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ABSTRACT

Three adult education conference papers, together with abstracts, are presented on adult education participation and self-concept. Propositions regarding behavior and motivation are discussed in the context of a theory of self-concept. Curiosity, enjoyment of learning activities, and pleasure in acquiring and/or possessing knowledge are among the reasons stressed in another paper for involving oneself in learning. Also considered are the ways in which conflicting psychological needs, role transition, and the attitude or sense of powerlessness affect adult learning. The document includes publications of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education and additional references, notes on availability, and the ERIC Document Reproduction Service order form. (ly)

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ROGER DeCROW, DIRECTOR

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A B S T R A C T

Three adult education conference papers, together with abstracts, are presented on adult education participation and self-concept. Propositions regarding behavior and motivation are discussed in the context of a theory of self-concept. Curiosity, enjoyment of learning activities, and pleasure in acquiring and/or possessing knowledge are among the reasons stressed in another paper for involving oneself in learning. Also considered are the ways in which conflicting psychological needs, role transition, and the attitude or sense of powerlessness affect adult learning. The document includes ERIC/AE publications and additional references, notes on availability, and the ERIC Document Reproduction Service order form.

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Special thanks are due to the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. for permission to reprint the article by Jane Zahn from Adult Education, Vol. 19, No. 2 (Winter, 1969), published by the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1225 Nineteenth Street N.W. Washington, D. C. 20036. Annual subscription rate to Adult Education is $10. domestic; $10.50 in Canada; and $14. in other countries.

ADULT EDUCATION PARTICIPATION AND SELF-CONCEPT

What motivates adults to seek additional learning? This is a constant question adult educators ask. A substantial amount of research attempts to answer the question, yet much of this research has only been concerned with variables like age, amount of formal education, socio-economic status, residence and the like.

Adult educators are concerned that the reasons for participation or more importantly nonparticipation are related to more sophisticated factors. One factor that many adult educators believe may hold part of the answer is self-concept. How does the potential adult learner see himself as a person and does the answer to this question relate to the adult's search for continuing learning? These were the questions that were pursued at the Summer Adult Education Conference held at the University of Wisconsin on the Madison campus July 1-2 and the Milwaukee campus July 15-16.

One-hundred-fifty participants from throughout the United States grappled with self-concept questions lead by resource people--Glen Dildine, Colorado State University; Allen Tough, Toronto Institute for Adult Studies; and Jane Zahn, San Francisco State University. The papers presented by these resource people are included in this document along with abstracts of related literature.

The planning committee consisting of Professors Russell Robinson and Jerold W. Apps are most appreciative to the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education for their interest in this conference and their wish to make the conference papers available to a broad spectrum of adult educators.

Jerold W. Apps,
Chairman, Summer Adult
Education Conference
Associate Professor of
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Education

SELF CONCEPT THEORY

Glenn C. Dildine

ABSTRACT. Self-concept is defined here as a person's inner pattern of thinking and feeling about himself which are the most central, conscious, and persisting aspects of his self-image. A motivation continuum from defensive self-maintenance to creative self-enhancement is also set forth, together with a behavior cycle (including perception, interpretation, memory, decision, and action) operating in the nervous system to govern behavior through one's inner frame of reference. Additional, more specific principles pertaining to situations, emotions, attitudes and values, human relations, communication and understanding, and the formation of self-concepts, help explain the general propositions and behavior cycle referred to above. Eight references are included. (ly)

I. In General

A. Basic Propositions

1. Any behavior always includes these inseparably interrelated dimensions--intellectual, emotional, and resulting expressive action. Any adequate theory of behavior must encompass and interrelate all three.

2. All outer action (expressive behavior) is determined by and pertinent to the intellectual and emotional inner frame of reference of the person behaving. This inner frame of reference can be characterized operationally at three increasingly specific and self-focused levels of inclusiveness. (Combs and Snygg)

   a. The phenomenal field--"the universe, including himself, as it appears to the individual at the moment."

   b. The phenomenal self--"all those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual perceives and experiences

as part or characteristic of himself."

c. The <u>self concept</u>--those parts of the phenomenal self "which the individual has differentiated as <u>definite and fairly</u> stable characteristics of himself."

i.e., his most central and conscious intellectual and emotional patterns about himself.

or

those inner patterns of thinking and feeling about himself which are most central, conscious, and persisting aspects of his unique self-image.

3. The phenomenal field, phenomenal self and self concept all include both intellectual and emotional aspects, in intimate interrelation.

   a. <u>Intellectual</u> = aspects of the <u>thinking</u> process: perceptions, knowledge and memory, concepts from specific to general.

   b. <u>Emotional</u> = aspects of the <u>feeling</u> process: likes and dislikes, hopes and aspirations, fears and shames, certainties and uncertainties, confidence or its lack.

   c. Intimate combinations of a and b (ideas tied to feelings) which for convenience we call attitudes (more specific) or values (more general).

4. Motivation--the biologically inherent drive to act in specific, self-satisfying directions. Best understood as the energy-exploiting operation and expression in action of this phenomenal self and especially the self concept.

   The universal <u>direction</u> of behavior (basic drive) aims toward active expression of self somewhere along a

flexible continuum between maintenance and enhancement of the self as presently perceived.

Defensive Self Maintenance	Enjoyable Exploitation of Existing Competences	Creative Self-Enhancement; Growth and Learning
When stimulating situation is perceived as threatening, i.e., little or no chance for satisfying action or constructive self-realization.	When individual perceives that he already has a satisfying (goal-realizing) pattern of thinking, feeling and acting for responding to stimulating situation.	When individual perceives that he has a real (to him) chance of learning new and potentially more self-satisfying patterns of thinking, feeling and acting.

a. Much of behavior is maintenance oriented--activity to preserve and/or exploit the individual's existing self images, the essence of his continued being.

b. Enhancement (activity to increase complexity and reintegration at more complex levels; toward greater self-realization and effectiveness) predominates when:

   1) individual perceives a discrepancy between self-as-presently-perceived and self-as-aspired to, and,

   2) he perceives a realistic chance to move toward greater realization of self-as-aspired-to. (Beatty)

   3) For anyone in a helping relationship, concerned with creating conditions which foster self-enhancement more than defense or maintenance, it is important to recognize these differences in

intrinsic motivation, in order to minimize perception of threat of failure and maximize conditions for creative self development.

B. The Behavior Cycle (accompanying chart) clarifies the essential, predictable sequence of steps (occurring within the nervous system) which is involved in control of outer action by individual's unique inner frame of reference.

1. Background for the cycle of events in the chart--An individual's outer (observable) actions are directed toward self-satisfaction <u>in the situation-as-perceived</u>.

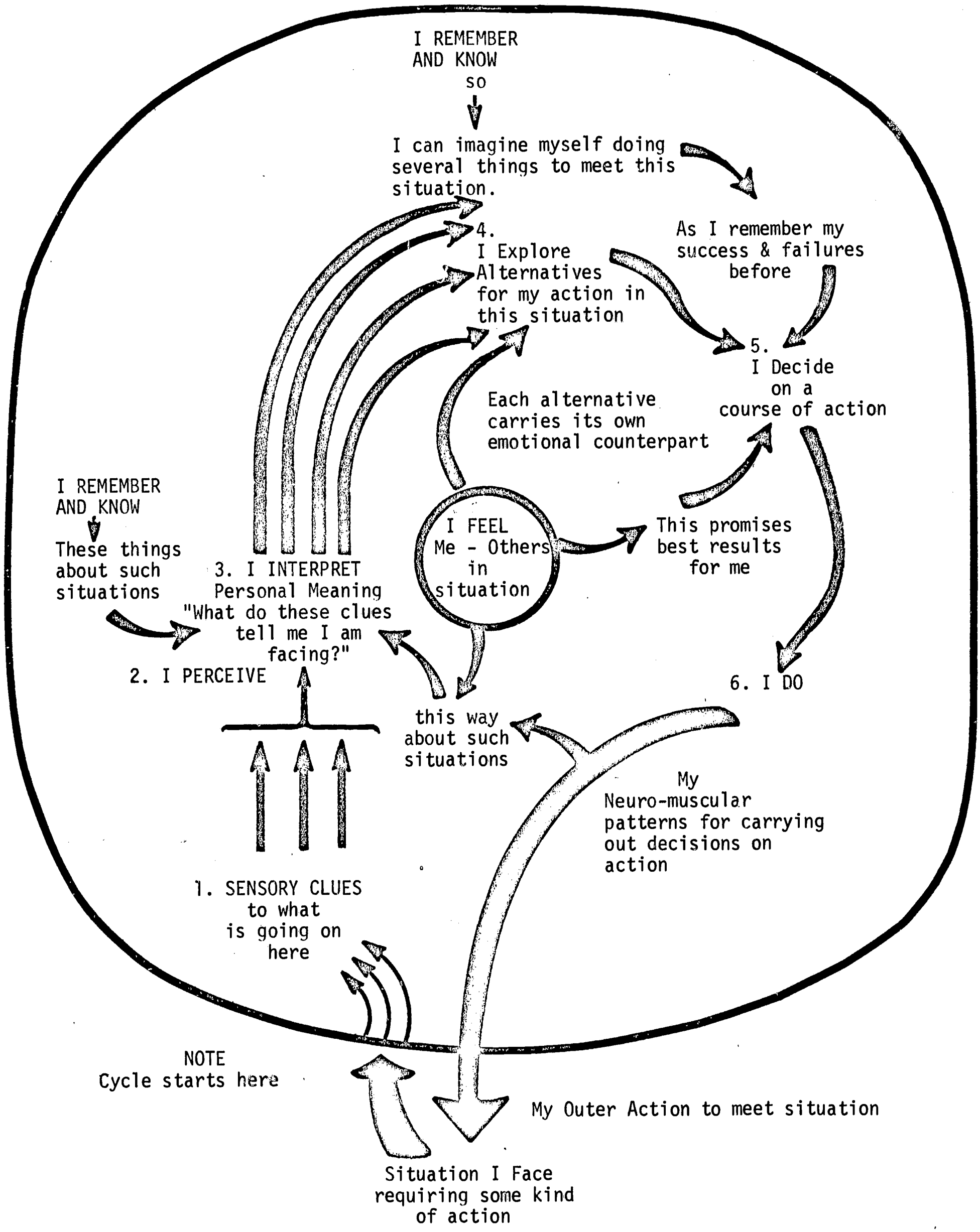
a. Action is motivated by need-goal seeking, by this individual's attempts to realize those of his needs and goals (motivations) which are called forth (i.e., brought into foreground) in the situation he is facing.

b. Another situation will bring to foreground other aspects of this individual's needs and goals, and therefore will elicit other kinds of actions appropriate to the new situation. (See II, A to follow.)

c. But different individuals will respond quite differently to the same situation, because each will perceive the situation uniquely and thus will refer his decisions on appropriate action to different aspects and ways of satisfying his need-goal motivation.

d. So each individual responding to a situation will move through a <u>similar sequence of inner events</u>, but in his own unique way, depending on <u>his inner orientation</u>, i.e., how he has learned to perceive the situation and to act in it as he perceives it, in order to maximize his own need and goal satisfactions.

