit within our theoretical framework, external support systems was the common answer from all participants. Specifically, each participant credited two or more people in their personal lives on whom they relied for support in helping them get through their doctoral program of study. This support

network affected the participants holistically because it helped them with practical matters such as childcare, in addition to emotional and moral support when they experienced challenges in their academic programs such as failing a qualifying exam or major test. The external support group is important because it can serve as a factor in their retention, affect their persistence, and possibly play a role in their attrition. Thus, departments need to recognize that external support systems influence academic performance, and they also need to be sensitive to those who may not have an external support system on which to rely.

Conclusion

The current study is important because it analyzed the factors that lead to doctoral STEM persistence of Women of Color, considering the intersection of gender and ethnicity. Furthermore, the current study has implications that may lead to success for this particular demographic, with recommendations for programmatic and departmental changes by learning from those who have been successful. Outside of the traditional factors outlined by existing literature and theories, our study makes a case for the need to integrate group affiliation and external support systems in an effort to retain this population. By doing so, the implications of this current study could enhance the persistence of Women of Color in STEM doctoral programs.

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Knowledge Building in Process: Adult Learners' Perceptions of Participating in Collaborative Knowledge-building Communities

David S. Stein, Constance E. Wanstreet, and Hilda R. Glazer

Abstract: This study examines the process of participating in online collaborative knowledge-building communities from the perspectives of the learners involved. It questions the idea of online learning communities and reports on the lived experience of students as online learners and the challenges and struggles of trying to build community.

Introduction

Although the discourse on online learning seems to embrace cooperative and collaborative approaches to learning assessment, discussion has not moved toward the higher level of learning—knowledge generation, which adds to the existing content in a given field (McConnell, 2006; Sorensen, 2005; Barab, MaKinster, & Scheckler, 2004). For example, a discussion board might be thought of as a place for individual performance within a cooperative learning environment in that the dialogue helps individual students better understand the content or gain more insight into its application or implications. In that scenario, the task of the discussion board is to help the student master content as prescribed by the instructor (Rockwood, 1995). Discussion spaces, including wikis, can also be thought of as tools for collaborative learning and knowledge building.

The term *knowledge building* has been used to refer to task-based and problem-solving groups and seems to involve the application of existing content to novel situations. However, knowledge building as a learning activity is a different process. Knowledge building is an act of creation that stands apart from its creators. Participation and engagement produce a collective understanding of an issue, phenomenon, or situation. In the classroom, the thoughts that emerge are new to the learners, superior to their previous understandings, and for the good of all (Bereiter, 1994; McConnell, 2006). Knowledge building goes beyond sharing of thoughts and moves toward new collective thoughts that can emerge only in a community committed to pushing the basis of existing knowledge and learning ideas for others to expand further. In that way, knowledge-building communities differ from communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which are voluntary and unite people engaged in the same occupation or career, and task-based communities, which produce a specific product (Riel & Polin, 2004). Knowledge-building communities are appropriate when the subject matter is issue- or problem-focused rather than foundational.

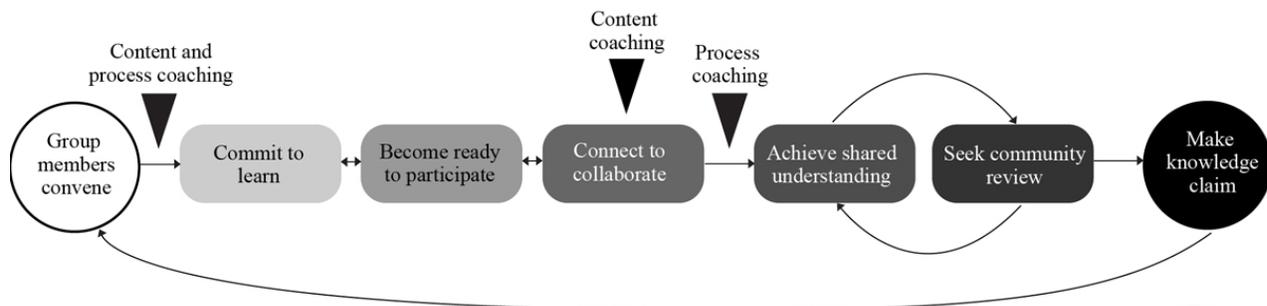
Method and Procedures

This study explored two research questions: (1) What occurs in an online course that moves learners from information acquisition or task completion to knowledge building? (2) What might help groups move from repeating what is known to advancing new ideas?

This study investigated learners' perceptions of how they participated in an online, collaborative learning experience with knowledge-building as the outcome. Volunteers ($n=11$) in two courses at two Midwestern universities participated in interviews about their online group learning experience. Three researchers read the interview transcripts and assigned themes. Coding was based on a system of category, definition, and indicators. To analyze the process of knowledge-building, the researchers explored the development or lack of development in participation, collaboration, and achieving shared understanding.

Building Knowledge in the Classroom

During the knowledge-building process, learners move from seeing themselves as individuals to identifying as part of a group. Building knowledge collaboratively involves six stages: committing to learn, becoming ready to participate, connecting to collaborate, achieving shared understanding, seeking community review, and making knowledge claims. The instructor's role is to provide coaching in content and in the knowledge-building process (see figure 1).



Committing to Learn

Committing to learn involves coming to the learning experience mindfully. Mindfulness involves the willingness to apply cognitive energy to engage with the thoughts of others, looking beyond the obvious, and responding with vigor and rigor (Langer, 1997).

Becoming Ready to Participate

The foundation of the collaborative knowledge-building process is the members' readiness to participate. A number of researchers have described the importance of participation as a factor in developing and maintaining knowledge-building communities (Lock, 2002; Wanstreet & Stein, in press). Based on the literature and a thematic analysis of interview transcripts, this study defines *readiness to participate* as learners becoming engaged with others and generating the situations to be discussed. Learners reported becoming ready to participate by creating a welcoming climate, establishing relationships, feeling emotionally and cognitively comfortable, and formulating initial thoughts on the discussion topic.

Creating a welcoming climate. Socializing at the beginning of the course was necessary to create a welcoming climate. Initial connections structured into the design of the course helped learners identify similar interests and goals that helped them come together as a team.

Establishing relationships. Establishing relationships involves genuine caring and withholding judgment (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986). Group members who had difficulty establishing relationships reported dissatisfaction with the learning experience.

Feeling emotionally and cognitively comfortable. Feeling emotionally and cognitively comfortable about participating in a discussion includes feeling as though your input will contribute to the understanding of the group. Comfort evaporated when group members were perceived as untrustworthy. Experience in collaborative learning—or lack thereof—has an effect on cognitive and emotional comfort.

Formulating initial thoughts on the discussion topic. Readiness to participate means that learners are prepared to engage in the dialogue and create an understanding that addresses the issue in novel ways (Cosier & Glennie, 1994). Formulating initial thoughts in advance of the discussion contributed to learners' preparedness and ultimate satisfaction with the knowledge-building process.

Readiness to participate is reflected in the willingness of group members to get to know one another and the course material in a way that supports collaborative learning. Being unprepared, uncomfortable, or noninclusive hinders participation and the ability of the group to achieve an understanding of the content that is shared by all.

Connecting to Collaborate

Collaborative learning takes place in academic spaces that recognize learners as co-producers of knowledge. To generate knowledge in a collaborative fashion means acquiring new skills, including the ability to work in groups with persons of various backgrounds; to communicate effectively, both orally and in writing; to combine independent and interdependent work to produce a meaningful outcome; and to use social networking and collaborative software (Lipponen, 2002). Establishing a collaborative environment that leads to shared understanding requires ample dialogue that connects group members with one another to explore and understand various perspectives deeply (Stein et al., 2007). Based on the literature and thematic analysis of interview transcripts, this study defines *connecting to collaborate* as dialogue that supports a knowledge-building experience. Learners reported connecting to collaborate by brainstorming, exploring all points of view, challenging perceptions, ensuring equality of voices, and stretching individual perspectives to embrace others' perspectives.

Brainstorming. Brainstorming, exchanging ideas, and making suggestions are necessary for collaboration and knowledge building to occur (Wanstreet & Stein, in press). Exchanging ideas led to knowledge construction through deep and meaningful interactions during regularly scheduled chats, telephone conversations, e-mail messages, and asynchronous discussion board postings.

Exploring all points of view. Exploring perspectives in depth supports meaning-making through sustained communication (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001). Through discussion and feedback, divergent points of view lead to additional exploration.

Challenging perceptions. Learners in this study felt their learning was strengthened through interactions that challenged their viewpoints. When challenging another group member's perceptions is not done with tact, however, the collaborative connection is strained. A challenge without empathy can be interpreted as rudeness and damage the climate for participation.

Ensuring equality of voices. To be a safe place for thinking, an online learning environment should provide opportunities for multiple voices to be heard (Turpin, 2007). Equality of voices can be compromised, however, by language barriers that are perceived as an individual shortcoming and not as an opportunity for the group to draw in participants.

Stretching individual perspectives to embrace others' perspectives. Collaborative connections are enhanced by embracing others' perspectives (Belenky et al., 1986).

Brainstorming and exploring all points of view are ways of connecting to collaborate that help group members stretch their perspectives. Group members who buttress their positions with examples from the readings contribute to the empirical testability of their discourse. Learners who were not willing to explore all points of view engaged in shallow discussions that could not lead to shared understanding and knowledge building. The performance of the groups in relation to connecting to collaborate was uneven, which ultimately affected their ability to come to a common understanding of the issues and possible resolutions under discussion.

Achieving Shared Understanding

Shared understanding is a new perspective that did not exist before the group's discussion and that the group members come to accept as their new position and meaning. Shared understanding is the result of knowledge building. Achieving shared understanding is difficult to do in a classroom situation with contrived groups of learners who may not be committed to collaborating.

Seeking Community Review

Seeking community review is similar to the vetting process in academic publishing or in communities of practice. The community asks whether the work adds to the canon of knowledge, is novel, includes relevant prior work, presents information clearly, and makes reasonable and supportable claims.

Making Knowledge Claims

A knowledge claim pushes the group's understanding about an issue beyond the existing public knowledge. A knowledge claim is a way to understand an issue that improves on earlier ways of understanding and that can contribute to the learning of another group.

Conclusion

The promise of knowledge building lies in its dual capability to support the collective learning of future learners by building on the information artifacts produced by present learners and improving upon what is known about a subject. Electronic tools for sharing emerging thoughts facilitate knowledge building and expand its reach outside the immediate classroom. However, it is the mind-set of instructors and adult learners more than the technology that helps or hampers the knowledge-building process.

To help adult learners move from repeating what is known to creating and testing new ideas, a collaborative knowledge-building framework that accounts for participation, collaboration, and shared understanding could be used. Becoming ready to participate in collaborative knowledge building is the foundation of the framework and involves climate setting, establishing relationships, feeling emotionally and cognitively comfortable, and formulating initial thoughts on the discussion topic. Connecting to collaborate is achieved by brainstorming, exploring all points of view, challenging perceptions, ensuring equality of voices, and stretching individual perspectives to embrace others' perspectives. Shared understanding is individual and collective ownership of a new perspective accepted by the group.

The problem with online learning communities, as these results illustrate, is the difficulty in generating knowledge, given an artificial classroom situation, time constraints, and a lack of commitment to the ideas of progressive discourse. Learners in this study were primarily concerned with sharing information rather than with adding to the existing content in the field. To assist the knowledge building process, instructors could conduct discussions around the idea of commitments when setting norms. These commitments include working toward mutual understanding, framing arguments in ways that can be supported by evidence, expanding the scope of propositions the group considers valid, and being open to critically examining any stance that will advance the discussion (Bereiter, 1994). In order to make those commitments, adult learners must accept the idea of distributed learning and understand that they each play a part in it, not only within their group but within interlocking groups in the class. In that way, knowledge building will support the collective learning of the present group as well as future learners.

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Leading Urban Schools: Narratives of Leadership Trainees and Their Mentors

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Abstract: This paper draws from a larger qualitative study on building leadership capacity in urban schools. This paper focuses on the experiences of leadership or administrative trainees from the New Leaders program and their mentors on the experiences of being ‘in the field.’ The research shows that trainees and mentors focus on different skill sets with trainees concentrating on personal leadership qualities while mentors’ focus on context and on working with the community. Trainees see their internship as a preparation for the future while mentors see trainees as critical to their current leadership teams. The research reveals that it is important for such programs to consider institutional growth in tandem with personal growth to benefit both the individual and the school where they are placed.

Introduction

Leadership development is high priority across the nation as a means to improve public school education. Educational administration programs are challenged to ensure that principals would be able to restructure school settings, learn new roles, and serve as catalysts for change (Firestone, Schorr & Monfils, 2004). Not only must school leaders perform what Elmore (2000) calls "the ritualistic tasks of organizing, budgeting, managing, and dealing with disruptions inside and outside the system" (p.5-6), today's instructional leader must be able to coach, teach, and develop the teachers in their schools.

Several initiatives in the private or non-profit sector have begun recruiting, training and supporting urban public school leaders as a way to meet the shortage and crisis in school leadership. One such program, the New Leaders for New Schools, was initiated in the Midwest Urban School District in 2006 and includes a residency program. Residency programs allow trainees to learn ‘in situ’ and include mentoring by a model principal as well as support from an outside coach. Although such residency programs are widely regarded as valuable leadership preparation, we know little about the experiences of trainees and even less about how mentors in schools view the training programs and the experience of mentoring the participants. By examining both the mentors and the trainees perspectives, we can learn what experienced leaders view as important in training and what novices find most useful. This paper will report the results of a qualitative study of leadership experiences in urban schools.

Research Questions

The research questions driving this study are:

- 1) What are leadership trainees’ experiences of ‘residency’ or ‘field based internships’ at urban public high schools?
- 2) What are principals’ or mentors’ experiences of mentoring or training assistant principals during ‘residency’ at their schools?

- 3) What do the narratives of trainees and their mentors tell us about the best practices, challenges, and limitations of leadership training and preparation?

Methodology

A qualitative interview method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2005) was used for this study. Altogether 6 trainees and 6 mentors were interviewed. Data were gathered through two broad strands of inquiry – a systematic observation of the leadership team meetings, in-depth narrative interviews with trainees and mentors. Data were analyzed in stages (Le Compte, 1999), beginning with an item level analysis (create taxonomies) followed by pattern level analysis (create linkages between items) and then a structural level of analysis (organize relationships among patterns into structures).

Overview of the Research Study

This study grew out of a larger study on leadership capacity building in urban schools. I was part of a collaborative project which engaged fourteen high schools and five school districts along with three universities. Each university worked with one or two school districts. Each faculty member worked with particular schools. We attended formal leadership meetings where discussions pertaining to developing leadership capacity for student achievement were predominant. We also attended other formal and informal meetings comprising teacher leaders and other university the faculty worked with particular schools. We interviewed teacher leaders and members of the leadership team including principals and assistant principals. While our focus was on leadership capacity building, other questions and concerns relating to nurturing leadership began to surface. One of these involved mentoring trainees from the New Leaders program. This paper emerged from the concerns and perspectives of trainees and their mentors.

Results

Data from this study revealed some commonalities in the perspectives of trainees and mentors in terms of concerns. They also revealed tensions between their perspectives along the themes of responsibility, accountability and trust. Both trainees and their mentors were concerned with the development of quality leaders in school settings. However, what the trainees considered crucial for leadership development was different from the skill set that mentors considered important. For example, trainees considered being exposed to several situations important while mentors wanted trainees to be exposed to the same situation several different times to understand the changes in context better. Mentors wanted trainees to focus on discipline and to shadow several different administrators in order to get a wider picture of the different ways in which similar situations could be interpreted and handled. Mentors considered learning how to bring together a diverse group of people together around issues as an important skill to learn for leadership trainees. Ultimately, mentors saw leadership as a process intimately tied to the context while trainees saw leadership as a set of personal and professional skills that was not necessarily tied to context.

New Leaders / Trainees' perspectives of field experiences

Almost all the trainees valued their field experiences and thought they learned a great deal during their internship and from their mentors, coaches from being in the field. One trainee described her typical day in the field that started with her walking the halls and ushering the students into their classes. She then walked through the classrooms, dealing with some overt policy issues such as no wearing of hats. She then went into her office, tackled email, and then answered phone calls from parents. With regard to priorities, she named her first priority as getting students back into the classroom after dealing with discipline issues. Her second priority was working with parents and third, working with teachers.

Trainees considered the three most important skills and attitudes they considered while in the field were – learning to be reflective, not reactive; learning to be a confident servant, and third, learning to listen not merely hear. These skills, in their view were transferable skills to any situation. Only one trainee wrote a journal every night on her observations of how her mentor handled the day to day events in the school and outside of it. In her view, this was crucial because it helped her to critique what she saw and reflect on how she might have handled the same situation. She also kept the journal for use in the future. In her words, “ I might run into the same situation and think, oh, yes, that happened there and I wonder how my mentor handled it. I would go back to the journal and take a look.”

Almost all trainees thought that where they were placed was less important than the skills they learned from watching the mentors. This was partly because several trainees were surprised by their placement over which they had little choice. One trainee expected to be in a school with a bilingual program while another had expected to be in an elementary school, given her area of experience and expertise. Many of the trainees pointed out that the process was mysterious and perhaps flawed. In one trainee's words,

The main corporate office did the pairing up. I would have worked anywhere but the process is not transparent. I would have expected them to put me in a bilingual school since I am bilingual and that is my future goal as well. For some reason, they put me here. I have enjoyed my time here, though.

In the same vein, mentors at schools also discussed the problematic nature of not being given a choice. In their view, they would have preferred to have participated in the selection process. Not being given a choice was perceived as not having a voice or say in what went on at their school sites. This led to a feeling of disempowerment on their part as they likened the decisions to an ‘invisible hand.’ One of the mentors put it in this way,

There is this big invisible hand that seems to decide who goes where and whom we should get here. I would have liked to have had a say in who I had here. Also, no one has asked us so far what we get out of this, as an institution and as individuals, or even what do the students at the school get out of this. Do these adults in the building help the school climate or not? This is the real question and one that gets swept under the rug.

It is clear from these conversations that neither the mentors nor the trainees had any real say in where they were placed. The trainees had little idea whether or not they would be placed at the same school for an additional year. As one of the trainees pointed out, since the training was intense leading to immense growth in the individual in terms of leadership, it would be beneficial to have a meeting before the placement the following year.

Well I think that certainly I'm hoping for a meeting where the administration and I could they could ask me questions see what, get a more clear picture of my profile because the

growth that an intern goes through from the beginning of the year to now is so monumental that it would be better served when deciding where to go if they have a meeting. I'm sure they will, they just haven't told me yet.

Interns like the interviewee were mentally always carrying a 'backpack' ready to move to the next placement at a moment's notice. They were focused on growing their leadership skills and often saw their place as a temporary one at the school. They were intent on learning new skills that would benefit them in the long term. They thought about what they could 'take away' with them. Since most interns were of the opinion that they would not be placed at the school where they interned, they paid attention to learning skill sets that were transferable rather than focusing on the context of the school where they were currently placed.

While the interns felt uncomfortable with not knowing where they would be placed the following year, the same uncertainty left the mentors feeling unsettled. They raised questions regarding responsibility and accountability. In addition, the mentors noted that no evaluation was conducted to examine the impact of resident trainees in school settings.

