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**Commission for International
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CIAE Mission Statement

The Commission on International Adult Education (CIAE) of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) provides a forum for the discussion of international issues related to adult education in general, as well as adult education in various countries around the globe. The following purposes summarize the work of the Commission:

- To develop linkages with adult education association in other countries
- To encourage exchanges between AAACE and associations from other countries
- To invites conference participation and presentation by interested adult educators around the world
- To discuss how adult educators from AAACE and other nations may cooperate on projects of mutual interest and benefit to those we serve

The Commission holds its annual meeting in conjunction with the AAACE conference.

Message from AAACE President

Greetings CIAE Pre-conference Attendees,

Thank you for attending the 2016 Commission for International Adult Education (CIAE) Pre-Conference. I hope your travel to Albuquerque, New Mexico, was pleasant. Once again you are joining with others to share your experiences, present research, and learn about initiatives on the horizon for International Adult Education.

The CIAE Pre-Conference is an excellent venue for networking, and it seems like only yesterday we were doing the same in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. What a phenomenal time we had! As you carry that enthusiasm over to this year, I look forward to the discussions about adult education than span the globe. Know that sharing your knowledge enlightens others and your very presence here enriches our conference overall.

Please accept my sincere appreciation for making this CIAE Pre-Conference a memorable event!

Margaret A. Eggleston, Ph.D.
President, 2015-2016

Commission for International Adult Education (CIAE) of the AAACE International Pre-Conference 2016

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SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING READINESS AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS AT SAUDI ELECTRONIC UNIVERSITY IN SAUDI ARABIA

Mousa S. Alfaifi, Ph.D. Candidate [1]

ABSTRACT: This study aimed to determine the level of self-directed learning readiness (SDLR) among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Saudi Arabia. Also, investigated were potential relationships between the level of self-directed learning readiness and selected demographic variables such as gender and specific college within the university in this specific sample of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. This research utilized a quantitative design using descriptive and inferential statistics. Data were collected using the Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), developed by Guglielmino (1977). Results for question one found that total SDLRS scores among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus ranged from 132 to 279 with a mean score of 213.60, a standard deviation of 25.26. The results of this study were: undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus have an average level of SDLRS; there is no significant result between the level of SDLRS and the selected demographic variable of gender. Also, there is a statistically significant difference in the mean SDLRS regarding the independent variable of college. The result of Tukey post-hoc test indicated the existence of significant differences at the .05 level between the students in the Administration and Finance College who scored higher than students in the Sciences and Theoretical Studies College. Also, there was a significant difference between the students in the Computation and Information College who also scored higher than the students in the Sciences and Theoretical Studies College.

Keywords: SDLRS, Life-long Learning, SEU, Learning Styles, Adult learner.

According to Levett-Jones (2005), self-directed learning (SDL) is an educational concept that has received increasing attention in recent years, particularly in the context of higher education. Knowles (1975) defined self-directed learning as a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes (p. 18).

According to Merriam (2002), readiness for self-directed learning includes self-discipline, autonomy, effective organization, effective communication, acceptance of constructive feedback, engagement in self-reflection**,** and self-evaluation. Self-directed learning (SDL) requires various skills and attitudes to ensure successful independent study. Therefore, students have to analyze their current situations, support networks, study habits, and family situations (Caffarella, 2006).

For adult learners, learning places emphasis on self-directed learning processes, skills, and systems rather than tests and content coverage (Brookfield, 1984). Therefore, individuals are expected to initiate personal challenge activities and develop personal qualities to enable them to pursue the activities successfully (Caffarella, 2006). In relation to this, self-directed learners demonstrate a better awareness of their responsibility in monitoring themselves, as they seek to make learning meaningful. They

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become curious to learn new things by trying and exploring new areas, concepts, and skills. Due to this, they view problems as challenges, enjoy learning, and desire change, which implies that self-directed adult learning requires enhanced motivation, persistence, independence, self-discipline, self-confidence, and achievement of a goal-oriented attitude (Abdullah, 2007). Therefore, there are benchmarks for determining levels of readiness.

Statement of Problem

According to Alturki (2014), based on statistical data, the population of Saudi Arabia continues to rise. Among its current 20 million citizens, 9 million are immigrants. Also, the number of high-school graduates has been increasing during the past 20 years. In the 2012-13 academic years, 228,000 out of 310,000 students were admitted to universities or colleges, which means there is a gap in available places at universities, colleges, and other institutions. The government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has continued to sustain new developments in the field of educational technology. In 2011, Saudi Electronic University (SEU) was established in Riyadh as an educational institution offering distance education services in the area of Administration and Finance, Computation and Information, Health Sciences, and Sciences and Theoretical Studies (SEU, 2015, 2016). Thus, there is a lack of research on the level of self-directed learning readiness of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the level of self-directed learning readiness (SDLR) among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Saudi Arabia. Also, this study investigated if there were significant differences between the level of self-directed learning readiness and selected demographic variables such as gender and college in the sample of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, this study provided an actual report about self-directed learning of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia in order to identify information for the potential inclusion of self-directed learning as a part of the educational system in Saudi Arabia.

Research Questions

This study determined the level of self-directed learning readiness among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Saudi Arabia, specifically addressing the following questions:

1. What is the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students at SEU in Saudi Arabia?
2. Does the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students at SEU in Saudi Arabia differ by gender?
3. Does the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students at SEU in Saudi Arabia differ by college (within the university)?

Literature Review

Self-Directed Learning

There are many perspectives on what SDL entails, specifically, as it relates to a function of learner personality characteristics and motivation, or SDL as a unique learning process, or potentially a combination of the two. Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) contend that there are two distinct characteristics of self-direction that include: (a) a continuous effort by the learner to maintain control over all learning decisions, and (b) the learner's ability to obtain access and make decisions from a wide range of appropriate and available resources. Likewise, Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) state that self-directed learning should not be confused with isolated study. Instead, self-directed learners are able to decisively and authentically exercise control over the purpose, content, and form of their own learning. Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) believe that in order for authentic control to be obtained, the learner must understand other alternate possibilities that exist from the basis of knowledge, with the intention of choosing among various potential options.

Self-Directed Learning Readiness

According to Fisher, King, & Tague (2001), the notion of self-directed learning readiness examines the degree at which the self-directed learner takes personal control and acknowledges the freedom that is associated with learning what the individual considers important. The degree of control is dependent on the learner's personality characteristics, attitudes, and abilities. Wiley (1983) stated that self-directed learning readiness can be defined as the degree of the attitudes, abilities, and personality characteristics that the individual possesses for self-directed learning. The following are several assumptions associated with SDL readiness. First, there is the assumption that adults are innately self-directing, suggesting that SDL readiness exists along a continuum and there are varying degrees of SDL readiness present in every person. Second, self-direction competencies are challenging to develop. The best way to understand and exhibit self-directed behavior is to learn and practice autonomous behavior. The final assumption is that the ability to practice SDL in one context can be generalized to other environments and settings. This may be the biggest challenge with defining SDL readiness, as high levels of readiness for SDL do not necessarily transfer to unfamiliar environments and contexts (Fisher et al., 2001).

As expressed previously, SDL readiness is considered to be highly individualized and representative along the continuum. As such, evidence has shown that students who possess low SDL readiness that are subsequently exposed to an SDL assignment, demonstrate high anxiety levels that are similar to the responses of learners who have high readiness for SDL and are exposed to environments that have increased levels of structure and teacher direction (Fisher et al., 2001; Wiley, 1983).

Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale Instrument (SDLRS)

The best well-known assessment associated with SDL is the Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) developed by Guglielmino (1977). According to Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007), the SDLRS/LPA is the most extensively used assessment instrument within the field of SDL. It is now also known as the Learning Preference Assessment (LPA) (see Guglielmino & Guglielmino, 2016) to avoid potential participant biases based on perceptions of the words self-directed learning. Guglielmino developed the instrument as a way to effectively measure the complexities of the characteristics that define the readiness to participate in self-directed learning (Guglielmino, Guglielmino, & Long, 1987; Merriam et al., 2007).

According to Guglielmino (2008), the SDLRS is the foremost instrument that is used for evaluating the individual perceptions of the attitudes and skills that are associated with SDL. Specifically, the scale is developed around eight important factors that consider both the personalities and attitudes that have been directly linked to self-directedness. Additionally, the instrument is used for researching the relationship between other personality-related variables and self-directedness. Further, the SDLRS test includes 58-items with a 5-point Likert scale for responses that range from "almost always true" to "almost never true," with questions that are both positively and negatively phrased.

According to Guglielmino (1977), it is important to note that the SDL readiness score can be variable, meaning, that a person's score can be changed and improved upon through attention to awareness and practice. Generally speaking, higher scores on the SDL readiness are associated with higher performance on projects that require individual applications of creativity, problem solving, and change (Dynan, Cate, & Rhee, 2008). In a study performed by Guglielimo (2008) that examined the SDL readiness of the average population as compared to successful entrepreneurs, it was found that the mean readiness scores were 214 and 248, respectively (Dynan et al., 2008).

Method

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was undergraduate students who attend Saudi Electronic University on the Riyadh campus and were taking at least one course during Summer 2016. Founded in 2011, the Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus has a 2016 enrollment of 4,490 undergraduate students (see Table 1).

Table 1
Number of Student Enrolled in SEU Divided by College and Gender in 2016

College	Male *n*	Female *n*	Total *n*	%
Administration and finance	927	614	1541	34.32
Computation and information	974	348	1322	29.44
Health sciences	453	425	878	20.00
Sciences and theoretical studies	324	425	749	16.70

N=4490

The sample selected for this study included undergraduate students from the colleges of Administration and Finance, Computation and Information, Health Sciences, and Sciences and Theoretical Studies. The design of this study required two distinct statistical tests to answer the research questions: *t* test for independent samples and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Each testing method had a different associated value for medium effect size .25 and the suggested sample size while holding the power constant at .80 and Alpha .05% (Cohen, 1992), a minimum of 179 participants was required. Therefore, the total sample size for this study was 179 undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on the Riyadh campus by using convenience sampling.

Instrumentation

The researcher utilized a demographic information sheet and the Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS). SDLRS measured the level of self-directed learning readiness of undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus.

      Demographic information sheet. The survey began with five demographic questions: What is your gender? What year were you born? What is your current college? How many years have you studied at the Saudi Electronic University? And how many courses have you taken at the Saudi Electronic University? To verify that there would be no problems associated with the translation and questions a small test was conducted with Saudi Students in Tampa. Based on their input, only minimum changes were needed.

      Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS). The SDLRS, originally developed by Guglielmino (1977) for measuring readiness for self-directed learning, and subsequently revised, has been used in a variety of studies and with a variety of populations. It is a 58-item, 5-point Likert-type scale designed to collect data on the respondents' perceived SDL readiness.

      Reliability and validity of the SDLRS. The SDLRS instrument was originally developed in English, but it has been translated to other languages, one of them is the Arabic language. Abo-Rokbah (2002) translated the SDLRS instrument to Arabic through the use of two official translation offices, which were the International Institute for translation and Global Nexus. Next, he had the two versions translated back into English through the use of two other official translation offices, which were Nusaiba International Translation Center and Al-Qabas Translation House. After the translation was completed, he conducted a pilot study. He asked 12 Saudi students to provide feedback about clarity and ease of understanding. All 12 students completed the instrument and gave satisfactory comments about the SDLRS instrument and its questions. As a result of his pilot study, he decided to proceed with his research. In order to examine the reliability of the SDLRS instrument Arabic version, Abo-Rokbah (2002) calculated Cronbach's alpha (α). The result of the calculation was .8795, which indicates that the Arabic version of the SDLRS instrument is highly reliable.

Interpretation. SDLRS has a total range of scores from 58 to 290 and it is divided into three levels of self-directed learning readiness: below average, average, and above average. Guglielmino (1978) interpreted each individual's SDLRS score based on her sample. The interpretation of SDLRS, the score range and explanation of readiness, is presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Interpretations of SDLRS the Score Range and Explanation of Readiness

SDLRS score range	Explanation Readiness for SDL
58-201	Below average
202-226	Average
227-290	Above average

According to Guglielmino (1978), individuals with high SDLRS scores usually prefer to determine their learning needs and to plan and implement their own learning. This does not mean that they will never choose to be in a structured learning situation. They may choose traditional courses or workshops as a part of a learning plan. On the other hand, individuals with average SDLRS scores may be successful in independent situations, but are not fully comfortable with handling the entire process of identifying their learning needs and planning and implementing the learning. Individuals with below average SDLRS scores usually prefer very structured learning options such as lecture and traditional classroom settings.

Data Collection

Data collected from the undergraduate students at the Saudi Electronic University (SEU) on Riyadh campus. The sampling strategy utilized in this study is a convenience sample. According to Creswell (2012), through using a convenience sample, the researcher can select participants because they are willing, available, convenient, and represent some characteristics the researcher seeks to study. The questionnaire was made available online by using the Qualtrics Survey Software. The researcher met the Dean of Students Affairs at SEU on June 26 to arrange the distribution of survey. The office of Students Affairs was asked to forward the link of demographic questions and Arabic version of SDLRS to their undergraduate students who had taken at least one course during Summer 2016. The first contact was on June 28 and the second contact was on July 3. There were 270 uncompleted surveys that were not part of analyses. Data collection took place between June 28 and July 8, 2016.

Data Analyses

The researcher unitized descriptive statistics such as central tendency, frequencies, and percentages and inferential statistics such as independent means *t* tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and Tukey to describe and analyze data.

Findings

Findings for Research Question 1

What is the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia? In order to answer research question one, descriptive statistics for SDLRS scores were used. The SDLRS scores ranged between 58 and 290. Based on Guglielmino and Guglielmino's work (2008), there are three levels of readiness for self-directed learning: Below average 58-201; average 202-226; and above average 227-290 score. Descriptive statistics for SDLRS scores for all participants are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for SDLRS Scores for all Participants

Statistic	Value
Mean	213.60
Median	215.00
Standard Deviation	25.26
Variance	637.84
Skewness	- .067
Kurtosis	.027
Range	147.00
Minimum	132.00
Maximum	279.00

N = 203

As indicated in Table 3, the total SDLRS scores ranged from 132 to 279 with a mean score of 213.60, which is considered as average level, a standard deviation of 25.26, and median of 215. Mean and Standard Deviation for SDLRS by subgroup are presented in Table 4.