CHART OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR CYCLE



2. Summary of essential steps.

Step 1) Sense organs provide sensory clues to what is going on (reality) in the outer situation, and within his body. This is the raw data upon which eventual action will be based.

Step 2) Identifying perceptions. The individual now organizes raw data from senses into related categories or perceptions--intellectual images, based on his past experience, which identify for him what he is facing and how these more discrete images fit together. "Oh, I see. This is the right classroom. There's the teacher, and there are several students I recognize. But who is that new one? The clock and the teacher talking from his notes, tell me that class has started. Oh, fine, there's a vacant chair a bit out of the main focus of the class attention." etc.

Step 3) Interpretation of personal meaning from available clues and resulting perceptions.

a) The individual remembers similar situations in his past experience, both intellectually and emotionally. He remembers not only what happened before, but how he sought to realize his needs and goals in that situation, and how well his actions satisfied or frustrated his needs and goals.

b) From this background he now sorts through and interrelates sensory clues; he "perceives" what he is facing, and interprets what satisfaction or dissatisfaction it

promises for him. "From what I see and hear and feel (etc.) here, this situation falls into this category of my experience. I know from the past that this kind of situation promises me a high level of need and goal deprivation and hence personal threat, because here I foresee few or no effective ways to secure my needs and attain my goals."

Step 4) He now explores alternatives from his action, appropriate the personal meanings he has taken from his perception and interpretation of the situation.

a) If situation promises effective need and goal (self) gratification, his emotional set is positive, and alternatives for possible action are freely and creatively entertained.

b) If situation is interpreted as threatening (i.e., needs and goals are not achievable), his emotional set veers toward more negative: limiting of alternatives, defensive set, maintaining old ways of responding, even if relatively ineffective.

Step 5) He chooses a course of action. This choice between perceived alternatives is based on which one promises greatest need and goal satisfaction, or at least which promises least deprivation and dissatisfaction.

Step 6) He carries out his decision into action.

a) If the alternative chosen already has a habitual and satisfying action outlet, his response moves smoothly into outer action.

b) If clear decision between alternatives has been difficult: action may be blocked, with attendant high frustration; or several tentative, often confused actions may be attempted.

c) If alternative chosen is perceived intellectually and emotionally as "good and possible," but no habitual appropriately effective pattern of action has been learned, the individual will be motivated to keep working toward new skills until these become habitual, more or less automatic responses in the situation.

Step 7) The chosen action is carried out, and then tested for level of need gratification and goal achievement. Results are fed back into memory, either to reinforce old patterns or else as basis for new and changed perceptions and interpretations of personal meaning for future response in similar situations.

II. Additional, More Specific Principles which help to explain the general prepositions and behavior cycle in I above.

A. Self is complexly organized into subordinate mutually interrelated categories which are situation-oriented, to which one refers for direction in specific situations.

1. In exploring direction for expressive action in each situation one faces, the individual refers to his complex inner categories of types of situations which he has put together from past experiences. To each of these categories he has related "relevant" (to him) sub-aspects of his total self-patterning.

   For example, we have all had to learn to identify our status role relative to significant others, in a wide variety of situations. "Here, am I in a subordinate, coordinate, superordinate, or relatively independent relation with these significant others?" For each of these different relationships, one has selected (out from all self images) a particular group of intellectual emotional sets which have proved personally relevant and meaningful for each kind of relation. So, once I interpret the kind of situation I am facing, I have a ready-made inner frame of reference for guidance in the present situation.

   Other significant sub-categories of self include those based on sex and age, on degree of formality expected in the situation, etc., etc. With sex, for example, I see myself somewhat differently, depending on whether I am with just other men (a few close friends, or a large fraternal group), a mixed group of men and women, or with some special woman, (girl friend, wife, daughter, mother, etc.).

2. The individual then selectively refers to that particular sub-area within self for direction and decisions as he works through subsequent steps in the behavior cycle.

3. As a result, an outside observer will see the person acting "quite differently" in different kinds of

situations, and so may have difficulty in understanding and responding to what appears as "inconsistent, unpredictable behavior." To the person behaving, however, his own actions seem both consistent and logical, because he is referring his decisions and direction to a familiar, tested, and very real part of his own frame of reference.

B. At each step in the cycle of behavior, AFFECT (emotions and feelings) plays a central role (Kubie), directing us to perceive and recall only certain relatively unthreatening aspects, to consciously entertain and attempt only those actions which promise us satisfactions. In this sense, it is appropriate to view the intellect as a tool which the self uses to maximize emotional needs and goals, aiming toward the preservation and enhancement of the self.

C. Each person's inner unique ways of perceiving and interpreting himself and his world are reality to him. Therefore, his actions make sense to him, because he is acting from "how things really are," as he perceives his phenomenal field.

D. Conversely, other's behavior often seems "unreal," unexplainable or "foolish" to us, because we each bring a different viewpoint on reality to the same situation, and act from this. This is a prime cause for ineffective communication and understanding between people.

E. Much of self operates below critically conscious levels. As we move through the behavior cycle at any given moment, we are not aware of what is occurring within ourselves. Aspects of phenomenal field which are part of, or closely tied to self concept, and to some degree to phenomenal self, tend to be selected for critically conscious awareness, as "figure"

against the less conscious "background" of all other processes, which support and direct the conscious aspects.

F. It follows, from C, D and E above, that the bases for effective communication and understanding, both within ourself and between different individuals, include:

1. A large degree of "openness," lack of defensiveness, within the self-concept which permits a wide range of aspects of phenomenal field to be consciously recognized and accepted as part of "reality," without having to deny either positive or negative aspects which are actually present.

2. A resulting degree of "objectivity" about oneself; conscious perception and acceptance of self, and how this directs ones own actions, without the emotional distortions of defensiveness.

3. A corollary ability to be objectively insightful and accepting of how others perceive and feel their "real worlds," and how this controls their behavior.

G. We each need to feel consciously that we are a "good, worthy," person whose actions fit what society has taught us to value, to believe in. Now when we act from unconscious perceptions and wants which we do not admit to our conscious mind, we find ourselves actually doing things we don't believe in and can't explain (realistically). So we protect our conscious picture of ourself by some defensive mechanism = rationalizing, excusing, or even feeling that "some outside force (demon, spirit) moved in and pushed me to do that."

H. Self is organized into a complex hierarchy of attitudes and values (ideas tied to feelings).

1. Through the process of socialization, a person learns a tremendous variety of attitudes and values to refer to and give direction to action, in many kinds of situations which life presents. (A above)

2. The more generalized and inclusive values tend to dominatively organize and control the operation of more and more specific attitudes. This maintains a degree of integration and consisting in personality.

3. But in such a complex system, inconsistencies are bound to develop.

   a) The categories of values in any culture are often inconsistent, mutually antagonistic. Socialization builds this into the self.

   b) We have a large degree of tolerance for inconsistency within self,

   c) Either through self-limiting compartmentalization between value categories;

   d) Or through more healthy recognition and acceptance of the realities of one's own inconsistencies, with consequent freeing of natural drive to work toward a more integrative sloughing off of inconsistent values and rearranging into more holistic patterns.

4. Strong inner inconsistency results in confused, ineffective behavior, with mental breakdown often the result.

I. <u>Self is learned</u>. The kind of socialization one has experienced fosters each individual's characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and acting. This starts in family, and is continued by others in one's immediate surroundings--community, school, clubs, church, etc. As a child matures,

especially in our society, his peer group serves increasingly as a force in social learning, modifying the expectations of adult society to fit the developmental situation among youth.

1. Two aspects of self emerge from socialization:

    a) The cultural inner orientation or "person" which is largely consistent with the behavioral norms of one's culture.

    b) The uniquely individual self: ways of thinking, feeling and acting which are this individual's unique interpretation of meanings. This implies that, to a degree, each individual is potentially more than the sum of the factors in his social experience. He is potentially the redirector and controller of his present and future. The kind of individual self he achieves is thus somewhere along Bill's "stasis-process" continuum, with "process" at the extreme of creative exploitation of his cultural base. Maslow describes this in his "fully-actualizing" concept.

2. Creative learning and self-development can continue throughout life. If present self has been learned through socialization interaction, then future learning and fuller self-realization as a unique individual can continue under appropriate conditions.

    a) The learning of more effective patterns of outer action will depend on first learning the new understandings and feelings underlying such action.

    b) However, changes in patterns of outer action which an individual attempts either because of social

pressure to do so (law) or because he wants to try the new action, provide the experience base, through feedback, for significant change in perceptions and attitudes, and hence for habitation of the new action pattern. (Glasser)

c) Intellectual and emotional learning are mutually inter-dependent; the most significant learning involves attitudes and values along with ideas.

d) Even after a person has developed deeper understanding and more realistic and positive attitudes, change in appropriate outer action takes time and practice.

e) There is pertinent research to guide the helping role; this focuses on establishing an appropriate environing (socializing) situation which predicts maximum learning and growth, vs. defensive self-maintenance.

For example, Rogers characterizes a helping relationship as one in which the learner finds that significant others respond to him with:

1) Unconditional positive regards = acceptiveness, warmth, support.
2) Empathetic understanding = the attempt to see situations from the learner's "reality."
3) Congruence = transparent openness and honesty; outer actions are consistent with inner feelings.
4) Communication of honest perceptions and feelings, beyond the usual defensive surface veneer.

f) Several assumptions underlie an effective helping relationship:

1) Each individual learns for himself, in ways appropriate for his own situation, most

effectively from his own intrinsic motivation.

2) The basic human drive is toward maximizing one's creative self-development. This is the practical basis for education, counseling and therapy.

3) Conditions which emphasize motivation toward growth and learning include:

-A change in the physiological base (i.e., during active physical growth).

-Any change in environment which requires new or different ways of thinking, feeling and acting in order to satisfy needs and goals.

-Top value within self for creative growth vs. defensive maintenance.