Mentors' perspectives of New Leaders

In the arena of responsibility and community building, the administrative trainees and mentors experienced a degree of tension. It became clear from the interviews that while administrative trainees got a great deal out of the internship program in terms of personal growth, the mentors were less than enthusiastic about the benefits of the program for the institution. Part of the reason for this difference in perception was that the trainees focused on 'getting ready' to be tomorrow's leaders in schools. The mentors, on the other hand, were already in schools facing crises everyday where they looked to the trainees to lend a hand wherever necessary. A number of factors created the tension. Almost all the factors were cast in the rhetoric of 'time.' While the trainees thought they were making great use of their time, mentors thought that the trainees did not have enough time in the field. Related to this were mentors' perceptions of New Leaders' commitment and loyalty to the school.

In terms of time, the trainees were in a program that had intense coaching and mentoring in addition to courses and training for which they were absent from the school. While the trainees valued this time away in order to learn both in the field and from their peers, their absences were seen as disruptions to the life of the school by the mentors who felt they could not rely on them for the day to day issues that populated a school. One of the mentors confided that she did not think that the New Leaders were getting adequate exposure to issues of leadership in the school since they were frequently absent. She questioned their understanding of day to day issues and was of the opinion that they did not get a good 'feel' for the school. In her words,

I am not a strong supporter of New Leaders. I don't feel that they get a good feel of what's going on and they are gone all the time. If they are at a school where they are totally extra then you would be (getting lots out of it) which I'm not quite understanding, then you are using them as if they are not there. So it does not really matter if they are not there. But in reality if you want somebody to be trained we have to take responsibility for something and own it and this year I am not feeling an ownership at all from my New Leaders. As much as they feel they are owning it, they are not.

Several mentors questioned the ownership or sense of belonging that trainees felt towards the school in which they were placed. They thought that community building was one of the key

points of learning to lead and that the trainees were not in a position where they could learn that skill. One of the mentors for example said,

And not feeling that ownership is where, and even when something as small as wearing a different High School's shirt on Friday. Now that is just to me not getting it. I'm not going there with that person but why would you wear another shirt when our Fridays the day everybody wears their red and black or their school shirt, why would you wear another school's shirt. That is sending a signal out there. Even our coaches who coach for other schools don't wear their other schools shirt because you are building community here at this school.

Another mentor also mentioned the lack of a sense of belonging on the part of the trainees and how they participated in the school's overall activities.

To me it's symbolic that they have so little attachment, it's like this is just my stepping stone let me get on with my life. Now they would probably disagree and this is probably a very strong comment. But it's a true comment and this year I forget they are here.

The feeling that there was a lack of true commitment led to a feeling of resentments among mentors who felt that they had been shortchanged with regard to the number of leaders on their team. Instead of being able to rely on the New Leaders, they had to do what they thought of as 'double duty.' The first duty was to mentor and the second was to pick up the slack for the New Leaders at the school.

One of the most distinct differences between the trainees' perspectives and the mentors' perspectives was around what it meant to be a leader. While trainees focused on attributes of personal growth, the mentors thought that key aspects of leadership had to do with outreach and learning to be a manager. This meant that leaders had to learn to negotiate and create relationships with the neighborhood, with the community outside of the immediate school grounds. They had to have both competence and a philosophy that aligned with their belief system. Finally, mentors put "relentless commitment" as the foremost quality required in leaders.

Conclusion

This study revealed that the differences between the perspectives of the administrative trainees and the mentors centered on different definitions of leadership. Administrative trainees focused on their personal growth independent of the organizational structure while mentors viewed the growth of the individual in the context of the institution as important. Trainees' were committed to the program of leadership preparation while mentors (principals and assistant principals) were focused on the school and the needs of the school. Mentors' views of the skills and knowledge required by leaders were different from the trainees' views. The differences were in part due to the structure of the program where trainees were often absent from the school setting, leading trainees to try to develop transferable skill sets. The absences led mentors to feel less than connected to their trainees. They also thought that personal growth and institutional growth needed to take place in tandem and that one should not be at the expense of the other. The study points to the need for better reflection and organization of the program so that both the individuals and the institutions benefit, grow and learn from each other.

Implications of the applications to practice & theory

The implications for practice and theory in the field of leadership preparation are significant. The data tell us what is important about residency experiences and what administrative trainees learn from such experiences. They tell us that leadership requires an exploration of how context defines the performance requirements and practice of leadership. Finally, the data point to the importance of examining Wenger's theory of a community of practice (1998) for leadership preparation programs. According to Wenger, within organizations, a community of practice will reflect a shared learning that benefits the enterprise as well as the social relations.

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Workplace Learning through Collaboration: A Case Study

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Abstract: This paper is based on a case study that investigated a community based partnership project. The goal of the partnership was to holistically address the health, safety and wellness issues of teen girls in an alternative school. An action inquiry group comprising of the project partners representing the five different agencies was created to identify progress and challenges of the project implementation in order to problem solve jointly. This paper based on a dissertation research reports some of the key findings from the study to describe how collaboration was conceptualized in this setting and the implications for adult learning. The paper also discusses the implications for practice based on the study findings.

Introduction

Community based partnership efforts have generally been recognized as one of the key strategies to deal with the myriad issues facing the urban neighborhoods based on the idea that no single entity/organization seems adequately equipped to deal with these complex environments (Ravella & Thompson, 2001, Lasker & Weiss, 2003, Bazzoli et al., 2003). Adult education practitioners are often placed in these community settings to facilitate partnership processes which make it important to understand this space of interagency work. While many studies have been conducted to document the successes and failures of partnership projects, (Roussos & Fawcett, 2000, Baum, 2002), this particular study attempted to analyze the perspectives and micro-interactions of the partners and extend the understanding of partnership processes to the field of Adult Education. There is relatively little work done in this area of interagency work from a perspective of an adult education practitioner.

The Study

Study Setting: This case study focused on documenting the story of one community based partnership project that brought several organizations together to create a school based intervention for teen girls in a Midwestern city. The physical setting for this study was an alternative school for “at-risk teens” which was run as a partnership school with a Neighborhood Center. The partnership was made up of eleven individuals representing five different organizations: i) the Neighborhood Center that housed the school and was the physical location of the study; ii) a non-profit agency that programmed for teen girls; iii) a local agency that programmed for parents; iv) a public university represented by the School of Continuing Education and the School of Nursing; and v) the Medical School in the city. The representatives of these organizations came together as a group of partners to implement a social program for girls in this school with the focus of creating a “*community-based partnership model for holistically addressing the health, safety and wellness issues facing low-income, high-risk middle school girls.*”

Research Questions: The overall objective of this study was to investigate partnership processes and gain insight into how adults participating in such an effort constructed their

experience of participating in it and learned through this engagement. One of the primary objectives of the partnership was to create a collaborative model. In this paper, I will report some of the themes that emerged related to how partners engaged with the partnering work and the kind of learning demonstrated through this process.

Literature Review: The literature has no common definition of *partnership* or *collaboration* (Huxham, 1996). For the purposes of this study, the two terms are used interchangeably. They can be understood to mean groups of people working as a temporary collective towards some common goals by creating a collective space through which they negotiate, learn, and work jointly. This was the working definition for the study. The paper reports the issues centered on organizational barriers in partnership spaces and tensions between organizational and partnership work that are especially well discussed in the literature on educational partnerships (Sirotnik and Goodland, 1988, Miller & Hafner, 2008). Partnerships designed at the interface of two or more organizations bring out differences that are inevitable when professionals step out of their separate institutional cultures and try to work together. Slater's (1996) use of organizational *habitus* is a useful tool to understand why collaboration is notoriously difficult to build. *Habitus*, she explains (borrowing from Bordieau), can be thought of as deeply ingrained behavioral norms specific to each organization. As a member of the organization, we unconsciously comply with those norms in a prescribed environment. Collaboration and interagency work essentially requires one to step outside of one's own organizational *habitus*, which can only arise out of a genuine understanding of this *habitus* and furthermore, to step into someone else's shoes.

Study methodology: This research study is based on a qualitative design employing a case study method (Stake, 1998). Data for the study was gathered through participant observation, semi-structured interviews with the partners and review of all program documents. The researcher was also one of the partners at the partners' table. All eleven partners were interviewed and more than a dozen partners' meetings were observed as part of the study. The interview and group meeting notes were transcribed and analyzed as narratives. The qualitative analysis was based on analyzing the data into meaningful units and patterns, both descriptive and explanatory. The data were coded and reviewed for analytical relationships among the different themes and categories as they emerged from the coded data (Bogden & Biklen, 2006, Creswell, 2006).

Study Findings: One of the major themes that emerged from the data analysis involved negotiating the boundaries between organizational practices and partnership work. The partners representing different organizations came to the table wearing an organizational hat that was a given and sometimes in direct conflict with the partnership tasks at hand. Partners raised the issue of boundaries and borders in working within the partnership that conjured up spatial images of walls of organizations. These walls represented guidelines and rules for the employees but also their roles in protecting organizational practices. The idea of making walls permeable emphasizes that collaboration could be achieved only by partners defying and/or overstepping their organizational focus. The conflicts arising out of these two positions were centered on many issues ranging from sharing organizational data with different partners, sharing the role of the program coordinator to serve the needs of the partnership which was beyond the organizational mission of one of the partnering agencies, agreeing on what constituted the correct approach to parent programming, and others. The conflict of organizational position and

partnership position spilled over in how the partners framed their work as well as how they talked in the meetings that constituted their partnership experience.

For the most part, the partners' table articulated collaboration through a spatial metaphor. In framing the partnership work, one of the partners explained:

The idea and one of the goals was to make a model of collaboration emerge out of this partnership - I don't think it was ever clear what that model would be. The idea was the partners would come together and start working with the girls and families. The de-facto model, the metaphor I have used is cohabitation, that a group of partners come together to work with these girls, they could come in and share the same space in the school. And essentially offer their services as if they are a single stand-alone agency and do a fine job as they have always done. That would be in my mind the de facto model. To be able to come together you have to figure out how to coordinate your services, how to make their boundaries permeable and to share some responsibilities outside their own boundaries and learn how to share a common space.

These words described succinctly how the partners viewed the act of collaboration.

For a multi-agency collaboration, the idea of creating a space for partnership by permeating through organizational boundaries is not a new one (Agranoff, 2006, Gilchrist, 2006). In the use of a spatial metaphor, there is an assumption that the partnership work would take the partners away from their stand-alone organizational tasks. It also meant that the level of collaboration would be indicated in the way that re-definition could be achieved. Three of the partners (Nursing Center, the Program Co-ordinator from the non-profit who worked with the girls on a goal setting curriculum and the School) had a clear overlap because all three entities worked with the girls directly and coordinating their services was the key to securing an "overlap" space. One of the ways, the partners projected working together to coordinate the services was by undertaking a case review format of individual girls by the program coordinator, the nurses and the teachers. It happened sporadically and informally. The partnership was not able to create a structure that would allow this to happen consistently. One of the partner's inability to share data for institutional reasons was a further roadblock to the individual review of information for girls. No matter what was the specific example of inability to create overlap, the underlying script of collaboration could not be disengaged from the institutional resistance that was encountered in creating collaboration. This represents a paradox in the heart of interagency work.

The case study documented that the partnership encountered organizational *habitus* in many ways: the sharing of data, differences in our approach to parental engagement as well as differences in the sharing of program coordinator. Every agency had a set way of doing things which for the most part was hard to overcome. The partners' table was able to resolve some conflicts arising out of the opposing pulls of organizational and partnership roles like in the case of coordinating the calendar of the program coordinator with the school calendar but not on more deeply grained issues like data sharing or how a partnering organization viewed parental engagement.

Learning through collaboration

Since this partnership project was framed as a collaborative action research project, it was able to create a “learning table” and name many of the lapses in the project implementation. This “learning table” projected a certain understanding of learning required in the partnership space. A large part of the success and challenges of the partnership can be seen as how each partner operationalized the meaning of their roles creatively and intentionally. The extent to which each of the partners was able to cross organizational boundaries was a measure of their learning and responsiveness to an evolving set of tasks that emerged from the unfolding of the partnership. Many of the partnership tasks could not be anticipated ahead of time, like dealing with staff turnover or writing of different applications to Institutional Review Boards of three institutions, reframing the partnership focus based on the needs in the school. Therefore, partners had to engage with continuous redefinition of their own work based on these emergent needs. The tasks could not be predetermined through the contractual language of compliance, which often becomes the basis of partnership work. Rather, a partner’s role had to be re-invented on an ongoing basis in the face of each task and each decision – this level of engagement could only happen through the long term commitment of partners.

The significant learning of partnering work is inextricably tied to partners’ perceptions about tasks that are required of partnership work. There was a difference between partners who understood their task and role as their organizational role and how it was originally envisaged in the proposal and others who were more likely to experiment and step out of this original conception of tasks. The first group was less responsive to the emergent needs of the partnership tasks that required them to rethink their own roles. Going back to the same example of parent programming mentioned earlier, it was clear the partnership struggled to implement the parenting component of the program. Every partner acknowledged the challenge of doing this work but not all partners were able to embrace this difficulty and refocus their energy to engage with the parenting component at the partners’ table. These partners felt that it was the agency responsible for the parenting program to be the entity solely in charge with this component of the program. Other partners stepped to the plate and problem solved with the parenting organization to see how this programming stream with the parents can be strengthened.

Therefore, to the extent each of the partners was able to re-define their work; they were able to demonstrate a shift and an indication of some kind of learning in the context of the partnership. The same difference between partners was mirrored in ways they talked about their engagement. Some partners defined their work narrowly to reflect their organizational mission while others recognized the need to try out new things. Everyone knew that it is hard to change all the things that teens faced in these highly complex environments but if they did not try, nothing would change. Partners who understood that their domain of practice as complex where there was no one model that worked with predictable results, were also the ones who kept trying out new ideas and approaches. Some of the partners evoked the language of complexity and non linear relationships between cause and effect to ground their understanding of partnering work (Snowden and Boone, 2007).

Discussion and Conclusion

If creation of overlap space is a core metaphor for interagency work, the ensuing learning through collaboration can be conceptualized as a boundary crossing practice, in this case crossing organizational boundaries. In this case study, collaboration was conceptualized as

creation of overlap space between agencies, the learning required to create and sustain this space is one that requires stepping outside of one's narrowly defined organizational role. Slater (1996) states that trust and dialogue are the only way to break down these organizational walls and this partnership demonstrated rudimentary growth in this respect. However, the kind of time investment that is required to change organizational *habitus* needs sustained implementation. The piecemeal funding that creates these small local partnerships is really not ideal for fostering partnership work (Baum, 2000) and in addressing issues of organizational *habitus*. This partnership lasted for three years and had only minimal impact on organizational change although this study cannot predict how the learning from this partnership will translate into working in future partnerships for each of the organizations that have been part of this endeavor.

While stepping outside of organizational *habitus* is not always possible, the implication for practice is to look for a way to balance this fundamental tension between organizational and partnership role in all interagency work. The learning embodied in collaboration is to undertake this boundary spanning practice in a situated and contextual way. In this case study, partners who were able to do so either overtly or covertly demonstrated greater responsiveness to the partnership needs as opposed to others who were more loyal to their organizational focus.

Sarason and Lorentz (1997) discuss the notion of coordination as a particular kind of work that cannot be boxed into any job descriptions and skill sets that provide the basis of organizational charts. Their frame, without explicitly challenging any of the better known stage theories or models of partnerships in the literature (Peterson, 1991; Hogue, 1993; Bailey and Koney, 2001); does pose an alternate to boxing collaboration as a set of activities or skills that can be neatly tied into a bounded activity. Instead, they think of collaboration as a kind of "boundary crossing" based on a redefinition of resources. They use the metaphor of boundary crossing to denote a set of skills that is required within and between organizations to focus on building lasting networks with a shared commitment that go beyond organizational roles and responsibilities and in effect defy individual job descriptions within the organization. In that respect, coordination work is cast as a form of community building. This frame for understanding collaboration as essentially a community building effort through creating networks of relationships take us beyond the discourse of organizational roles and responsibilities and a functionalist thinking about it. Instead, it calls for a more comprehensive view of the nature of this engagement as a kind of organizing in contrast to the stage theories of partnership processes.

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Methods and Issues in Doing Research in Community Settings: A Three Member Panel Presentation

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Abstract: This paper explores the learning that has emerged out of two separate participatory action research projects. Emphasis is placed on the need to balance multiple roles and expectations that are inherent in conducting participatory action research within community settings. While the tendency is to shift between roles or relinquish one role in favor of another, the demands of practice is to find a way to balance these tensions and to identify and develop the skill sets necessary to become a practitioner-researchers or research interventionist.

Introduction

A major assumption of Adult Education is that it is a “practitioner field” which is understood to mean that research and practice should be seamlessly interwoven in this discipline (Usher & Bryant, 1989). However, doing research as an activity in one’s field of practice creates several methodological issues that raise interesting research questions as well as challenges for the practitioner. Qualitative research often cautions that researchers are better off doing research in settings not familiar to them (Bogdan & Biklen, 2005). The assumption of ethnographic research is that the researcher, by being an outsider, is better able to make the ‘familiar unfamiliar.’ Through this, it is possible to describe and detail those micro interactions that might otherwise be taken for granted by those within the setting. However, these assumptions are called into question when the researchers are also engaged in practice rather than merely documenting the practice of outsiders. Such research does not fall into the neat realm of “insider research” either. Instead we raise the possibility after Schein (1987) of researcher as ‘clinician.’ Given this reality, how do adult education practitioners really bridge the practice to research gap, and to what extent is this possible? Alternately, what does it exactly mean to bridge the research to practice gap and in what ways are we able to do so?

This paper comes out of two different projects based on collaborative action research. We will focus on the problematic nature of doing research in one’s practice setting. There is a common understanding about research and practice as two separate activities with distinctly different aims. But as practitioner-researchers or research interventionist, we are placed in unique positions where we are required to weave research and practice as a seamless activity. We will describe what this means in the context of our professional practice and what we have learned from doing practitioner-research with specific examples from practice. Section I of the paper will bring out some of the contradictions of the dual engagement as a researcher and a participant through a first person narrative. The second section of this paper presents a model for conducting action inquiry among collaborative partners. The third section will identify a set of dilemmas and role conflicts within action research settings.

Project A

This project was designed as an effort to create a support network among six community agencies that would coordinate services for a group of at-risk, African-American, middle school

girls in a Midwestern city. One of the major goals of the funded project was to create a collaborative model for coordinating services among the participating agencies. The original proposal did not identify a specific collaboration model from the practice literature. Rather, a grounded theory approach was taken in which a model would emerge out of the efforts by the agencies to coordinate their services in response to the health and wellness needs of the middle school girls.

Project B

This project was designed to facilitate the development of civic capacity for action among high school students through Public Achievement. Started by Harry Boyte in 1990, Public Achievement (henceforth referred to as PA) is defined as a self-directed collective action facilitated by adult coaches where students learn the skills of negotiation, one on one interviewing, public speaking and collective evaluation. In addition, PA requires students to learn concepts of power, self-interest and ‘public work’ (“lasting civic goods”) across differences. A group of faculty members and graduate students formed an action inquiry group to facilitate action research on this project.

Section I

As a member of the School of Continuing Education, I am often placed in a position where I work with community members on multiple partnership projects. I was six months into working on Project A, when I decided to undertake my dissertation research and develop a case study from this engagement. Once I started fieldwork, I experienced a fundamental conflict between conducting research and sharing findings in the context of a collaborative action research setting. From this perspective, I was in a position where I could help the group by sharing my research findings but doing this would not only violate confidentiality but also had the potential of blowing the group apart because some of my findings touched on hot button issues. However, the fact that this project was already framed as a participatory action research process allowed some of the issues I was identifying from my research to be brought to the whole group in a learning space. This was made possible because this participatory action research frame included monthly meetings in which the partners could engage in problem solving, negotiate issues, and reflect on what was being learned through the process of implementing the project. This information was recorded as part of the project reporting requirements through a tool developed by the partners call ACLs or identifying accomplishments, challenges, and learning. In this context, during one of the partners’ meetings, I explicitly stated that there were many issues that had come up in the interviews which I felt should be brought to the table but I could not do it since my hands were tied by confidentiality agreements. However, my statement opened a space to bring forth several things in the ensuing discussion that were not discussed in the group previously. This resulted identifying some of the underlying tensions in the project that I was identifying through my research activities.