Table 4 presents the mean and standard deviation for SDLRS by subgroups. The female group had a mean 216.28 that is 6 points higher than the male group 210.83. The Administration and Finance group had a mean 217.48 that is higher than the Computation and Information group 215.83, the Health Sciences group 215.02, and the Sciences and Theoretical Studies group 201.92. The 38-47 year old group had a mean of 219.76 that was higher than the 28-37 year old group (213.08), and the 18-27 years group 212.33.

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation for SDLRS by Subgroup

Group		Mean	*SD*
Gender	Male	210.83	25.94
	Female	216.28	24.40
College	Administration and Finance College	217.48	24.44
	Computation and Information College	215.83	23.49
	Health Sciences College	215.02	28.13
	Sciences and Theoretical Studies College	201.92	23.52

Age	18-27 years		212.33	24.73
	28-37 years		213.08	26.19
	38-47 years		219.76	23.39

N = 203

Findings for Research Question 2

Does the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students at SEU in Saudi Arabia differ by gender? To answer research question two, an independent means *t* test was performed to ascertain if there was a significant difference between the level of SDLRS and the selected demographic variable of gender.

Results of the independent means *t* tests are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Independent t Test Result for Gender

Gender	n	Mean	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*P*
Male	100	210.83	25.96	201	1.54	124
Female	103	216.28	24.40	199.37		

Note: α = .05

Table 11 indicates that there was no significant result, $t = -1.54$, $p = 0.124$ between the level of SDLRS and gender. These results suggest that the gender did not have any significant influence in the level of self-directed learning readiness (SDLR) among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Saudi Arabia.

Findings for Research Question 3

Does the level of SDLRS among undergraduate students at SEU in Saudi Arabia differ by college? This question was answered using a one-way ANOVA to determine if there was a significant difference between the level of SDLRS and college (Administrative and Financial, Computing and Informatics, Health Sciences, Science and Theoretical Studies). Results of the one-way ANOVA are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Summery One-Way ANOVA Table for College

Source	SS	*df*	MS	F	P
Between Groups	6333.52	3	2111.17	3.43	.018
Within Groups	122509.36	199	615.63		
Total	128842.88	202			

Note: α = .05

As shown in Table 12, at an alpha level of .05 the significance level is .018, which is below .05. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean score of SDLRS related to college in which the participant was matriculating. To know which of the specific groups differed, the researcher used the multiple comparisons table, which consist the result of post-hoc tests. The result of Tukey post-hoc test is presented in Table 7.

Table 7
Multiple Comparisons Results by College

College	Mean	AF	CI	HS	ST
AF	217.48	--	-1.65	-2.46	-15.56*
CI	215.83	1.65	--	-.80	-13.91*
HS	215.02	2.46	.80	--	-13.10
ST	201.92	15.56*	13.91*	13.10	--

Note: α = .05 ∗ p >.05
AF = Administration and Finance College; CI = Computation and Informatics; HS = Health Sciences College; ST = Science and Theoretical Studies College.

Table 13 demonstrates that the Tukey test showed the existence of significant differences at the .05 level between the students in the Sciences and Theoretical Studies College, and the students in Administration and Finance College. Also, revealed were significant differences at the .05 level between the students in the Sciences and Theoretical Studies College, and the students in Computation and Information College.

Conclusion

This study determined the level of self-directed learning readiness (SDLR) for undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Saudi Arabia. The study also investigated the relationships between the level of self-directed learning readiness and selected demographic variables such as gender, college, and age in the sample of undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. The results demonstrated that undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus had an average level of SDLRS. Also, demographic variables of gender and age did not have differences between them and the mean score of SDLRS among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University on Riyadh campus. However, the demographic variables of college revealed a significant difference.

Implications

Results of the study offer several implications for practice and has potential to make positive updates to the educational system in Saudi Arabia in general and SEU in particular. Determining the level of SDLRS among students may provide additional methods for students to learn the skills needed for SDL. It also may help faculty members review their syllabi to be in accord with the level of self-directed learning readiness among undergraduate students. Saudi Arabia students have historically not been taught or encouraged to be self-directed learners. To increase potential increase in SDLRS, the system of education in Saudi Arabia could provide courses and or activities that address self-directed learning skills. Although there was no difference in SDLRS scores by gender, women were not allowed to participant in higher education until about 40 years ago. Since the majority of student were younger, it is possible that a broader age range might have produced different results.

The Administration and Finance College and Computation and Information College had higher scores than the Sciences and Theoretical College. Teachers and students rely on

theoretical techniques, lectures, and memorizing. If the Ministry of Education wants to improve self-directed learning skills at SEU, or any other university, paying attention to the mix between theory and practice might improve self-directed learning skills. Again paying attention to methods and techniques that emphasize SDL skills could be more consciously implemented in the lower scoring colleges.

The participants were close in age, which may have accounted for the similar results. If the age of the students increases, differences in SDL may occur. Should that happen, SEU might need to address changes needed for the increased age range.

Recommendation for Further Research

Recommendations for future research include:
- This study utilized quantitative methods to determine the level of Self-directed student readiness (SDLR) among undergraduate students at Saudi Electronic University in Riyadh campus. Conducting qualitative research studies such as interviews and focus groups may provide greater insights into student SDLR.
- This study indicated the undergraduate student perceptions about their self-directed learning readiness. Similar studies could be conducted with graduate students to determine whether there is similar or different perception about their self-directed learning readiness.
- This study focused only on Saudi Electronic University. Future research could extend to other universities in Saudi Arabia and comparison could be made between Saudi Electronic University and other universities in Saudi Arabia.
- This study focused on Riyadh campus of Saudi Electronic University. Different research studies could be conducted on other campuses of Saudi Electronic University and make comparison among campuses of Saudi Electronic University.
- The number of participants of this study was 203 undergraduate students. Conducting future research with increased number of participants may contribute to providing more information about SDLR.
- This study included the demographic variables of gender and college. A similar study may be conducted with different demographic variables including variables such marital status, occupation, and nationality.
- This study focused on the undergraduate students in summer semester 2016. Future research could be conducted in different semesters at Saudi Electronic University.
- This study included all years of studying at Saudi Electronic University. Different studies could focus only on Fifth year.

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CAREER TRANSITIONS AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF BULGARIAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT: This paper focuses on job transitions and professional development of immigrants in the United States. Using narrative as a method and exploring Bulgarian immigrants' personal experience stories, this report shares some of the findings from the author's dissertation. Upon coming to the United States, the Bulgarian immigrants experienced a different language and culture in their host country. In addition, the initial lack of recognition of their credentials forced many of them to take low-skilled jobs. However, they successfully adapted over time by improving their host language skills, continuing their education, and learning and fulfilling requirements in the local labor market so they could eventually obtain the more high-skilled jobs they desired. These Bulgarian immigrants took different career paths toward achieving their goals and aspirations. However, being highly motivated, hard-working, and persistent individuals, they not only persevered and survived, but they also said they felt successful doing their jobs in their new environment.

Keywords: Bulgarian immigrants, career transitions, professional development, United States

Most immigrants face barriers regarding entry into the labor market due to limited fluency in English, lack of formal education from their host country, and employers being unprepared to employ immigrants (Boeren, 2011; Harrison & Lloyd, 2013). Additionally, most immigrants' educational and professional credentials, gained prior to migration, may not be recognized (Lee & Westwood, 1996). Further, formal citizenship may not equate with immigrant civic engagement because immigrant communities "are not fully included in social and political processes" (Ebert & Okamoto, 2013, p. 1267). Finally, societal attitudes toward immigrants may not favor their integration (Berry, 1990, 1997; Berry, Kim, Power, Young, & Bujaki, 1989). Therefore, there is a need to investigate immigrants', in this case Bulgarian, perceptions of immigrant work in the United States (U.S.).

Using narrative as a method to explore Bulgarian immigrants' personal experience stories, this report shares findings from a larger dissertation study, which the author conducted with 21 Bulgarian immigrants from the Chicagoland area. This paper focuses on job transitions and professional development of immigrants in the United States. All participants were given pseudonyms.

Job or Career Transitions

The Bulgarian immigrants shared their perceptions of the transitions they made in terms of their jobs/careers. While some of the participants in the study talked about transitions in Bulgaria and the U.S., others discussed transitions that only happened in the U.S.

For example, Diliana shared her experience with job/career transitions. She said:

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Um, I will tell you only here, since I came to America. But in fact, even in Bulgaria…After I completed my higher education [in Bulgaria], um, I started a couple of months later to work in a bank for about four years. Then I came [to America]. But here, at the beginning there was a period in which I was adapting. I would say the first two to three years I had to work at jobs that are for people without any education. My first job was as a waitress. And after that I helped an elderly woman…And after that I worked as a waitress again for a couple of months. And then from 2002 I started again work at [name of bank] here with my degree and what I have studied. And after that with the trucking, it is almost ten years that I am doing it. But at the beginning, there was a period of two to three years when just because of how the circumstances were, and most of everything because you are an immigrant here, and you have to start somehow from somewhere, but to start such things that they do not require any education [sighs].

Diliana shared that in the first couple of years since her arrival in the U.S., she worked jobs for which she did not utilize her higher education degree. She explained that this was how an immigrant would start.

A similar view about how an immigrant starts at the beginning was expressed by Vasil. He said:

Well, this is maybe like every immigrant that is in America. To tell you, at the beginning before you get oriented, before you certify, before you have the opportunity for an experience, the experience is very important here. Well, everyone starts whatever he can work. I have passed through the common experience, right. But I already have discovered the niches for the certificates, this opportunity that is provided. And well, before I got the certificate, I have worked all kinds of work which has not been towards my specialty…[But after I got a certificate in America]…[I managed] to qualify in something, in more cultured job, say as a desk top support, software installations, these things. And the certificate is related with this type of profession. Say we have installation of devices, and so on. But as every immigrant, you start whatever you can work. Up to you complete the certificates and other courses. And from there on, in practice/in reality, your career starts.

Vasil referred to "the common experience" of an immigrant when he worked jobs that were not in his major. Vasil believed that an immigrant professional career started when he completed some formal education.

Many of the Bulgarian immigrants discussed their transitions when they already had professional careers in the U.S. Some of the job transitions occurred because the Bulgarian immigrants wanted to explore which area of work within the professional field to pursue. Viara described the career options she had considered:

I worked in different areas. You can work therapy in a hospital, retirement home, clinics. Um, I went through all [of these]. Oh, you can also go to homes, home therapy. Um, I just went through all because I wanted to see which one would be best for me, in the sense that, and it looks like, there is no easy job/workplace, but it looks like I liked the most at retirement homes because you have independence, and you see, [you are] flexible. You can go whenever is convenient for you, right. Um, and you are not dependent on other people. While if you are at [a hospital], it is nice in a hospital too, but there you work more with colleagues constantly, right, at the retirement home also.

Viara valued being independent and having flexibility at her work. After working in different areas, she was able to decide which one would be best for her to pursue.

Some of the participants perceived their job transitions as positive while others perceived these as negative.

For Petya, transition meant opening more Bulgarian schools in Chicagoland.

Um, I don't know. I don't think [there are any transitions]. Um, so what I have done, it is not exactly as transitions, but as expansions. So the aim is to have more schools, closer to people, to where they live. So we had opened new schools, where there is a need.

Petya envisioned new Bulgarian schools being created close to Bulgarian families with children.

Some of the participants expressed why they did not like job transitions. Negative perceptions revolved around participants' work environments and their occupational choices. Snejana felt that she was changing jobs due to the lack of opportunities to choose where to work.

Transition….Maybe transition….I have been from one sphere to another. And mainly this happened here because… I don't know if this addresses exactly the question. But mainly I have worked, let's say it a little bit whatever it came by chance. A little bit I have worked and I have not searched. More or less, I have taken whatever came along the way. And so. You do not have a lot of opportunity to choose and to stay without a job, from this point of view. And transitions happened because of these reasons. And at the moment I am in this sphere of the trucking business. I mean I have not done that before. And so, it is quite different from what I have studied, but it is at least something.

Some immigrants reflected on their past work experience when they worked jobs that were not in their specialty or for which they did not need education. Snejana stated that now she worked at something new and very different from her education.

Dimitar had a pessimistic view about his job/career transition:

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The transitions are this, it is not a transition [laughs]. It is downhill for me because from a higher level you go to a lower level, which is with a similar activity, but the level is much lower.

Dimitar believed that before coming to the U.S. he had reached a higher level of work in Bulgaria. However, in America he perceived this was not the case and that by going to work in another industry he could not maintain the same level.

Findings from the section of job/career transitions are the following:

1. The Bulgarian immigrants experienced job/career transitions both in Bulgaria and the U.S.
2. During the first couple of years after their arrival in the U.S., the Bulgarian immigrants were employed mainly in low-skilled labor.
3. The Bulgarian immigrants had both positive and negative perceptions of their job/career transitions.

Professional Development

Bulgarian immigrants shared what steps they had considered for advancing in their careers and how they had being successful at their current jobs/occupations. The Bulgarian immigrants perceived language as important for their professional realization. Many of the participants in the study believed that without English they would have not had careers in the U.S. A number of participants also elaborated on learning new things and upgrading their skills at/for work.

Dimitar talked about the need for being current in your professional knowledge:

As in all, no matter what job you work, current, not current, previous, you just have to follow everything new, to be updated, as they say, in every moment, in any time. Otherwise, you lose positions. Things develop extremely fast. Technologies develop extremely fast. What was five years ago, it is already old, as it is in the automobile industry, not to talk about in aviation and in other industries. So you constantly have to find a way, the best is self-education, [laughs] in any time of the day and night. This is it.

Dimitar believed that a person had to be competitive in his industry. According to him, the best way to keep up with the fast-pace changes, including new technology, was self-education.

For Snejana, who was just starting a new job, to be successful in her work meant she needed to learn what was required of her. As she said, "to understand better how, um, what is required from me, how it [the work] is done."

Boyana reflected on her learning experience and requirements at work:

Um, the steps [for advancement and being successful in current job/career] are that I try to learn everything that is new, as there are constantly new computer programs. Here we had again some computer programs that were very difficult to some people. And for me it is not easy, but here I learned this new program too; I got into it too. And I try with everything that my work requires to manage and to learn it so that I could keep up with everyone and even do better….And I think this is a success, to manage to be able to succeed with all new things, and stay current with all requirements which are posed in front of me in my work.

Boyana shared that to be successful at her work she was learning new things that employees had to know. Boyana felt successful with mastering new technology and with learning and managing everything required of her.