J. Bills' Concept of "Process-Stasis" Inner Orientation

In his current research, Bill is exploring conditions and educational implications of an expansion of his "self-others values" model. He finds that people can be categorized somewhere along a continuum between what he calls "stasis" and "process" self-orientation. The more "process" the influential people in the life of an individual or group, the more that individual or group tends to develop process qualities.

1. The following table contrasts the central orientation of the two extremes.

Process People	Stasis People
a) Attitude Toward Self and Others	
++. Accepting and positive both of self and others. More of past experience and feelings available to self, without denial or	Negative (-+ or +-). Seeks to defend self from change, i.e., from reorganizing meanings of old experience and from incorporating new

distortion. Accepts and seeks new experience and resulting growth in self. More capable of creative, innovative behavior.	experience. Hence, much slower to grow and change, even under conditions which foster growth (see 2. below).
b) Time Orientation More often concerned with future than with past.	More concerned with present and past.
c) Locus of responsibility Owns own problems. Sees self as central part of problems, and at least partially responsible for their solution.	Places responsibility for doing something about his own problems on someone or something outside himself.
d) Problem Perception Realistically perceives nature and location of problem, including own part in it. More capable of perceiving and dealing with central aspects of problem, i.e., understands problems.	Problems perceived as existing outside of self.
e) Symptom Perception Deals more often with problem than with symptoms.	More concerned with symptoms of problem than with central aspects of problem itself.

2. Results of experiments in therapy and in education.

   a) Success of teacher or therapist lies in "ability to free people to become their past experience, to be able to experience more freely, and actively seek

new experiences."

b) Quality of relationship between leader and group determines whether group will be helped to develop toward "process" orientation; the techniques which leader uses are relatively less important.

c) Inner qualities of leader determine the quality of leader-group relationship. "Where leader is on the process-stasis continuum determines how he will experience people. How he experiences people is closely related to how he will behave toward them;" They will take their clues to their own behavior from how they perceive the leader responding to them.

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SOME MAJOR REASONS FOR LEARNING

Allen Tough

ABSTRACT. A recent study examined 35 adults' reasons for learning, regardless of method. Individual motives were varied and complex. However, five major reasons emerged: use or application of knowledge or skill; puzzlement, curiosity, or a question; satisfaction from possessing knowledge, apart from using it; enjoyment of the content, while receiving it, because it is interesting or stimulating; and pleasure or satisfaction while spending time at learning rather than some other activity. These reasons were closely related to self-concept, including the degree of congruence between the perceived self and the ideal self. Accordingly, adult educators must recognize the complexity of deciding what to learn, be prepared to meet adults' immediate learning needs, realize their strong intrinsic reasons for learning, and continue to increase their own knowledge and skill.

We now have a large body of research findings about participation in adult education. We know many characteristics of the adult who participates in educational programs in general, and of those who participate in particular programs in a particular institution. We also have useful findings from a variety of approaches to the study of adult motivation for participation in adult education programs.

In a recent study of motivation (Tough, 1968), I decided to begin my thinking and investigation with the adult learner himself. It is fairly common for an adult to decide to gain certain knowledge and skill, and then to devote many hours to learning it.

Taking a non-credit course, attending a series of public lectures, taking individual lessons from an expert, or attending a conference might be part of his strategy for learning the desired knowledge and skill. On the other hand, he may plan his own strategy, and may learn through reading, conversation, and observation rather than through a professionally-planned program

sponsored by an institution. Or he may combine several of these various ways of learning.

Our interviews with adults have found many examples of all three patterns. Consequently, we decided to study the adult's reasons for beginning the entire learning project--the comprehensive effort to gain certain knowledge and skill--rather than his motivation for just one part of his total learning. Instead of studying why adults take courses, or why adults participate in professionally-planned, institution-sponsored program, we studied his overall reasons for wanting to learn regardless of whether his method included a course or not.

Our starting point, then, was any adult who made a deliberate, sustained effort to learn some fairly definite knowledge or skill, regardless of how or what he learned.

Even then, various approaches for answering the question of why a person begins trying to learn something are open to the researcher. He can study the motives hidden from the learner's conscious mind by probing into his childhood or his deepest personality characteristics. He can study the relationship between the learning and the person's socio-economic status, age, or previous education. Or he can study the most distant goals or benefits of learning, such as the enjoyment that will result from the new car that will result from increased salary that will result from impressing the boss with the excellent report that will result from the effort to learn before writing the report!

We decided, instead, to study only the conscious reasons for learning that were in the adult's mind at the time he initiated the learning project. Also, we studied only the first or immediate benefit, such as learning in order to write an excellent report, when there was a chain of benefits.

In the next few sections I will outline the major reasons that emerged from this study. Then, in the following section, I will speculate about some of the relationships between these findings and self-concept theory. The major reasons seem to be a middle level of theory. That is, they provide a level of explanation that lies somewhere between detailed empirical data and a single comprehensive or grand theory such as self-concept theory.

The Major Reasons for Learning

Several major reasons for beginning and continuing a sustained effort to learn emerged from intensive structured interviews with 35 adults. These volunteers ranged in age from 21 to 65, but most were in their 20's or 30's. All had completed Grade 12, and the majority had also attended college.

It soon became apparent that the motivation for beginning and continuing a learning project is usually quite complex. That is, a mixture or variety of reasons is almost always present. Every one of our interviewees was motivated by at least three different reasons of which at least two were strong. Apparently it is rare for an adult learner to be motivated by only one or two reasons. Indeed, the average was 6, and one person was motivated by 11 distinct reasons.

This finding points up the inappropriateness of trying to generalize too much about why adults learn. If each adult begins and continues each of his learning projects for a diversity of reasons, it is probably absurd to attribute some single reason as the exclusive motivation for all adult learning.

The Most Important Reason: Use or Application

We did, however, find that one reason was clearly more common and more important than other reasons. That reason is the desire to use or apply the knowledge and skill.

In these learning projects, the first thing the person did was to decide on some action goal, such as producing a report or paper, teaching more effectively, building something, or doing or accomplishing something else. The person then decided to learn certain knowledge and skill as one step towards achieving that action goal more efficiently or more successfully.

The desire to use or apply the knowledge or skill was present in all 35 learning projects we studied, and 71 percent of them were begun primarily for this reason. A few examples of such projects may clarify this reason.

An investment dealer was aware that his company was becoming interested in the possibility of developing an advertising campaign. Consequently, he offered to learn the knowledge necessary for preparing recommendations concerning media, content, and budget.

A married secretary in her thirties became more competent at sewing in order to make and alter her own clothes.

A man learned about the West coast in order to decide whether to take a vacation trip there, where to go and what to see, and how much to spend.

One man learned about how computers work, about "systems," and about his company's needs in order to recommend the most suitable computer installation for the personnel department.

A secondary-school teacher learned about the stages and problems in a family in order to teach this content to the students in a course about family living.

Another teacher set out to improve his reading speed and comprehension so that he could read more material than before.

The overwhelming importance of learning in order to use the knowledge and skill has been found by other investigators, too. Johnstone and Rivera (1965), for example, after an intensive national survey in the United States, declared that "it was quite clear from the results of our study that the major emphasis in adult learning is on the practical rather than the academic; on the applied rather than the theoretical; . . . subject matter directly useful in the performance of everyday tasks and obligations (p. 3)."

A study in the United Kingdom (Robinson, 1965) found the same emphasis: "The great majority of adult interests (i.e., potential educational interests) does not arise from some academic or intellectual curiosity, but from the personal, practical needs of everyday life. Most people, in other words, do not at some stage decide that they would like to know more about economics or psychology: they are concerned about how much it will cost them to redecorate their homes or why their children behave in the way they do. These interests may well lead them quite far into economics and psychology, but they will start with concerns of a personal kind (p. 181)." Robinson also noted that there clearly was a lack of widespread interest in formal bodies of knowledge, and that university extramural (extension) programs provide "pre-existing bodies of knowledge" which are not relevant to the interests of most people.

Houle (1961) distinguished the goal-oriented adult learner, and summarized this reason for learning by this statement: "Knowledge is to be put to use, and, if it is not, why bother to pursue it (p. 16)?" Sheffield (1964) and Flaherty (1968), using factor analysis, found two sorts of goal orientations: in one the knowledge and skill is to be use in achieving

a personal goal, in the other for a societal or community goal.

All in all, then, it is clear that much adult learning is very practical. It also seems clear that there is nothing wrong with learning for practical reasons: we should be careful to avoid assuming that "good" adult learning occurs only because of a thirst for knowledge, a seeking after truth, or some such thing. In fact, the simple-minded distinction between liberal learning and vocational or practical learning seems a little absurd: many of the 35 learning projects displayed elements of both..

Because the desire to use the knowledge and skill is the most common and important reason for adult learning, we asked additional questions about it. We found that all but one of the learners for whom this was the primary reason could have performed the action with the knowledge and skill they already possessed before beginning the learning. All these adults, then, had learned not in order to complete the task, but because they wanted to perform above a bare minimum level. They wanted to perform more successfully than they could without learning. Or they wanted to make a better recommendation or report or product than was possible without learning.

In summary, we found that most learners felt capable of performing the responsibility or action without any learning at all, but they decided to learn in order to perform more successfully or efficiently than they could without learning. We then asked each of these learners why he wanted a higher level of performance. The responses clearly indicate the important influence of self-concept. From a short check-list of possible reasons most of the adults selected "to feel more confident" and "to feel satisfaction in doing a good job." Almost as many said "to avoid undesirable consequences or unpleasant feelings." Examples of these were the scoffing of colleagues, the rejection

or a report, failure, and being fired. Several wanted "to receive praise," and one added to the check-list her desire to feel proud of herself.

The Other Major Reason: Puzzlement, Curiosity, or a Question

Now we come to the second most common reason for beginning a learning project. In our study, it was the most important reason in one-quarter of all projects. It was a strong reason in 63 percent.

This important reason is puzzlement or curiosity. In our description of this reason during the interviews, we said, "Sometimes a learner is motivated to find out something because he is puzzled or curious. His pleasure or satisfaction will come immediately from discovering the knowledge or information, quite apart from whether he remembers it. For example, sometimes a person begins a learning episode because of his feeling of being puzzled by something. He may have a desire to understand something, or he wants to discover what something is really like. Or he wants to find out what is in a certain field or book. Or he has a question that he wants to answer."

One fairly common target of the curiosity was a procedure or method being used currently in the learner's own job, or being proposed for that job or for his organization. Two other persons were curious about something beyond the realm of universally accepted, clearly visible, phenomena: unidentified flying objects and God. Two other persons wanted to find out just what government policy (or their own position) should be: one studied the background of the Vietnam war and the attitude of the Vietnamese people, and the other learned about government policies concerning educational television. Two other persons

wanted to find out about the inner workings or the "behind-the-scenes operations" of two phenomena: electronic music, and the mass media for news dissemination.