Another example of shifting between researcher and practitioner mode occurred in one of the partners’ meetings during which I was so focused on being a researcher that I had to relinquish some of the practitioner tasks of intervening and facilitating. Reflecting on the meeting later, I raised this issue with a co-participant who reminded me that I also had an interventionist role in this setting and should have raised this issue in the meeting. The particular

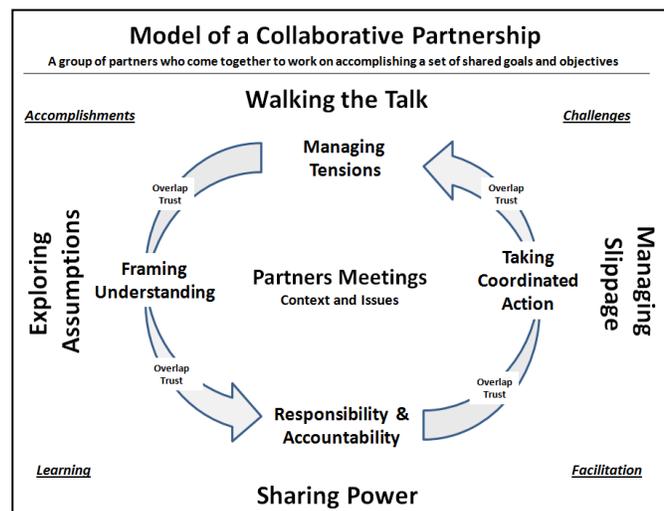
example was in regard to some confusion over understanding the role of one of the partners. I had a certain understanding of her work based on my interviewing the person but I was not able to clarify this confusion in the partners' meeting because I could not reveal the source of the knowledge. On hindsight, the practitioner task was to translate this knowledge in a way that would allow it to surface in the group in order to make the roles clear but I was not able to do it productively. This inability stemmed from the fact that I was confronted with a three pronged dilemma involving my participation. First, I was wearing a researcher hat and was responsible for maintaining research confidentiality. Second, I was wearing the interventionist hat and wanted to act on the information for the benefit of the group. Finally, I was wearing a practitioner hat that required the necessary skill set to act effectively in this context. A participant-researcher role required negotiating all these three tasks simultaneously.

Researching in one's practice setting brought to the forefront the inherent tensions which was not just a matter of shifting from researcher to practitioner position. This kind of engagement required a balancing of tensions that emerged in my participation as a participant-researcher, which entailed a constant balancing act of stepping in and stepping out of the "researching" mode to the "practice" mode. More importantly, it meant that the three features identified in the previous paragraph needed to be carried out simultaneously on an on-going basis, which required a high level of facilitation skill.

Section II

The preceding discussion describes the context for what became a participatory action inquiry (research) process among the participating agencies. From the beginning, the agencies agreed to hold three-hour monthly meeting to coordinate their activities, review progress, address issues and challenges facing implementation, make needed changes, and continue to monitor their progress. These meetings were held consistently throughout the three years of the project and became the wellspring from which the model depicted in the figure below emerged. This model identifies set of interpersonal dynamics that characterized much of the partners' collaborative efforts. It emerged out of discussions among the partners and has been affirmed by the members as an accurate depiction of the underlying issues that were present throughout the three-year project.

At the center of the model are the monthly partnership meetings that focused on implementing the grant by addressing the stream of issues that came to the table. Four themes emerged from within these interactions as the members wrestled with their day-to-day implementation needs and challenges. These issues were not addressed directly, nor in a sequential manner. Rather, they were, for the most part, unspoken issues that were being addressed through specific topics, needs, and activities that constituted the formal and/or informal agenda for the meetings.



Starting on the left hand side, framing understanding of the projects and the roles of the partners was one of the four thematic issues. The partners came to the table with their own organizational goals and missions, which framed their approach to the partnership. This initial framing of their own roles within the partnership and how they would work with the other agencies included a set of assumptions that each partner carried into their collaborative or coordinated work. These assumptions existed but they were never explored in any systematic and in-depth way. Over time, this framing theme became expressed as working in silos and the need or challenge to break out of the silos to better serve the students and their families.

Looking to the right hand side of the diagram, taking coordinated action was the primary theme or agenda item for most of the partners meetings. This theme involved the issue of whether the partners were meeting their goals and how to have the discussion without finger pointing and blaming. The notion of slippage became a metaphor that facilitated this discussion. It was possible to talk about slippage as a naturally occurring process that simply needed to be identified and addressed before things got out of hand. The challenge, however, was how to coordinate their activities and what constituted coordination. When is one partner being expected to do the other partner's work? What if one partner assumed that one or another partners would assist but the organizational mission of partners limits, if not prohibits, giving that assistance? Over time, this theme of coordinating action involved deeper issues of trust, responsibility, and accountability. These issues could not be adequately discussed without simultaneously addressing issues of unspoken assumptions and exploring divergent ways of framing their role and contribution of partners' collective work.

A third theme was sharing responsibility and accountability. Like coordinating action, this theme was a major topic of many partnership meetings as the months passed by. The partners eventually evolved a format for conducting meetings and taking minutes that allowed them to identify specific needs or issues that required attention, decide which partner or group of partners would take responsibility for addressing that need or issue, and report back at the next meeting on progress as a form of accountability. As the partners began to implement this meeting format the group achieved a level of productivity that reinforced an emerging sense of shared effort in serving the students and families. However, there were limits to this growing sense of shared responsibility and accountability. Again, the partners could not discuss, or did not realize that they needed to discuss, their respective underlying assumptions on how each member will work within the partnership. Over time, lack or inability to explore unspoken assumptions created tension within the group. Managing tension was the fourth underlying theme that emerged within the interactions between the partner members.

Section III

In this section, we explore further the inherent tensions that emerge in the context of collaborative action research. The tensions discussed below emerged out of project B which involved facilitating civic capacity building in a high school. The project involved two layers of action inquiry, i.e. action research among high school students and action research with the graduate students serving as coaches for these high school students. One of the tensions made visible by our participation as action researchers and reflecting on the dilemmas of practice was observed in the group of graduate students who had a difficult time differentiating between the coach role from the teacher role which several held prior to entering graduate school. Just like in

project A, the researcher and practitioner dilemma involved relinquishing one in favor of the other, instead of balancing the tension between the two. The graduate students needed to adopt the coach role but struggled with relinquishing the teacher role, which represented their professional skill set.

Another central dilemmas faced in our action research project was to balance the tension between the need to document the process of civic capacity building while at the same facilitating the process of building capacity. Each participant belonged to several different communities including coach, researcher, graduate student and/or a faculty member. These multiple communities influenced all activities and involved learning to become a member in more than one community. While reflecting on day to day challenges at the school, differences emerged between the roles held by the participants. The different priorities of documenting process and facilitating capacity building highlighted the fissures that divided us in different communities. While the project was focused on developing social action among high school students, the dialogue and action among the members implementing the project was dominated by a set of underlying role conflicts that stemmed from the different communities in which the members belonged. For example, the graduate students had the role and responsibility to serve as action research coaches for the high school students. Some also had the pressure and expectation to undertake and complete their dissertation. The faculty member had the responsibility to oversee the implementation of the project and to serve as a coach and teacher within this project. However, the faculty member also had the responsibility to guide the dissertation research of the graduate students or at least help to ensure that progress on their dissertations was not impeded by the implementation of the project. One of the ways to bridge the roles was to focus on observation as a tool for documentation (doing the dissertation) or facilitation (coaching the high school students) that was common to every member in the group. This is similar to the use of a “learning table” in project A as a tool that created a space to discuss the possibility of balancing the tension between roles of researcher and coach/practitioner.

Conclusion

What is the primary responsibility of a researcher-practitioner? In our experience, we found this an extremely challenging position to be in. We also found that instead of shifting from researcher to practitioner and vice versa, it is most productive to think in terms of balancing the multiple priorities that are part of each of these roles. This means that instead of viewing practice and theory as oppositional, we need to anticipate the tensions of inhabiting the practitioner-researcher role and balance the competing priorities. The opportunity is to begin to frame the roles, responsibilities, and skill sets of the research interventionist. This can be accomplished across the life cycle of multiple projects in which the research interventionist is engaged. From an action research/inquiry approach, the conclusion of one project is not the end but rather the beginning of another cycle of community action research. The four corners of the diagram point to topics for critical reflection that can/should inform future practice: What was accomplished? What challenges surface? What was learned? What facilitation practices can be carried forward? This critical reflection in current and past experiences can frame a systematic inquiry into one’s own practice to improve future practice. A challenge for practitioners is to create opportunities and expectations that this kind of reflective practice occurs on a regular and consistent basis.

Presentation on findings and practices in conferences like Midwest Research to Practice offers a vehicle for this reflection to occur with the benefit from comment and review by colleagues.

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Early Freire, Scientific Freire, and Mature Freire: Complete Ontological and Epistemological Rupture or Partial Shifts?

Rey Ty

Abstract: This article rejects the mainstream view that Freire made one all-important definitive contribution to popular education. Althusser's application of the theory of epistemological breaks (2006) informed this research. Based on a deconstructive re-reading and survey of Freire's important literatures this research traced the diachronic changes in Freire's thought: Christian, Marxist, and postmodern. The results of this research have implications to research and practice in adult, continuing, extension, and community education.

Introduction

Description of the Issue

Paulo Freire is an author to which many articles and books make reference, especially those dealing with critical pedagogy and popular education. Freire is often but erroneously pinned down as having metaphysically produced an immutable formula for his pedagogy for liberation. This article challenges the dominant interpretation that Freire primarily developed a method once and for all that has timeless applicability. Many view critical consciousness, dialogue, and the problem-posing education as the definitive formula for liberatory education, which is a misrepresentation of Freire. Freire is far more complex than these trite formulations. In contrast, this paper presents the argument according to which Freire's ontology and epistemology developed from one space and time to another, yet it remains to be a coherent and cohesive philosophy, despite numerous changes.

Research Questions

This paper answered two research questions. One, based on the literatures he cited, what are the different phases in the development of Freire's ideas? Two, what are the implications of the findings to adult, continuing, extension, and community education?

Intellectual Inspiration as Theoretical Framework

Althusser, who was a professor at the École Normale Supérieure in Paris, France, studied the evolution of the ideas of Marx. Althusser inspired me to do a similar study on Freire. Althusser (2006) claimed that Marx had an epistemic break or discontinuity in his writings. Hence, he classified Marxist thought into two: young Marx and mature Marx. The *problématique* or the fundamental structure of thought of the Young Marx focused on the study of ethics and ideology, while the *problématique* of the mature Marx focused on the scientific study of history and political economy. Althusser claimed that the break was not a specific event in a chronological point in time but a process. Hence, there still was continuity amidst discontinuity. Althusser asserted that Marx was grossly misunderstood. I make the same claim that Freire was likewise grossly misunderstood and that his break was a process. This article continues the in-depth research based on the direction that Jeria (1989) took, showing the various influences on Freire through time (history) and space (context).

Research Process and New Insights and Challenges on the Issue

The issue raised in this research developed new insights about Freire and critical pedagogy. Specifically, this paper advances a controversial argument that Freire had paradigmatic shifts, but not total epistemic breaks. While Freire consistently struggled against the pedagogy of the oppressed, he did not speak with one voice. He spoke with multiple voices throughout his life in different contexts and historical moments. Hence, one image of Freire is insufficient to describe and interpret his educational philosophy. Rather, Freire can be classified as young Freire, middle-aged Freire, and mature Freire: Freire the Christian existentialist, Freire the political economist, and Freire the postmodernist. However, Freire must not be broken up into pieces, as educators must recognize both tensions and maturity in the development of Freire's philosophy of education.

Only textual evidence from Freire's own words in his books will be used. Interpretations from secondary sources will not be used in this research. Major works of Freire's subject to textual analysis in this research include the following: (1) *Education for Critical Consciousness* (2006), (2) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1997; 2005), and (3) *Pedagogy of Hope* (1996b). Some other books which are possible candidates for this literature survey do not qualify, such as *Letters to Cristina* (1996a) and *Pedagogy of the heart* (2006), as, by the nature of the writings, more of personal reflections, they do not contain academic references.

Linking Theory and Practice

This paper clearly links research and theory to practice. It challenges the conventional wisdom about Freire's pedagogy as a given formula, based on the research-based theoretical literatures. It warns of the negative effects of such reading of Freire's works on the practice of curriculum development, educational policy, as well as teaching and learning, especially from the perspective of critical pedagogy. This research presents the alternative view that there are at least three phases in the development of Freire's ontology and epistemology: early Freire, middle Freire, and late Freire, each with its own distinct "flavor," with both its tensions and unison, when taken as a whole.

Surely, Freire had made paradigm shifts in each stage of his development. However, Freire did not completely reject his previous tools of analysis. Rather, he refined and enriched his social investigation by adding newer tools of analysis available to him in new contexts in which and in different historical periods during which he lived.

Findings

Social and political thought changes throughout human history. Ideas are conveniently categorized as ancient or classical, medieval, modern, and postmodern (Curtis, 2008; Rosen & Wolff, 1999). Just as historical moments and ideas change, Freire's ideas likewise changed throughout his lifetime.

Early Freire In the history of ideas, there are different ways in which humans constructed knowledge. During the early stages of human evolution, living and coping with the natural world was part of knowledge construction. In his book, *Education for Critical Consciousness*, Freire (2002, p. 34) called this "fatalistic" and "naïve consciousness." Later,

humans created superstitious beliefs, which Freire (2002, p. 17) termed “intransitive” or “magical consciousness.” Semi-intransitivity is found in “circumscribed” and “introverted” communities where people “cannot apprehend problems situated outside their sphere of biological necessity” (Freire, 2002, p. 17). “Their interests center almost totally around their survival, and they lack a sense of life on a more historic plane” (Freire, 2002, p. 17). In the state of semi-transitivity, people “confuse their perceptions of the objects and challenges of the environment, and fall prey to magical explanations because they cannot apprehend true causality” (Freire, 2002, 17).

Freire (2002, p. 17) stated that as people “amplify their power to perceive and respond to suggestions and questions arising in their context, and increase their capacity to enter into dialogue... with other [people and] the world, they become ‘transitive’.” Freire (2002, p. 17) added: “It leads [one] to replace [one’s] disengagement from existence with almost total engagement.” Freire (2002, p. 4) defined conscientization as “learning to perceive social, political, and economic contradictions and to take actions against the oppressive elements of reality.” “*Conscientização* represents the development of the awakening of critical awareness” (Freire, 2002, p. 19). Freire (2002, p. 19) explained that in “Brazil, the passage from a predominantly intransitive consciousness to a predominantly naïve transitivity paralleled the transformation of economic patterns.” In a nutshell, Freire (2002, p. 44) said: “Critical understanding leads to critical action; magic understanding to magic response.”

At this point in time, Freire himself was a devoted Christian who was involved in social action. Using Christian theological explanations, Freire (2002, pp. 17-18) wrote: “Existence is a dynamic concept, implying external dialogue between [people], between [people] and the world, between [people] and their Creator.” Freire (2002, p. 18) added that: “It is this dialogue which makes of [the human being] an historical being.”

The young Freire (2002) cited Gabriel Marcel, a French Christian existentialist (p. 19), C. Wright Mills, a U.S. sociologist advocating political engagement (p. 34), Jacques Maritain, a French Catholic philosopher (p. 39), Karl Mannheim, a Jewish Hungarian-born anti-fascist sociologist (p. 41), and Karl Theodor Jaspers, a German existentialist (p. 45). Based on the authors that he cited, the young Freire was an educator who was a Christian existentialist and sociologist who was calling for political engagement.

Scientific Freire. In his book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Freire turned modernist, more secular, and Marxist. He talked more about Marxist philosophy, dialectical historical materialism, political economy, and socialism than about Christianity. In this stage of his life, Freire (2002, p. 18) emphasized “critical consciousness.” Freire cited “Marx and Engels” (Freire, 1997, p. 75) and Lenin (Freire, 1997, pp. 106-7). At the same time, he cited the original critical theorists of the “Frankfurt School,” such as Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno, Herbert Marcuse, and Jürgen Habermas.

Specifically, Freire (2005) cited Rosa Luxemburg, a Polish Jewish Marxist (p. 35), Karl Marx and Engels, German co-founders of Marxism (p. 51), György Lukács, a Hungarian “Western” Marxist (p. 52), Erich Fromm, a German member of the “Frankfurt School” of critical theory (p. 59), Frantz Fanon, a postcolonialist from Martinique (p. 62), Régis Debray, a French pro-Che Guevarra who studied under Louis Althusser in Paris (p. 64), and Simone de Beauvoir (p. 74). Others whom Freire (2005) cited included Jean-Paul Sartre (p. 76), Reinhold Niebuhr, a U.S. Protestant theologian who combined Christianity with Marxism (p. 78), Edmund Husserl,

an Austrian-German phenomenologist (p. 83), Lenin, a classical Marxist from the former Soviet Union (p. 125), Fidel Castro, a “Third World” Marxist (p. 129), Gajo Petrovic, a Marxist humanist from the former Yugoslavia (p. 137), Pope John XXIII of the Roman Catholic Church (p. 140), and Albert Memmi, a Jewish Tunisian postcolonialist (p. 140). In addition, Freire (2005) also cited Louis Althusser, an Algerian-born French Marxist (p. 159), Ernesto “Che” Guevarra, an Argentine-Cuban “Third World” Marxist (p. 163), Camilo Torres, a Colombian theologian of liberation (p. 163), Martin Buber, an Austrian-born Jewish theological existentialist, Bishop Franic Split of the Roman Catholic Church (p. 143), and Marie-Dominique Chenu, a progressive reformist French Catholic theologian (p. 172).

In summary, “middle Freire” was still a Christian existentialist and phenomenologist, but he leaned more onto classical Marxism-Leninism as well as western Marxism or critical theory, “Third World” Marxism, and postcolonialism. At this stage, Freire’s citations were not only from dead or living white men but also women and people of color. From being a Christian scholar practitioner, Freire at this point in time was becoming more of a modernist Marxist thinker of different variants, combining classical Marxism-Leninism with western Marxism or critical theory and Third-World postcolonial thought.

Late Freire. When Freire wrote the *Pedagogy of the Heart*, his sources became even more inclusive. The mature Freire (1996b, p. 10) defended “progressive postmodernity” and rejected “conservative neoliberal postmodernity.” At this stage, he made references to many U.S. based and other critical theorists, as he interacted with them in this different historical period and context. Some of them were Henry Giroux, a U.S. critical pedagogist (p. 11), Donalddo Macedo, a Cape Verdean-American critical theorist (p. 11), Ira Short, a U.S. critical pedagogist (p. 11), Stanley Aronowitz, a U.S. urban sociologist who combines Marxist political economy and culture (p. 11), and Michael Apple, a U.S. critical education theorist (p. 11).

However, the mature Freire (1996b) did not abandon existentialism, classical Marxism and postcolonialism. For example, Freire (1996b) continued to cite Jean-Paul Sartre, a pro-Mao Zedong pro-postcolonial, pro-Third World existentialist Marxist (p. 17), Frantz Fanon, a postcolonial theorist from Martinique (p. 17), Ernesto “Che” Guevarra, an Argentine-Cuban “Third World” Marxist (p. 43), Marx and Engels, founders of classical Marxism (p. 88), and Albert Memmi, a postcolonial Jewish Tunisian (p. 105).