Similarly to Dimitar and Boyana, Vasil stressed the importance of learning new technology in his professional field. For him, the main steps for career advancement were obtaining certificates. As Vasil said:

Continuation of the certificates; always to consider opportunities for development. I receive magazines that publish the last things [in IT]. And the desire to read and to develop in this [career] always. It is like this with technology, right? To be successful, I have to study constantly every six months at the least.

Vasil believed that he needed to learn about novel developments in his professional field. He also considered opportunities for development such as studying for and obtaining certificates.

Apart from learning and upgrading their skills, the Bulgarian immigrants were also taking courses, taking tests and exams, passing certificates for career advancement / success, and participating in training sessions. For example, as part of her professional development, Vesela was taking continuing education classes:

Um, I inform myself constantly of the advancements. I take continuing medication classes. I read literature on the side…Continuing education [classes] are mandatory, but they are also interesting and useful. Um, the additional things are already my initiative.

To learn new things for her work, Vesela was reading as a self-directed learner and taking the required continuing education classes.

Desislava discussed trainings. Reflecting on her past experience with obtaining qualifications, she said, "When I was in Bulgaria, I constantly qualified myself [went through trainings], I mean I designed courses for pre-qualification and qualifications in the field I am, education." Diana also shared her experiences, "I take additional courses so that I will be able to qualify for something else one day." She was currently taking classes, hoping to have a better professional choice in the future.

How some of the participants viewed the steps for job/career advancement/success was influenced by their work preferences. For example, Kamen understood the steps for success as acquiring experience that can improve one's situation. He stated:

> To gain experience so that you can work for yourself. And you define how much you have to work per day. When you work for others, he [the employer] forces you [to work] for more, and more, and more. [To advance/succeed is] to go on your own, and after that, it can become better.

Kamen valued working independently.

Some of the Bulgarian immigrants identified certain personal characteristics that were important for advancement and success in their careers. The most frequent response was being responsible for work. For example, Krum elaborated on the steps he considered to be successful in his work:

> To do your job responsibly. Um, what you set as a price, you should leave the way it was set initially. Because many contractors do otherwise. They say the price only to take the job, and after that they start changing everything. The clients become frustrated, and it becomes…it is not what the client has expected. The client had expected one thing, the contractor is bringing another, and the relations get spoiled. What we do is to try to stick to what we say. Maybe 99% of what I say at the beginning is what stays till the end. The price will change only if there is something unexpected. But this is a rule I stick to. The other thing is always to be at work…We have settled [for the project], we have said we will take that [price], and if we said we will take it, we will complete it [the project/work]…And this is it. Just do your job responsibly.

Krum explained what being responsible meant in his work, while Diliana brought a different view about steps for one's advancement and success:

> Um, the steps are simply, a person has to be actively alert and to look around for potential opportunities around herself. Because sometimes, well, an opportunity comes at a given time, but after that it is no longer valid/actual. So in my view, well, I am running my own business and a person has to be with open eyes and to look around for opportunities around her. And if in a given moment, she has such an opportunity, not to lose it, to catch/seize it, and to do something.

For Diliana, to advance in one's career was related to being active and not missing an opportunity.

Asen presented other personal qualities for advancing at work in his profession:

> Um, again, persistence, aggressiveness, um, to defend my point of view. I had to be a very good student during the whole time because I wanted to advance quickly. And this is it. In general, these three things. And to be capable [to do

things]. You have to be able to learn. And not to forget the most important thing – how to handle stress. Because in this job many people have tried and are trying at the moment to do something. It is not that they are lacking something. It is just they cannot handle the stress. Because in our profession, there is a lot of stress.

Asen believed that it was crucial in his profession for a person to be able to deal with stress.

Two of the participants pointed out that it was important for a person to have a desire to have a job for his/her professional development. Simeon believed that personal attitude toward work, such as having desire, is important for one to find a job. As he said, "When the person has a desire, everything falls into place." For Vasil, the steps for his professional development were continuation of the certificates and his desire to continue studying for the next level of the certificates.

Findings from the section of Professional Development indicated that Bulgarian immigrants considered the following steps for advancement or success in their current careers: learning new skills and updating knowledge by taking courses, taking tests and exams, obtaining certificates, and participating in training. Bulgarian immigrants also perceived that certain personal characteristics and attitudes toward work were important for advancing or being successful in one's career.

Going Through Changes After Coming to the U.S.

Bulgarian immigrants perceived they went through some changes after coming to the U.S. According to Berry (1991), change occurs on the physical, biological, political, economic, cultural, social, and psychological levels (as cited in Vargas-Reighley, 2005). The Bulgarian immigrants in the study discussed how they underwent economic, cultural, social, and psychological changes.

Changes on the Economic Level

When coming to the U.S., the Bulgarian immigrants evaluated their work prospects for the U.S. labor market. Many of them realized they would not be able to work in the occupation they were in in Bulgaria. Their Bulgarian credentials were not recognized in the U.S. This confirms other studies' findings about recognition of foreign credentials in the U.S. (e.g., Fang, Zikic, & Novicevic, 2009; Rabben, 2013).

In general, recent immigrants often work in low-skilled occupations, especially during the first years of residence in the U.S. (Yakushko, Backhaus, Watson, Ngaruiya, & Gonzalez, 2008). These Bulgarian immigrants also had to find other types of work that were different from the jobs they were engaged in while in Bulgaria. Pressed by the immediate need to earn a living, many took on low-skilled occupations, which confirms the findings of authors, who identified the downgrading of immigrant skills and brain waste (e.g., Batalova, Fix, & Creticos, 2008). Many of the Bulgarian immigrants said that when one comes to America, he/she needs to start at zero. However, although these

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Bulgarian immigrants felt that they had to start at zero by obtaining jobs in low-skilled occupations, they still had higher goals for themselves.

Changes on the Cultural Level

Berry (1991) stated that changes on the cultural level include linguistic, religious, or educational shifts. One of the first things some of the Bulgarian immigrants considered was learning the English language. They enrolled in courses to improve their language skills and later entered the U.S. higher education system. Some of the participants shared that they experienced additional stress from the demands of the new educational system, together with the necessity of going to work. Furthermore, it is important that immigrants are aware of differences in cultural norms and environments with respect to work in their home and host countries (Yakushko et al., 2008). During his first job experiences in the U.S., while working for a large U.S. corporation, Vasil learned about the organizational system of work in the U.S. Another participant in the study, Bisera, advised her immigrant clients to watch American movies as a way to learn the English language and ease the adjustment to the foreign life.

Changes on the Social Level

By coming to the U.S., immigrants' relations with members of their families and communities are often negatively affected (Yakushko et al., 2008). For these Bulgarian immigrants, social changes included losing old relations and being exposed to new kinds of relationships at work. For some of the younger immigrants, the social changes included being part of an organizational hierarchical structure and having supervisors or managers.

Changes on the Psychological Level

Berry (1991) noted that on the psychological level, changes in values, identities, abilities, and motives may occur. The acculturation construct is multidimensional, involving change across multiple levels. It is assumed that the dominant group initiates a change in the acculturative group. Chiswick and Miller (1995) discussed incentives to learn the dominant language in the immigrants' host country because they could have a better job. The Bulgarian immigrants in this study considered the incentives, including attending English language classes and continuing their education opportunities. Some of them expressed higher levels of motivation to make changes and succeed. Some of the immigrants in this study shared how they changed their motivation to understand different aspects of life in the U.S. For example, Boyana who was once a traditional-age student in Bulgaria became a non-traditional student in the U.S. When coming to the U.S. in her 50s, she realized that she needed to study again to succeed, and according to her, this was not the usual age people pursued formal education. However, once making the decision to enroll in a higher degree program in the U.S., Boyana was persistent because she wanted to succeed in her new life. To achieve her goal, she needed to complete her program of study. Boyana found strength she did not know she had and completed it within the two-year time frame she wanted. Similar to Boyana, Vesela also considered

becoming a non-traditional student. She was a single parent and wanted to study to better provide for her child.

To conclude, upon coming to the United States, the Bulgarian immigrants in this study experienced a different language and culture in their host country. In addition, the initial lack of recognition of their credentials forced many of them to take low-skilled jobs. However, they successfully adapted over time by improving their English language skills and continuing their education. In addition, they continued learning and fulfilling requirements in the local labor market so they could eventually obtain the more high-skilled jobs they desired. These Bulgarian immigrants took different career paths toward achieving their goals and aspirations. However, being highly motivated, hard-working, and persistent individuals, they not only persevered and survived, but they also said they felt successful doing their jobs in their new environment.

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PRESERVING THE SOCIAL COHESIVENESS AND LIFELONG LEARNING MISSION OF SCOTLAND'S PUBLIC LIBRARIES: EVALUATING THE SCOTTISH NATIONAL LIBRARY STRATEGY THROUGH THE CAPABILITIES APPROACH

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ABSTRACT: The following paper is based on my master's degree thesis written as a graduate student at the University of Glasgow from 2014-2015 titled, "Preserving the Social Cohesiveness and Lifelong Educational Mission of Public Libraries in Times of Austerity: Assessing the Potential of the Scottish National Library Strategy through the Capabilities Approach." The purpose of my research is to understand how austerity policies have weakened and compromised the public library service in Scotland. In June 2015, the first Scottish national library strategy for public libraries was issued. Entitled, Ambition & Opportunity: A Strategy for Public Libraries in Scotland 2015-2020, was released as a policy response to ongoing austerity cuts in public services from the UK government. My research is a literature-based analysis of the new strategy using Martha Nussbaum's interpretation of the Capabilities Approach as a theoretical framework in which to examine and evaluate the policy's strategic aims and recommendations. In carrying out my research, I identified those central capabilities which I thought best corresponded to each of the strategic aims outlined in the Scottish national library strategy. Also, I used various examples of public library programs and initiatives (in Scotland and elsewhere) to help illustrate the links between the strategic aims and central capabilities. Throughout my analysis, I define public libraries as a vital community and social service that provides lifelong learning opportunities, social and community cohesion, adult and family literacy, and other innumerable benefits to the communities they serve.

Keywords: Scottish public libraries, lifelong learning, social cohesion, capabilities approach, austerity, public library policy

Public libraries are important to the communities they serve, especially as centers for lifelong learning, community development, social cohesion, and the preservation of local history and culture. Scotland's public libraries have been offering these services and more to communities across the country for more than 150 years (Aitken, 1971; SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). Since the conservatives came to power in 2010, austerity cuts to public and social services have served as the government's main strategy for stabilizing the British economy after the global economic crisis in 2008 (Sparrow, 2015). Because of this policy, public libraries have become increasingly easy targets for cuts as local governments across the Union seek to balance their budgets and provide essential services to their communities (CIPFA, 2014a; 2014b). Austerity cuts to public libraries include not only slashing and limiting operating hours, hiring freezes, staff layoffs, eliminating funds for new materials, but also the closure of community libraries altogether (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). In comparison, Scotland's public libraries have fared much better than the rest of the UK. Part of this can be attributed to Scotland's more liberal, devolved government which shows more support for public and social services than the national government based in London (SLIC and Carnegie UK

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Trust, 2015). When I wrote my thesis, I used available statistical information on public libraries from the Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy (CIPFA) from 2009-2014. This data were striking in that they revealed cause for concern regarding public libraries across the UK. The statistics indicated significant decline in the number of public libraries operating in the Union from 4,482 down to 4,145 (CIPFA, 2014a). In total, 337 libraries were closed across the UK. Out of this figure, Scotland lost 17 brick and mortar libraries and 12 mobile library services (CIPFA, 2014a; 2014b; Public Libraries News, 2015). Since then, data for 2014-2015 have become available and the picture continues to look discouraging. According to CIPFA, 228 libraries closed their doors bringing the total number of libraries across the UK down to 3,917 (CIPFA, 2015). My research is a literature-based study that strives to illustrate the contributions that public libraries make to the communities they serve. Contextualized in Scotland, my thesis research serves as a contribution to the growing body of knowledge pertaining to the effects of austerity cuts to public services.

Objective, Rationale, and Method of Research

The objective of my research is to understand how ongoing austerity cuts weaken the ability of Scottish public libraries to carry out their lifelong educational and social mission. I carried out a literature-based study analyzing the Scottish national library strategy, its strategic aims and recommendations, using Martha Nussbaum's (2003; 2009) expanded definition of the Capabilities Approach as a theoretical framework in which to base my research study. To do this, I used specific real-life examples of public library initiatives to relate the policy document's strategic aims with the central capabilities that compose the Capabilities Approach. As a literature based study, the process for collecting information, resources, and literature involved several steps. I worked closely with my thesis supervisor Dr. Bonnie Slade and University of Glasgow librarian Ms. Honor Hania to help me with initiating an initial keyword database search and to obtain background information to provide me with context of the overall situation facing Scottish public libraries. Using NEXUS, I was able to pull more than one hundred brief newspaper articles pertaining to cuts in public library service provision, including cuts to branch operating hours and staff, closings, and proposed closures of branch libraries across Scotland. Afterwards, I used other databases, including ProQuest, LISA, EBSCO HOST, Gale Research, and more to expand my search for articles providing general and background information concerning public libraries, as well as for research studies relevant to adult education and the Capabilities Approach. Additionally, I used the university's inter-library loan service to order books about public library policies, services, and programs.

Furthermore, I attended the annual conference of the Chartered Institute of Library and Information Science Professionals for Scotland (CILIPS) that took place in Dundee from June 1st-2nd 2015. At the conference, I was introduced to a UK wide public library advocacy website called Public Libraries News which provides an online archive of news reports about the status of public libraries, including notices of closings, proposed closures, cuts in staff and operating hours, and other administrative reorganizing of libraries (CILIPS, 2015a; Public Libraries News, 2015). Although the website focuses

mainly on library developments in the UK, it occasionally features news and information about libraries in other countries. Next, I conducted an online search for demographic information about Scotland and Scottish public libraries. Additionally, I contacted all thirty-two local councils as well as library professional associations by email and telephone to make inquiries regarding freedom of information requests in order to obtain historical budget and statistical data for public libraries going back the last five years. In particular, the Inverclyde Council Libraries was immensely helpful to my search for information by providing me with electronic copies of the annual statistical reports (from 2009-2014) published by the Chartered Institute of Finance and Public Accountancy (CIPFA). To mention, CIPFA is the main professional and accrediting organization that represents the public finance sector across the UK. It conducts annual performance reviews and publishes statistical reports about public services nationwide, including public libraries (CIPFA, 2010; 2012; 2014a; 2014b). Finally, I contacted the Scottish Library and Information Council to request a copy of the national library strategy. These were the steps I took to collect literature and information for my research.