Only one person, who learned about adult learning and teaching, seemed to have an entire body of subject matter as the target of his curiosity.

There seems to be a common element in these projects that is related to self-concepts. Many of the learners apparently felt a strong need to work out their own beliefs or opinions about something. They seemed to be motivated because they frequently encountered two sets of beliefs (God is real and important, or God is dead; UFO's are real, or they are nonsense), or two evaluations (positive and negative) of a certain procedure or government policy (a teaching or accounting or testing method; a government policy on Vietnam or ETV). Perhaps every time he encountered a conversation or news item about this matter, and every time he thought about it spontaneously, the learner felt rather uneasy or dissatisfied or vaguely unhappy because he did not understand the background thoroughly, or had not yet worked out for himself his own position or beliefs. Perhaps he felt "I might be wrong," or "My organization (or government) might be wrong." Perhaps his feelings involved a sense of oughtness related to his ideal self; for example, "everyone (or all good citizens, or all intelligent persons, or the sort of person I am) should have a position on this matter."

Five tentative generalizations emerged from an examination of the learning projects in which puzzlement, curiosity, or a question was strong.

First, before the learning project begins, the target of the curiosity ranges from something already an important part of the learner's life or something that soon will be, through to things that do not seem to be an integral or necessary part of

the learner's life. A major hobby and a major trip probably fall somewhere between.

Second, many of the targets of curiosity are <u>new</u>: new phenomena, new issues, recent changes, or proposed changes. Most of these targets are considered important, exciting, glamorous, or controversial by a large segment of the population (or at least by several of the learner's acquaintances or colleagues). The mass media (studied by three persons), for example, are currently major topics of interest and discussion. It may be that many targets of curiosity are almost fads, and will no longer by of interest to many people after a few years or decades. This notion of a fad, or current "hot topic," fits the earlier hypothesis that some learners feel a great urge to work out their own position on some matter that frequently impinges on their mind.

Third, perhaps one reason for beginning certain learning projects and certain action projects is curiosity about oneself. How will I feel in a certain situation (such as a T-group)? How will I behave in a certain situation? How successful will I be if I enter that situation or behave in a certain way?

Fourth, the curiosity leading to several of the learning projects was sparked by the learner noticing some <u>ineffective</u> procedure, performance, behavior, or result.

Fifth, before the interviews, I assumed that curiosity or puzzlement would be a strong reason for beginning a few learning projects, but would then usually decrease in strength as the person proceeded toward an answer. In several projects, however, the strength changed in the opposite direction. Some learners found that, as they learned new ideas and information because of their original curiosity, something in the new subject matter made them curious or puzzled about <u>additional</u> aspects of the topic. Another reason for increased curiosity was recorded

by the man who had begun about half a year earlier to learn about the existence of God: "My curiosity is even greater than it was last September because, although I've read quite a bit now, I have still not been able to come any closer to understanding the question of whether God exists."

Two Other Major Reasons

Two other reasons were strong in at least one-third of the learning projects we studied. These are both related to the reason we have just discussed. That reason was curiosity, apart from caring whether the answer or information, once found, was remembered for long.

The two further reasons are (1) satisfaction from merely possessing the knowledge, apart from using it, and (2) enjoyment from the content itself, while receiving it, because it is interesting or stimulating. The benefit in each is almost an ultimate or basic benefit: it is a feeling of happiness, pleasure, satisfaction or confidence that is an end in itself rather than a means to some further benefit. Also, this ultimate pleasure for other benefit comes directly and immediately from the content or knowledge: there is no intermediate step. That is, the enjoyment or satisfaction is intrinsic or inherent in the receiving, finding, or possessing of the knowledge.

We assumed that these reasons, though similar, are also clearly distinct. For example, the satisfaction from one reason comes while reading or listening, and from the other reason at the time one reaches the answer. Our assumption was supported by the findings.

Let us turn now to some of the detailed findings about the learners motivated strongly by the likely satisfaction from possessing the knowledge and skill, apart from using it. This

was a strong reason in more than one-third of the projects.

The person's self-concept seemed an important part of this reason in several learning projects. For each of these adults, the possession of certain specific knowledge and skill seemed to be a part of his ideal self, or of his image of the ideal teacher, Christain, housewife, or other role. The adult may strongly want to become his ideal self (or at least a better self), or an ideal (or better) citizen, musician, parent, or whatever. If so, he may decide to close the gap somewhat by setting out to learn the missing knowledge and skill. His purpose is to please himself, not to please others: he expects to regard himself more highly after he gains the knowledge and skill.

Here are some actual examples of this sort of motivation for learning:

--the question of the existence and nature of God is "a question that all Christians should have an opinion about;"

--one woman feels it is "good to widen horizons in any field," as though <u>any</u> new knowledge or learning is good;

--"Speed reading is really a good thing to know;"

--a nurse wanted to feel "capable, up-to-date" and felt that for a nurse "these things were simply good to know;"

--"I think <u>everyone</u> should know about their own community;"

--skill at sewing is "part of the wife identity--it is a good thing for girls (young women) to know;"

--"it was just a good thing to know about these places (West Coast cities that are often in the news); it's just good general knowledge to have;"

--"this type of knowledge is just something that every parent should be aware of."

The most dramatic example of this cluster is a woman who learned to drive a car. She felt that "learning how to drive is something everybody should know," but was very reluctant to learn because of her fear and timidity. The conflict became more severe when she was given a car, and her friends began to tease her about the contradiction of owning a car (role of car owner?) and not being able to drive. Finally, to reduce her embarrassment and shame, she took lessons and obtained her license. "I guess the real reason I took those lessons was that my friends had kidded me so much that I really felt ashamed of myself for not knowing how to drive."

The sequal to this learning project is also rather interesting. When the car broke down and she learned that it was difficult to obtain the needed part, she abandoned her efforts to drive. At the time of the interview, which was about five months after the breakdown, the car was still sitting in her garage. Probably the gap between the role of "broken-car owner" and "consequently not driving, though holding a license" is far less than that between "car owner" and "not holding a license."

A closely related benefit expected from possessing the knowledge and skill, for several learners, was a feeling of greater confidence or self-assurance. For some adults this self-confidence was generalized universally to all situations, for others it was felt whenever talking with other people, and for others it was felt only while on the job or in some other particular situation. No doubt the self-confidence sometimes comes from partially closing the gap between the ideal self and the actual self.

Before moving on to the final reason, let us step back for a comprehensive comparison of the reasons discussed so far. In the first reason, the knowledge or skill is gained in order to

be used in accomplishing something in the world around the learner: any satisfaction comes from such use, not merely from gaining or retaining the knowledge. Then we looked at three reasons involving intrinsic motivation arising directly from the knowledge itself: the person expects to find satisfaction when an answer is obtained, after the knowledge is possessed, or while receiving the content. Almost every learning project was motivated by both sorts of reasons, and the two sorts of reasons are strong in a large number of projects. Apparently it is rare for an adult to learn exclusively in order to use the knowledge and skill or exclusively because of affective benefits inherent in the knowledge itself. That is, most learning projects are begun and continued because of the combination of both sorts of reasons.

A Final Reason

Now, the other major reason. Several adults said that one reason for their learning effort was that they feel satisfied or happy whenever they spend time at learning rather than some other activity. Some of their detailed responses indicated that the learner's perception of himself and his regard for himself are important.

For example, several statements indicate the person regards himself as a learner. Two women perceived themselves as "not just a dull housewife," and one man said "learning is part of my whole philosophy. If I wasn't learning, I just wouldn't be very satisfied."

In addition, several persons seemed to engage in the activity of learning in order to increase their self-esteem. Said one, "I think more highly of myself when learning." Said

another, "Everybody should constantly be making an effort to learn something."

Relationships With Self-Concept Theory

What relationships are there between the middle-level theory just outlined, and the more comprehensive level of explanation offered by self-concept theory?

In a very general way, the relationship between self-concept theory and adult learning is something like this: if there is some (not extreme) lack of congruence between the ideal self and the perceived self, a need or drive for balance between the two selves will probably arise: one way to achieve balance is to change the perceived self (really, the actual self) through a deliberate, sustained effort to learn--that is, a learning project such as a series of private lessons, a non-credit course, or learning through reading and conversation.

We saw something like this earlier in the paper when discussing puzzlement. The learner whose ideal self has an opinion or position on every major controversial issue of the day will feel uneasy when it becomes apparent to him that he does not, in fact, have a position on some issue.

Other learning projects seem to be initiated because learning, or doing a good job, is part of the person's image of himself. If he regards himself as a curious and inquiring person, or as a person who always gains sufficient knowledge and skill to perform any responsibility at a high level of competence, he will obviously be likely to learn in certain situations. See Figure 1.

I suppose a person may also learn in order to avoid a <u>future</u> lack of congruence between his perceived self and ideal self. For example, he may realize that he will not perform very