He became self-critical and emphasized the need to be gender sensitive as well as to include ethnicity in social analysis. Furthermore, he called for the need to respect differences, including gay rights. In summary, from being a Christian writer, Freire became a Marxist and now a postmodernist. Freire made a distinction between conservative postmodernism which is sophistry and progressive postmodernism with which he identified. Based on textual evidence, the mature Freire was still a “Third World” Marxist, existentialist, phenomenologist, and postcolonialist. But at the same time, he now entered into dialogue with U.S. critical pedagogists and progressive postmodernists.

Summary. People change their views, including Freire. Freire was predominantly a Christian existentialist and phenomenologist in his *Education for critical consciousness*. Later, Freire became a classical Marxist-Leninist in the *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Mao Zedong influenced Freire in his views about culture, education, and consciousness. The critical theorists of the Frankfurt School later impacted his ideas. By the time Freire wrote the *Pedagogy of the*

heart, he was a progressive postmodernist. There were epistemic breaks. But there were also some overlaps. Freire's shifts were not neat, as the shifts were not total breaks.

A Grounded Model of Freire's Pedagogy and Implications to Education

History of Ideas	Phases	Philosophy	Ontology	Epistemology	Implications to Education
Classical Thought; Medieval Thought	Early Freire	Critique of Superstitions; Christian Existentialism	Objective Idealism	Metaphysical Dualism	Christian values
Modern Thought	Scientific Freire	Variants of Marxism and Leninism	Dialectical Materialism	Historical Materialist Monism	Historical, economic, social and political analysis
Postmodern Thought	Mature Freire	Progressive Postmodernism	Not subjective Idealism	Relativism; deconstruction	Cultural analysis

Conclusion

Restatement of the Problem

This article presented the controversial findings according to which current interpretations of Freire are erroneous. The burden of proof lies with me as the author of this research, which I have provided. Debunking the current understanding about Freire, I presented the antithesis that Freire historically and dialectically developed his pedagogy. Direct textual evidence from major works of Freire was analyzed in detail.

Summary

In summary, there are at least three phases in the development of Freire's thought: early Freire, middle Freire, and late Freire. Each one has a distinct "flavor." What do textual evidence reveal? Freire did not reject his earlier tools of analysis in each of the three stages in the development of his thought, such as Marxism and postcolonialism. Instead, flowing with the changing times and contexts, Freire added on new theoretical tools to sharpen his analysis. Sure, Freire had made paradigm shifts. But they are more of refinements by adding new tools to enrich his social and political analysis, not rejection of "older" frameworks of analysis.

Early Freire was a Christian nationalist. Still influenced by Christian existentialism, middle Freire was engaged in a Christian-Marxist dialogue but tended to be more of a scientific Marxist. Late Freire still carried Christian and Marxist tones, but was postmodernist on the foreground.

Implications and Importance to Research and Practice in Adult, Continuing, Extension and Community Education

So what? Error in understanding Freire has direct impact on the usage of Freire's ontology and epistemology on educational research and practice. Those who see in Freire an immutable formulaic method are in danger of universalizing his historically and socially

contextualized ontology and gnosiology, which were in fact always in the course of constant development. Far from laying down a blueprint fixed for all eternity, Freire was a very complex thinker whose ideas went through spiral development. In the Hegelian tradition (Hegel, 1979 & 2001), Freire's old ideas (thesis) and new ideas (antithesis) qualitatively and quantitatively interacted and changed to bring about a new set of ideas (synthesis) over and over again. He demonstrated his sophistication by adapting to the changing times (history) in the different places in which he resided and to which he traveled (social contexts). Historical and social determination is an important lesson for adult, continuing, extension, and community educators, who, in Freire's tradition, therefore, must also adjust to the shifting times and places. At the same time, while educators, in the practice of Freirean approach, need to enrich their pedagogy, they do not necessarily have to discard their earlier worldviews, just because they are previous perspectives they have adopted in the times past.

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Education for Justice

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Abstract: Determined by socio-economic relations, justice is a norm important in social and political consciousness. However, because of its universal significance, justice is also relatively independent of specific economic or political life. A gap exists, as while many educators use justice as a concept in teaching and learning, many do not even have a basic definition. This paper provides implications to educational policy and practice.

Introduction

Statement of the Problem. Education is not neutral. By keeping quiet about social inequalities, educators in effect accept the status quo. Due to the struggles of African Americans throughout history, civil rights are now recognized in courts. Slavery and public lynching are gone. But U.S. folks still experience discrimination and are still far from reaching full equality. Among those who experience discrimination are Native Americans, African Americans, Latinos, Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders, women, gays, lesbians, disabled, Muslims, senior citizens, and atheists. White men complain of reverse discrimination. Everyone, regardless of color, sex, size, weight, age, abilities, economic or social status deserves fair treatment. Educators, therefore, have a duty to promote justice. But what is justice? Many talk about justice without knowing what it means. Worse, the term 'justice' is not defined.

Research Goals. The goal of this paper is to provide ideas on the way by which justice can be incorporated in teaching and learning, the outcome of which will be a heightened understanding of the theory and a corresponding increased practice of justice in society.

Research Questions. This research answered the following research questions: One, what is justice? How has the meaning of the term evolved historically? Two, what are the implications of the changing meaning of justice to adult and community education? What are the different ways in which educators can engage in education that promote justice?

Various Theoretical and Practical Approaches That Deal with the Concerns. Various approaches deal with the concern for education for justice. They include critical pedagogy; and, anti-racist, citizenship, civic, development, environmental, gender, human rights, intercultural, inter-group, moral, multicultural, peace, global, and values education (Flowers, 2007; Osler & Starkey, 1996; Tarrow, 1991). Although they are related, these approaches have different priorities and focuses.

Research Process. This paper provides a literature review (Torraco, 2005) that traces the etymology, genesis, and historical development of the concept from ancient to the medieval, modern, and postmodern thought. Implications to education are provided.

Findings

What is Justice?

Etymology. According to the *Etymology Dictionary* (2010), the mid-12th century word justice refers to the use of authority in justification of right by giving reward or punishment. It is derived from the Old French *justise*, Latin *justitia* meaning righteousness or equity and *Justus*, i.e. upright or just. The Old French word means uprightness, equity, vindication of right, court of

justice, and judge. By the 14th century, the word just means righteous in God's eyes, upright, and impartial, from the Old French *just* and from Latin *justus* meaning upright or equitable, and from *jus* and *juris* meaning right, legal right or law. Justice is a "moral ideal that the law seeks to uphold in the protection of rights and punishment of wrongs" (Martin, 1997, p. 254).

Requirements include "an impartial judge" and "all parties being heard" (Stewart, 2006, p. 297).

Evolution of the Concept. The content of the term justice is historically and socially determined and changes meanings from one period and one context to another. Claims are made that situations are on the one hand appropriate and match human essence, rights, and needs, or on the other hand clash with them and must be purged. While good and evil rest on the individual level of analysis, justice can only be understood from the social level. Justice and injustice, therefore deal with the role people play in society in relation to others; pay to work; rewards to abilities; crime to punishment; abilities to social recognition; and, rights to duties.

Classical Views of Justice

Ancient Asian Views. Buddha and Confucius contributed to the idea of justice. Buddha's sense of justice extends to all living things, teaching compassion and not doing harm to any sentient being. For Buddha (1966, p. 468), great rulers "must judge justly... [and] pronounce [their] verdict with kindness... [and] sympathy." Confucius (2010) stressed love of humanity, proper conduct, justice and sincerity. Confucius' Golden Rule stated that one must not do unto others what one does not want others to do unto you, doing good to good and justice to evil.

Ancient Greek Views. In their epic poems, both Homer and Hesiod showed the genesis and evolution of ethics, as a discipline, which led to the corresponding recognition of abstract moral values, the subject matter (Bakshanovsky, et. al., 1986). Hesiod was the first to attach a moral and legal connotation to the word. Homer's characters Hector and Achilles are collectivist, patriotic, and work for the welfare of the people. Hesiod portrayed the worldviews of peasants and petty property owners vis-à-vis that of the aristocrats. "...Hesiod considers labour and justice as *supra-individual* moral standards outlining the boundaries of decent behaviour..." (p. 8).

In the drama, *Antigone*, Sophocle (2010) distinguished between human and divine justice. Civil disobedience to authority is preferred to blind obedience to erroneous human laws. King Creon ordered Polynices to be unburied and prey for vultures. Antigone felt that divine justice dictated that she bury her brother, in defiance of human justice.

Plato's protagonist, Socrates, always asked "what is justice?" about everything: in dialectics, rhetoric, social relations, politics, and ethics. For Plato, justice is seen as deserts, consisting in personal fulfillment, being in one's proper place, recognizing and using one's inherent abilities, giving each person one's due, receiving what one deserves—all for the common good. Plato noted in his book *Gorgias* (2009): "Are injustice and intemperance and the other baseness of soul therefore the greatest evil among the things that are" (477e)?

In Plato's *Republic* (1981), the protagonists dialectically debated about justice in terms of ownership, condition, retribution, and power. Cephalus argued that justice consists of fulfilling one's legal duties, being honest, and returning what one has borrowed to its rightful owner. Socrates replied that if the conditions change, say, the owner became insane, then returning, for instance, a knife, does not meet the needs of justice. Polemarchus insisted that justice consists in doing good to friends and harm to enemies. Socrates exclaimed that knowledge is needed to judge who friends and enemies are, arguing that doing harm to the unjust makes one person worse than the unjust. Thrasymachus said that justice is what is to the interest of the strongest, as

they make and enforce the laws. Socrates argued that rulers do not always know what their interest is and hence make mistakes but stressed that the rulers must care for the people's welfare. He added that the life of the just person, despite suffering indignities, is worth living. Socrates stressed that once justice is found in the state, it will apply to the individual. Aristotle distinguished general or universal justice, which applies only in a perfect society, from particular justice. He considered justice as treating equals equally and unequals unequally in proportion to their inequality. For Aristotle, the role of the state is to regulate social life in order to ensure justice. Note that the ancient Greeks and Romans held slavery to be just.

Medieval Christian Views of Justice

In both classical and medieval political thought, justice consists of the harmonious ordering of people within society. In Christian theology, justice is used as the term for the nature of God, for human righteousness lost due to sin, and the proper social relationship (Harvey, 1997). As products of their historical contexts and influenced by Plato and Aristotle, Augustine and Aquinas, respectively, developed theological perspectives that ranked knowledge and virtues hierarchically under God's direction. Medieval thought is theocentric. Augustine made a distinction between the supreme city of God and the error-prone city of humans. Christians have a duty to engage in a just war in defense of their faith. Aquinas ranked laws to include divine law, natural law, and human law, which includes law among nations and internal or national law, to all of which there is a corresponding level of justice attached. Religious teachings reduce human equality to equality before God. Due to a sense of powerlessness in the face of social antagonism and oppression, many attribute the victory of justice to God.

Modern, Liberal, and Socialist Views of Justice

The ancient and medieval views subordinated the individual to the common good in the whole society. But the modern, liberal, and social views elevate people's rights, economic interests, and benefits as the point of departure of justice.

Machiavelli, Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, and Bentham. Machiavelli's amoral *Prince* is more interested in power than justice. The social contractarians Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau (in Curtis, 1981) argued that justice did not exist naturally but is a social invention where it replaces instinct in social conduct. Justice is based on fulfilling contractual obligations, including property rights; injustice, breaking them. Moderns reject feudalism as unjust. Justice refers not to equality of outcome but of process and opportunity. Hobbes identified natural or moral laws to include equity, justice, and humility; Locke, with non-interference with the liberty of others. Bentham's utilitarian philosophy (2010) of justice focused on the greatest good for the greatest number.

U.S. Constitution. As representatives of the people, the Founding Parents of the U.S. established the Constitution "to form a more perfect union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty." In the *Federalist Papers* (1999), Madison wrote: "Justice is the end of government" (p. 292) and Hamilton said justice "the great cement of society" (p. 88).

Marx. Marx's argued that justice is conditioned by historical and social factors. Marx and Engels argued that "although the working masses share the concept of" justice and injustice, "this is not tantamount to a conscious understanding of the objective historical laws" (Frolov, 1984, p. 208). For Marxism, therefore, "the scientific theory of the history of society cannot base its conclusions on the concepts of" justice and injustice (Frolov, 1984, p. 208). Yet, "these

concepts reflect an elemental and instinctive awareness of the operation of these laws” (Frolov, 1984, p. 208). To illustrate, “the fact that the working masses come to see capitalist society as unjust serves as an indication of this system being historically outdated” (Frolov, 1984, p. 208). Socialist justice calls for distribution based on work; and, communist, from each according to one’s abilities, to each according to one’s needs. Marx believed that justice and equality will exist in a future society where people will collectively administer their common affairs and private ownership of the means of production, such as land and factories, will cease to exist.

United Nations. The United Nations human rights instruments (2002) contain provisions dealing with justice. The U.N. argues that the “recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace” (p. 1). It asserts that all humans are “born free and equal in dignity and rights” and that all must “act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (p. 2). It stressed the “equal rights” of men and women (p. 4). When one is criminally charged, the U.N. calls for “full equality to a fair and public hearing by an... impartial tribunal” (p. 3). Also, everyone has “the right of equal access to public service” (p. 4), “equal suffrage” (p. 4), “equal pay for equal work” (p. 5), and “education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit” (p. 5). Rights and freedoms can be limited only to secure “respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements... in a democratic society” (p. 6).

Rawls. For Rawls (1981), “justice is fairness” (1958, p. 164). Viewing justice as the first virtue of social institutions, Rawls combined several criteria of material justice under the notion of a contract. “The principles of justice are chosen behind a veil of ignorance” (p. 12). “They do not know how the various alternatives will affect their own particular case,” evaluating “principles solely on the basis of general consideration” (p. 136). The principles to determine social institutions are chosen in a procedurally fair way. The first principle is: “Each person is to have an equal right to the most extensive total system of basic liberties compatible with a similar system of liberty for all” (pp. 250; 302). The second principle is: “Social and economic inequalities are to be arranged so that they are both (a) to the greatest benefit of the least advantaged and (b) attached to offices and positions open to all under conditions of fair equality of opportunity” (pp. 87; 302). Rawl’s “First Priority Rule (The Priority of Liberty)” indicates that the “principles of justice are to be ranked in lexical order and therefore liberty can be restricted only for the sake of liberty” (p. 302). His “Second Priority Rule (The Priority of Justice over Efficiency and Welfare)” specifies that “the second principle of justice is lexically prior to the principle of efficiency and to that of maximizing the sum of advantages, and fair opportunity is prior to the difference principles” (p. 302).

Sen. Opposing Rawls’ idealist, utopian, formalistic foundationalism, Amartya Sen (2009) focused on a historical materialist real-world capabilities-approach to justice in people’s lives. The experience of injustice precedes the idea of justice. Instead of espousing Rawls’ building abstract theoretical castles in the air, Sen called for reducing real-world injustice, such as poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, and gender inequality, as a way to attain justice. Justice refers to enhancing human capability to lead a good life.

Critical and Postmodern Views of Justice

Feminism. There are many types of feminism, among which are liberal, radical, Marxist, psychoanalytic, post-colonial, eco, and postmodern feminism (Tong, 2008). Despite their differences, different strands of feminism call for justice. Feminists clamor for equal economic

opportunities, education, work, and career advancement. They demand equal pay for equal work, equal access to traditionally male-dominated professions and top workplace positions.

Chomsky and Foucault. Chomsky and Foucault (2006) discussed about the dialectical relationship between power and justice. Chomsky calls them the “two intellectual tasks” (p. 138). Foucault studied history as his starting point in his analysis of society; whereas Chomsky, vital principles as the basis upon which social reality is investigated. The Foucault-Chomsky debate was ontological: Foucault was a historical materialist and Chomsky was a rational idealist. Epistemologically, Foucault tended towards historical analysis; and Chomsky, rationalism. Foucault focused on power; while Chomsky, on justice. Chomsky viewed justice as the higher goal which guides the struggle against injustice, while Foucault considered justice as a political weapon to fight against economic and political power. Foucault emphasized that “one has to emphasize ‘justice’ in terms of the social struggle” (p. 50). Chomsky paraphrased Foucault as saying that there is a need “to analyze the nature of power and oppression in our present societies” (p. 138). For Chomsky: “A social struggle... can only be justified if it... will be beneficial for human beings and will bring about a more decent society” (pp. 183-139).

Habermas. In his theory of communicative action, Habermas (1984) argued that people’s identity and consciousness are shaped by different practices and beliefs as mediated through communicative action, which is based on intersubjective relationships. As with theories of justice, Habermas’ theory of discourse ethics deal with issues of right and wrong, good and bad, and on how standards of ethics can be justified through moral argumentation and reasoned agreement. He aimed to achieve undistorted communication so that agreement on valid norms can be achieved. For democracy to work, Habermas said that there must be public processes of communicative interaction and equal rights of political participation in the public realm.

Conclusion and Implications to Research and Practice in Education

Summary. Justice is a concern that has permeating through the ages. But its meaning has changed through time. Classical, medieval, modern, and postmodern writers have diverse views.

Implications. As Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. declaimed: “I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin, but by the content of their character.” We aspire to live in a humane society where everyone is treated fairly. Educators are responsible making the learning environment a safe zone for everyone to engage in dialogue. By posing problems and questions, adult and community educators as catalysts have a duty to help raise the consciousness of adult learners and community members. As the meaning of justice changes through time and space, we need to meet today’s demands for justice. Justice has psychological, social, and global aspects. To promote justice from the psychological perspective, there must be zero tolerance for bullying and incivility. From the social perspective, educators and students must study poverty, the situations of women, minorities, indigenous peoples, refugees, and champion environmentalism, human rights, and just peace. Educators can seek policy changes so that the state can balance the rights of conflicting groups and protect the rights of minorities and the vulnerable. Globally, educators need to conduct research on global inequality, global warming, economic globalization, terrorism, foreign debt service, and the market model as well as promote grassroots empowerment, fair trade, and a just world order. Education for justice is important to adult and

community education, as it serves as a means to facilitate the development of a more equitable society, where each is treated with respect, dignity, and fairness.

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Islam: Misconceptions, Current Trends, and the Role of Social Movements and Education in Promoting Development, Conflict Transformation and Peace Building

Rey Ty, Awni Al-Karzon, and E. J. Hunting

Abstract: Stereotypes of Muslim minorities cause them to face discrimination on a daily basis. Islam is a religion of peace, but non-Muslim majority groups have a prejudicial attitude toward Muslims. While there are basic tenets in Islam, Muslims, just like people of other religions, are engaged in intra-faith debates, particularly with respect to men's beards, women's veils, and food. Especially after 9/11, Muslims are stereotyped as terrorists to which many institutions pro-actively respond by implementing transformative community education and popular education programs that promote interfaith understanding, conflict transformation, and peace building (Lederach & Mansfield, 2010) in energetic social movements.

Introduction

Research Problem and Goal. The U.S. is a predominantly White, Christian, male-dominated society, where minorities experience discrimination to different degrees. After the September 11, 2001 attack on the World Trade Center in New York, the discrimination against Muslims intensified. Many Muslims fall victim to profiling. In many parts of the world where Muslims are minorities, they are prey to stereotyping. The goal of this paper is to investigate the role of adult education in promoting the civil rights of Muslims, unity in diversity, conflict transformation and peace building.

Research Questions. This research raises the following questions. What are the major misconceptions and stereotypes about Muslims and Islam in different countries? What are the basic tenets of Islam as well as the current debates related to Islam? In what ways do community and popular education aid in demolishing the stereotypes about Muslims and Islam?