Theoretical Framework: The Capabilities Approach

Martha Nussbaum further expanded its definition by developing a list of ten central capabilities (entitlements) that all countries must work towards providing their citizens (Nussbaum, 2003, 2009; Robeyns, 2006). Nussbaum refers to the Capabilities Approach as a "partial theory for social justice" because she considers it an evolving, conceptual theory that she may expand upon as she sees appropriate (Nussbaum, 2003; 2009). As a partial social justice theory, the Capabilities Approach offers an alternative perspective and framework in which to assess and evaluate a country's development, growth, and progress. Its crux rests on the idea that the goal of national development should be guaranteeing citizens the rights and opportunities to reach their full potential and that conditions should be such that it makes it possible for individuals to thrive and have a healthy, fulfilling life. Furthermore, it recognizes the role of women play in society and within the formal and informal economy (2003). The ten central capabilities serve two purposes. One, is as a list of rights and entitlements. Two, they also represent a set of outcomes that could result when individuals are able to fully develop their talents, abilities, and reach their highest potential (Nussbaum, 2003, 2009). With that, here are the ten central capabilities provided directly by verbatim (Nussbaum, 2003, pp. 41-42).

1. **Life-**being able to live to the end of a human life of normal length; not dying prematurely, or before one's life is so reduced as to be not worth living.

2. **Bodily health-**being able to have good health, including reproductive health; to be adequately nourished; to have adequate shelter.

3. **Bodily integrity-**being able to move freely from place to place; to be secure against violent assault, including sexual assault and domestic violence; having opportunities for sexual satisfaction and for choice in matters of reproduction.

4. **Senses, imagination, and thought**-being able to use the senses, to imagine, think, and reason and to do these things in a "truly human" way, a way informed and cultivated by an adequate education, including, but by no means limited to, literacy and basic mathematical and scientific training. Being able to use imagination and thought in connection with experiencing and producing works and events of one's own choice, religious, literary, musical, and so forth. Being able to use one's mind in ways protected by guarantees of freedom of expression with respect to both political and artistic speech, and freedom of religious exercise. Being able to have pleasurable experiences and to avoid non-beneficial pain.

5. **Emotions**-being able to have attachments to things and people outside ourselves; to love those who love and care for us, to grieve at their absence; in general, to love, to grieve, to experience longing, gratitude, and justified anger. (Supporting this capability means supporting forms of human association that can be shown to be crucial in their development.)

6. **Practical reason**-being able to form a conception of the good and to engage in critical reflection about the planning of one's life. (This entails protection for the liberty of conscience and religious observance.)

7. **Affiliation**-being able to live with and toward others, to recognize and show concern for other human beings, to engage in various forms of social interaction; to be able to imagine the situation of another. (Protecting this capability means protecting institutions that constitute and nourish such forms of affiliation, and also protecting the freedom of assembly and political speech.)

8. **Other species**-being able to live with concern for and in relation to animals, plants, and the world of nature.

9. **Play**-being able to laugh, to play, to enjoy recreational activities.

10. **Control over one's environment:** (a) Political-being able to participate effectively in political choices that govern one's life; having the right of political participation, protections of free speech and association, (b) Material-being able to hold property (both land and movable goods), and having property rights on an equal basis with others; having the freedom from unwarranted search and seizure. In work, [that means] being able to work as a human being, exercising practical reason, and entering into meaningful relationships of mutual recognition with other workers.

I chose the Capabilities Approach as my theoretical framework for this research, because I think it complements the overall social justice ethos of the fields of adult education and lifelong learning (Jarvis, 2006, 2008; Knowles, 1972). As an evolving social justice theory, it offers an alternative perspective in which to analyze and evaluate a variety of social, economic, political, and public policy issues through its focus on essential aspects of an individual's human development, including one's physical, emotional, mental, spiritual, intellectual, social, economic, and political development. Furthermore, as

centers and resources for lifelong learning, adult education, and community development, public libraries play a contributory role in helping individuals and communities develop awareness of the central capabilities. Libraries offer a variety of adult learning opportunities, such as literacy classes, ESL classes, special interest topical classes, as well as host a special community and cultural events that enrich adult and lifelong learning and much more (Edwards, Robinson, & Unger, 2013).

Summative Analysis I: The Strategic Aims correlate to The Capabilities Approach

Ambition & Opportunity: A Strategy for Public Libraries in Scotland 2015-2020 is a response to austerity policies and attempts to define the role of public libraries as essential, invaluable community resources. The strategy was written as a collaborative effort by SLIC, the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA), the Carnegie UK Trust, and the Scottish Government. The strategy consists of six strategic aims that correspond with the Scottish Government's plan for national development. At this point, the remainder of my paper is devoted to summarizing how I analyzed the strategy using the Capabilities Approach. To do this, I identified those central capabilities which I thought best corresponded to each of the strategic aims, and, in addition, used various examples of public library programs and initiatives (in Scotland and elsewhere) to illustrate the links between the strategic aims and central capabilities. The text of each strategic aim is provided directly by verbatim from the strategic document (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015).

1. **Libraries promoting reading, literacy and lifelong learning**- Public libraries Scotland promote education and learning for all, develop a culture of reading for pleasure, offer support for everyone from early years to older people, and enable people to make informed choices (p. 14).

    This strategic aim sums up what public libraries are all about. As places that offer non-formal education and information services, libraries offer a wide variety of programs, reference and reading materials for patrons of all ages and backgrounds, and they are actively engaged with the communities in which they serve. As articulated and described by the titles of the chapters in Edwards et al. (2013), libraries as serving key educational, social, and cultural roles in communities as "centres for civic action, centres for diverse populations, centres for arts, universities for the community, and champions for youth" (pp. 133, 146, 161, 175, 189, 199, 209). Therefore, these strategic aims closely correspond to the fourth, sixth, and tenth central capabilities pertaining to senses, imagination and thought, practical reason, and control over one's environment (Nussbaum, 2003). An illustrative example that is pertinent to this strategic aim is the Welcome Centre at the New York Queen's Library. The Welcome Centre offers a variety of adult learning programs, including ESL courses, GED prep courses, and adult basic education courses for adult learners with little to no literacy skills. Other courses offered include family literacy courses, foreign language literacy courses for native speakers with little to no literacy skills in their native language (Muphy & Clark, 2013).

2. **Libraries promoting digital inclusion**- Public libraries in Scotland make the best use of digital technologies to deliver high quality, efficient and responsive services, enabling access to information and services wherever and whenever citizens want them (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p. 18).

   Libraries were amongst the first institutions to embrace technological innovation, and they are making efforts to coexist alongside ever changing information technology despite smaller budgets and limited resources. Therefore, this strategic aim closely corresponds to the fourth, seventh, and tenth central capabilities related to senses, imagination and thought, affiliation, and control over one's environment (Nussbaum, 2003). An example that highlights this strategic aim and is relevant to adult education and lifelong learning is the introductory tutor-led computer courses available through Glasgow public libraries. The Glasgow libraries offer two types of introductory courses. One course is for learners with very little or no experience with using computers (Glasgow Life, 2014). Courses run for two hours each over five weeks and cover computer basics and introduction to using the internet. The second course is for learners with some knowledge of computers but who need to refresh and update their skills. These courses run for two hours over four weeks and cover computer basics, such as using email, preparing a resume on Microsoft Word, and learning to conduct a job search online (Glasgow Life, 2014).

3. **Libraries promoting economic wellbeing**- Public libraries in Scotland contribute to Scotland's economic wellbeing, supporting jobseekers, offering courses in digital skills, language courses, and support for small businesses (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.22).

   Public libraries are free public services that are invested in the communities in which they are situated (Edwards, et al., 2013; McMenemy, 2009). During these difficult and uncertain economic times, public libraries have continued to enrich and preserve communities (Dudley, 2013; Edwards, et al., 2013). They contribute and preserve communities through their advisory and information services, non-formal educational programs, as well as their links with local stakeholders, such as local governments, emergency assistance organizations, charitable organization, and knowledge of major employers and job search resources (Dudley, 2013; Edwards, et al., 2013). For the most part, this strategic aim corresponds with the tenth central capability. To note, the tenth central capability consists of two parts: The first part pertains to an individual's basic civil and political rights and freedoms, while the second part refers to an individual's economic rights and freedoms (Nussbaum, 2003). Therefore, this strategic aim relates to the second part of the tenth central capability since it pertains to economic development. An example that illustrates this part of the tenth central capability is the Edinburgh Libraries' business hubs (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). These business hubs offer free IT classes and technical assistance for small businesses and internet start-ups (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). More than 2,150 people interested in starting a small business have attended approximately 174 workshops since the library system started offering this service in 2010 (SLIC &Carnegie UK Trust, 2015).

4. **Libraries promoting social wellbeing**- Public libraries in Scotland contribute to social wellbeing, tackling social isolation, inequality, disadvantage, fractured communities and ill health (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.25).

This strategic aim reiterates the essential function of public libraries as a free community service and social good and closely corresponds to the seventh central capability pertaining to affiliation (Nussbaum, 2003). The Scottish national library strategy identifies five ways libraries contribute to developing community and societal cohesiveness by responding to the social needs of individuals and groups in their communities. The strategy also includes developing activities and programs to respond to particular needs; making library space and support available for community interest groups and members of the community looking to support one another. It further includes contributing to the ability of individuals to become involved in their local communities and take part in local and national life; strengthening the identity and sense of community, and creating a public service hub for the delivery of a range of public services (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p. 25, verbatim). Innovative, original library programs, such as adult literacy classes, children's story times, summer reading contests, book clubs, as well as library collaborations with local charitable organizations and social service agencies all help to build and unite communities and provide a sense of social cohesiveness. Additionally, libraries provide numerous opportunities to volunteer. Library volunteers help libraries carry out their daily tasks and services. Volunteering at the library helps individuals develop marketable and transferrable job skills, such as organization, time management, multi-tasking, customer service, interpersonal communication skills, and more. Above all, volunteering, at a library or elsewhere, helps ease social isolation by enabling one to feel included and belonging as a member of society.

5. **Libraries promoting culture and creativity**- Public libraries in Scotland promote their role as cultural centres, inspiring people through books and literature, music, film, and theatre, and encourage creativity (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p. 30).

Furthermore, in addition to their mission as providers of lifelong learning and information services, public libraries also act as preservers of local history and culture. Hence, promoting culture and creativity is an inherent part of their mandate and commission to communities. Public libraries hold special collections of local history and cultural resources, as well as archive local government documents for public access. Moreover, library staff research literature, fine arts, practical arts, performing arts, science, and more and use this knowledge to design programs that educate and engage patrons of all ages and diverse backgrounds. They collaborate with local artists, theatre groups, musicians, and other professionals to enhance learning, literacy, and foster a love of reading. In turn, this strategic aim closely corresponds to the fourth and ninth central capabilities relating to senses, imagination, thought, and play (Nussbaum, 2003). There exist abundant examples of such

programs; however, one example is the Dumfries and Galloway Public Libraries' oral history project on the Lockerbie Disaster which seeks to interview and record the memories of eyewitnesses to the tragedy (SLIC & Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p. 31).

6. **Libraries as excellent public services**- Public libraries must be supported to continuously improve their services (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, p. 33).

This is strategic aim is the crux of the national strategy and sums up what it takes to keep libraries alive. That is, they need full financial and material support in order to continue their mission and serving communities. When given proper support, public libraries are able to fulfill their educational and social development missions, including playing a vital role in helping individuals, communities, and countries achieve the central capabilities. The next part of my summative analysis looks at the big picture so to speak, which is how the national library strategy recommends implementing the strategic aims. As the reader will note, the recommendations plainly express the need for continuous, reliable support, both financially, materially, and human resource wise. At the same time, the recommendations raise several issues for concern. I provide a brief explanation of these issues in the next section.

Summative Analysis II: Recommendations and Issues for Concern

The Scottish national library strategy provides recommendations for achieving the strategic aims (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). In sum, the recommendations plainly express the need for continuous, reliable financial, material, and human resources support. At the same time, some of the recommendations raise some important issues for concern which could pose potential and real affects upon the social development and lifelong learning mission of public libraries. These issues include the consolidation of public services, encroachment of commercialization and corporatizing of library services through the extensive use of performance metrics, and risks to patron privacy and freedom of information (McMenemy, 2009; McMenemy & Rooney-Browne, 2010). Table 1 outlines the Scottish national library strategy's recommendations. The text is verbatim (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, pp. 6-7).

Among the recommendations that I believe raise issues for concern are those relating to the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth strategic aims. For example, two of the recommendations for achieving the third strategic aim are concerning because they suggest possible consolidation of public services, such as libraries, job centers, social services, and creating business partnerships. While consolidating services may help them survive during the current state of economic affairs, following through with these recommendations, without proper planning and oversight, would undoubtedly place libraries in conflict with their overall mission as free, impartial spaces for study, research, non-formal learning, and social cohesiveness. Moreover, these two recommendations would likely have potential conflict with public libraries' standards and professional ethics which guarantee patron confidentiality and privacy (McMenemy, 2009; McMenemy & Rooney- Browne, 2010).

Table 1

Scottish National Library Strategy: Recommendations

Strategic Aim	Recommended Actions
1. Libraries promoting reading, literacy and learning	• Ensure access to library services for all citizens using new technology. • Develop and promote the core offer from public libraries in Scotland.
2. Libraries promoting digital inclusion	• Develop Scotland-wide digital access resources. • Ensure WiFi is available and accessible in all public libraries.
3. Libraries promoting economic wellbeing	• Develop national, regional and local partnerships with advice services, job centres and enterprise organisations. • Mainstream activities to improve STEM skills in young children. • Test and replicate a model of public libraries providing co-working spaces for small businesses.
4. Libraries promoting social wellbeing	• Create strong national, regional and local partnerships with all public services and community planning partners. • Share best practice on how to create effective and accessible public service or community hubs. • Build on current practice to become champions of community engagement and empowerment. • Develop guidelines on the appropriate use of volunteers to bring added value to services.
5. Libraries promoting culture and creativity	• Develop and strengthen national, regional and local partnerships with arts and culture organisations. • Pilot a collaborative venture to provide access to eBooks from Scottish publishers. • Support librarians to become effective voices for freedom of information and expression.
6. Libraries as excellent public services	• Continue to develop methods for reporting on the impact and outcomes of library activities through *How Good is our Public Library Service?* (HGIOPLS). • Develop and implement a learning and development programme for all library staff. • Explore alternative approaches to generating financial investment. • Engage proactively with models for efficient procurement of goods and services at national level.