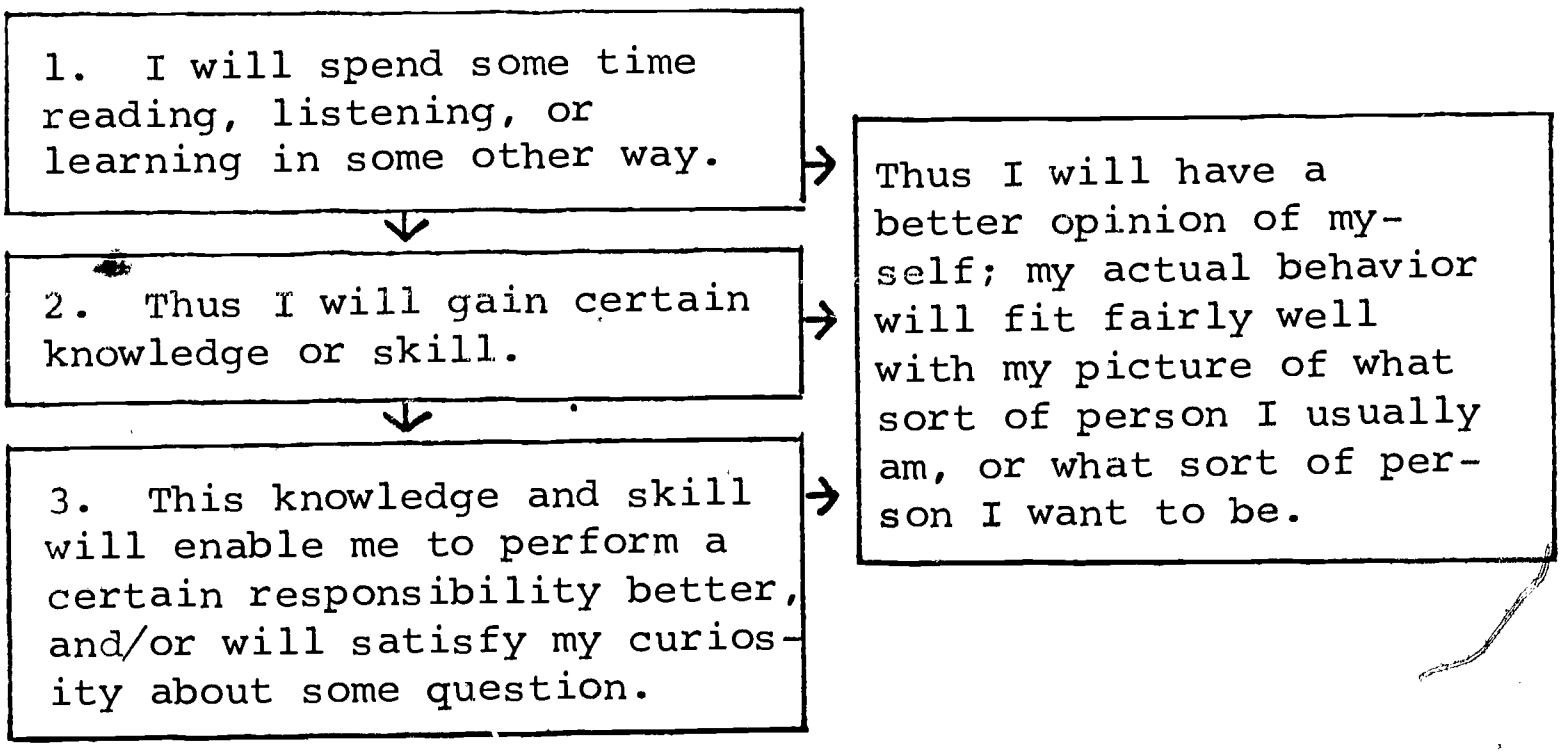

Figure 1. Some relationships between the two major reasons for learning and the adult's self-concept.

successfully in a certain task unless he first learns, and he foresees a gap between the low level of performance and his desire to be a good teacher, parent, worker, or whatever. Consequently, he will learn in order to avoid that poor performance and the resulting painful disparity between his actual performance and the level of performance that he considers typical for him.

These are just a few brief thoughts about some of the relationships between the adult's reasons for learning and self-concept theory. Some of them are spelled out in more detail earlier in the paper. In addition, you will probably see other relationships as you reflect on the paper and on your own previous experience as an adult learner and adult educator.

Implications for Practice in Adult Education

Five recommendations for practice in the field of adult education seem to emerge clearly when one reflects on the major reasons for learning.

First, we noted that the motivation for beginning any particular learning project is usually very complex. Many adult learners need help in sorting out their goals and reasons, and in deciding just what knowledge and skill is most relevant. Indeed, an earlier study (Tough, 1967) found that it is very common for the adult learner to experience some difficulty or concern with the decision about just what to learn. The adults in that study received definite assistance in making that decision from an average of six other individuals, but one quarter of the adults would have liked even more assistance. Surely, such assistance should be provided by institutions of adult education.

Second, the person who plans or conducts a class or other educational program should think hard about the reasons that the adults have for attending that program. Is he aware of the complexity of each individual's motivation? Does he really know what their major reasons are? Does he care?

Third, it is now clear that most of the adult's efforts to learn arise because of some immediate responsibility, problem, or curiosity. Consequently, the typical adult wants immediate help with his learning: he does not want to wait until next September. Also, he wants knowledge that will answer his immediate question, or skills that can be applied in some immediate situation: he does not want a large body of knowledge or a complete set of skills that might turn out to be useful at some distant time in the future. We adult educators must learn to fit into these needs and schedules instead of merely "running courses."

Fourth, adults have many strong reasons for learning, and the desire for academic credit is relatively rare. It seems to me that those who provide <u>credit</u> courses for adults, especially those who say that their students would not attend or

learn without the motivation provided by examinations and marks, should reflect a little on real life.

Finally, the effective adult educator is himself a learner. Motivated sometimes by the desire to improve his own competence, or to plan a better program or teach a certain group more effectively, and motivated at other times by curiosity and interest, he often sets out to gain certain knowledge and skill. Do adult educators spend enough time at their own learning? How can we help one another greatly increase the amount of relevant knowledge and skill we gain each year? What are you going to learn this month?

THE PREDICTION OF COLLEGE LEVEL ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN ADULT EXTENSION STUDENTS. Flaherty, M. Josephine Toronto Univ. (Ontario) Ph. D. Thesis. 1968. Document will be available from University Microfilms, 300 N. Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, Michigan 48103 266 p.

ABSTRACT. This study investigated cognitive and noncognitive factors in the variance among 43 psychological and biographical measures on 296 adult university extension students, and compared the factors as predictors of academic achievement. Verbal and nonverbal intelligence, study habits and attitudes, persistence, learning orientation, age, sex, years since leaving school, number of college subjects taken to date, and hours of study per week were among the variables considered. Data analyses were made for males only, females only, and the total group; factor analyses and intercorrelations were also made. These were among the findings and conclusions: (1) adults can be classified by learning orientations, especially need for acceptance from others and for relief from boredom and frustration; (2) intellectual and educational ability was the best predictor of science and social science grades and overall averages; (3) study habits and attitudes were the best predictors of grades in humanities; (4) societal goal orientation was the best predictor of mathematics grades; (5) age was a predictor of science and mathematics for mixed groups and for males; (6) the predictive validity of some factors differed greatly by sex.

VOLUNTEERS FOR LEARNING, A STUDY OF THE EDUCATIONAL PURSUITS OF AMERICAN ADULTS. (National Opinion Research Center monographs in social research.) Johnstone, John W., and Rivera, Ramon J. National Opinion Research Center, Chicago, Ill. 65 624 p. Aldine Publishing Co.

ABSTRACT. Contemporary adult education in the United States today is examined by means of a national sample survey. In this monograph, adult learning is approached from a social psychological vantage point--the needs, motives, and satisfactions which impel adults to seek to learn some subject. The organization of adult education is considered only insofar as such organization facilitates or hinders individuals in the pursuit of learning. The extent and nature of adult participation in continuing education are reviewed, the people who engage in these pursuits are identified, the situations, circumstances, and personal goals which influence people to become involved in educational endeavors are reconstructed, the national climate of opinion regarding education for adults is looked at, and to a lesser degree, the range of facilities available for the instruction of the adult population is investigated. (AC 000 461)

PROGRESS IN LIBRARY SCIENCE, 1965. Collison, Robert L., ed. 1965 pp. 216.

ABSTRACT. Subjects covered include book and periodical production, indexing, integration for libraries, archives, music librarianship, Public Libraries and Museums Act of 1964, bibliographies and catalogues, research trends, subscription libraries, television libraries, and exploring the range of adult interests. (Published by Butterworths, London). (AC 000 219)

THE ORIENTATIONS OF ADULT CONTINUING LEARNERS. Sheffield, Sherman B. 136 p. June 63

ABSTRACT. A study was made of 453 adult participants in 20 conferences, using an instrument involving an orientation index derived from Houle, a continuing learning activities survey, and demographic data. Five basic adult learning orientations were revealed--learning, sociability, personal goal, societal goal, need fulfillment; these were then analyzed to discover their correlation with other variables. A positive correlation was found between learning and the extent of continuing learning score and between personal goal orientation and extent of learning scores but no significant correlations existed in the case of the other orientations. A relationship existed between orientation and the type of continuing education conference--

liberal, occupational, functional, or recreational. An analysis of demographic data indicated that the characteristics of age, formal education, population size of residence, and religious affiliation were most positively related to the orientation. AC 003 933

LEARNING WITHOUT A TEACHER, A STUDY OF TASKS AND ASSISTANCE DURING ADULT SELF-TEACHING PROJECTS. Educational research series, no. 3. Tough, Allen M. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto 1967. 99 p. Available from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 102 Bloor St., West, Toronto, 5, Ontario, for $1.75.

ABSTRACT. This document reports a study of 40 college graduates who had conducted a self-teaching project, to find out what teaching tasks are performed by self-teachers, who helps them, and what difficulties they experience. By use of an interview questionnaire, data were gathered about the degree to which they had performed each of 12 such tasks of a teacher as deciding about a suitable place, deciding when to learn and for how long, obtaining resources, and dealing with difficulty in understanding. The data supported the hypothesis that self-teachers can and do perform several tasks of a teacher. Each task was performed in a number of projects and in at least a few projects frequently. The results suggest that many adults can teach themselves effectively. AC 001 653

WHY ADULTS LEARN; A STUDY OF THE MAJOR REASONS FOR BEGINNING AND CONTINUING A LEARNING PROJECT. Tough, Allen Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Dept. of Adult Education, Toronto (Ontario) Paper presented at the National Seminar on Adult Education Research (Toronto, February 9-11, 1969). 65 p. 1968 EDRS PRICE MF $0.50, HC $3.35.

ABSTRACT. As determined in this study of 35 adults in the Toronto area, the single most common and most important reason for adult learning is the desire to use or apply knowledge and skill. Commitment to an action goal (producing, accomplishing, or doing something) came first; then came the decision to learn certain knowledge and skills as one step toward achieving the action goal. Such a goal might be to understand some future situation better, to pass an examination, or to impart the knowledge or skill to others; but these were not so common as other action goals such as producing a report or recommendations. The second largest number of adult learning projects began as a result of puzzlement, curiosity, or a question. Perceptions of

what behavior is appropriate, normal, or desirable in a given situation were also influential. Of the set of 13 reasons investigated, the typical adult learner had six reasons for beginning a learning project and seven for continuing it: enjoyment from receiving the content, pleasure from learning activities, and satisfaction from possession of knowledge were among the major reasons for continuing. Implications for researchers and practitioners were noted. (The document includes tables, notes, benefit and cost factors, and 26 references.)
ED 025 688

SOME ADULT ATTITUDES AFFECTING LEARNING: POWERLESSNESS, CONFLICTING NEEDS AND ROLE TRANSITION [1]

JANE ZAHN

ABSTRACT. Adults bring attitudes with them into the learning situation that markedly affect their ability to learn or their motivation. Recent research indicates that those adults with strong feelings of powerlessness will fail to learn control-relevant information. Adults will be more motivated to listen to and to read content which may increase their competence in a current situation. If a strong need conflicts with information given, the information will not be learned. If sufficient rationalizations have been built to defend certain behavior, educational programs to change the behavior will be ineffective. As an adult assumes a new role, he goes through stages of vacillation between the old role and the new, overlearning behavior appropriate to the new role and integration of the new role into other roles. The adult's attitude toward role-relevant learning will depend upon his current stage of role mastery.