Perspectives. This research studies how non-governmental institutions respond to the problems in societies where Muslim minorities live. They are engaged in non-formal education. They provide adult education which benefit community members and are a learning site (Finger, 1989; Holst, 2002). Non-formal education plays a crucial role in community transformation and empowerment. This research defines non-formal education as "any organized educational activity outside the established formal system...that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives" (Coombs, Prosser & Ahmed, 1973, p. 11).

A Survey of Definition of Terms in the Literature. Conflict transformation is the process of constructive change, involving comprehensive, pro-active, long-term, social-justice-related actions on the levels of "direct interaction and social structures," (Lederach, 2003, p. 14). Dealing with the social and political causes of conflict (Lederach, 2003), conflict transformation aims to reduce violence, increase justice, and response to real-world social problems (Lederach, 2003). Addressing the root causes of violent conflicts, peace building strategies seek to meet "basic needs for security and order, shelter, food, and clothing" (Griffiths & O'Callaghan, 2003, p. 234). Peace building involves "the practical implementation of peaceful social change through socio-economic development" (Ryan, 1995, p. 102). By involving activities that meet the basic

needs, peace building de-escalates the conflict and improves “the relationship of parties engaged in...social conflict” (Ryan, p. xiv).

Research Process. There are three co-authors for this paper, two of whom are Muslims. This paper is a qualitative research that presents the following cases, which are the choices “of subject to be studied” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 236), based on our working experiences with them. First, a case involves international educational programs of Northern Illinois University that promotes interfaith dialogue, conflict transformation, and peace-building. Second, a case in Palestine is Baitona, a non-governmental organization (NGO) working at the grassroots level. Lastly, community-based cases in the U.S. include the Council for American Islamic Relations (CAIR Chicago and Michigan) and Inner-City Muslim Action Network (IMAN) of Chicago. The emerging themes provide inputs for the generation of a model grounded on the data.

Findings

Misconceptions and Stereotypes about Islam

Some biological anthropologists and scientists argue male humans have an innate proclivity to be aggressive and to defend their territory with the use of violence (Wrangham & Peterson, 2005). Other biological anthropologists insist that violence is a result of culture and upbringing (Sussman, 2005). The sources of ethnic conflicts are historical, social, economic, political, cultural, or religious injustice, discrimination, or prejudice, clinging to stereotypes about groups and relating them to individuals (Kottak, 2000). Prejudice means looking down on “a group because of its assumed behavior, values, abilities, or attributes” (Kottak, 2000, p. 124). Muslims in many parts of the world face stereotypes and discrimination. Stereotypes refer to “fixed ideas—often unfavorable—about what members of a group are like” (Kottak, 2000, p. 125). Discrimination means “policies and practices that harm a group and its members” (Kottak, 2000, p. 125). In many parts of the world where Muslims are minorities, such as in the Philippines, the U.S. and Israel, Muslims are stereotyped as radicals and terrorists. In Sri Lanka, Muslims are stereotyped as good in business and earning money. In the Philippines, Muslims are typecast as lazy, uncivilized, dirty, and war-mongering. True, there are individuals who are Muslims who commit acts of terror but individuals do not represent the whole group, as there are Christians, Hindus, Buddhists and Jews who commit terrorist acts. In addition, there are individuals who are not Muslims who perpetrate terrorist acts. Hence, characterizing all people who are Muslims as terrorists is an unjust stereotype, discrimination, and prejudice.

In the post-911 U.S.A., American Muslims face the same forms of stereotypes and misconceptions as the rest of the Islamic world. Islam and hence Muslims are generally viewed as promoting violence and terrorism, are predominately Arab, and subjugate women by rigid interpretations of Islam. While only 18-20 percent of the world’s Muslim population is Arab, the U.S. population is comprised of a diverse background. According to the Council on American-Islamic Relations (CAIR, 2010), there are an estimated 7 million Muslims residing in the U.S. currently. This population consists of a variety of ethnicities and nationalities, but primarily comprised of those of South Asian descent from the Indian subcontinent, and native-born African Americans (U.S. Department of State, 2010).

Basic Tenets and Current Intra-Faith and Interfaith Debates about Islam

Five Pillars of Islam. The word Islam comes from the Arabic root word *salam* which means peace and *silm* “which means submitting your will to...God” (*Quran*, 2005, p. v). Muslims, therefore, are people who submit their will to God. There are five pillars in Islam to which all Muslims subscribe: *shahadeh*, *salat*, *saum Ramadhan*, *zakat*, and *haj* (*Quran*, 2005). *Shahadeh* is the declaration that there is only one God and that Mohammed was His last prophet. *Salat* refers to the obligatory five prayers per day. *Saum* refers to fasting from sun up to sun down during the holy month of Ramadhan. *Zakat* refers to helping the poor. *Haj* refers to the pilgrimage to Mecca, for those who can afford it. All Muslims concur on these pillars.

Intra-Faith and Interfaith Debates. Today, as with any other religion, there are intra-faith debates among Muslims. Note that, as with most social phenomena, there is a difference between abstract principles and actual practice. The debates center on the arguments whether certain practices are either (1) obligatory, universal and religious or (2) historical, cultural and contextual. Take for example the veil. According to an ABC News report (2008), a misconception regarding Muslims in general is that women are oppressed and are forced to wear the *hijab*. The reality is that more often than not, many Muslim women view wearing the *hijab* as an act of empowerment, which makes them less likely to be viewed as sexual objects. Additionally, wearing the *hijab* has been viewed as a means for political activism for those seeking greater religious rights within cultures less accepting of visually observant Muslims (McDonald, 2006). There are those who insist that women must be veiled and veiled in a certain way. There are those who insist that beards and veils are an individual’s personal matter in relationship with God. Hence, there are contrasting images of Muslim women and men. For instance, Pakistan’s Benazhir Bhutto wore bright and colorful veils, while Jordan’s Queen Rania does not wear a veil at all. On the other extreme, the Taliban in Afghanistan, when they were in power, forced women to cover themselves almost completely under the pain of the penalty of torture and stoning to death. To counter Islamic extremism, Syria banned the use of the full face veil at universities in 2010 in order to keep its secular identity (BBC, 2010 July 19). “France’s lower house of parliament has overwhelmingly approved a bill that would ban wearing the Islamic full veil in public” (BBC, 2010 July 13). Egypt’s highest Muslim authority, Sheikh Mohamed Tantawi, dean of al-Azhar University, “called full-face veiling a custom that has nothing to do with the Islamic faith” and “will issue a religious edict against the growing trend for full women’s veils, known as *niqab*” (BBC 2010 August 9). The debate continues.

There are those who insist that men must have a beard. Few Muslim Southeast Asian men carry a beard, compared to many Muslim Arab men who do. Some Muslims refer to these practices as scriptural, religious and mandatory, while others refer to these practices as historical, cultural and optional. A third debate consists of what Muslims can eat. One group insists that Muslims must only eat *halal* food anywhere in the world, or food that has been properly slaughtered according to very specific Islamic teachings. Other Muslims explain that if *halal* food is not available, with caution and prudence and not contrary to general principles of Islam, they can eat other food. The debates go on where Muslims take one side or the other.

Role of Education in Promoting Development, Conflict Transformation, and Peace Building

All around the world, many organizations and institutions are working to uplift the status of Muslims and erase the negative image and stereotypes to which Islam has been attached. This research examines the International Training Office, Baitona, CAIR and IMAN.

International Training Office. Since academic year 2003-2004, the International Training Office (ITO, 2010) of Northern Illinois University, of which Dr. Lina Ong is the director, has been implementing projects that bring Muslims, indigenous peoples, and Christians from Cyprus, Palestine, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and all Southeast Asian countries. The goals include conflict transformation and peace building. Many NIU faculty, staff, and students collaborate in these efforts in different capacities. They share their expertise in promoting dialogue, critical reflection, planning, and project implementation, all of which end up smashing stereotypes about Muslims and Islam as well as promoting interfaith goodwill and collaboration. Committed to strengthening the capacities of leaders from the public, non-profit and private sector organizations, ITO implements programs that address societal needs, including promoting inclusiveness and interfaith dialogue. Here are some examples. The Philippine Youth Leadership Program builds a new generation of Muslims, Christians, and indigenous persons as catalysts for social change. The Philippine Minorities Program trains Muslim and indigenous community leaders, NGO members, educators, youth educators, journalists, and religious leaders to develop a sense of civic responsibility and commitment to strengthening civil society. The Cyprus Bicomunal Leadership Program developed the leadership capacity of young Muslim Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots, unleashing their potential to work collaboratively as catalysts for change in their communities. Led by Dr. J. Gajanayake and Dr. L. Jeris, the Grassroots Organizing by Women (GROW, 2010) enhanced “the capacities of leaders of four women’s NGOs in Sri Lanka to face challenges and to create opportunities to strengthening women’s participation in grassroots democracy.” Muslims are actively involved in all the above programs and efforts are made to erase negative stereotypes about Islam and Muslims.

Baitona. Stereotyped as suffering from male domination, Palestinian women are expected to be submissive and play traditional roles only. NGOs provide adult education opportunities that respond to the needs of Palestinian women. Established in 2003, Baitona for Community Development is a well-known and active NGO in Gaza Strip. In general, Baitona provides education, health, and relief to civil society in Palestine. The following are its goals. Baitona aims to empower women and increase their involvement in society and participation in economic development by providing them with training and income-generating projects. It establishes educational centers where courses and services are provided that meet the needs of Palestinian society. Baitona provides leadership programs for women so that they can be more involved in decision making. Specifically, Baitona offers programs to develop the “personal and intellectual strengths” of women (Stalker, 2001, p. 298). It also provides child-care facilities for women seeking jobs. It also provides women with basic learning competencies to support their self-learning. Hence, Baitona offers adult learners, especially women, a chance to be empowered through education. Education and action transform the negative image of women as being submissive into powerful women who are capable of independent thinking and social involvement. The empowerment of women leads to the empowerment of their own communities as well.

CAIR and IMAN. The Council on American-Islamic Relations (CAIR, 2010) enhances “understanding of Islam, encourage dialogue, protect civil liberties, empower American Muslims, and build coalitions that promote justice and mutual understanding.” It “opposes domestic policies that limit civil rights, permit racial, ethnic or religious profiling, infringe on due process, or that prevent Muslims and others from participating fully in American civic life.” CAIR allies with secular and religious groups “that advocate justice and human rights.” It

“condemns all acts of violence against civilians by any individual, group or state.” It “supports equal and complementary rights and responsibilities for men and women.” To fulfill its vision, mission, and principles, CAIR does the following work: civil rights work, media relations, government relations, education (including seminars, workshops, and conferences), advocacy, action alerts, publications, voter registration, outreach and interfaith relations.

Responding to “inner-city poverty,” the Inner-City Muslim Action Network (IMAN, 2010) provides “space for Muslims in Urban America by inspiring the larger community towards critical civic engagement” that exemplify “compassion in the work for social justice and human dignity beyond the barriers of religion, ethnicity, and nationality.” Propelled by “human compassion,” IMAN is a community-based non-profit organization “that works for social justice, delivers a range of social services, and cultivates the arts in urban communities.”

Conclusion

Summary of the Findings. In summary, Muslims are survivors of name-calling and stereotypes in predominantly non-Muslim societies, such as the U.S. They are given different blanket labels, such as anti-Christian, terrorists, extremists, savages and barbarians. Muslims are not all alike.

At Northern Illinois University, several successful programs for interfaith and inter-ethnic dialogue bring together Christians, Muslims, and indigenous peoples, who return to their communities to implement various projects that promote interfaith goodwill and inter-ethnic understanding. In violence-filled Palestine, Baitona workers organize the community, help the poor, and provide services to empower women and children. In terms of crisis prevention and intervention, CAIR pro-actively projects the multiple images of Muslims in the U.S. and quickly responds when a burning issue affecting Muslims erupts. IMAN (2010) in Chicago is a community-based organization which “works to serve and empower disadvantaged individuals and communities” through direct services, organizing and social justice, and the arts and culture.

Importance to Research and Practice in Adult and Community Education. This research is important to the practice of adult and community education. It shows how programs of organizations and social movements play an important role to advance the equal or civil rights of Muslims so that they will be treated fairly and equally in society at large. This research shares the best practices of organizations in working to dispel myths about Muslims.

Implications of Applications of the Finding to Practice or Theory. Especially after 9/11, Muslims face real problems of discrimination on a daily basis. The efforts of adult and community educators cited in this study to dispel misconceptions about Islam and Muslims prove to be constructive, effective, and successful. The findings imply that more community and adult educators need to take up this challenge of working to break myths and stereotypes, in particular, with respect to Muslims. They can do their share in facilitating the common folk’s knowledge about Muslims and Islam based on facts so that Muslims in society at large will be treated fairly, as everyone else in society wants to be treated fairly.

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Faculty Perception of Relationship Effectiveness and Diversity in a Mentoring Program for New Faculty in the Applied Sciences

V. Marie Vicher

Abstract: This naturalistic research study focused on the perceptions of faculty participants in a formal mentoring program designed to support and assist new tenure track faculty in their enculturation to the university and their progress toward tenure and promotion at a college of applied sciences at a major research university. Six themes identified during in-depth interviews were *Expectations, Altruism, Commonality & Integration, Communication, and Diversity*. Issues of mentoring effectiveness and perceptions of diversity in mentoring relationships were explored within mentoring dyads. Mentoring effectiveness was described primarily in terms of progress toward promotion and tenure, while diversity in terms of nationality, gender and age were reported as non-issues, but demonstrated in other ways.

Introduction

New faculty mentoring has become a prevalent form of new faculty recruitment and orientation in many colleges and universities across the country. With a greater focus in higher education on economy in recruitment, hiring, and training of junior faculty as well as retention of current experienced faculty, mentoring programs have gained more attention as an effective means of increasing faculty satisfaction (Bland, Taylor, Shollen, Weber-Main, & Mulcahy, 2007). However, even with the large amount of existing research on mentoring only minimal attention has been given to the range of diversity in mentoring of faculty. This study focuses on perceptions of mentoring effectiveness and awareness of the range of diversity in a college of applied science and arts from the perspective of a diverse faculty group involved in the process of mentoring new faculty members.

Mentoring has been defined by numerous researchers as a dynamic, reciprocal relationship in a work environment between a more advanced (mentor) and a less experienced (protégé) aimed at enhancing career and psychosocial development for both individuals (Healy & Welchert, 1990; Kram, 1985). Information on mentoring effectiveness and participant satisfaction with mentoring programs is needed for not only continuous improvement but also for increasing awareness of issues. However, many organizations do not have the time, resources or inclination to provide effective program evaluation for mentoring programs. Much of the existing research in diversity in mentoring focuses on gender and racial, ethnic or cultural issues in mentoring relationships. However, less empirical research has been done in the areas of age and intergenerational issues in mentoring (Bland, et al., 2007). Little in-depth research exists in terms of how effective high-quality mentoring relationships are developed, as well.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to better understand the effective development of the mentoring relationship from both mentors' and mentees' views and to better comprehend how

faculty awareness was conceived in regards to different aspects of diversity including cultural, ethnic, gender, and age in mentoring.

Theoretical Framework

This study was largely based on the theoretical framework of mentoring and mentoring enactment theory (Kalbfleisch, 2002) which emerged from the study of communication and personal relationships. This theory suggested proactive communication strategies which were used by mentors and protégés to initiate, develop, maintain, and repair mentoring relationships. This theory was informed by mentoring research and by personal relationship research; mentoring enactment theory proposed proactive communication strategies to facilitate high-quality mentoring relationships.

Research Questions

1. What are participants' perceptions and expectations of the mentoring relationship?
2. How do participants view diversity in the mentoring program?
3. How do participants regard mentoring effectiveness in the mentoring relationship?

Methods

Through in-depth interviews with volunteer mentors and mentees in a college of applied science and arts at a large Midwestern research institution, participants' voices described their personal experiences of mentoring relationship development in this naturalistic study. Perceptions of mentor/mentee pairs involved in a formal mentoring program was elicited with interview questions generally focused on their personal philosophy and expectations of mentoring, their perspectives of positive components of mentoring relationships, and their perceptions of diversity in mentoring. Participants were also asked how they viewed the effectiveness of mentoring relationships.

An initial introduction of the researcher was facilitated at an end-of-the-year mentoring program activity, a luncheon, orchestrated by the interim associate dean of the college. Observations of mentors and mentees engaged in an informal culminating event were gathered. Field notes were taken and examined later for main concepts. All mentoring participants were sent an email invitation to participate in informal interviews for mentoring research purposes. Two participants responded and two more were contacted after their mentors volunteered to participate. The four participant interviews followed a semi-structured interview protocol, ranged from 45 to 60 minutes in duration, and occurred at a location of the participants' choice, usually in their offices on campus. Data was gathered and recorded with participant permission and human subjects' approval by audio recorder. Transcripts were then typed from the recordings and coded into emerging themes, and analyzed by this researcher. Transcripts of the interview were offered to all participants, but none responded to the email invitation to review transcripts. Interview data was triangulated with observation field notes and document analysis of the college handbook describing the formal mentoring program to derive the following findings of this study.

Findings

Six primary themes emerged from the triangulation of interview, observation and document analysis data. These themes have been encapsulated into the headings of *Expectations*, *Altruism*, *Commonality & Integration*, *Communication*, and *Diversity* and are further described next.

Expectations

Expectations refers to participants' perceptions of the purpose of mentoring. All of the participants shared a common theme in that they believed the main purpose of mentoring was to support new tenure track faculty in their "enculturation" to the university by assisting them in learning university and college policies and procedures. Of primary importance was encouraging new faculty mentees in the development of a research agenda, and assisting in the process of tenure and promotion. One faculty mentor remembered the words of his mentor when he was so busy with his Ph.D. classes and instructing that he had not done any publishing. He reported his mentor telling him "I understand how busy you are, but if you don't publish, you'll be a Ph.D. without a job". The faculty mentor said that his mentor's words had stuck with him to that day because it was reality and it kept him focused on what he needed to do to be successful.

Other objectives discussed by participants had to do with assisting mentees in developing as teachers, improving teaching skills and techniques, and mentors were available to give feedback on and assistance with classroom teaching. Advocacy within their departments was noted by participants as another expectation or function of the mentor for the purpose of supporting the mentee when they felt "overwhelmed" by departmental requests.

Altruism

Altruism refers to the reasons a mentor felt it was important to mentor junior faculty. One participant stated that perhaps it was because of his military background that he felt "responsible to help bring the junior faculty up" to a place of readiness. Another participant spoke of being invited by his mentor to join him in a research project to get him started in the right direction even though the mentor's chair questioned why he wanted to share his primary investigator status with junior faculty, thus reducing his pay. Senior faculty needs to be a "little more altruistic" around here, he stated. "Mentoring is just another facet of collegiality" said one mentor; mentoring is part of the job. Participants felt their job was to perpetuate education and share with colleagues. One mentee suggested that it felt really good to know that senior faculty cared enough to spend their time supporting new faculty and that he would like to do the same for others when the time came.

Commonality & Integration

Commonality suggests that for a mentoring relationship to reach high-quality status there needs to be some commonality between the participants. Common interests can jumpstart a relationship by providing a means for conversation based on similar interests. Participants suggested that commonality made the initiation of a relationship easier. Conversely, the college mentoring policy was to match faculty from different departments on the premise that they were all applied fields, so there would be some basis for commonality. The administrator in charge of the mentoring program fused the concepts of commonality with integration of the college by

getting to know new faculty and attempting to match them with a cross-departmental mentor with some common interest. Interview participants found this often effective in that they learned more about other fields and became friends with individuals whom they would not normally spend time.