Source: SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, pp. 6-7

In addition, three recommendations that accompany the fourth strategic aim raise issues for concern. Further clarification is needed, because, again, these recommendations may or may not suggest possible consolidation of libraries with other public and community services. In reality, consolidation of services is already underway in some parts of Scotland. The national strategy mentions that Aberdeenshire, Fife, the Highlands, and Perth and Kinross councils are already piloting "community hubs" (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.27). Moreover, another issue for concern is whether or not combining and consolidating libraries with other public services will detract from public libraries' overall mission as centers for lifelong learning and social development and their intended use as spaces for study, research, and preservation of local culture and history (McMenemy, 2009; McMenemy & Rooney-Browne, 2010). Also, another recommendation for the fourth strategic aim that raises concern is the use of volunteers (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.25). There is good reason to mention this issue, because citizens across the UK and elsewhere value their public libraries. In the case of the UK, hundreds of community volunteers in England and Wales have taken over the operation of dozens of public libraries in more than seventy districts as a last resort to saving library services in their respective communities (Public Libraries News, 2015; SLIC, 2015). In Scotland, so far, there is just one library within Moray Council that is currently being run by volunteers (SLIC, 2015).

Furthermore, with regard to the fourth strategic aim, the national library strategy indirectly exposes another worrisome issue concerning libraries in Scotland and the rest of the UK, which is the increasing closure of school libraries (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.27). For example, within Scotland, Falkirk Council decided in January 2015 to eliminate its school library service to save £325,000 (approximately $432,000) (Eyre, 2015). This year, East Renfrewshire Council will be eliminating half of its school libraries to save about £130,000 (approximately $172,828) (CILIPS, 2015b; Hepburn, 2014). As austerity cuts continue to expand across Scotland and the rest of the UK, perhaps, consolidating public and school libraries might be another possible means to save these important services.

Moreover, I believe there are issues for concern associated with the recommendations pertaining to the fifth and sixth strategic aims. These recommendations raise an important issue regarding patron privacy, confidentiality, and access to freedom of information in the digital age. It is easy to take it for granted how much of our daily lives have become digitized, and when you stop to think about it, many internet tools, such as online banking, online library renewal systems, and online shopping, certainly make our lives more convenient and help us save time. At the same time, however, we do pay a price for having the conveniences that digitization offers, particularly the loss of personal privacy (McMenemy, 2009; McMenemy & Rooney-Browne, 2010; Palfrey, 2015; Usherwood, 2007). Moreover, to make matters even more complicated are ever-changing national and international security laws introduced in the wake of 9/11 terrorists attacks in the U.S. that make it perfectly legal for the government to track citizens' online activity and cell phone calls. These laws and others make it difficult for public libraries to continue ensuring patron privacy and access to freedom of information.

Finally, the sixth strategic aim and its corresponding recommendations are most revealing of the increasingly precarious situation facing public libraries in Scotland--which is, without financial, material, human resources, and community support, libraries will continue to face a difficult, uncertain future. Without essential investments in staffing, building construction and renovation, ICT infrastructure, learning and studying spaces, and collection development, public libraries cannot fulfill their public service mission as community resources and centers for lifelong learning, social development, and promoting community. In the face of an indifferent, careless political and economic system and largely concurring society that insist austerity cuts are the way forward; public libraries really have no choice but to find alternative sources of funding if they are to survive (SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015, p.33). The issues that these recommendations generate are numerous. Still, in the course of trying to raise funds and seeking a steady source of revenue, one wonders whether or not this detracts libraries from their original intended purpose as places for study, research, and community (Jerrard, Bolt, & Strege , 2012; McMenemy, 2009; McMenemy & Rooney-Browne, 2010; Usherwood, 2007). In sum, these issues for concern are real, and they are the potential trade-offs, the costs, individuals and communities will have to pay in order to sustain and support libraries for the foreseeable future.

Yet, despite these increasingly difficult circumstances, there may be a way to mitigate these issues for concern and prevent them from having a negative effect on public libraries. One way is to suggest that public libraries seriously consider applying the principles of the Capabilities Approach to carefully and strategically plan how they will carry out the recommendations provided in the Scottish national library strategy. For example, as regards consolidation of public services and creating partnerships with business, libraries could be more selective by choosing potential services and partnerships whose organization complements and is simpatico with the principles of the fourth and ninth central capabilities pertaining to the development of an individual's senses, imagination, thought, and sense of fun (Nussbaum, 2003). An example of a potential partnerships could be a library leasing meeting room space to a tutoring service. By making use of the Capabilities Approach in this way, public libraries would continue to be in sync with their original purpose and mission as centers and resources for lifelong learning, spaces for community cohesiveness, and preservers of local history and culture. Another way libraries can use the Capabilities Approach is to use it in helping make decisions regarding the best use of volunteers. Volunteers provide an invaluable service to public libraries and their generosity and willingness to help and assist should not be taken unfair advantage of, especially as replacements for paid, professional staff (SLIC, 2015).

Closing Thoughts

Most certainly, the process of researching and writing raised more questions than it was able to answer. In short, more in depth research needs to be done, including more news and media coverage featuring public libraries and the effects of austerity policies on the ability of libraries to continue serving communities in Scotland and elsewhere. This issue is important and it deserves more coverage in both academic and journalistic spheres in

order to affect positive change on public policies pertaining to public services, especially public libraries. The following are questions that can be used as a starting point for developing further research of public policies pertaining to public libraries.

1. Case study: Could applying principles of the Capabilities Approach help better inform the implementation of the national library strategy's recommendations with respect to the purpose and mission of public libraries as centers for lifelong learning and community?

2. Would requiring libraries to generate their own revenue affect the quality of services?

3. Libraries are increasingly challenged to "prove their worth." However, evaluative metrics are not applied in the same way to other public services, such as unemployment benefits, disability benefits, food stamps, rubbish collections, and more. Are public libraries being unfairly singled out for scrutiny?

4. Will libraries be able to sustain constant changes in ICTs and digital entertainment to keep up with competition? What are they exactly competing with? It seems like they will have to "compete" with all types of media. How is this relevant to the purpose and mission of public libraries as centers and resources for lifelong learning and spaces for study, research, and community cohesiveness?

In writing this conference paper, I sought to share my research about public libraries in Scotland and to fervently declare that public libraries are important and essential community resources. They make an invaluable contribution to the communities they serve. With the current conservative government in London, austerity policies will continue wreaking havoc on public service budgets, including libraries. For the most part, Scotland has managed to avoid massive closings of public libraries that have befallen England and Wales (CIPFA, 2014a; Public Libraries News, 2015; SLIC and Carnegie UK Trust, 2015). Still, the conservative government is slated to hold power until the next election cycle in 2020. Anything can happen between now and then. In June 2015, SLIC, the Carnegie UK Trust, the Scottish Government, and COSLA together issued the first national strategy for Scotland's public libraries entitled *Ambition & Opportunity: A Strategy for Public Libraries in Scotland 2015-2020* as a policy response to current austerity cuts. Using Martha Nussbaum's expanded definition of the Capabilities Approach, a conceptual and evolving theory for social justice (Nussbaum, 2003, 2009), as my guiding theoretical framework, I analyzed the national library strategy's strategic aims and recommendations to evaluate the document's potential to preserve public libraries, their mission, and purpose as centers for lifelong learning and spaces for social cohesion.

Moreover, I conducted desk research to locate as much wide-ranging information about public libraries in Scotland in which to provide context for my study. Also, I attended the annual CILIPS Conference in Dundee in June 2015 to gain a better understanding of how austerity policies have been affecting Scottish public libraries. In utilizing the Capabilities Approach to analyze the national library strategy, my intention was to

present an alternative perspective to evaluating and determining the intrinsic value of Scotland's public libraries as opposed to the more commonly used neo-liberal economic and performance metrics that are only concerned with the bottom line and emphasizing super efficiency. Additionally, the Capabilities Approach is simpatico with the overall social justice ethos that lies at the core of adult and community education. Finally, my goal in conducting this literature-based study is to help contribute to the growing body of research using the Capabilities Approach; however, with a focus on lifelong learning and public libraries. Concomitantly, this research also helps contribute to filling a knowledge regarding the effects of persistent austerity policies on Scottish public libraries.

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FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH INTERNATIONAL GRADUATE STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN THE FIRST SEMESTER AND THE SUBSEQUENT SEMESTER IN THE U.S.

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ABSTRACT: The purpose of this study was to identify differences that impact international graduate student performance in the first semester compared to the subsequent semesters. This study was a qualitative study focused on the factors associated with international graduate student academic performance between the first semester and their subsequent semesters in the U.S. For the purpose of this study, a 30-minute interview was conducted with international graduate students from the USF Tampa and Sarasota campuses. In total, 19 international graduate students were interviewed from a variety of ethnicities and from the College of Education and the College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership. In their first semester, international graduate students were generally motivated to get a degree in the U.S., had passion to study in their academic field in the U.S., had to meet family expectations, and had government scholarship/graduate/teaching assistantship responsibilities. However, they often had problems with language, unfamiliar social environment/culture shock, homesickness, financial problems, and transportation in their first semester. The majority of international graduate students successfully dealt with the main problems (language, culture shock, and transportation); however, homesickness and financial issues were still major concerns for them. More financial support could bring more success to international graduate students. International graduate students who earned under $20,000 reported a negative effect on their overall academic performance due to financial stressors.

Keywords: International students, graduate study, academic achievement, challenges, motivation

Many international students travel around the world and are pursuing higher education at universities outside their own countries. Research has shown that the United States (U.S.) is one of the most preferred countries for international students to pursue higher education (Lillyman & Bennett, 2014). In addition, according to the Institute of International Education (IIE) *Open Doors Report* (2015), there is an increased tendency for international students to study in the U.S. While the number of international students enrolled at U.S. colleges was 572,509 in the academic year 2003/2004, it had reached 974,926 international students in the academic year 2014/2015. This was a 10% increase during the 2013-2014 academic year. Moreover, out of 974,926 international students enrolled in the academic year 2014/2015, 362,228 of them were enrolled in a graduate program (IIE, 2015). This number accounted for 37% of the total international students.

Although many international students prefer to study in the U.S., international students may encounter problems from the application process through graduation. According to Lee and Rice (2007), **"**students coming to the U.S. may encounter difficulties beginning

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as early as obtaining permission to pursue education" (p. 385). Living abroad is itself a challenge for many people. When adding the pressures of learning in a foreign language in the study abroad process, it becomes very difficult for international students to handle the stresses of their daily life (Greenfield, Johnston, & Williams, 1986). Therefore, although international students excel academically in their native country, the majority of them tend to have challenges or fail in their first semester of study in the U.S. (Pedersen, 1991).

Literature Review

Mamiseishvili (2012) states that "no matter how prepared international students are academically, how proficient they are in English, or how familiar they are with U.S. cultural norms, they still face unique challenges to succeed in a foreign environment away from friends, family, and familiar surroundings" (p. 2). Challenges that international students face have included social and community issues, cultural differences (Lee & Rice, 2007), language barriers (Andrade, 2006), homesickness, financial problems (Kaczmarek, Matlock, Merta, Ames, & Ross, 1994), and a new educational system (Hellstén & Prescott, 2004), which are some of the most important challenges. These are some of the many factors that international students face in their pursuit of higher education in the U.S. Therefore, academic failure and/or a performance gap for international students can be attributed to many of these factors.

The majority of the literature based on international students is focused on adjustment issues (Andrade, 2006; Poyrazli, Arbona, Bullington, & Pisecco, 2001; Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2002; Zhang & Goodson, 2011), culture (Lee & Rice, 2007; Olaniran, 1996; Zimmermann, 1995), coping styles and strategies (Bailey & Dua, 1999; Moore & Constantine, 2005), engagement in educational practices (Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005), and social interactions (Leask, 2009; Trice, 2004). Also, there is much research on international students' academic achievement and the difficulties that international students encounter during their studies. Most of these researchers have focused on the relationship between English language proficiency and students' academic achievement (Andrade, 2006, 2009; Stoynoff, 1997). However, the question of whether international student performance improves over time or not (from the first semester in U.S. to subsequent semesters) and what impacts them during this period has not been studied. There has been a lack of research on whether there was an academic performance difference between the first semester and subsequent semesters of international graduate students. The purpose of this study was to identify differences that impact international graduate student performance in the first semester compared to the subsequent semesters. Therefore, this study addressed the gap in the literature and provided a small examination of differences that impact international graduate student performance.

Research Goals

The research objectives of this study were: to determine the factors of academic performance between the first and subsequent semesters of international graduate students, to determine whether or not concerns listed by international graduate students

affect the performance of international graduate students between their first and subsequent semesters, and to determine if there was an academic improvement between the first and subsequent semesters for international graduate students.

Methods

This study was a qualitative inquiry, focused on the factors associated with international graduate student academic performance between the first semester and their subsequent semesters in the U.S. After intensive research on international student factors related to academic performance, interview questions were prepared for the international graduate students. The interview questions were pre-tested with some international graduate students who had been in the U.S. before and, according to their feedback from the interview; the questions were re-worded and/or refined. The 30-minute interview was given to international graduate students from the University of South Florida (USF) Tampa campus and the USF Sarasota campus where there were 9,550 graduate students, 2,100 international students, and more than 150 countries represented. In total, 19 international graduate students were interviewed. Since international graduate students' academic performance between the first semester and their subsequent semesters in the U.S. was the aim of the research, only international graduate students who had been in their degree programs for at least two semesters were interviewed. All the interviews were transcribed and interpreted.

Limitations

Among the limitations of this study was the sample size, which was small; hence, larger studies might confirm these results. In addition, the results of this study may not be generalized beyond the represented countries. Furthermore, the results of this study may not be generalized beyond the international graduate students from USF. Another limitation was that the sample size of this study did not include any international graduate students who lived on-campus; thus, the results may not be generalized beyond them. In addition, students who were self-funded while enrolled at the university were not equally represented.