Introduction

As adult educators, we deal with many dimensions of the learning process and the learning environment. This article will confine itself to some central attitudes or sets that adults bring to various learning situations that directly affect their learning.

Most of the contemporary research in psychology and sociology has been done on the easily available populations of white rats, children, and college students, the latter usually freshmen or sophomores. We are well aware that adults differ from adolescents in attitudes and learning patterns (3, 12). We also know that college students differ from the general adolescent population and that students in various disciplines differ from each other. It follows that much of the research done on animals, students and children cannot safely be generalized

[1] Copyrighted, Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. 1969.

to working adults. Hence, the research here cited is restricted to that utilizing adult subjects, an adult being defined as a person who, when asked his occupation, would not say "student," i.e., a person who spends most of his time in pursuits not usually considered educational.

Competence: Some Control Over Outcomes

In 1962, White (11) published his seminal article on "Competence and the Psycho-sexual Stages of Development" in which he noted each person's developmental need for competence, for mastery and control over his environment, and for becoming an active agent in his own life. It has been hypothesized that a person's failure to develop confidence in his ability to affect what happens to him leads to feelings of alienation and anomie.

Only recently has this developmental need for competence, for control over outcomes, been examined for its learning implications. In 1967, Seeman (8) summarized six years of studies concerned with the relationship in adults between feelings of powerlessness and learning ability. Seeman consistently found that those who tested high on a scale designed to measure feelings of powerlessness found it harder to learn control-relevant information than did those who had more confidence in their ability to affect what happened to them. In his first study he tested tuberculosis patients on his powerlessness scale. Then he gave them another test dealing with tuberculosis itself--the nature of the disease, its effective treatment, how it is contracted, and its communicativeness. He found that patients who tested high on feelings of powerlessness knew fewer facts about the disease (9).

The question arose, did they learn fewer facts about tuberculosis because of their feelings of powerlessness, or did

they have greater feelings of powerlessness because they knew less about their disease? Seeking an answer to this question, Seeman (6) turned to a prison in Chillicothe, Ohio. Choosing prisoners with a measured IQ of 100 or over and with an eighth grade reading level or above so as to insure their ability to read and comprehend the items, he administered his test of feelings of powerlessness. Next the prisoners were given informational items about life in the prison itself, factors influencing early parole, and news items from the outside world. Six weeks later the prisoners were tested to ascertain what they had remembered from the informational items. It was found that those prisoners measuring high on feelings of powerlessness could remember informational items about life in the prison itself, factors influencing early parole, and news items from the outside world. Six weeks later the prisoners were tested to ascertain what they had remembered from the informational items. It was found that those prisoners measuring high on feelings of powerlessness could remember informational items about life in the prison and news items from the outside, but they could remember almost none of the items concerned with parole, the only items which gave information about what a prisoner could do to change his condition. This result was in marked contrast to those prisoners with stronger feelings of being active agents in their own lives; those remembered each group of items equally well. This study, then, seems to indicate that the feelings of powerlessness were related to the forgetting; they came with the prisoner into the prison situation and thereby influenced what he could learn.

Seeman's next step was to study adults in a different country (7). He tested the male work force in Malmö, Sweden, both on powerlessness and on their political knowledge: knowledge such as the workings of the government, the incumbent office holders, and ways of effecting political change. Again he found

that those who tested high on feelings of powerlessness had low political knowledge. Moreover, he found the feelings of powerlessness to be higher among some groups than among others. Unorganized workers had more such feelings and less political knowledge than organized workers, while officers of organizations had the strongest feelings of the effectiveness of their own behavior as well as the greatest political knowledge of any group.

Two other studies involving what an adult chooses to learn indicate a slightly different result stemming from the drive for competence. Adams (1) offered housewives a choice between a talk on the hereditary factors involved in a child's behavior and one on the environmental factors involved. Three out of four housewives chose the talk on environmental factors, presumably because they could have some control over their child's environment, but at this point in time none at all over his heredity.

Adams later joined Maccoby and two others in offering a large group of housewives a pamphlet on toilet training (5). He noted the age of their children and did a follow up study to find out how many of the housewives who took the pamphlet had read it. Seventy-one percent of those with children between one and three years of age asked for the pamphlet and of these 88 percent read it. Only 36 percent of the housewives with older children asked for the pamphlet and of those only 47 percent read it. The housewives with children of toilet-training age evidently felt the information would enhance their competence in dealing with an existing situation.

Conflicting Needs and Habits

Impairment of learning ability or distortion of pertinent information occurs when knowledge conflicts with strong present needs. Spelman and Ley (10) tested non-smokers and heavy smokers

on their knowledge in three areas: medicine in general, prognosis for sufferers from lung cancer, and prognosis for sufferers from other diseases. Heavy smokers did not differ from non-smokers in their general medical knowledge or in their understanding of the probable course of diseases other than lung cancer. The heavy smokers, however, had learned significantly less about the probable outcome of lung cancer; clearly their ignorance was heavily loaded in an optimistic direction.

Keutzer (4) tested 213 smokers on how many rationalizations they accepted for continuing to smoke. The group had volunteered for a program to help them quit smoking. The more rationalizations they had accepted for continuing to smoke, however, the better defended the smoking habit was. Those with the fewest rationalizations were best able to stop the habit.

Role Transition

The lives of most adults involve a sequence of new roles. Adults in their lifetimes generally occupy the roles of spouse, parent, holder of four or five different successive jobs, and finally of retired person. It is important to be aware of the centrality of current role position in relation to motivation to learn and of the steps in role change and how each step may affect the learning process.

Cogswell (2) did a dramatic study of the role changes involved in the rehabilitation of paraplegics--adults suddenly disabled in a way that involves absence of body control from the waist down. The assumption of the role of paraplegic is a sudden transition in adults and one invariably seen as negative. Because of its medical nature, it is available for study.

Cogswell found that the paraplegic goes through three stages in his role change: 1) he has to abandon his former role; 2) he

identifies with the new role and masters it necessary skills; 3) he integrates the new role into his total constellation of roles as worker, mate and parent. The first stage involves the patient's realizing that he can no longer fill the old roles in the same way and is characterized by vacillation, sometimes accepting the new role, sometimes defiantly refusing to accept its necessity. When he reaches the stage of identifying with the new role, the patient goes through a process of over-emphasis in order to learn the new role skills. The final stage is characterized by the smoother process of integration, of selection and pulling together the new combination of roles.

Discussion

One of the clichés of adult education and perhaps of the education profession generally is that the educator must start "where the learner is." True though such a concept may be, it is too general to translate into specific educational plans. An adult learner "is" many places simultaneously. In what areas of his life and development is it relevant to the specific educational goals to find out "where he is?"

The cited studies suggest a few guidelines. If we are trying to teach knowledge or skills in an area in which the learner himself can influence what happens to him, it would be useful to seek to discover how strong are his feelings of powerlessness. Should they be strong, the student may be incapable of learning what we are attempting to teach. If we wish to educate for new roles, we should expect more from those who have recently identified with that role. At the same time, we will have to realize that those who have not yet taken on the role and those who have integrated it into their constellation of roles will not be so highly motivated to learn. If we are seeking to develop philosophical,

integrative understanding, we can hope for the best learning from those who have already learned a role well and hence can be expected to be more concerned with integrative problems. If our object is to educate about personal habits and their effects--such as smoking, exercising, eating certain foods--we will need to be aware of the present habits and needs of our learners, realizing that if the information we give opposes a strong need, learning will be more difficult.

In the presence of strong feelings of powerlessness or strong needs and habits conflicting with the material to be learned, how does the educator go about developing feelings of competence and control over outcomes and how does he counteract a strong conflicting need or habit? Here, perhaps, we can learn from those teaching paraplegics.

> In attempting to prevent or minimize novice failure, . . . the rehabilitation staff . . . set small daily goals which patients can achieve, start each teaching session with tasks which have been previously mastered in order to bolster patients' confidence, and by quickly suggesting a rest period if patients begin to falter. . . (2).

It will probably be more fruitful to try to help students develop specific control-relevant attitudes and to work out teaching strategies to counteract conflicting habits and needs than to deplore their lack of learning or motivation to learn. The cited studies should help us realize that we can expect those new to roles to be strongly motivated to learn role-relevant skills and that we cannot expect the same enthusiasm or interest from others. Knowing what roles a student identifies with, how newly acquired is the identity, what needs or habits he has that may conflict with the content of the learning, and how much control he feels he has over what happens to him are aspects of "where the student is" that are relevant to learning.

Not only in working with individual students, but also in working with various groups are the attitudes brought to the

learning situation of great importance. Some groups have felt comparatively helpless to affect what happens to them in any meaningful way. Traditionally this has been true of peasants in underdeveloped parts of the world. A feeling of fatalism, of being a captive of fate, destiny, or the absolute authority of others is not conducive to learning new skills which imply some sort of control over one's life. Some groups in this country have in the past had these feelings--Negroes, American Indians and Mexican-Americans are perhaps the outstanding examples. So long as they feel helpless to influence their ability to get a job, to be promoted, to secure justice or assistance for family problems, learning content relevant to jobs, rights or community services would tend to be difficult or impossible. At the same time, learning in the areas of music, folk-lore, religious concepts, or informational items of interest may be relatively easy.

Some of these same groups--the Negroes being the most visible example--are now not only losing their feelings of powerlessness as a group but also are assuming a different status relative to other groups. This status demands new role behaviors of leadership and responsibility--roles which formerly were either denied them altogether or which they were severely punished for attempting to assume. In assuming these new roles, we should expect the same behavior others exhibit in similar situations--vacillation between the responsibilities of the new role and the irresponsibility and helplessness of the old, followed by an awkward over-learning of the skills demanded by the new role. By not demanding an instant jump to the integrated final stage of role mastery, but keeping in mind that final stage as a goal, we can become more effective educators of any group suddenly called upon to play a new role in its relationship with other groups.

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AGE AND VERBAL CONDITIONING. Jawanda, J. S. In Psychological Reports; v22 p815-16, 1968.