Communication

Much has been said about the value of communication in initiating and developing relationships. Communication style was emphasized by one participant when he shared that he was very outgoing and that helped him establish mentoring relationships with mentees who were “quieter” and did not know what to expect or “who to trust” in a new environment. After the initial meeting in the dean’s office, one mentor stated that he would call his mentee the next week and invite him to his office to get acquainted. Then, the next week he would ask the mentee out for coffee or check in by email to see how things were going. Another mentor suggested that keeping in touch with calls or emails if he could not stop by their office, was important in maintaining communication and establishing the relationship. A mentee reported that frequent contacts were “instrumental in his feeling more comfortable” with his mentor and being able to ask important questions. Another mentee stated that he did not need to be contacted on a regular basis, but liked feeling comfortable he could call his mentor whenever he needed something.

Diversity

Diversity refers to ethnicity, national origin, gender, and age differences among people. Ethnicity did not seem to be an obvious issue addressed by the participants in terms of mentoring. However, one mentor laughed when he said that he was matched with a new faculty member because they “were both Hispanic”, and the chair thought they could “speak the same language”. He spoke Mexican and the new faculty member spoke Portuguese. “We did have a few common words that helped break the ice a little” he said. A mentee observed at the mentoring program luncheon appeared very comfortable and talkative with his mentor, using the time to catch up on how things had been going with him, suggesting that ethnic differences did not seem to hinder their relationship.

Issues of gender were not seen as an issue in mentoring relationships by participants either. One mentor stated that he treated female faculty just like he did male faculty, then in the next sentence stated that he modified his language when women were around and he opened doors for them because that is how he grew up.

Age differences were not reported by participants to be an issue in their mentoring relationships and all seemed to be approximately the same or similar ages. However, one mentor commented that “new faculty may slam into a wall of older faculty” as they approach tenure and promotion because older faculty “do not want them to have as big a slice of the pie as they have”. This suggests that age may be a factor in mentoring relationships.

Discussion

Perceptions shared by both mentors and mentees in this study seemed to coincide, although mentors seemed to be somewhat more realistic in their views, perhaps because of their length of time in the system. All were very positive about the worth of mentoring relationships and were committed to maintaining their relationships after the year of formal mentoring.

Participants shared a collective view of their *Expectations* of the mentoring relationship in terms of furthering new faculty in their pursuit of tenure and promotion.

An overall sense of genuine caring for each other permeated the interviews of both mentors and mentees. When asked why this mentoring program seemed to work, a dean responded “because we genuinely like each other”. That sense of protection and humanity seem to support the theme of *Altruism* displayed by the mentors and appreciated by the mentees.

Examples of interpersonal communication by participants seemed to support the mentoring enactment theory’s premise that mentoring relationships are close personal relationships when they reach the high-quality mentoring level. Input and feedback suggested between dyad members further supports this theory. Individual *personal filters* become evident as participants talked about their perceptions, past relationships, experiences, cultures, and professional and emotional needs that influence their mentoring relationships (Kalbfleisch, 2007).

The examples used in the theme of *Diversity* seem to contradict the participants’ verbalizations that diversity was a “non-issue” in terms of mentoring. The references to nationality, age, and gender would seem to suggest that diversity is very much an issue in mentoring, even if it is often unspoken. Both the female mentee and mentor in the program (not in the same dyad) were unavailable for the mentoring program luncheon activity and did not accept my invitation to be interviewed, so it was difficult to ascertain from a female faculty perspective what issues might be surrounding gender in mentoring. From a critical perspective it would be important to gather that information before any suppositions could be made regarding gender issues, however, this researchers’ perspective is that diversity issues continue to be discounted at the university setting. It would seem that the “ole boy system” is alive and well in academia today even as efforts are made to extinguish it.

The effectiveness of mentoring relationships appears to be evaluated in terms of both the success of new faculty’s pursuit of tenure and promotion and the on-going existence of mentoring relationships that were begun as a formal effort and continue as a personal relationship. Even cross-departmental mentoring which was seen by participants as less than convenient or comfortable to begin with, became appreciated as a means of “stretching beyond our own comfort zones” to broaden perspectives and promote commonality and integration of the college. The *tipping point* for these mentoring relationships seemed to have centered around an event where they realized they had become friends (Ragins & Kram, 2007).

Recommendations

Further research is needed in regards to mentoring relationship initiation, development, and maintenance particularly in areas of diversity. With budgetary issues at the forefront of not only higher education, but most other organizations in today’s struggling economy, mentoring has become a significant strategy for not only faculty attraction and retention, but also faculty satisfaction. Students are aware of the implications of turmoil, dissatisfaction, and issues of diversity within their programs. Increasing understanding and effectiveness of mentoring techniques will positively impact students as well as faculty. Faculty members are role models for a variety of community pursuits and need to be aware of and proponents of diversity. The findings from this study can add to the body of knowledge regarding mentoring, job satisfaction, diversity, and communication in education, human resources, and management.

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Digital Literacy and Adult Learners: An Experiment in Hypermedia Reading

Steven Weiland and Nathan Clason

Abstract: The abilities and dispositions required by today's information and communications technologies are often referred to as "digital literacy," one of the "new literacies" presented by the advent of digitalization across virtually all conditions of living and learning. In postsecondary and adult learning digital literacy is nowhere more evident than in distance education. For instructors and programs there is the task of reconciling the boundless optimism about the digital literacy of the "Net Generation" with empirical studies of just what today's students can do in applying it to academic tasks. A study of students completing a hypermedia-based assignment showed that despite claims for their practices in online reading their performance in writing about the results failed to display effective use of online resources. In order for students to meet high expectations in using the Web they must be equipped with skills that are foundational to genuine digital literacy.

Introduction

"Electronic paper" is the phrase used to describe the digital interface of the newest e-reading devices; but no one actually believes that what the eyes see is the same as a traditional printed book. And so, as the screen becomes a ubiquitous feature of life today, our view of literacy changes to accommodate new forms of cognitive experience.

Since the 1990s proposals have appeared for "information literacy" (Association of College and Research Libraries, 1999), "multi-media-literacy" (Mayer, 2001), "silicon literacy" (Snyder, 2002), "multi-literacies" (Selber, 2004), "digital competence" (Krumsvik, 2008), "new media literacy" (Ohler, 2009) and, in a common formulation, "digital literacy" (Glister, 1997; Eshet-Alkalai, 2004). That phrase refers to more than reading and writing online. It suggests a way of going about learning in electronic formats. This paper addresses these questions: "What attitudes toward the new literacies do adult students bring to online learning?" and "How do they perform on tasks essential to 'digital literacy'?"

The New and the Newer

The abilities and dispositions required by today's information and communications technologies have their roots in traditional reading and writing, as is suggested by the phrase "new literacies" (Knobel and Lankshear, 2007), often used as a synonym for "digital literacy." Thus, there is traditional print-based literacy and these "new" abilities represented in different formulations in the "literacies" cited above.

1. *Searching* for and evaluating online information and *selecting* resources for educational and other purposes and tasks (e.g., course assignments and informal learning projects).

2. *Interpreting* online resources and *integrating* learning from online and traditional print resources.
3. *Writing* with word processing in traditional and new forms (e.g., blogs) and *communicating* in audio and visual formats (e.g., podcasts and video).
4. *Collaborating* on projects of academic and creative expression (e.g., wikis) and *participating* in social networks for the exchange of information and ideas.

An additional ability may be said to be keeping up with innovations in hardware like mobile devices and software, or rapidly multiplying “apps.” Thus: “The new literacies of the Internet are not just new today, they will be newer tomorrow, even newer next week, and continuously renewed on a schedule that is limited only by the human capacity to keep up” (Coiro, et al., p. 2008).

Influential institutions see themselves as advancing educational reform reflecting “digital literacy.” Primary examples are the MacArthur Foundation’s “Digital Media and Learning” initiative with its high profile higher education projects (like HASTAC at Duke University), the programs and publications of the service organizations EDUCAUSE and the Sloan Consortium, and the recent report from the U.S. Department of Education titled *Transforming American Education: Learning Powered by Technology*. These are contributions to the case for adapting teaching and learning to the “new literacies” reflecting hopes for fundamental reforms at all levels of education.

In postsecondary education the “new literacies” are features of both the academic and social lives of students, the overlap of the two meaning now well known new problems of classroom distraction. Preoccupation with digital devices is but one sign of a major cultural transition, presenting for instructors pressure to have a role in the new literacies, or at least to recognize where the abilities named above can be used, modified, or even ignored for the new work of electronic teaching and learning. And, again, what’s new demands unceasing attention with the ubiquity of mobile devices and proposals for education.

Online Learning and Questions of Screen Reading

In postsecondary education “digital literacy” is nowhere more evident than in online learning. Any online course, including the popular “hybrids,” demands considerable reading on a screen, including text written by the instructor and assigned (in books and articles) by him or her, instructional PowerPoint, student postings to a discussion forum, faculty and student blogs, course-based wikis, and hypermedia resources like educational or institutional websites, and documents (e.g., organizational reports) in the syllabus.

But the character of screen reading, including what is done on mobile devices, is only now becoming a subject of inquiry, addressing such questions as: How does it compare to traditional reading, particularly as it is done now in multi-media contexts? What habits of cognition and understanding does it promote? What do new reading practices and preferences (like the use of e-readers and smart phones), and their relation to traditional ones, mean for the design of online courses? And what abilities do students need to make the most of the rapidly expanding digital world and as literacy is redefined for academic work?

There was talk in the 1990s of the “paperless office.” Considering what some partisans of digital technology say of its inevitable educational hegemony, particularly in relation to the uses

of Web 2.0, are we headed toward the “paperless curriculum”? Will the result be a liberating “seismic change in epistemology” (Dede, 2008)? Or, as Nicholas Carr (2008) asked, in reflecting on the distractions and the new and superficial habits of reading posed by electronic texts, “Is Google Making Us Stupid?”

Adult Students and Hypermedia Reading

For institutions and academic programs there is the task of reconciling the boundless optimism and reform urgency in accounts of the “Digital Natives” or “Net Generation” (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005; Tapscott, 2008) with empirical studies of just what abilities in the new literacies are available for postsecondary teaching and learning (Bennett, Mason, & Kervin, 2008). The problems of digital literacy reflect a tangle of cultural, education, social, epistemological, and even biological themes (Eshet-Alkalai, 2004). Here we consider them in a decidedly practical way, trying only to add what we are learning from experience in online teaching.

Since 2008 we have asked teachers and others enrolled in a fully online MA program about their habits and preferences about screen reading. They report both enthusiasm for the new forms and attachment to traditional ones, focusing on the nature of different kinds of academic tasks and their personal expectations for teaching and learning.

Age makes a difference in practices and preferences but so too do professional circumstances and duties. Thus, screen reading is variably understood. Being adept at it is indispensable for learning and a resource for professional development. But it is also the source of some uneasiness about its impact on habits of literacy still believed to be essential to educational and professional success. Thus only half of the students responding to our surveys (part of anonymous course evaluations) agreed with the statement: “I read online with as much comprehension (i.e., understanding and memory of major and minor points) as when reading traditional texts.”

Ambivalence about reading online may be an important if unacknowledged constraint on students in online learning. But student performance in an important task of screen reading makes us skeptical about some of the claims they make about their online habits. Thus, students were asked about their uses of the many hyperlinks in the courses which rely on a hypermedia format. While the courses include several assigned books and films, students are also asked to use online texts, videos, audio programs online exhibits, and more. Some are named as “assignments” but the great majority (among the hundreds of links) are designated as “opportunities.” The idea is to create a kind of “web” for each course representing the learning opportunities (in any subject) available via the Internet.

Making the most of hypermedia means a kind educational “volunteerism,” or pursuing the digital trail of a subject as directed by interest and opportunity. A high number of students (78%) reported using the links in the online courses (“I made frequent use of the optional hyperlinks in the units, apart from course requirements”). And 70% also claimed to have moved from link to link in, for example, digital museum exhibits or educational websites (“When a hyperlink in a unit took me to a website, I often clicked on additional links I found there”). Thus, many students represented themselves as adept “hypermedia readers,” a phrase used in the syllabus to name a necessary ability—one of the “new literacies--for success in online learning.

From Preference to Performance

Still, student writing revealed another side of the story, reflecting the limits some scholars find today with the online abilities of the “Net Generation” (e.g., Clark, 2009). A hypermedia-based writing assignment completed by students in a course on “Concepts of Educational Inquiry” (part of Michigan State University’s online MA program) displayed a common problem with screen reading. Thus the *surface* of the digital resource—or what was said about the historical subject—counted for more than what could be learned by capitalizing on the *depth* of inquiry available in what the resource showed in documents, images, audio, and video.

Students were asked to probe the learning history of an important figure in the American past. The sample included Benjamin Franklin, Jane Addams, Robert Oppenheimer, and others and reflects the assigned text for the course unit, Philip Cusick’s acclaimed *A Passion for Learning: The Education of Seven Eminent Americans* (2005). For each figure the course offers an account of how he or she is represented online, and links are supplied to resources like digital exhibits, archives of documents and photographs, and educational websites. The assignment is to write about how particular digital resources add evidence and depth to the arguments made by Cusick. In effect, students were asked to show how the Web can supplement a traditional print text to extend learning beyond what was previously possible.

Many teachers (the majority of students in this course, nearly all members of the “Net Generation”) appear to display habits they likely criticize among their own students using Google or another search engine. They may favor the digital world with its variety and fast pace. But their performance on an academic task designed to demonstrate what they can make of abundant online resources lags behind their presumably new cognitive and intellectual abilities.

For this study we reviewed the work submitted by the 38 students (in five sections of the course in from 2008 and 2010) who chose to explore online representations of Benjamin Franklin. The unit on *A Passion for Learning* offers hyperlinks to 3 online exhibits and 2 audio programs about Franklin’s life and work. In total, these Web resources include hyperlinks to 11 essays and articles, 41 audio recordings, 3 video recordings, 30 lesson plans, 2 exhibit guides, and 522 images of original documents, portraits, cartoons, and other items. In essence, students were given access to what biographers and historians themselves use to write their narratives.

Each submission, an essay of 500 words, was evaluated individually on the first two of the “new literacies” (named above) students presumably use in digital learning: searching, selecting, interpreting, and integrating. A score of 1 (absent) to 5 (exemplary) was assigned for each criterion. The raw average total score (2.30) reveals that our assumptions about student abilities to capitalize on the Web for educational tasks should be questioned and investigated more thoroughly.

The raw averages of each criterion seem to indicate that students are most capable at selecting electronic resources (3.05) relevant to an assigned task, and least capable of integrating learning from online and traditional print resources (1.76). Students struggled with searching for, evaluating, and using online information (2.36), even though the task of searching the entire worldwide web was reduced for them to 3 exhibits and 2 audio programs (with their hyperlinks). Surprisingly, students proved to be wanting in their ability to interpret the online resources they encountered (2.02).

The surprisingly low score for interpreting the online resources seems to be especially telling of the need for students to acquire new abilities. Many students were very capable of

identifying “neat” features they encountered, but few were able to make meaning of them. For instance, one student reported: “This resource supplies a time line that helps the reader to visually see the different years of importance in Benjamin Franklin’s life.” By contrast, another student described how she noticed a similarity among the three exhibits and, after pursuing it further, she made a convincing argument about a specific aspect of Franklin’s education.

Students themselves expressed frustration about the demand for new skills that the Web presents: “The list of information is substantial. It has a number of links to many sites, however, it is somewhat overwhelming to look at this and make a real judgment about his [Franklin’s] ability to articulate ideas.” Like this student, others articulated and demonstrated the ease at which they could “surf” the “interesting” resources that the Web provides, but they found it quite difficult to search, evaluate, and effectively use those resources for a specified task.

The criterion on which students scored the lowest, integrating learning from online and traditional print resources, suggests that hypermedia reading is a very different sort of reading. That is, the ability to make the most of a traditional printed book does not necessarily translate into the ability to make the most of hypermedia text. Traditional printed books are generally linear and simultaneously require and promote focused thinking. Hypermedia text, however, is networked and can easily promote scattered and unfocused thought. The students who demonstrated the ability to infer how one item/section/image was related to the next in the hypermedia text were successful at integrating online and traditional print resources. Of course, understanding the relationship between content is essential to the task of integrating learning from diverse resources.

Conclusion: Higher Expectations

We suggest that recognition of adult students’ *attitudes* toward screen reading matters but so too do their actual *practices* of digital literacy. This research contributes to curriculum development, course design, and assessment in distance learning, and other pedagogical applications of online technology, by all accounts the fastest growing sector of postsecondary education.

On the one hand we must have realistic expectations for adult students still adapting to the world of digital information in many formats. On the other hand we can promote higher expectations among adult students in having their Internet reading and viewing habits, and their expository writing, display attention in depth to online resources. In order for students to successfully achieve higher expectations in their use of the Web they must be equipped with skills (e.g., remaining focused while reading non-linear texts and inferring networked relationships) that are foundational to genuine digital literacy.

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How Can Experiential Learning Address Cultural Consciousness in Professional Healthcare Internship Programs?

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Abstract: According to recent surveys, the health gap between minority and non-minority populations in the United States has increased (Richards & Lowe, 2003). The Institute of Medicine has reported racial bias by health care providers is contributing to this disparity (Nelson, 2003). In 2008 the Joint Commission on Hospital Accreditation began a project to develop hospital accreditation standards for promoting, facilitating and advancing culturally competent care (Stein, 2009). In a discussion of what makes experiential learning an effective tool for developing multicultural counseling competencies, Arthur and Achenbach (2002) claimed "experiential learning encourages students to consider cultural contexts that influence their own behavior, attitudes and beliefs and to be reflective about the impact on their professional role" (p. 113). White's study (2008) examined effective community nutrition education from the perspective of African American nutrition educators. They commented on experiences working with dietetic interns in the field that contributed to developing cultural awareness for the student, and effective interventions in the community. "See it, feel it, touch it, eat it and understand how it relates to the larger world," is the way educators characterized an effective approach teaching health and nutrition in the community.

Need For Cultural Consciousness for Health Care Professionals

In March 2002, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) Committee on Understanding and Eliminating Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Health Care reported that the quality of care in this country is generally lower for people perceived as coming from communities of ethnic minority than that provided to the majority population (Nelson, 2003). Racial and ethnic disparities were associated with worse health outcomes (Betancourt, Maina, & Soni, 2005). The inequality was consistent with persistent racial and ethnic discrimination in many sectors of American life and "bias, stereotyping, prejudice, and clinical uncertainty on the part of health care providers" (Betancourt et al., 2005, p.341).

The recommendation of the Committee was the reduction of disparities "by reducing the variation around best practices, by placing incentives to improve quality and reduce errors, and by improving the quality of communication within the delivery system" (Nelson, 2003, p. S1380). Also recommended was an increase in the proportion of underrepresented minorities in the health care workforce

Disparity In Health Care Practices Towards People Of Color

According to recent surveys, the health gap between minority and non-minority populations in the United States has increased (Richards & Lowe, 2003). For example, African Americans have the highest overall Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) mortality rate and the highest out of hospital coronary death rates of any ethnic group in the United States (Hall, 2003). Betancourt, Maina, and Soni (2005) described a national telephone survey conducted by the Kaiser Family Foundation in 2000 which found that of almost 4,000 individuals surveyed, 36%

of Latinos and 35% of African Americans (compared with 15% of whites) felt they were treated unfairly in the healthcare system in the past, based on their race and ethnicity. In contrast, physicians (mainly white) reported that the healthcare system “never” (14%) or “rarely” (55%) treats people unfairly based on race/ethnicity (Betancourt et al., 2005).