Findings

Of the 19 interviewees, three students were from Saudi Arabia, one student was Albanian, two students were Chinese, one student was Indian, one student was Lebanese, one student was Palestinian, one student was Syrian, eight students were Turkish, and one student was Vietnamese. All of the participants in this study were living off-campus. Seven students were female and 12 students were male. Eight were 23-27 years old, seven of them were 28-32 years old, two were 33-37 years old, one was 38-42 years old and one was over 48 years. Six of the international graduate students interviewed had not been to the U.S. prior to their graduate degree program, seven had been in the U.S. only a year, four spent two years prior to their graduate degree program, one spent seven years, and one spent 18 years in the U.S. prior to the graduate degree program. Of the participants, six students were pursuing their master's degree programs and 13 their

doctoral degree programs. Graduate degree programs of the studied sample included Hospitality Management ($n = 7$), Adult Education ($n = 4$), Special Education ($n = 3$), Instructional Technology ($n = 2$), TESOL ($n = 2$), and Early Childhood Education ($n = 1$).

Of the participants, eight had an income of $19,999 or less, eight, an income of $20,000-$39,000, and three an income of $40,000-59,999. Regarding sources of income, three students were self-funded, eight had a scholarship from their government, and eight were funded through their graduate teaching assistantship. According to IIE (2015), among the international students 63.6% were personal (self) and family funded, 20.9% are U.S. college or university funded (graduate or teaching assistantship), and 7.7% foreign government or university funded. All other sources of funding (subsequent employment, foreign private sponsor, U.S. government, U.S. private sponsor, international organization and other sources) accounted for 7.9% in the academic year 2014/2015. As a result, three primary sources of funding for international students were represented in the study sample.

In their first semester, international graduate students are mostly motivated by (a) having a graduate degree from the U.S., (b) passion and intrinsic motivation to study their academic field in the U.S., (c) family expectations, (d) government scholarship/graduate/teaching assistantship responsibilities and accountability, and (e) academic expenses. On the other hand, in their first semester in the U.S., the obstacles/challenges international graduate students typically had during their first semester in the U.S. were: (a) language barriers, (b) unfamiliar social environment/culture shock, (c) homesickness, (d) financial problems, and (e) transportation.

The majority of the international graduate students ($n = 11$) did not have the same problems in their subsequent semesters as their first semester. They fixed these problems by (a) developing better fluency in English through hard work and a writing center, (b) having more native friends to help assist them in overcoming cultural shock and embracing cultural assimilation, and (c) buying a car or carpooling to alleviate transportation issues. Three students handled some of the problems, but they were still suffering from financial problems and homesickness. However, five international graduate students reported that they had the same obstacles/challenges in their subsequent semesters.

Although the majority of the interviewees ($n = 15$) had either a neighbor or roommate from their native country, more than half of them ($n = 8$) thought that having people from their country that they could associate with did not affect their academic performance. The main reasons for having neighbors from their country that they could associate with did not affect their academic performance were high self-esteem and intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, other international graduate students reported that they felt more comfortable, safer, emotionally better, more secure in their ability to help each other in classes, familiar with the environment, and they solved transportation issues by carpooling when they had a neighbor or roommate from their native country. Therefore,

they believed that having people from their country with whom they could associate affected their academic performance.

Except for two respondents, there was an overall improvement in academic performance among international graduate students between their first and subsequent semesters. The reasons for this were (a) getting comfortable with environment/social environment (friendship, culture, and food) and embracing cultural assimilation, (b) familiarity with the American higher education system including the teaching styles and assignments, and (c) developing better fluency while speaking English during their studies prior to their subsequent semesters. Two respondents reported that there was no change in their academic performance. When asked about the reason, both mentioned that they had a degree from a similar education system back in their home country.

Although the main three factors that influenced the overall academic performance of international graduate students were (a) language, (b) culture, and (c) financial problems, in regards to the GPAs of international graduate students in this study who were interviewed, five students said that there was no change in their GPAs, and the remaining ($n = 14$) said that their GPAs improved from their first semester to their subsequent semesters. In other words, none of the international graduate students reported struggling in their academic performance.

Conclusions

To summarize, international graduate students who spent at least two years in the U.S. before beginning their graduate degree reported better English language skills than those who began their degree programs with less time in the U.S. International graduate students who lived in the U.S. one year identified English language barriers, unfamiliar social environment, and cultural issues as their main obstacles. However, international graduate students who had not lived in the U.S. before entry into their graduate degree programs also mentioned language barriers and unfamiliar social environment as obstacles; in addition, culture shock and financial issues were problems. Therefore, spending at least two years before their graduate degree program in the U.S. might increase chances for academic success to international graduate students since many of these problems could be eliminated within a two-year period.

Moreover, from the first semester to subsequent semesters, international graduate students successfully dealt with the main problems (language barriers, culture shock, and transportation); however, homesickness and financial issues were still major concerns. In addition, more financial support could bring more success to international graduate students. International graduate students who earned under $20,000 reported a negative effect on their overall academic performance due to financial stressors, while those who earned $20,000 or more did not report a negative academic performance effect due to financial strain. Due to the limitations of this study, it was difficult to report a relationship between demographics (i.e., gender, age, cultural background), except for income and international graduate student academic performance.

Lastly, the international graduate students in this study reported obstacles that were consistent with results reported in the literature review. Major problems that were reported in this study were cultural differences/culture shock, language barriers, and financial problems.

Implications

- Most of the studies related to international student problems had reported language barriers similar to this study. However, this problem may be eliminated by an extended period time spent in U.S. prior to graduate studies.
- For best academic performance, financial aid allotted to international graduate students should exceed $20,000 per year. In this way, it may eliminate most of the financial stressors from the academic performance of international graduate students.
- Transportation was an issue because of the lack of a comprehensive transportation system in Florida. This problem may or may not be a problem in other cities or states.

Further Study

When considering further study regarding international graduate students, **t**his study may be replicated according to the country's economic or human development index such as that developed by the United Nations Development Programme (n.d.). In addition, this study may be replicated using larger cities in the U.S. due to a higher volume of international people, ease of transportation, and better financial opportunities. Another option could be to select locations that might be top U.S. cities for states hosting international graduate students. These top U.S. institutions might be a good option as a context to conduct additional research. This study could be replicated for students who live on campus or for comparison between on-campus and off-campus students. If the top places of origin of international graduate students were added as a future variable to study, it might provide a clearer picture of the impact of cultural differences. Furthermore, quantitative or mixed methods might be applied to collect more data.

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A FRAMEWORK FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN POSTSECONDARY U.S. ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

Valeriana Colón[1]

ABSTRACT: Postsecondary English language education is a growing field in the United States. While there has been considerable research on international student mobility in higher education, there is limited research on the population's participation in U.S. English language programs (ELPs). This study examined literature in related fields to create a conceptual framework for international student enrollment in U.S. postsecondary ELPs. By drawing on literature from international student mobility, global English language acquisition, enrollment preferences of students, English language programs, and student success in English language program, the study applies existing theories to better understand postsecondary English language program participation and creates a foundation for future studies. This research could be used in a discussion of the implications for the field of English language instruction to map out directions for future studies. Educators can reflect on the form and function of postsecondary U.S. English language programs.

Keywords: international student mobility, ESL, English language programs, enrollment

Lawyer, educator, and president of Columbia University, Lee Bollinger, made a passionate plea for diversity in all of higher education (Bollinger, 2003). He contended that cultural diversity in higher education gives students the opportunity to understand the views of others and realize how life experiences shape their own identity, which fosters learning and an environment of compassion (Bollinger, 2003). International students add to the cultural diversity of college campuses in the Unites States. Supporting the international student community expands the U.S. knowledge base, promotes U.S. foreign policy, and contributes to the U.S. economy (NAFSA, 2006). Higher education has been one of the fifth largest service exports for the U.S., with global demand outreaching the supply (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Chow & Bhandari, 2009). In 2014, the number of international students in U.S. institutions of higher education reached a record high (Institute of International Education, 2014). Among the 886,052 international students, 43,456 were enrolled in intensive English programs (IEP) (Institute of International Education, 2014). Postsecondary English language programs (ELPs) help speakers of other languages develop the language and cultural skills needed to succeed in college-level coursework (Hodara, 2015). For limited English proficient (LEP) students, these programs are often a required intermediary prior to full admittance to a U.S. institution of higher education (Dehghanpisheh, 1987). The number of international students in ELPs is "enormous and still growing" (Pennington & Hoekje, 2010, p. 8). However, there is limited literature on international student participation in U.S. ELPs.   Given the limitation, this study began by reviewing research in five related fields to create a conceptual framework for understanding international student participation in U.S. postsecondary ELPs.

Globalization has increased the demand for English language instruction. Many U.S. colleges and universities use intensive English programs to attract international students

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(Witter, 2014). IBISWorld projects in the next five years the language instruction industry will see increased competition from in-house college programs (Witter, 2014). As institutes of higher education dedicate more time and resources into English language programs, it becomes increasingly important to understand the nature of international student participation in postsecondary language programs for future studies to examine effective program models, public and private English Language Program (ELP) differences, and the value of ELPs.

Method for Review of the Literature

The literature review process began with an examination of pre-existing literature on the research topic. With little information published about the international student population in the postsecondary English language instructional setting the topic was divided into five main areas of study: (a) international student mobility, (b) global English language acquisition, (c) enrollment preferences of students, (d) English language programs, and (e) student success after language programs. Cumulatively these areas inform concepts that relate to the phenomenon under investigation. Search terms were generated from the thesaurus feature on the ERIC database's ed.gov site. Search terms explored using the Virginia Commonwealth University library search engine, which quarries the library's holdings in excess 2.3 million volumes, 61,000 serials, and 600,000 ebooks (Lawal, Selinger, & Anderson, 2014). Additionally, the search terms were used in Google Scholar and the following databases: *ERIC Proquest, Linguistics & Language Behavior Abstracts, Library Information Science & Technology Abstracts, Library Literature & Information Science, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Directory of Open Access Journals, Dissertations & Theses Full Text*, and *IBISWorld.* Institutional websites were reviewed for publications associated with the research topic, to include *the Department of Homeland Security, National Center for Education Statistics, State Council of Higher Education for Virginia, U.S. Department of Education, LEP.gov, US State Department, Library of Congress, and the Institute of International Education (IIE)*. An initial screening examined the literature for relevance to the research topic. The collection of relevant sources was evaluated for the timeliness of the information, validity of the author's argument, and credibility of the author. The references of the sources meeting the inclusion criteria were scanned for other possible materials relevant to the research topic and the selection process was repeated.

International Student Mobility	Global English Language Acquistion	Enrollment Preferences	ELPs	ELPs & Student Success
What drives international student mobility?	Why do they learn English?	Why they do select one location or school over another?	What are the different program models & institution types?	Does attending an ELP improve student achievement?

Figure 1. Structure of the literature review

Brief Overview of the Literature

The proprietary nature of the postsecondary language education industry may contribute to the limited literature in this area, or it may be an indication that the field is still evolving in practice, allowing little opportunity for reflection. By drawing on literature in related fields, the study can be situated in past research and further examined through established frameworks. The review of literature spans five areas of research to address international student participation in U.S. English language programs (see Figure 1). This begins with a profile of international student mobility to capture their impetus to come to the U.S. to learn. International student mobility research is extensive and frames the larger population of interest. To understand the desire to learn English, the literature review goes on to describe global English language acquisition. In continuing the journey from country of origin to U.S. postsecondary ELP, next is an examination of the enrollment preferences of students to understand why students select one institution over another. Literature on English language programs describes the purposes of various program models and differences in institutional types, which affect a student's educational experience upon enrollment. The literature review concludes with an examination of student success as it relates to ELP attendance.

International Student Mobility

The phenomenon of international student mobility, defined as the "act of crossing national borders for the purpose of academic study" (Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006, p. 5), has been examined by numerous researchers (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; McMahon, 1992). McMahon (1992) explored the relationship between international student mobility with global politics, economics, and culture. She presented a conceptual framework that highlights push and pull factors to account for mobility. The push relates to the politics, economy, and culture of the international student's home-country and the pull relates to the same factors in the destination country, which encourage student mobility. McMahon used a multiple regression analysis to examine the flow of international students from eighteen developing countries. The results identified economic, educational, and political factors influenced mobility patterns. She stressed the importance of understanding historical factors for mobility in conceptualizing the mobility trends of today.

Global English Language Acquisition

Kachru (1986), arguably considered one of the foremost scholars in the field of international English education, provided an account of the spread of the English language through a historical context and advocates for the recognition of institutionalized non-native varieties of English. The author conceptualized global English language acquisition, or the spread of the English language globally, using a model of three concentric circles. In the inner circle are countries with English as the primary language (e.g. Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the U.S.). In the outer circle are countries that spread English through colonization, and view English as a second language (e.g. India, Singapore, Nigeria, and Papua New Guinea). In the

expanding circle are countries in which English is spreading rapidly and English is viewed as a foreign language (e.g., China and countries of the former Soviet Union). He went on to describe the history and resulting tensions of the *Englishes* within and between each circle. Kachru focused his argument on the outer circle, discussing the theoretical, applied, societal and ideological issues associated with institutionalized non-native varieties of English in multicultural settings. He advocated for the recognition of localized varieties of English and argued against those who would consider grammatical and pragmatic differences in local, non-native varieties of English as errors or deficiencies.

From a different perspective, Appadurai (1996) viewed global English language acquisition through a series of scapes and flows. Scapes are the elements--people, media, technology, ideas, and money that create constructed realities or shared perceptions of the world. Flows are the movement of these elements from one place to another creating an interchange of thought in a cultural economy. The value of the English language is caught up and shaped by these flows and scapes.

Enrollment Preferences of Students

While international student mobility captures the motivation to learn outside of one's country and global English language acquisition address a student's desire to learn English, enrollment preferences of students describes the decision making process associated with selecting a school. Kotler (1976) explained school selection in a seven-stage process from the decision to attend college to registration. Chapman (1981) built on these stages by theorizing factors that influence the student's decisions. Litten (1982) expanded Chapman's work by categorizing factors, then testing the model using data from previous studies. Litten's model suggests that the aspiration to attend college relates to the student's background, personal attributes, high school attributes, and environment. The student's aspiration leads to the decision to start the application process by gathering information. At this stage the student receives information from potential colleges and is influenced by parents, counselors, peers, publications, and other media. The decision to apply to a given college relates to the school's price, size, programs, and ambience. The model concludes with the college's admissions practices and the student's enrollment. Jones (2013) applied principles of enrollment preferences in a dissertation on the influence of marketing factors on selection of U.S. ELP. Jones surveyed 335 students from ten language schools to determine whether various marketing techniques influenced choice by the student's country of origin, age, and gender. The results suggested generational differences-- younger students valued the opinions of education brokers, while word-of-mouth rated higher as the age group of students increased. Most marketing factors were viewed equally between males and females, except mailed brochures and blogs rated slightly higher for females.