ABSTRACT. An experiment was designed to study conditioning of verbal behavior across age and sex through application of Taffel's technique of sentence completion with 200 subjects (half male and half female). Cards, each having a verb in the center and pronouns beneath, formed the stimulus material. The first and last 25 trials without reinforcement yielded operant and test scores respectively. The middle 60 trials with reinforcement constituted the experimental treatment. Each subject served as his own control. The subject's awareness was sought through a brief interview at the end of the experiment. Best conditioning was observed for ages 21-25 and the poorest for ages 56-60, with moderate learning at ages 36-40. Sex was not significant. (AC 003 554)

POWERLESSNESS AND KNOWLEDGE, A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ALIENTATION AND LEARNING (In SOCIOMETRY, A JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY, 30(2)/105-123, Jun 1967). Seeman, Melvin. Jun 1967 19p.

ABSTRACT. This study, conducted in Swed en, replicates and extends work done in the United States on alienation and learning. The major hypothesis is that those who are high in powerlessness will have inferior knowledge in control-relevant areas of their experience. Two knowledge tests were constructed (concerning nuclear and cultural affairs) and it is shown that high powerlessness goes with poor nuclear knowledge, while alienated and unalienated students do not differ in cultural information. Thus, the powerlessness-learning hypothesis applies cross-culturally, and applies to a wide range of control-relevant information (e.g., nuclear war, reformatory life, and health). But, as the pertinent theory requires, 1) there are predictable limits to the learning effect, and 2) it is not attributable to personality or intellectual capacity. An effort is also made to test the hypothesis that the sense of powerlessness leads to behavioral avoidance when the individual's anxieties about control are invoked. (AC 002 379)

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES FROM THE ERIC/AE COLLECTION

Listed here are some of the documents entering the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education during the past two years, relating to some of the topics analyzed by Dildine, Tough and Zahn. Many of these are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Please read carefully the note on availability of documents.

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ADULT LEARNING CHARACTERISTICS. CURRENT INFORMATION SOURCES, No. 21. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education, Syracuse, N.Y. Nov 1968. 49p. EDRS PRICE MF $0.25 HC $2.55.

ABSTRACT. This annotated bibliography dealing with adult learning characteristics contains 82 indexed and abstracted entries arranged under the following headings: 1) Mental and Perceptual Abilities, 2) Personality and Social Role Factors, and 3) General Bibliographies. Intelligence, intelligence tests, memory and retention, adult development, older adults, disadvantaged groups and others are covered in these abstracts, most of which are dated from 1966-1968. (ED 024 014)

ANOMIA AND COMMUNICATION BEHAVIOR: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANOMIA AND UTILIZATION OF THREE PUBLIC BUREAUCRACIES. March, C. Paul, and others. In Rural Sociology, v32 n4 p434-45 December 1967.

ABSTRACT. Since highly anomic individuals are uncertain as to what behavior is appropriate, they are probably less likely to use public bureaucracies. A negative association was found between anomia scores and extent of contact with the Agricultural Extension Service and between anomia and knowledge of area vocational schools. The relationships were in the hypothesized direction regardless of educational level, though the degree of association was quite low in some categories. However, the data did not support the hypothesis of a negative relationship between anomia and contact with the Employment Security Commission. Presumably, the most anomic individuals are most often unemployed and thus more often require the assistance of the employment service in filing for unemployment benefits and in locating employment. This greater need may offset any greater tendency for more highly anomic persons to avoid contact.

COUNSELING AND PERSONNEL SERVICES IN ADULT EDUCATION. CURRENT INFORMATION SOURCES, NO. 23. Glick, Barry, Ed. Feb 1969. 51p. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education, Syracuse, N.Y. EDRS PRICE MF $.25, HC $2.65.

ABSTRACT. The annotated bibliography dealing with counseling and personnel services in adult education contains 94 indexed and abstracted entries arranged under four headings: student personnel services, counseling services; admissions and selection; and retention and dropout, and financial assistance. Topics covered in these abstracts include general student personnel services; educational, vocational, and personal counseling; tests, testing, and predictive measures; standards, procedures, and recruitment; retention dropout, and financial assistance. Most documents are dated from 1966 to 1968. (ED 029 234)

THE COURSE OF HUMAN LIFE AS A PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEM. Buehler, Charlotte. In Human Development; v11 n3 p184-200. 1968.

ABSTRACT. Human life is seen as a process characterized by an intentionality, generated in the care-self system. The phases are: preparing and building up self-determination, setting life goals experimentally and programmatically, and assessing success and failure.

EFFECTIVENESS OF T-GROUP EXPERIENCES IN MANAGERIAL TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT. Campbell, John P. and Dunnette, Marvin D. In Psychological Bulletin; v70 n2 p73-104. Aug 1968. 32p.

ABSTRACT. Research studies relating T-group experiences to the behavior of individuals in organizations are reviewed in depth. Attention is also devoted to summarizing the stated objectives of the method and its technological elements. In addition, speculation is offered about the nature and viability of implicit assumptions underlying T-group training. Examination of the research literature leads to the conclusion that while T-group training seems to produce observable changes in behavior, the utility of these changes for the performance of individuals in their organizational roles remains to be demonstrated. It is also evident that more research has been devoted to T-group training than to any other single management development technique; however, the problems of observation and measurement are considerably more difficult in T-group research than in most other areas. (AC 003 079)

THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATION TRAINING ON CLOSED MINDEDNESS, ANXIETY, AND SELF CONCEPT. Imbler, Irene. Paper presented at the National Seminar on Adult Education Research (Chicago, February 11-13, 1968). Est. 1967. 3p. EDRS PRICE MF $0.25 HC $0.20.

ABSTRACT. Small-group discussion, to train members to work as a learning team, was used to investigate changes in closed mindedness, anxiety, and self concept. Seventeen male labor union members, enrolled in a twelve week Resident Labor Education Program at Indiana University, were randomly assigned to an experimental group which attended a twelve week, two hour session training course, and to a control group which attended regular classes in the labor program. A third control group received no treatment. The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, and Butler-Haigh Q Sort were administered to all groups before and after the program. Results indicated that 1) no significant differences existed in the characteristics after the treatment

period, 2) change in the predicted direction occurred in the experimental group in all characteristics and in anxiety in the first control group, 3) no significant positive correlation existed between closed mindedness and anxiety, and 4) a negative correlation did exist between closed mindedness and anxiety and a positive self concept. (ED 017 807)

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF NEEDS FOR CONTINUING SELF-DEVELOPMENT AS PERCEIVED BY WIVES OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE GREATER BOSTON SUBURBAN AREA. Williams, Marianne Carter. Boston Univ., Mass., 1964. 159p. University Microfilms (Order No. 66-12,811, MF $3.00, Xerography $7.40).

ABSTRACT. This exploratory study was made to determine whether a sample of school superintendents' wives perceived the need for continuing self-development and whether they perceived barriers to their meeting these needs, and to hypothesize some implications for more effective program planning in continuing education for superintendents' wives. An interview guide was used to obtain from a random sample of 30 superintendent's wives from 75 suburbs, their perceptions of the unique functions of wives of school superintendents, their needs for self-development, and the barriers interfering with it. These wives saw their home and family functions primarily in terms of giving support to their husbands. There was less consensus about perceived requirements in regard to school and community functions than about home and family functions. Needs identified for further self-development were: knowledge, attitudes, interests, and self-identity.

HUMAN FORCES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING. SELECTED READING SERIES THREE. National Education Assn., National Training Laboratories. 1961. 107p. Available from National Education Association, National Training Laboratories, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($2.00).

ABSTRACT. Ten essays deal with the teaching-learning exchange and contacts, the learner in relation to the classroom group, developing potentialities through class groups, sociopsychological processes of group instruction, classroom social structure as a mental health problem, power conflict in classrooms, motivation for learning, human relations training, and case methods in training of administrators. (AC 003 101)

INFORMATION SEEKING, OPINION LEADERSHIP, AND SENSE OF POWERLESSNESS FOR DIFFERENT ISSUES. White, Shirley A. Paper presented at the National Seminar on Adult Education Research (Chicago, February 11-12, 1968). 1968. 6p. EDRS Order Number ED 017 865, price in microfiche $0.25, in hard copy $0.40.

ABSTRACT. A study was made in Nebraska in 1965 to examine the relationship of four independent variables--opinion leadership, interest, gregariousness, and sense of powerlessness--to the extent of information seeking and the ratio of interpersonal to mediated sources.

MOTIVATION TO LEARN. Kirchner, Corinne. Chapter 3 in AN OVERVIEW OF ADULT EDUCATION by Edmund deS. Brunner and others. 1959. 21p. Available from Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1225 19th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

ABSTRACT. Understanding the connection between motivation and education is crucial for the achievement of adult educational goals. In social psychological terms, for each individual the learning process proceeds selectively in the context of motivational forces. With increasing age and ego development, basic motivational forces are socially defined, channeled and ramified, and new motivations are learned. Sociologically, with increasing societal development, this social learning is institutionalized into a complex and pervasive educational system. Adult education, therefore, must deal with well-developed, subjectively meaningful motivations in relation to complex social influences and social values. Some studies illustrate the mechanisms by which motivation and learning are related, such as levels of aspiration, and some of the social and psychological factors which may best account for differential motivations, such as previous formal education, socioeconomic status, and personality configurations. (AC 001 804)

PERSONALITY FACTORS WHICH MAY INTERFERE WITH THE LEARNING OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION STUDENTS. Hand, S. E. and Puder, William H. Florida State Univ., Tallahassee. 29p. EDRS PRICE MF $0.25, HC $1.55.

ABSTRACT. To understand better the learning characteristics of culturally disadvantaged adults and to study the emotional factors commonly observed among this population which appear to inhibit participation in organized educational activities and learning, the literature in several areas of psychological research was surveyed. In this paper the researchers 1) examine the concept of Self as it pertains to the adult basic education student, 2) review

Rokeach's hypothesis of the Closed Belief-Disbelief System in an effort to relate it to the emotional make-up of adult basic education students, 3) describe the "Closed" social environment which gives rise to the phenomenon of the "Closed" mind, and 4) identify some of the personality characteristics of the adult basic education student which interfere with his potential as a learner. In addition to overcoming such personality factors as alienation, avoidance, hostility toward authority, withdrawal, violent aggression, fear of schools, self-image as an illiterate, rejection of the desire to develop intellectually, mental blocks against the world, and rigid value systems, the illiterate must break out of a slough of defeat if he is to achieve. (There is a bibliography.) (ED 016 161)

POWERLESSNESS AND KNOWLEDGE, A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ALIENATION AND LEARNING (In Sociometry, A Journal of Research in Social Psychology, 30(2)/105-123, Jun 1967). Seeman, Melvin. Jun 1967. 19p.