Lack Of Diversity And Cultural Sensitivity Of Health Care Professionals

In their research regarding culture, ethnicity and health care, Fox and Kleinman (1997) identified a failure of the medical profession to both address disadvantages experienced by poorer Americans, and to recognize the impact of cultural influences on disease.

Cohen and Northridge (2000) point to the structural roots of racial disparity:

Nutrition, clothing, shelter and primary medical care cannot be reliably obtained with substandard income...Barriers to health resources are all but insurmountable where inferior education and compromised social networks limit dissemination and implementation. Racism and other forms of group oppression aggravate all of these situations and in themselves are sources of substantial, unrelenting stress. (p. 841)

Yancy, Kumanyika and Ponce (2004) published a review of interventions regarding obesity in communities of color. They claimed “There is a paucity of high-quality data on sustained chronic disease or obesity risk reduction from interventions targeting or including meaningful numbers of people of color or people from low-income backgrounds. This gap in the literature represents a major obstacle in developing effective policies and programs” (Yancey et al., p.9). The authors continued “It is sobering to note that as of 2001 (so few) participants have been studied to control obesity and reduce chronic disease risk among 100 million persons of color – more than one third of Americans...and data derived from ethnically inclusive studies are not widely disseminated” (Yancey et al., p. 9).

Developing Cultural Consciousness In Health Care Programs

In 2008 the Joint Commission on Hospital Accreditation began a project to develop hospital accreditation standards for promoting, facilitating and advancing culturally competent care (Stein, 2009). The Commission on Accreditation for Dietetics Education requires that dietetics programs integrate the study of culture into their curricula (Skipper, Young & Mitchell, 2008). In order for dietitians to work effectively with culturally diverse clients, they must practice in a culturally appropriate manner (Curry, 2000; Saracino & Michael, 1996; Wang & Tussing, 2004).

White (2008) conducted a series of interviews with African American nutrition educators to identify how dietetic programs could develop student cultural competency. The participants discussed needed changes in the educational process, including more multicultural education for dietetic students and exposure to the African American community. The women commented on the need for all dietetic students to be exposed to cultures and develop sensitivity.

Because food is very important, it is very private. It's special to people, especially those who are in need, who don't have a whole lot. Dietitians can't understand the importance of food if you don't have a lot. Like “why, if you are so poor or you are having health crisis or stress in your life, why are you turning to food. It's going to make it worse”. I think if you can understand why they turn to food, you can deal with it better. (Lynn, LD, Nutritionist Community Program)

Utilizing Experiential Learning to Develop Cultural Consciousness

Stein (2009) reviewed a number of studies to find the best method of teaching cultural competency with medical students. She reported " it's the unplanned lessons that students appreciate most...the informal curriculum- which included knowledge-sharing made possible by student body diversity and cultural competence lessons presented in clinical situations was preferred and deemed more worthwhile than the formal curriculum of reading assignments, lectures and standardized patient modules" (p. 1679).

According to Artherton (2004) adults learn by first by engaging in concrete experience, then reflecting upon it and making general conceptualizations about it, and finally by modifying and mirroring the first experience. Rogers (n.d.) identified experiential learning as equivalent to personal change and growth. Reggy-Mamo (2008) described her experiences utilizing an experiential approach to teach intercultural education. She designed a course providing direct experiences with cross-cultural communication issues and allowed for self-evaluation.

From these experiences they would practice applying these principles, models and strategies appropriately when relating to people of different cultures, worldviews, and value systems. As an instructor, my role was to facilitate learning by: (a) setting a positive climate for learning, (b) clarifying the purposes of the learning, (c) organizing and making available learning resources, (d) balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning, and (e) sharing feelings and thoughts with learners but not dominating (p. 113).

In a discussion of what makes experiential learning an effective tool for developing multicultural counseling competencies, Arthur and Achenbach (2002) claimed "experiential learning encourages students to consider cultural contexts that influence their own behavior, attitudes and beliefs and to be reflective about the impact on their professional role" (pg.4). They cautioned that experiential learning can also raise powerful feelings, including culture shock, and instructors must be conscious of providing positive ways for students to process these feelings (Arthur & Achenbach, 2002).

In 2000 Harris Davis and Haughton sought to create a model for cultural competency training in Dietetics. They identified self-awareness as the initial step towards achieving this goal (2000). Stein (2009) asked the question "Is it fair to expect health care professionals- and students in training- to become completely unbiased once they enter the industry or the classroom" (p. 1682). Even in the classroom, instructors and preceptors must be prepared to deal with backlash and reactions of students, including resistance, when their belief system is challenged. This may be particularly true for white students who may perceive discussions of racism as attacks on them (Stein, 2009).

Effective Community Health Teaching Experiences

White's study (2008) examined effective community nutrition education from the perspective of African American nutrition educators. Participants commented on experiences working with dietetic students in the field that contributed to developing cultural awareness for the students and effective interventions with people from the community.

“See it, feel it, touch it, eat it and understand how it relates to the larger world,” is how Lynn, Licensed Dietitian characterized the way educators needed to approach teaching nutrition in the community.

Despite the lack of formal education, some of the peer educators were the most effective in bringing their messages to people in the community. Ruth, peer educator, described her experience running a group for teen moms in a housing project, which is considered a difficult audience.

Yeah...it was challenging because the room was so small...and you had a room full of kids and a room full of mamas and a lot of times they don't want to hear nothing about nutrition, 'cause they're busy talking about their personal problems. But you got to really just come in there with a bang. Be loud...you gotta get down with them...like we're sitting here...I actually would just sit down with them and we'll talk like a family instead of me standing up over them like I'm the one who knows everything. It took a while for them to actually warm up to me. The more you go back to them the more they warm up to you more and more. But it was really fun. When we did a label reading class...they really got into it...they couldn't believe about the fat and the calories! I actually bring in real food products...so it was really good...it was fun. They like to be fed. I find that...when you're feeding people they are more relaxed...they're eating and talking.

Being able to communicate a message in clear, understandable terms was another theme discussed by the participants in being successful as community educators. Betty, Registered Dietitian, addressed this issue as follows:

There are levels of conversation you can have with people depending on where they come from, their background. I think being able to relate, you don't have to be so high up you can't talk to people. I think a lot of folks fail in communicating with people because they don't know how to talk to them. It's not coming down to their level, but being able to explain to them what exists. What is available, and what do you have to do to get what you want.

Lisa had done nutrition education programs with ex-prisoners, women in homeless shelters and eventually culinary arts classes for teenagers on Chicago's West Side. When asked what she thought made them successful, she responded as follows:

You did it by building confidence and being patient. You had to be very down to earth and not give anybody the impression you thought you were “Miss It” because you had your degree and stuff...because they could make you or break you. But it was a joy for me to see the light bulb come on in somebody's head when I knew they got it...It made them happy and it made me happier because I accomplished that. And then you could build on something because you had laid a foundation.

Carol addressed the issue of communication:

Nutrition can be complicated, but if you can paraphrase, that's all I do. Just take this section, read this stuff and paraphrase. Break it down and throw it to them and they'll take it because it goes down better in small doses. The way it really is, I got to change my whole life! You will get overwhelmed. But if you look at the little picture you can go one day at a time.

Another term that was used by several participants was “getting connected.” Food was often the medium, as described by Lynn:

Food is such a social thing. In the beginning when you bring food they just want to eat, but when they still hang around after the food is gone and continue to come back. It's just a way to relate to people. Sometimes to give a person a banana or a bag of food, it just makes their day. Because when you are depressed or stressed out it's just nice that somebody or something, to have some joys in your life. No matter how small they are for that short time, it makes people feel good. When people have all kinds of problems in their life and here's someone treating them with respect, I think that makes a difference.

Interns participated in programs using food, cooking and eating, games and interacting with clients in a community setting. Working in these settings, under the supervision of the experienced community educators, and then processing them in a seminar format, allowed dietetic students a workshop to appreciate the diversity of the clients and staff. Kachingwe (2000) developed a meta-policy guideline for professional programs to help them achieve what she has called interculturalization through diversity, multiculturalism and conviction. A diverse population and multicultural curriculum are not enough. Educators must model the conviction that values culture and diversity in order for students to adopt and advocate these values themselves as professionals.

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Poster Presentations

Knowledge Sharing – Types of Knowledge Shared and Rewards

Angela Titi Amayah & Firm Faith Nelson

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to better understand how the types of knowledge shared and how knowledge sharing is influenced by job expectations and rewards. A qualitative method approach was adopted to gather data. Participants generally shared knowledge because that was the behavior expected of them by their organizations. The types of knowledge shared were practical knowledge and book knowledge. Factors that led participants to share or not share knowledge included personal benefit and the expectation of reciprocity. Knowledge sharing research is of importance to the fields of adult, continuing, extension and community education for a number of reasons. Public and private organizations' competencies are rooted in the knowledge of its members, the organization's employees. Organizations appear to be more productive when they can successfully create an environment in which employees share knowledge and when the knowledge shared is actually used by the recipients of information. Therefore, it is important to understand the type of knowledge shared, and how expectations created by an organization influence knowledge sharing among its members.

Introduction

Knowledge has been recognized both as an important organizational resource and a source of competitive advantage (e.g., Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). To gain a competitive advantage, knowledge and expertise must be transferred from experts to those who, within an organization, need it (Hinds, Patterson, & Pfeffer, 2001). Knowledge sharing between employees allows organizations to capitalize on the expertise of its employees (Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

While numerous issues related to knowledge sharing such as motivation (e.g., Hansen, Mors, & Lovas, 2005) have been extensively investigated in the literature, little is known about possible differences in the type or quality of knowledge shared in organizations where employees consider knowledge sharing a behavior not included in their job descriptions (extra-role behavior) versus others where employees see knowledge sharing as an in-role behavior that is expected to be rewarded (Wang & Noe, 2010). Knowledge sharing research is of importance to the fields of adult, continuing, extension and community education for a number of reasons. Public and private organizations' competencies are rooted in the knowledge of its members, the organization's employees (Dougherty, 1995). Organizations appear to be more productive when they can successfully create an environment in which employees share knowledge and when the knowledge shared is actually used by the recipients of information (Quigley, Tesluk, Locke & Bartol, 2007). Therefore, it is important to understand how expectations created by an organization influence knowledge sharing among its members. The purpose of this study is to better understand how knowledge sharing is influenced by job expectations and rewards.

The following research study addresses three questions: the type and quality of knowledge shared when knowledge is considered an in-role behavior; the type and quality of knowledge shared when knowledge is considered an extra-role behavior; and whether knowledge sharing is influenced by job expectations and rewards.

Theoretical Framework

Knowledge sharing: “Knowledge sharing refers to the provision of task information and know-how to help others and to collaborate with others to solve problems, develop new ideas, or implement policies or procedures” (Wang & Noe, 2010, p. 117). Individuals share information relevant to the organization, and expertise with one another (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002).

Since knowledge sharing is a deliberate behavior, the theory of planned behavior is appropriate framework for this study (Gagné, 2009). The theory of planned behavior, intentions are influenced by three factors: (1) one’s disposition toward a behavior or the extent to which the behavior is beneficial or detrimental; (2) the perceived social pressure to engage or not in a behavior; and people’s beliefs about their abilities, resources, and opportunity to engage in a behavior (Gagné, 2009). According to Bock and Kim (2002), individuals’ attitudes about knowledge sharing are influenced by their beliefs about expected rewards. Smith and McKeen (2003) found that the existence of a reward system increases workers’ motivation to engage in knowledge sharing.

Methods

This study used a qualitative method to gather data. This approach was appropriate because the study did not seek to prove or disprove a hypothesis or generalize data. Rather, the goal of the study was to gain some understanding of the individuals’ perception of knowledge sharing. An 11-question interview protocol was developed, asking participants about their experiences of knowledge sharing in their work environment. The interview questions were developed based on the knowledge sharing literature. The researcher used a semi-structured interview format where questions were focused on issues relevant to the research questions. Three individuals were interviewed for this study. Participants volunteered and gave their permission for the interview to be audio-recorded. Interviews were then transcribed and analyzed for themes. The coding scheme was not predetermined but rather, emerged from the data analysis. Participants reviewed transcripts for accuracy. In order to explore the types of knowledge shared, Hara and Hew’s (2007) framework was utilized. The knowledge shared by individuals could be book knowledge, practical knowledge, and cultural knowledge (Hara & Hew, 2007).

Findings

This section focuses on the results and discusses their relevance to the three research questions. Three individuals volunteered to share their experience of knowledge sharing within their respective organizations. Several themes emerged from the analysis.

In-role and Extra-role Knowledge Sharing

All participants regularly share knowledge at work, generally because it is expected of them. Two participants indicated that sharing knowledge was vital to their organization. For instance, they indicated “We wouldn’t be able to go through the day if we didn’t share information”. Another stated, “It’s important that we’re informed across the board because if we don’t know a patient’s medical history, it can have a negative effect on that patient”. However,

except in one case, most knowledge sharing activities seemed to be in-role behavior. Indeed, in most situation described by the participants, information was shared either because it was “strongly encouraged” by management. “There is an encouragement to share the knowledge so we’re all on the same page and the diagnoses that we’re giving are known across the board”. Another participant has to meet every day at the end of the day to share information about how the day went.

The participants shared knowledge for a number of reasons. The main reasons here seem to be willingness to help (2) without expecting anything in return and (2) because it would benefit the person providing the information. Indeed, one of the participants made the following statement: “For example there’s one kid who told myself and another program aide that he has anger problems and that he has been in trouble before. When he told me that I shared that information with the rest of the staff”. Another indicated “I was willing to share information because she was new and I knew that ultimately, down the line, the more knowledge she had, the easier all of our jobs would be because there would be more people qualified to do the same task. My helping her in the beginning would benefit myself and everybody else.” The individuals will not, however, go out of their way to share information. One participants would help coworkers only if it did not take too much time away from his own responsibilities: “So we try to help each other out as much as possible but not too much or too long because, depending on what activity we are doing, we cannot stay away from our [kid] for too long”.

Two out of three participants were willing to share knowledge with coworkers without expecting anything in return. Additionally, those participants appeared to work within teams that were tight-knit. This might be explained by the fact that they did not work in a competitive environment. The third participant was reluctant to share mainly because of the perceived lack of reciprocity in the exchange of knowledge. Even when knowledge sharing was strongly encouraged, it was not always actually done in practice, leading one of the participants not to go above and beyond the organizations expectations. This participant explained that some of her coworkers were reluctant to share information, even when asked by supervisors: “Some people will hold information to make themselves look better versus making everybody look good. Some people share information and some people don’t. For instance, there was a coworker who knew a lot about running the software we run for our tests and we would ask him to share but he would be reluctant to, so that he would be the only source of information and make himself look better”. This finding supports by prior research. According to Chiu, Hsu, and Wang (2006), there is a positive relationship between reciprocity and knowledge sharing.

Type and Quality of Knowledge Shared

Analysis of the types of knowledge shared revealed that the participants share all three types of knowledge –book knowledge, practical knowledge, and cultural knowledge – in their place of work. Practical knowledge came first (majority of the knowledge shared by two of the subjects), followed by book knowledge (one participant). “Most knowledge is acquired as we go. (...) I have the educational knowledge but most of the other aides learned through experience”. A second participant pointed out that she “had about a 50% knowledge of what [she] was getting into. The other 50% was obtained on the job”. Typical practical knowledge shared was tips on how to accomplish a task more efficiently. “An instructor with more experienced shared with me a Word document she had, listing the most common errors encountered in some assignments, as well as how to address them. When I graded my first papers, all I had to do was copy and paste

information from that tip list and tailor it to the specific student. That saved me a significant amount of time.”

The relatively low amount of book knowledge shared overall is not surprising given that all participants have been at their position for a number of years. Moreover, little experienced is required prior to being hired where two of the participants work. This fact might explain why more practical knowledge is shared overall in the participants’ work. The third participant holds a more technical job where some amount of book knowledge is required there. That could explain why up to 50% of the knowledge shared there is book knowledge.

Knowledge Sharing and Job Expectations

When asked about their expectation before starting their current jobs, two out of three participants indicated they knew what to do in their job. “When I started the job I knew what I was supposed to do. They gave us information. (...) Expectations were spot on. Everything I was told before I began the job was pretty much accurate compared to when I was on site”. One of the participants, however, had a different experience. This subject indicated that the job description she was given was very vague; therefore, her expectations for job were low. The subject did, however, receive all the assistance she needed from her office mates. “My office mates were very nice to me. They volunteered information, gave me tips, and inside information about the organization. This sped my adaptation to the new job”.

The lack of influence of knowledge sharing on job expectations might be explained by the fact that participants, for the most part, knowledgeable about the position they were ready to start.

Knowledge Sharing and Rewards

Knowledge sharing activities were not formally incorporated in the participants’ evaluations. The first participation indicated “Knowledge sharing somewhat incorporated in the informal evaluation. (...) There are no rewards for knowledge sharing except for the occasional verbal recognition for a good job”. There were no formal reward systems in the organizations where the participants work. According to another participant, “Sharing knowledge is considered in the evaluation but it’s not as much of an issue because it has become an understanding now across the board that we’re on a team and that knowledge is spread across the board so that everybody’s job is easier”.

Conclusions / Recommendations

The findings in this study suggest that participants generally share knowledge because it is what the organization expects of them (in-role behavior). The main type of knowledge shared is practical knowledge, followed by book knowledge. Participants shared knowledge to comply with the rules, and because it would benefit them as well.

One limitation of the current study is the number of participants, and the lack of organizations with a formal reward system in place. Despite the limitations, we believe the study was useful in identify the types of knowledge shared and providing and insight on the motivations to share knowledge.

Future studies should be done with a broader sample, as well as different types of organizations.

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Implications of the Community College Taxonomy on Institutions Implementing: Achieving the Dream in Michigan

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Abstract: The Community College Taxonomy (CCT) study produced a “classification scheme” which describes community college students’ intentions according to how “directed” they are toward completing one of three program tracks. An implication of the CCT’s results is that older students in the moderately and not directed categories are less likely to persist after their first year, transfer to a 4-year institution, or obtain an associate degree or certificate. Age was found to be statistically significant; students 30 and over constituted the lowest percentage of strongly directed students in all three tracks. One attribute of the nontraditional student segment was that strongly directed older students were more likely to be retained than their moderately directed counterparts. Based on these conclusions, the researcher designed the current study to explore the experiences of strongly directed older students who attend a community college that has implemented the Achieving the Dream program. The researcher found that nontraditional students have the potential of becoming very “strongly-directed” once initial challenges are alleviated with supportive services provided by the college. For nontraditional students, whose situational conditions may vary throughout their college experience, a classification captured at one particular time is not a reliable description a student’s intention toward completing a degree.

The Community College Taxonomy

The thrust of the Community College Taxonomy (CCT) was “to examine the 3-year outcomes of the most recent national cohort of first-time community college students” between 2003 and 2006 (Horn & Weko, 2009, p. iii). The CCT sample included 5800 students from the most recent Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (2006), which represents all first-time undergraduates. The average age was 24 years with 20% who were 30 or older. The CCT proposes a “classification scheme” which describes community college students’ intentions according to how “directed” they seemed toward completing one of three formal program tracks outlined as: transfer to a 4-year institution; complete an associate degree; or obtain a certificate. The scheme included “strongly directed,” “moderately directed” and “not directed” student classifications based on self-reported intentions to complete any one of the three tracks, enrollment and attendance status. The criterion for the classification schemes were crafted to fit community colleges where the majority of the students attend part time and are likely to have other life priorities, such as dependents and full-time work.