English Language Programs

The composition of ELPs in which a student may enroll varies by purpose and institution type. Pennington and Hoekje (2010) discussed leadership in the *ecology* of a language

program-- *ecology* representing the environment or context of the program. They contended that language programs have a complex and delicate system of connected components, which are constantly evolving. The authors presented their ecological model with leadership theory to aide in program development. Pennington and Hoekje's model consists of *people* (students, faculty and staff), *things* (materials, equipment, records, and physical spaces)*, and *processes* (learning, hiring, training, record-keeping, budgeting, marketing and recruitment) -- in addition to the typical program components of curriculum and instruction. Program administrators must understand and skillfully work within this ecology (Pennington & Hoekje, 2010). In the ecology of language programs, there are arguably two main program purposes and three institutional types.

ELP Student Success.

Student success as it relates to ELPs is a fairly unexamined topic. Bers (1994) researched the GPA, credit completion, and persistence of LEP students in community college. The results of a mutivariate statistical analysis indicated no statistically significant difference between LEP students and the total student population. Hodara (2015) compared students in ELPs with students in developmental writing programs through a longitudinal examination of student transcripts. Through a difference-in-difference approach, results indicated the longer sequenced ELP, as compared to the developmental writing programs, inhibits LEP student progression to credit-bearing college-level courses.

Summary and Synthesis of Literature Review

The literature on international student mobility describes the *push* and *pull* factors surrounding international student mobility from developing countries to developed and the implications of mobility. Global English language acquisition examines the role of globalizations, colonization, and English dominance in motivating students to learn English. Research on the enrollment preferences of students details the influences that predispose students to selecting one location or institute of higher education over another-- these include personal attributes, background, media, public policy, college characteristics, and admission practices. Information on ELPs by purpose and institution type describes the various instructional models available to students (English for general and specific purposes) and the differences in program implementation at university, community college and for-profit institutions.

Individually, these fields do not address international student participation in U.S. English language programs. Research on international student mobility gathers information on enrollment to U.S. institutes of higher education, but not to ELP. Global English language acquisition accounts for the drive to learn English, but does not address the resulting ELPs. While there is an abundance of literature on college enrollment preferences, there is little information on regarding choice in ELP. There is a need for more current research on university and community college program models and great need for information on for-profit programs. While research in the effectiveness of English for general and specific purpose is garnering increased attention, additional research is needed to examine the effectiveness of ELPs by institution. Overall, the field

has failed to address the value of postsecondary ELPs in student achievement. However, together these areas of research provide a means of conceptualizing international student participation in U.S. English language programs.

Conceptual Framework

Litten's (1982) model of the college selection process offers a framework to conceptualize international student enrollment practices in U.S. ELPs, when incorporating Appadurai's (1996) scapes, McMahon's (1992) push-pull model, and Kachru's (1986) concentric circles of English. The adjusted model depicts international student enrollment from the desire to learn English to program admissions, in a six-stage process (see Figure 2). The initial desire to learn English is theorized to be associated with the student's background and outside influences, which predisposes the student to learn either English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL). The influences, (colonization, media, people, technology, ideology, and money) are reflective of Appadurai's scapes. Appadurai (1996) argued that the global cultural economy impresses on identity formation, the interpretation of one's world, and the roles in social institutions, both within and between nations. This global cultural economy is comprised of dynamic environments: ethnoscapes, immigration of people; mediascapes, images promulgated by the media; technoscapes, interactions through technology; financescapes--exchange of money; and ideoscapes--transference of ideologies (Appadurai, 1996).
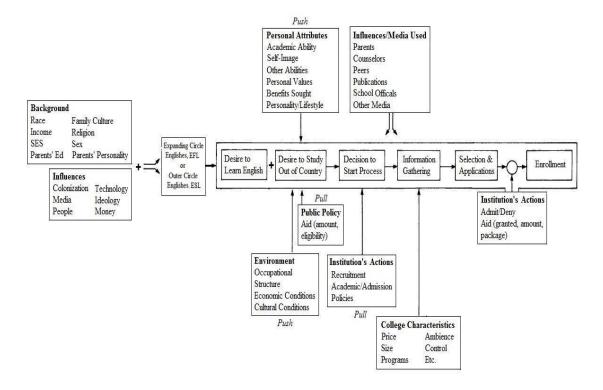

Figure 2. International student ELP selection model

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The framework goes on to theorize that background and external influences position the student in Kachru's (1986) *concentric circles of English*. In the *inner* circle are countries in which English is the primary language; the *outer* circle includes countries in which English is important historically, used in institutions, and considered a desirable second language; and the *expanding* circle incorporates countries in which English has little historical or institutional importance, but spreads as a foreign language or used as a lingua franca (Kachru, 1986). The inner circle sets English language norms, and the outer circle assimilates the norms, while the expanding circle is dependent on and accommodates norms set by the inner circle (Kachru, 1986). The framework of international student enrollment practices proposes that international students from the outer circle are likely to seek English language instruction from the inner circle, and students from the expanding circle would look to either the inner or outer circle.

With the disposition to learn English, the international student needs also to have a desire to leave one's country to study abroad. The desire to study outside of one's country relates to personal attributes, public policy and environmental factors. The framework of this trend is best represented by McMahon's (1992) *push* and *pull* model. The *push* suggests politics, economy, lack of educational opportunities and culture in international student's home country drives the student to leave his/her country (McMahon, 1992). The *pull* relates to corresponding factors in the destination country, which entices the students to attend college in that country (McMahon, 1992). This includes, the size of the destination country's economy as it relate to the home country, foreign or political relations between the countries, cultural conditions, and destination country's support of international students (McMahon, 1992). The decision to start the college or program selection process is mediated by the student's sphere of influence, and prospective institutions, which have *push* and *pull* elements.

The information gathering process exposes the student to the various institutional and programmatic characteristics and options within the industry. The selection of schools and program is thought to be influenced by any combination of the previous factors. The model ends with the student submitting an application for enrollment. The arrows in the framework signify the direct connection between elements, but can lead one to believe ELP enrollment practices are a linear process. However, it is argued that enrollment practices are a fluid process, shifting back and forth between stages. The factors listed in the framework are numerous and complex with multiple sub-constructs, precluding the predictability of student choice.

To use this model in an investigation of international student participation in postsecondary ELPs, the researcher recommends exploring the factors in manageable parts instead of attempting to represent all concepts in one study. In representing a number of concepts in one study a researcher risks of producing unfocused research that does not address the concept in meaningful depth. With little research in this area the accessibility of information impacts what can be studied. Many of the other factors in the model are difficult to codify or have not been measured by any source over time.

Future Study

The next study in this line of research will use the framework in an exploratory design using quantitative methods to analyze a secondary dataset. With little research on international students in ELPs an exploratory study is necessary to better formulate the phenomenon of international student participation into a more precise investigation and develop working hypothesis from an operational perspective. Quantitative methods complement the exploration of relationships between the anchor variables discussed in the conceptual framework. By using secondary data, the study can view participation on a national scale, increasing generalizability and giving researchers the ability to apply what is learned to investigate their unique international student populations. The next study will be a first step to understanding the topography of international student participation in ELPs.

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HOW A VISUAL LANGUAGE OF ABSTRACT SHAPES FACILITATES CULTURAL AND INTERNATIONAL BORDER CROSSINGS

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ABSTRACT: This article describes a visual language comprised of abstract shapes that has been shown to be effective in communicating prior knowledge between and within members of a small team or group. The visual language includes a set of geometric shapes and rules that guide the construction of the abstract diagrams that are the external representation of the visual language. The underlying cognitive processes are framed within the context of the visual language making unconscious conceptualizations external and visible. The outcome of using the visual language and performing the diagramming technique is the creation of a mental model that can be shared when communicating ideas across cultural and international borders.

Communicating across cultural and political borders is often conducted with the use of a common spoken language that is shared by the participants during the conversation. Natural spoken languages are rich in content and context. These modalities combine to enable human beings to quickly send and receive messages, assign meaning to the interchanges, and generate inferences from the experience. A conversation rarely evokes the need for a lengthy inquiry regarding the prior knowledge of either party. The challenge of crossing cultural and international borders using a shared language such as English, limits the depth to which individuals may share their personal worldviews. The inspiration for this article was based on the experience of teaching a three-day technical course in six countries over a period of several weeks. Engineers and managers from the United States, Mexico, Great Britain, Columbia, Brazil, and Sweden were provided a simple rectangle as the over-arching mental model to be used in representing the complexity experienced when managing data warehouses. The use of geometric shapes as an ad hoc grammar to communicate complex topics led to research that formalized the technique in the form of a visual language referred to as Draw Aloud.

To better understand how a visual language could be used to communicate the complex epistemologies found in teams, research into the nature of visual language was conducted in the form of a case study at two universities. The students were observed creating diagrams of prior knowledge using a novel abstract diagram elicitation technique. The technique was facilitated in four different classroom settings. The research described how the diagramming technique was made operational, how the student-generated diagrams revealed a hidden topology of shapes, how the shapes supported a framework for sharing and collaboration, and how the instructors responded to their experience of sponsoring the diagram elicitation technique. The research was based on the use of node-link diagrams and pattern matching skills (Larkin, McDermott, Simon, & Simon, 1980; Larkin & Simon, 1987).

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The research was also informed by works originating in the fields of systems engineering and data modeling. The development of computer system architecture is based on the use of entity-relationship (E-R) diagrams to model systems in large organizations (Chen, 1975). These types of diagrams function as conceptual models of how organizations operate and how they manage their resources. The concept of using diagrams as the focal point of the case study was reinforced by experiences originating from participation in graduate courses in adult learning and human development (Boucouvalas, 2009; Morris, 2009; Renard, 2009). The course subjects included adult learning theory and practice, small group theory and practice, and consulting in human systems theory and practice. The discourse during the semester confirmed that the prior knowledge of the students' conceptualization about adult learning theories varied widely. The survey of existing research related to the challenges of engaging prior knowledge led to the discovery of a gap in the literature concerning the use of diagram elicitation techniques in adult learning settings.

The Nature of Cultural and International Borders in the Abstract

The human communications that transpire across cultural and international borders are in the abstract, cognitive schemas originating from deep within the unconscious mind. The use of abstract shapes in the form of a visual language serves to make this communication, normally hidden from view, visible in a very sensory way. The original prototype of the visual language used an experimental technique that required university graduate students to create three diagrams using butcher block paper, glue sticks, and cut-outs of geometric shapes (Klunk, 2009). Three questions were posed to the students as a way of eliciting a response aimed at making diagrams of prior knowledge externally visible. The questions were based on findings by a National Research Council project that summarized key recommendations for teachers when engaging students in new learning (Bransford, 2000). The elicitation questions were designed to elicit the student's general prior knowledge of conceptualizations about how the world worked. The questions appear below.

> 1) How does the world work?
> 2) How do you store that information in memory?
> 3) How do you monitor your own learning when things change in the real world?

Each student was instructed to use the materials to create an answer to each of the three questions, all in the form of diagrams, made from the geometric shape pieces, and then instructed to glue the shapes to the butcher block paper. At the conclusion of the diagram generation phase of the exercise, the students provided verbal explanations of what their diagrams were meant to communicate. The outcomes of the experiment in the university setting and the six international workshop settings were the same. Regardless of the domain-specific nature of the context, the resulting diagrams were different for every person and for each question. The visual language made it easy to externalize and illustrate to participants how very different their worldviews appeared when represented as abstract diagrams.

The Nature of Conceptual Coherence When Crossing Borders

The observations and conceptualizations about coherence as it is represented in abstract diagrams is situated within the disciplines of adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005) and human development (Deacon, 1998; Staats, 2012). The research indicates that the diagrams are grounded in the philosophy of constructivism as the conceptual framework (Fosnot, 1996). Early discourse in philosophy informed human inquiry into learning and development during the time of Plato and Aristotle. More recently, the modern origins of constructivism evolved through the works of Dewey (1916), Piaget (1954), and Vygotsky (1978). The constructivist research by Ausubel (1960) when developing advanced organizers provided one of the first techniques for externalizing and illustrating in a material way, how physical artifacts can be used to represent prior knowledge in the classroom. The evolution of constructivist theories in recent years has further refined the nature of communication across borders from the perspective that the interchange is the result of the cognitive processes of the parties collaborating in a conceptual space (Fiorini, Gardenfors, & Abel, 2014; Gardenfors, 2014; Gardenfors & Zenker, 2013; Warglien & Gardenfors, 2013). The abstract diagramming technique made visible the incoherence of unconsciousness prior knowledge when framed within a conceptual space – the abstract diagram.

The Visible Nature of Incoherence

The visible nature of prior knowledge incoherence when communicating across borders is rooted in the interdisciplinary nature of learning sciences research (Jacobson & Wilensky, 2006). There is a significant body of literature on diagrams, prior knowledge, and the assessment of prior knowledge. On closer inspection, the range of topics in the field of diagram research spans many disciplines and definitions of what constitutes a diagram. Purchase (2014, p. 59) offers a definition of a diagram as "taken to mean a composite set of marks (visual elements) on a two-dimensional plane that, when taken together, represent a concept or object in the mind of the viewer." The Larkin and Simon (1987, p.68) definition of a diagram is that of a "data structure in which information is indexed in a two-dimensional location". To minimize the incoherence when comparing renderings in a visual language, this definition was chosen as best representative of how abstract diagrams containing geometric shapes use location to describe cultural and international border features. Researchers further classify these features into sub-classes described as declarative, procedural, and conceptual prior knowledge (Duffy & Jonassen, 1993; Jonassen, Beissner, & Yacci, 1993). It is conceptual knowledge that is considered to be the foundation of what causes incoherence when border features lack a shared understanding or structure (Dochy, Segers, & Buehl, 1999; Eppler, 2006; Jonassen, 2004; Sowa, 1984; Vosniadou, 2008). The wide variation in abstract diagrams is visual evidence of this representation.