ABSTRACT. This study, conducted in Sweden, replicates and extends work done in the United States on alienation and learning. The major hypothesis is that those who are high in powerlessness will have inferior knowledge in control-relevant areas of their experience. Two knowledge tests were constructed (concerning nuclear and cultural affairs) and it is shown that high powerlessness goes with poor nuclear knowledge, while alienated and unalienated students do not differ in cultural information. Thus, the powerlessness-learning hypothesis applies cross-culturally, and applies to a wide range of control-relevant information (e.g., nuclear war, reformatory life, and health). But, as the pertinent theory requires, 1) there are predictable limits to the learning effect, and 2) it is not attributable to personality or intellectual capacity. An effort is also made to test the hypothesis that the sense of powerlessness leads to behavioral avoidance when the individual's anxieties about control are invoked. This article appeared in Sociometry, A Journal of Research in Social Psychology, Volume 30, Number 2, June 1967, pages 105-123. (AC 002 379)

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF ADULT DEVELOPMENT, ABSTRACTS OF RESEARCH. Knox, Alan B. and others. Columbia University. 1967. 32p. EDRS Order Number ED 022 091, price in microfiche $0.25, in hard copy $1.70.

ABSTRACT. The abstracts focus on three aspects of adult development--physiology, personality and learning.

PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH & SENSITIVITY TRAINING, A COLLECTION OF ANNOTATED ABSTRACTS FOR 1967. Capling, R. G., Comp. Canadian Association for Adult Education, Toronto (Ontario). 1968. 45p. EDRS Order Number ED 022 100, price in microfiche $0.25, in hard copy $2.35.

ABSTRACT. The Canadian Commission on Human Relations Training sponsored a conference in Toronto in April 1968 to focus on six major concerns of Canadian trainers--trainer development, communication, research, theory and design (of training), public acceptance, and participant satisfaction. This compilation and commentary of 90 items of 1967 research, gleaned from PSYCHOLOGICAL ABSTRACTS (subsections on developmental psychology, social psychology, physiological psychology, animal psychology, experimental psychology, personality, clinical psychology, educational psychology, and military and personnel psychology) was prepared. From these reports, it is concluded that the sensitivity trainer cannot fulfill his professional, ethical, and moral responsibility unless he makes himself familiar with such information. A National Journal on Human Relations Training should be set up to report fully on all relevant research.

SELECTED PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF ADULT EVENING COLLEGE STUDENTS (In Journal of Educational Research, 59(8(339-343, Apr 1966). White, William F. and others. 1966. 5p.

ABSTRACT. This study investigated the relationship of anxiety, values, self-concept, and aspirations to academic achievement and career choice of adult evening college students. The Taylor Manifest Anxiety Questionnaire and the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, and a self-concept questionnaire were administered to a sample of 60 men (mean age 27.6), divided into 3 groups by grade point averages, and subdivided by career choices (engineering, business administration, or arts and sciences). No significant difference in anxiety between groups was obtained. Only political attitude was significant in relation to academic standing and 3 attitude dimensions--theoretical, economic, and social--were significant in comparisons of academic departments. Despite similarities in self-reports, strong differences emerged in psychological confidence, generally in direct ratio to academic standing.

SELF-CONCEPT METADIMENSIONS AND OCCUPATIONAL BEHAVIOR IN YOUNG ADULTHOOD: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF LONGITUDINAL DATA. Bothwell, James Lowe. Columbia University. Ph.D. Thesis. 1967. 181p.

University Microfilms Order Number 67-14,027, price in microfilm $3.00, in Xerography $8.40.

ABSTRACT. To explore the independence, reliability, and validity of metadimensional measures, 112 boys were interviewed at the 9th and 12th grade levels to obtain self-concept data for an analysis of nine structural, self-concept metadimensions. Self-referent sentences, defined as those indicative of positive or negative evaluations, were written on cards for later analysis. The metadimension assessments were correlated with intelligence and other characteristics assessed at both the 9th and 12th grades, as well as with 40 indices of occupational and other behavior obtained when the subjects were about 25 years of age. Of the nine measures, six (clarity, self-esteem, abstraction, harmony, stability, idiosyncrasy) appeared relatively independent.

SELF PERCEPTION CHANGES IN A SENSITIVITY TRAINING LABORATORY. Explorations in human relations training and research, Number 5. Stephenson, Robert W. and others. National Training Labs., Washington, D.C. 1965. National Training Laboratories, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 $1.50.

ABSTRACT. Four sensitivity training groups and one control group were studied to discover if any lasting changes in self perception occurred as a result of participation in a five-day sensitivity training laboratory. The experimental subjects described themselves with a forced-choice inventory immediately before training, immediately after training, and six months after training. The control subjects completed the same Self Description Inventory at the same time intervals. Predictions that self-perception would change with training and that there would be a tendency for these changes to diminish over a period of time were confirmed. Nevertheless, the training groups as a whole did show lasting significant positive changes in self-perceived intelligence and self-assurance as compared with the control groups. These changes took place both during training and during the six month period following training. Individual changes in a negative direction on the six scales occurred with less frequency among those who received sensitivity training than would be expected on the basis of the control group distributions. (AC 000 525)

SENSITIVITY AND SELF-AWARENESS CHANGES: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION; EVALUATION STUDY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENT T-GROUP. Slocum, John W., Jr. In Training and Development Journal; v22 n9 p38-47. Sep 1968. 10p.

ABSTRACT. Research was conducted at the University of Washington in the 1967 spring semester to determine if a college human relations training course meaningfully changes students' interpersonal orientations and self concepts. A human relations course similar in approach to one used by the National Training Laboratories was offered, with the students themselves the center of discussion and analysis, outside reading reflecting students' own attitudes and behavior in developing better interpersonal relations, small groups for reference frames and discussion, and skill exercises for self evaluation and group discussion. Two other human relations courses were given the same semester, following the Harvard Business School case study method. Sensitivity and self-awareness scales were devised using a bipolar adjectival scale. Hypotheses were that if a training experience is effective, participants will show increased sensitivity to others and self, self-perception of sensitivity and self-awareness should be consistent with other participants' evaluations, and those higher on the sensitivity and self-awareness scales would tend to be rated more accurately by their group than those lower on the scales. All three hypotheses were supported by the data obtained. Students in the T group had greater changes than students in the other two groups. More research in this area is important, because increasing self-awareness and sensitivity to others improves group relations. (AC 002 824)

SOME IMPLICATIONS OF A CONCEPT OF GROWTH MOTIVATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION THEORY AND PRACTICE. M.S. thesis. Noreen, David Sheldon. Indiana Univ., Bloomington. Sep 1966. 52p.

ABSTRACT. This study examined growth motivation as a developing concept and as a theoretical construct, and the implications of this theory for adult education theory and practice. Special attention was given to the theoretical constructs of Abraham Maslow, to the nature of growth motivation concepts in general, and to forms of self understanding and possibilities for developing human potential that are suggested by such concepts. Concepts of selfhood, desirable behavior change, and the learning process were considered within this framework. Growth motivation theory, stressing as it does the processes and content of experience, was seen as compatible with adult education programs intended to help persons to become mature and fully functioning. Growth inhibiting adult education settings were contrasted with the kinds of settings that can help nurture the "growth urge." Further research was recommended on educational settings that emphasize self motivated learning. (AC 000 874)

A STUDY OF PERCEPTUAL AND ATTITUDINAL CHANGE WITHIN A COURSE ON ADULT EDUCATION METHODS. Menlo, Allen. Paper presented at the National Seminar on Adult Education Research (Toronto, February 9-11, 1969). 1969. 20p. EDRS PRICE MF $0.25, HC $1.10.

ABSTRACT. A study was made of personal changes in 50 graduate students in education, public health, social work, psychology, business administration, and public administration, and public administration who took a special 15-week university course in adult education methodology. Major course objectives were to help class members 1) to see themselves as able to aid other adults in their learning, problem-solving, and decision-making, and 2) to perceive other adults as having the potential and basic desire to take responsibility for their own learning and development and behave constructively toward others. Learning events involved the total group, ad hoc subunits, permanent "home-based" groups, permanent out of class triads, individual outside reading of distributed articles and self-chosen books, individual and small group consultation, and ad hoc work committees. Gains in positive self-perception and in readiness to share leadership with others were significant; the influence of self-perception on changes in readiness to share leadership were not significant. (ED 025 734)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SENSITIVITY TRAINING IN AN INSERVICE TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAM IN HUMAN RELATIONS. Lee, Walter Sidney. California Univ., Los Angeles. Ed.D. Thesis. 1967. 129p. University Microfilms (Order No. 67-14,312, Mf $3.00, Xerography $6.20).

ABSTRACT. To test the effectiveness of sensitivity training in an in-service teacher-training program, this study compared two groups subjected to different experimental treatments and a control group. The subjects were 51 elementary teachers from three school districts in the Los Angeles area. Twenty teachers (ten in each of two T-groups) received ten two-hour sessions of intensive sensitivity training. Ten teachers received ten two-hour classes in the principles of human relations. Twenty-one teachers served as the control group, taking all measuring instruments, but receiving no human relations training. The groups were compared for effectiveness of training methods on the basis of several psychometric and behavioral criteria. Results showed that teachers who received sensitivity training improved their scores on the attitude inventory scale and increased their self-esteem on the Q-sort instrument significantly more than those in the control group. While there was no significant difference in teacher

absenteeism rate between the two groups, the students of teachers who received sensitivity training were absent less often than were the students of teachers in the control group.

TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING THE SELF CONCEPTS AND MENTAL HEALTH ATTITUDES OF GRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE HELPING PROFESSIONS. Menlo, Allen. Michigan Univ., Ann Arbor, School of Education. 1967. 17p.

ABSTRACT. Fifty graduate students in education, public health, social work, psychology, business administration, and public administration participated in a special semester-long course designed to enhance class members' self esteem, regard for adult clients, and relevant behavioral science knowledge and professional helping skills. The course stressed the dynamics and principles involved in implementing adult learning and change within such settings as classrooms, large and small group meetings, consultations, and supervision. Learning activities (including individual reading) were organized to maximize the number, variety, and depth of interpersonal contacts. Pretesting and posttesting were by means of ten Semantic Differential scales and the Attitude Toward Group Member Behavior Inventory. Class members changed significantly in the direction of positive self concept and readiness to share leadership with others but initial self concepts apparently had no bearing on the latter change. (AC 002 473)

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