Research Interest

The researcher was interested in the Community College Taxonomy (CCT) because of her interest in nontraditional students’ transition to community college. In light of the fact that community college completion rates tend to be low (Bailey et al., 2005), the researcher was looking for data that would illuminate the recent efforts to improve the retention and persistence

of nontraditional students. Achieving the Dream (ATD) is a national program designed to improve completion rates and facilitate the transition to college. In 2010 Michigan added 10 community colleges to the list of 7 that are participating in the ATD initiative (Michigan Community College Association, 2010). This is an indication that community college administrators and faculty are concerned about the performance of their students and they are focusing an effort to improve completion rates. At institutions where there are large proportions of nontraditional students, the ATD strategies are helping adults, particularly those with severe developmental education needs, such as dislocated workers, overcome obstacles in transitioning to college.

However, data from the CCT imply that more of the older students in the sample were classified as “moderately” or “not directed” and were less likely to transfer to a 4-year institution, obtain an associate degree or certificate. Though the CCT has empirical evidence to support this implication, it does not offer information that explains why older students were more likely in the moderately or not directed classifications. It does state that within the limitations of the study “unmeasured factors may underlie the associations between variables included in the study, and there may be more complex interactions among variables that are not examined in this report” (Horn & Weko, 2009, p. iii). The researcher wondered if community colleges that have implemented the ATD programs are addressing any of the possible “unmeasured factors,” which could be related to why so many older students were reported as moderately or not directed. More importantly, what is the impact of the ATD strategies on strongly-directed students?

The Taxonomy’s Implications

A major implication of the CCT’s (2009) results is that older students in the moderately and not directed categories are less likely to persist after the first year, persist through the third year, transfer to a 4-year institution or obtain an associate degree or certificate. Age was a statistically significant factor: students in the oldest age group (30 or older) constituted 12% of the strongly directed students, 27% of moderately directed and 41% of the not directed students; and “students age 30 or older constituted a lower percentage of strongly directed than of moderately directed students in all three tracks” (p. 11). In regard to persisting beyond the first year, most students cited reasons were either “financial” or “other,” reported by about 30 % of first-year leavers and among the not directed students; 29.5% for other reasons, 33.9 % for financial reasons; and 39.2% for personal reasons (p. 34). The CCT did not provide any details about “other reasons” or “personal reasons,” so it is inferred that these factors are some of the unmeasured variables which were not part of the study. The only positive result for the nontraditional student segment was that strongly directed older students were more likely to be retained than their moderately directed counterparts. And those that are strongly directed appeared to be better prepared academically than their peers classified as moderately directed or not directed. Based on the CCT’s conclusions, the researcher wanted to know whether strongly directed older students, who are attending community colleges that have the ATD program, exhibit similar behavior.

The Current Study

Methodology

The purpose of the current study is: to explore the transitions of nontraditional students to college; to examine the “unmeasured factors” and “complex interactions” that affect older students’ persistence; and to answer the following research questions:

- What are the personal characteristics of “strongly directed” nontraditional students who have completed their first year of community college?
- What are the institutional characteristics that have facilitated the “strongly directed” nontraditional students’ transition during their first year?

A qualitative case study methodology was employed with the use of phenomenologically based interviewing, which produces more in-depth life stories of the participants (Seidman, 2006). The first part of the research is an exploration of personal characteristics affecting motivation among students using the CCT’s (2009) definition of students who are considered “strongly directed” toward one of the three program tracks. An understanding of the students’ personal motivations and elements of their transition process was gained through 45 minute, tape-recorded, face-to-face interviews. In the second part, the opinions about students’ transitions and developmental education innovations were explored with faculty and administrators also through 45 minute, tape-recorded, face-to-face interviews. The interview questions were related to the five goals and four targeted areas of institutional improvement as outlined in the *Achieving the Dream Field Guide* (2009).

The main college chosen for the current study (Case A) has participated in the ATD program since 2007. Two additional schools were included because they were in varying stages of implementing the ATD program. Case B has developed the ATD strategy framework and will be rolling out the implementation in the fall of 2010. Case C recently adopted the ATD initiative and is in the strategic planning stage. The researcher felt that by looking at schools in varying stages of implementation, a more comprehensive view of the ATD initiative could be obtained.

The interview participants were recruited on site once permission was granted by the appropriate administrator. For Case A, students who were visiting a resource center were asked to participate. The interviews were conducted a private office. For Case C, the participant was recruited at a campus café. Permission was not granted for Case B. The 45 minute interview format provided ample time for the participant to give thoughtful responses to the questions. Each participant was given a \$10 restaurant card. The tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and uploaded for analysis in QSR NVivo8. The responses were coded manually to include certain categories which were not specifically named in the interview responses, such as “transition process” and “adjustment.” Other codes were created from the frequency of certain text or phrases, such as “use of technology” and “intimidation” automatically. Queries were attempted to show special connections among the categories but, because there were so few sources from which to draw, the associations were not considered analytically meaningful.

A limitation of the study was the number of institutions that could be examined during the short research period of 6 weeks. Another limitation was the availability student participants from Cases B & C because of the institutions’ status in implementing the ATD program. Although the number of participants is small, the researcher found the in-depth information that she was seeking through the interviews of students, faculty and administrators from Case A. The continuation of this study will include returning to Case B and C as well as adding other institutions that are further along in the implementation of ATD. A desired outcome would be a

comparison of the interview responses and identifying distinct patterns of student and institutional characteristics across multiple cases.

Findings

For Case A, three students were interviewed. All of the participants are over age 40, had completed their first-year, were enrolled for the upcoming semester, and could be classified as strongly directed students. Two administrators were interviewed, a dean and a director, and one full-time faculty member. There were no students for Case B and one interview with a dean. There was one student for Case C who is 35 years old and was continuously enrolled for two years, but did not complete the degree, transfer or receive a certificate. One administrator was interviewed for Case C, a director of student services. The answer to the research questions were derived from participants responses.

First, why do nontraditional students have trouble transitioning and persisting through their first year of community college? The students reported a lack of confidence, a fear of change, and never being challenged in the way college is a challenge. They also report difficulties in navigating the college systems, i.e. registration, financial aid, advocating for themselves and seeking assistance. One dean said “they have a sense of being kind of outside of the education experience.” Another dean explained it as “because you are already taking them out of the context of life, new contacts, new people and new stuff to navigate.” She also expressed “the other challenge that I hear is the work after school. With a job you go home and with school you go home and do homework.” The faculty member and the students echoed a similar sentiment. The director of the student service center described a transition problem in the context of learning how to use the computer. She said “they didn’t know how to use the mouse, didn’t know how to use Word, didn’t know what that little cursor thing was, didn’t know how to set margins. This can send them right over the edge.” She went on to say “not only were they stressed with losing a job, not having a job or training for a new job or having a lot of responsibilities, not having computer skills was the last straw.” Her comment illustrates how one difficulty can be compounded into a total feeling of defeat, which is why many older students start at community college completely terrified and unsure how they will do it. But in spite of these challenges, many do persevere.

Second, what are the personal characteristics of strongly-directed nontraditional students? These are the students that have overcome the initial “shock” of going to college. The researcher observed how the students talked about their adjustment period. When talking about the “dark days,” as one student referred to it, their voices became barely audible. And when they started talking about how things are going for them now, the volume went way up, their body position changed and the tone of their voice sounded more cheerful. The students explained that going to college made them feel proud and confident. They also exhibit diligence, curiosity and a sense of commitment. One student said “I am ambitious now. I must make sure I get good grades.”

Another expressed “You have to keep pushing yourself.” And another exclaimed “You start finding out you can do things that you didn’t really think you could do. But it does take sacrifice. I think I feel better about myself.” All of the students recognize that going to college has not been easy, but they have embraced it and are eager to continue. A student who described herself as a former addict said “Honestly, it’s a struggle, but I feel good about me going through this struggle. I think I’ve learned how to help myself and how to get resources and how to search

for resources.” For one student, there have been certain epiphanies, such as “Honestly, one of the things that I learned is that, if you are struggling, you need to ask for help.”

The faculty and administrators also notice the change in students who struggle initially, but manage to continue. A dean commented, “But by gosh they persist and they do pretty well in their classes!” This same dean talked about the performance of nontraditional students. She said “...what I’m getting at is that the older student does persist higher than average and their cumulative grade point average is 3.13 overall. The overall GPA for this school is like 2.0. So they are doing better and they are persisting better.” She further explained “You can see them as students and when we give them a clear direction, goals and support they use all that. They parlay the resources and use of them and they follow the advice.” The success of the nontraditional students at this institution is attributed to the efforts of the faculty and administration that have used the ATD tools to create strategies aimed specifically at this student segment.

Third, what are the institutional characteristics that have facilitated the “strongly directed” nontraditional students’ transition? The greatest resource is having one place where students can access multiple services such as tutoring, counseling services, computers, printers, and other students. Nontraditional students thrive in a guided environment, whether it is the cohort based or learning community models, they perform better when they are familiar with their surroundings. Other important services are targeted orientations that are mandatory, advisory check-ins throughout the year, and supplemental instructors who are in the classroom and who are also available for tutoring outside of class. As a faculty member expressed “The adjustment [to college] for learning community students is easier than students who are not in a guided environment.” A director agreed by offering “Certainly, they feel stronger in school in the cohort-based community.” A faculty member commented on the student service center “they are not going to show up at the tutor center unless they know somebody who says, yes this is a cool place” And a student gave an example how she used the center “when I started to feel stressed with home and balancing, I was able to sit down with a social worker and make a plan.” This student has been able to stick to her plan. She has successfully completed all of the prerequisites and she is moving into the nursing program in the fall. She credits her success to the people in the student center who helped her through the initial difficulties.

Lastly, an interesting facet of the only student from Case C is that upon entry into college this student would have been initially classified as strongly directed. Because of institutional limitations and changes in the spouse’s employment (forces beyond the students’ control), the student’s classification at the time of the interview was not directed. If this student were part of the CCT study sample, she would be an example of how factors that would be considered “complex interactions” can affect a student’s classification.

Conclusion

A study of the transitions of nontraditional students is especially relevant because of the current economic climate in the US (and Michigan) where many institutions have implemented educational reforms to educate large populations of unemployed and displaced workers (Carnevale, 2009). The current study exemplifies the research-to-practice efforts of faculty and administrators at a community college in Michigan where the implementation of the ATD program has shown some success. Because of the potential inferences that could be made about

older students, the researcher is concerned about the implications of the CCT's results. The CCT did not compare the strongly directed older students (over 30) with the strongly directed younger students (18-24) to determine if age has an impact among students with similar intentions. Nor does the CCT offer any evidence of student performance within any of the classifications or across age groups. The current study's results show that once initial challenges are alleviated with supportive services provided by the college, nontraditional students have the potential of becoming very "strongly-directed." An examination of students with similar motivations and intentions within each of the classifications would be an interesting topic for a future study.

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Lifelong Learning in Japan: Community Centers and Learning Circles

Stacy Marie Clause

Abstract: The Japanese community center classroom model constructed from U.S. occupation directives after World War II is a ubiquitous feature of Japanese neighborhood life. Through interviews and observation of community center classes over a period of several weeks, this study describes several features of community based adult classroom dynamics and operations. Long term social commitment to a group over many years, division of administrative duties from teaching, and alternative models of learning (correspondence, visiting teachers, or no teacher at all) emerged as features of community center learning groups. Research conducted in foreign countries presents challenges to the best of methodological intentions.

Background

In Japan, 90 percent of college graduates are under 24 years old (Yoshimoto, Inenage, & Yamada, 2007) and only a small proportion of adults re-enroll in college or university. But this does not mean adults are not engaged in lifelong learning. Statistics from the Ministry of Education website lists a substantial number of community centers: 12,915 community centers and 230,000 lifelong learning classes with over 10 million participants (Ministry of Education, Culture Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), 2006){Citation}. Japanese national education policy includes “lifelong opportunities to all strata of society...activities that help to deepen a sense of community among local residents, and promote the social participation of people” (MEXT, 2006).

Social aims, not the acquisition of skills, dominate lifelong education policy in Japan (Okumoto, 2003). Lifelong learning in Japan “aspires to the integration of the individual’s experiences through thinking, feeling, and action. A piecemeal approach to learning, which tends to separate thinking, feeling, and action, may not effectively contribute to the human resource development task of the individual...lifelong learning aims to achieve a matured citizen” (Ohsako, 2002, p. p. 199). Yamamoto, Fujitsuka and Honda-Okistu characterize lifelong learning in Japan “as a means for achieving a richness of spirit and a sense of purpose in life...learning for pleasure is one of the rationales for lifelong learning in Japan” (Schütze & Slowey, 2000, p.12). The aim of the study was to learn how lifelong learning programs at a local community center in Japan operate to support social goals and better understand the features of teaching and learning practices for adults.

Community centers in Japan were established during the American occupation after WWII, and range from small unmanned buildings in neighborhoods to large staffed downtown centers. Learning circles, as part of a myriad of services, offer citizens an opportunity to participate in educational programs for a small basic room rental fee. Once a program is initially started and the participant roster filled, the members of the group are completely responsible for maintaining membership, determining activities, and establishing classroom practices. Although the learning paradigm and student-centered classroom has been recently reintroduced as a revolutionary concept in the college classroom (Barr & Tagg, 1995), learning circles from their

inception in the 1950s have been driven by the efforts of the group, as members act as stewards of their programs.

Methods

Interviews were conducted with staff and participants of learning circles at a central community center in a prefectural city capital north of Tokyo over a period of several weeks. Classes were also observed. Once a prestigious downtown department store, the building was repurposed in 2008 as a public space housing a children's library and play center, community center (classrooms with tables and studio spaces), grocery store, as well as a citizen's volunteer center and a hall for performances. Large open tables in the lobbies are used by high school students and community center participants for studying and eating lunch, reflecting a multi-use facility that exemplifies Ministry lifelong learning policy aiming to integrate all strata of society (MEXT, 2006).

One hundred and ninety-three circles have developed over the years, initially promoted by the community center through neighborhood newsletters that circulate house to house, which continue after an introductory period as self-sustaining groups that range between a few and about forty participants. Most groups practice general arts, including many Japanese cultural arts: dance (ballroom, international folk, Japanese fan, and yoga), Japanese arts (haiku, calligraphy), art (ceramics, painting, papercutting), music (instrumental and choral) and language (English, Thai, and French) and meet as frequently as once a week or just once a month.

The arrangement of when to observe and interview was a collaborative and imprecise process. It was my first time to arrange interviews in a second language in which I knew no one personally. It was the first time a researcher has visited the center (from abroad or otherwise). Understanding who and what I was about with the administrative staff took time and introductions, and this was facilitated in part by my prior work connections in a nearby city. All the groups were contacted by phone and protocols distributed in advance, and in some cases the staff accompanied me to the rooms to make introductions. This resulted in a collaborative and changing process of selecting groups with the help of the staff. Groups were visited in their classrooms, resulting in public or semi-public interviews, and due to the public nature and unfamiliarity with the participants, the interviews consisted of modest questions about what happens in during class, how the participant got involved with the group. Observations sometimes ran the full length of class time, but when simultaneous classes were held, I would observe for part of the lesson and leave for another.

Some groups formed a circle and invited my questions, along with asking me to participate (in one case, the Virginia reel). With groups that had a teacher commenting in small groups, it was more appropriate to talk with participants off in the corner. Some groups were so large that it was impossible to have more than a few comments from a large number of people. I acknowledge contributions from Geertz (1972) on being an insider (as one with many years and connections to help facilitate this project) and Whyte (1993) on the importance of informants (staff who provided valuable insights into the working of the groups). In more than one instance, as a young American, interviewing Japanese seniors ended in poignant conversations about World War II. With this experience of both planned and random interviews and observations, I came away with more data, more ideas, and deeper relationships in place.

Observations and Patterns

Time and friendship

Many of the circles have been in existence for over a decade, some for over two decades. Social bonds between participants are often the impetus for attendance. Given the public nature of the interviews, it was not too surprising that comments ranged from pleasant to more pleasant: “Sometimes I just don’t feel like going, but I think about my friends, and I want to go.” “Its really fun, I enjoy seeing everyone.” More than a few members in different groups said that it was like a family. A significant proportion of members were original members of the initial group and new members, who joined through the years, were usually introduced by friends in the group. Outsiders interested in joining phoned the leader about the group (phone numbers are provided by the community center on request). One leader commented that it was through the phone conversation that the two parties considered whether the group was a match. Groups that involved a specific skill, such as the black and white paper cuts, often attracted new members through exhibitions. Overall, group membership changed very slowly over time.

Teacher and leader roles

Community center courses operate as part of a bureaucratic system, and it fell to the members to clean up the room, collect the fees for the facility, and organize any announcements (such as the upcoming yearly public exhibition for all groups). Each group had a designated leader who began the class, gave the news, collected payment, and serves as a contact person for both the center and potential newcomers. This role usually rotated among members, but sometimes, the leadership role was over taken by one person for several years or even decades. One leader, who was particularly active both in the group at hand as well as other community groups, was termed a “social leader” by another member. A “social leader” seemed in one form or another to be part of nearly every group.

In addition to the leader, some groups had renowned experts that did not function as a teacher giving lectures, but rather as a commentator upon work, offering suggestions as to individual work and directions for future activities. In Japanese arts such as calligraphy, the teacher would mark and comment upon a piece while other students gathered at the table to listen. In the case of Japanese cut paper art, a master comes once a month to give individualized comments on works in progress that students bring to class. Some of the participants had made considerable efforts on pieces in their portfolios and others had nothing for that particular class. The teacher discussed upcoming exhibits that students might prepare for. As members of a national association, with local and national exhibition calendar set in place over the year, students had a strong grasp of what could be expected over the year without much explicit guidance.

Other types of classrooms

Another calligraphy class was run essentially as a correspondence course, with the syllabus, exercises, and samples provided through a nationally syndicated magazine. Members prepared their work at home, and brought it to the meeting to discuss and comment. This work was sent in to the head office by mail and returned with comments. A few times a year, a teacher from Tokyo visits the group and gives personalized instruction. Some groups experienced the death of a teacher but found ways to continue studying. Supported by the International Folk

Association, one of the longest running groups (27 years) sent a representative to learn new dances, which was then taught to the group. In this way, there was barely the notion of a “teacher” at all, but rather simply a member of the group responsible for passing along instruction. All groups had yearly plans for a group trips related to their interests (i.e., a Thai language group’s outings to local Thai restaurants), traditional Japanese year end parties, preparations for the community center open exhibit, or volunteer activities (i.e., folk singing performance at an old age home).

Conclusion

Though literature points out that categories, and conceptions of adult learning vary in different places around the world, especially enacted practices (Merriam & Kim, 2008), it is difficult to imagine what these conceptions might look like in the lives of everyday citizens. This Japanese community center illustrates a case of educational borrowing that has grown into accord with Japanese culture and norms. Teaching and learning arrangements such as correspondence courses might seem familiar as an example of Chautauqua’s (Moore, 2003) correspondence courses, while “stealing” from the master calligrapher as she corrects other student work might strike a chord with students of martial arts. Whatever the borrowing or lending, the teacher is subservient to the demands of the social needs of the participants, but master of the content. A wide variety of opportunities that might be classified as simply “hobbies” have not discouraged policymakers from investing in basic classroom space that is devoid of technology (the community center was chagrined that they still use a paper master schedule to keep track of courses), with a keen eye towards encouraging the interaction citizens at a central location. Expert knowledge, whether in the form of a magazine, a visiting teacher, or through the voice of another student is considered legitimate lifelong learning, and supported by national policy. This research is at an early stage, but in an age of education where the “knowledge worker” and acquiring job skills (Drucker, 1992) are considered one of the imperatives of educational programming, the slow, long learning of Japan’s community centers provide a counterpoint to literature (i.e., Friedman, 2006) that suggests global competition is the model upon which policymakers operate, or that a skill-based learning society of citizens is the only option in a competitive world.

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