Mediating Incoherence When Crossing Borders

The emergence of research related to the use of abstract diagrams as a technique for creating shared understanding during border crossings is still early in the discovery

phase. This article is just one example and is designed to create a bridge to the emerging research in other disciplines. Diagrams are implemented as a technique to visualize concepts (Burton, Stapleton, Howse, & Chapman, 2014) in formal logic. Diagrams are used to study meaning in mathematics (Dimmel & Herbst, 2015). Research explores the use of diagrams in professional practice (Giardino, 2013). Political scientists use diagrams in qualitative studies (Mahoney & Vanderpoel, 2015). Diagrams are used in design studies and the cognitive sciences (Nickerson et al., 2013; Tversky, 2011; Tversky & Kessell, 2014; Tversky & Suwa, 2009). Diagrams are used in research to understand how exceptional children learn (Poch, van Garderen, & Scheuermann, 2015; van Garderen & Scheuermann, 2015; van Garderen, Scheuermann, & Jackson, 2013). Diagrams are used in the health sciences field to collect data in qualitative research settings (Burchett, Umoquit, & Dobrow, 2011; Umoquit, Tso, Burchett, & Dobrow, 2011; Umoquit, Tso, Vargas-Atkins, O'Brien, & Wheeldon 2013). The use of simple abstract diagrams as a tool for navigating the various levels and capabilities of prior knowledge is a form of human communication that supports personal, relational, institutional, or global perspectives. Abstract diagrams are a visual passport that makes border crossing easier to facilitate.

Asking Questions at the Border

The feature of a useful language is that it is grounded in a general theory that can be implemented in practice. The use of abstract geometric shapes as a set of rules embedded in a visual grammar describes such a language. How can abstract diagrams constrained by domain-general, geometric shapes be made operational when crossing borders? The diagram prototype technique created for the adult learning class (Klunk, 2009) used large sheets of white poster paper, geometric shape foam pieces, and glue sticks. This led to the refinement and the need to explore "diagramming in the wild". Since blank sheets of paper and crayons can be found in many settings, these materials serve as a blank canvas. Three questions are used as prompts to elicit the visual responses. The question format is based on three summary findings made in the National Research Council report about the nature of how humans learn (Bransford, 2000). The report included three observations that related to epistemology, long-term memory, and meta-cognition. The format for the three questions is provided below.

How do you think _____ works?
How do you store information about _____ in long term memory?
How do you monitor your own learning about _____?

Set against the background of crossing cultural and international borders, the questions can be reframed within the context of two parties from different cultures creating a shared understanding related to a common and shared understanding. The questions in this context would be rewritten as they appear below.

How do you think *crossing cultural borders* works?
How do you store information about *crossing cultural borders* in long term memory?
How do you monitor your own learning about *crossing cultural borders*?

The value of any instrument created to facilitate communications between human beings is the efficacy with which the tool faithfully communicates the message with a minimum of noise (Shannon, 1948). Such a tool is especially useful if it has the ability to predict in advance what the nature of the outcome will be as a result of the discourse. Asking participants to draw abstract diagrams in response to questions about *crossing cultural borders* will likely result in different diagrams being generated for each question and from each participant.

Facilitating the Border Crossing

The facilitation of eliciting abstract diagrams is the basis for helping parties navigate their differences related to conceptualizations about prior knowledge and crossing cultural and international borders. The steps for facilitating such an outcome are provided below.

1. Explain to the participants that they will be participating in an exercise that asks them to create diagrams using geometric shapes in response to three questions.
2. Explain to the participants that the objective of the diagram exercise is to enable them to share their individual interpretations with others of how they conceptualize their prior knowledge and experiences about the concepts of crossing cultural and international borders.
3. Explain to the participants that they will have five minutes to complete each diagram in response to each of three questions.
4. The facilitator has the option of asking the participants to explain their diagrams to fellow participants upon completion of the exercise.
5. Hand out the materials to the participants. Each person is provided with three sheets of blank paper and several colored crayons they select from a box of crayons.
6. Once the participants have received the materials, ask them to think of a random eight digit number. Ask them to write the number in the upper right hand corner of the three sheets of paper. Explain to them that this random number is used to reassemble the sheets of paper in the event that the diagrams become separated. Repeat for the participants's benefit how the number should not contain any personal identifying marks embedded in the string such as social security numbers, birth dates, or similar identity numbers.
7. The next step in the process is to explain to the participants that the diagrams can only contain triangles, squares, and circles. The diagrams should not contain any other markings. Letters, numbers, special symbols, lines, arrows, points, or another marks are not allowed as part of the diagram constructions. Explain to the participants that they are free to create the diagrams using the geometric shapes in any configuration, composition, quantity, order, or layout.
8. Before proceeding with the timed portion of the facilitation ask the participants if they have any questions.
9. State the questions one at a time. Allocate five minutes for each question. Remind the participants to fill in the blank with the question topic – such as crossing cultural and international borders. Announce to the participants that they can begin to answer the first question. At the four minute mark, announce to the participants that they have one minute left. Ask the participants to complete the diagram for the first question at the five minute

mark. Ask the participants to turn the diagram face down. Repeat the timed portion as described above for the two remaining questions.

10. At the completion of the timed diagramming period, ask the participants to pass the diagrams to the front of the room. This completes the steps involved in conducting the facilitation exercise. As mentioned above, there is an optional step of asking each participant to explain their diagrams to the group before the diagrams are collected.

Framing the Differences When Conceptualizing Crossing Cultural and International Borders

One of the key insights from the research was the existence of a pattern of relations that are known as the eight binary topological relations (Egenhofer, 1991). These relations are recognized internationally as the standard for describing geometric topologies (Kresse & Danko, 2012). The diagrams have embedded in them hidden patterns of binary relations that are not self-evident to the casual observer, yet have significant meaning to an expert when analyzing the diagrams. The relationships between the shapes in the diagrams create the opportunity to explore how each participant defines and positions key terms in the conceptual space – in this article, the scenario is that of participants creating diagrams related to shapes representing prior knowledge of crossing cultural and international borders. The possible binary relations that can exist between two conceptualizations and features related to crossing cultural and international borders are described as being disjoint, meeting at a shared edge, being equal to one another, one feature being contained inside another, one feature be covered by another, one feature containing another but not being part of the container, a feature that is covered by another, and two features that overlap. These features of a conceptual topology provide a broad landscape for visualizing how one can navigate border crossings.

The use of abstract diagrams as a communications tool is not a technique that appears in the international education literature. This article proposes the abstract diagram method as one approach for use in professional practice and as a technique for designing and constructing conceptual models for navigating the various levels and capabilities of crossing cultural and international borders. In light of the breadth and depth to which diagrams permeate global culture, a visual language may empower those seeking to cross borders, and help teams and groups to explore deeper levels of similarities and differences using a common language.

Speculating on what the abstract shapes mean is not the objective of the technique as an outcome. The abstract diagrams are intended to represent a conceptualization of the participant's prior knowledge of crossing cultural and international borders. The analysis of the diagrams can be performed in a way in which may reveal a hidden pattern of topological features related to crossing cultural and international borders. This approach has the potential to illustrate that shapes by their visual features may be used to categorize the similarities and differences.

Why a Diagram is (Sometimes) Worth 10,000 Words

Jill Larkin and Herbert Simon aptly coined the phrase above as the title for their 1987 article that discusses the power of diagrams to accelerate the cognitive processes of search, pattern matching and inference generation. Just a handful of diagrams can provide a powerful visual representation of *how different* conceptual knowledge is between individuals and hidden from view in the unconscious mind. The diagrams that follow illustrate how visible differences can be when captured in external representations.

The diagrams in Figure 1 illustrate the differences in student conceptualizations of prior knowledge related to college teaching.

Figure 1. Student generated diagrams of college teaching prior knowledge.
The diagrams in Figure 2 illustrate the differences in student conceptualizations of prior knowledge related to project management.

Figure 2. Student generated diagrams of project management prior knowledge.

It is highly probable that diagrams created to represent conceptualizations of prior knowledge about crossing cultural and international borders would vary from person to person much like those above. The power of a visual language is the universal nature with which the differences can be perceived by both the sender and the receiver. There is very little semantic noise to obscure the clear differences and similarities. A visual

language serves as a simple canvas upon which a far deeper understanding can be developed when crossing borders and sharing prior knowledge about crossing cultural and international borders.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR OLDER ADULTS IN THE U.S.: COUNTRY COMPARISONS USING PIAAC DATA

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ABSTRACT: Historically, older and lower-skilled adults in the U.S. have participated in Adult Education and Training (AET) at lower rates than other groups, possibly because of perceived lack of return on investment due to the time required to recover training costs. Global, knowledge based economies have increased the importance of lifelong learning for all age groups. This paper reports results of a study that used data from the Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) to examine the relationship in the U.S. between participation in AET programs and employment, labor force participation, and income, for adults aged 45 to 65. In addition, comparisons were made for outcomes of AET participation in the U.S. with those in Germany, Japan, Sweden, and the U.K. Consistent with U.S. outcomes, comparison countries had lower AET participation rates by the unemployed compared to the employed and there were wide variations in AET participation between the lowest income quintile and the highest income quintile. For all countries, there was a significant relationship between AET participation and income. There was also a significant relationship between AET participation and labor force participation.

Population aging is occurring in countries around the world, both more and less developed. Life expectancies have increased and fertility rates have declined, resulting in a larger proportion of the world's population in older age groups and a smaller portion in traditional working-age groups (Bloom, Boersch-Supan, McGee, & Seike, 2011). In an effort to ensure the adequacy of pensions and maintain continued economic growth, many member countries of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have implemented policies to encourage people to remain in the labor force at older ages. Retirement reforms, such as higher retirement ages linked to increases in life expectancy, have been implemented in some countries, and early retirement plans are being eliminated. A retirement age of 67 is now quite common (OECD, 2013a). Research from economically developed countries suggests that increasing labor force participation at older ages and delaying retirement could facilitate economic growth by increasing productivity (Eberstadt & Hodin, 2014; Feyrer, 2007; Franklin, 2014; Goldin, 2016) while enhancing individual level economic security in retirement (Butrica, 2011).

The age structure of the U.S. labor force has changed dramatically in recent decades, largely due to the aging of the baby boomer cohort which includes about 77 million people born between 1946 and 1964 (Colby & Ortman, 2014). In 2024, the U.S. labor force is projected to include 163.7 million people and of those, 72.4 million (44.2%) will be aged 45 and above as compared to 30.5% in 1994. Over the past several decades, labor force participation rates have increased for both the 55 to 64 and 65 to 74 age groups. While labor force participation rates for men in the 55 to 64 age group have been

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relatively flat over the past two decades, participation rates have approximately doubled for both males and females ages 65 to 74. Increases in labor force participation rates have been especially dramatic for females, projected to increase from 48.9% in 1994 to 62.9% in 2024 for the 55 to 64 age group and from 13.6% to 26.2% for the 65 to 74 age group over the same time period (Toossi, 2015).

Shifts in the age structure of the U.S. labor force and increased labor force participation among older adults, combined with an increasingly global, technology and knowledge based economy add to the importance of gaining a better understanding of how adult education and training (AET) influences labor market outcomes for middle-aged and older workers. To accomplish this, we used data from the Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) to examine the relationship in the U.S. between participation in AET programs and employment, labor force participation, and income. We also compared outcomes of AET participation in the U.S. with those in Germany, Japan, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (U.K.) and examined policies for lifelong learning in those countries. The focus of our study was adults ages 45 to 65.

Theoretical Framework

Baptiste (2001) defines human capital as the "knowledge, attitudes, and skills that are developed and valued primarily for their economically productive potential" (pp. 185). More broadly, human capital is the combination of innate talents and skills learned via education and training (Keeley, 2007). Lifelong learning, or AET, is a means for continual investment in human capital over the life course. It is a process of either formal (learning that takes place in education and training institutions and leads to recognized credentials and diplomas), informal (learning that takes place in everyday life and is not necessarily intentional and may not even be recognized by the individuals themselves as contributing to their knowledge and skills), or non-formal *(learning that takes place in educational and training settings, but does not typically lead to a formalized credential) learning that is meant to provide workers with the necessary skills to perform in the modern globalized and knowledge-based economy and offers workers the opportunity to improve their economic security and maintain or improve their socioeconomic status (Commission on European Communities, 2000). Lifelong learning has become increasingly necessary so workers of all ages have skills employers require. Even though lifelong learning has the potential to benefit older workers, improve a nation's economic outlook, and reduce inequality (OECD, 2011), older workers in the U.S. and in other countries, especially those with low skills, are less likely to participate in training programs than their younger counterparts (Canduela et al., 2014; Fouarge, Schils, & de Grip, 2010; Johnson, 2007). *This population may be reluctant to participate in AET because of a lack of understanding of the economic benefits, fear of returning to the classroom and taking exams, or a lack of availability of programs structured to meet their unique needs* (Fouarge, et. al., 2010; OECD, 2014b; Zwick, 2011).

Methodology

This study addressed three research questions: (a) Is there a relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET and employment and labor force participation in the U.S.? (b) Is there a relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET and higher levels of income in the U.S.? and, (c) Based on participation in AET, how do outcomes (i.e., labor force participation, employment, and income levels) in the U.S. compare to the U.K., Germany, Sweden, and Japan? To examine these questions we used a combination of binary logistic regression, ordinal logistic regression, and chi-square tests.

Data

We used data from PIAAC, a survey organized by the OECD and conducted by participating countries, to examine the relationship between AET participation and labor market outcomes. Twenty-three countries were included in Round 1 of the PIAAC survey, which was conducted between August of 2011 and March of 2012, and an additional nine countries participated in Round 2 between 2012 and 2016 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2014). The survey consists of a background questionnaire and an assessment that scores participants in literacy, numeracy, and problem solving skills. For the current project, we used data from the background questionnaire, which includes data on participation in different types of AET along with a wide range of demographic information, including gender, age, language spoken, education, income, and work history (OECD, 2010).

The PIAAC survey was conducted among non-institutionalized adults ages 16 to 65. The background survey and assessment portions of PIAAC were administered in a private setting, such as a library or the participant's home. Survey participants were sampled using a one-stage, two-stage, three-stage, or four-stage stratified probability method, a complex sampling technique requiring an extensive system of weights and repetitions to accurately run tabulations and regressions (Kis & Field, 2013). Samples sizes by age group and country are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Sample Sizes by Age Group and Country

	Ages 45 – 54	Ages 55 - 65	Total
United States	1,084	1,066	2,150
Germany	1,309	969	2,278
Japan	1,037	1,281	2,318
Sweden	926	1,032	1,958
United Kingdom	1,884	1,874	3,758

Source: OECD, 2014a.

Results

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET and employment and labor force participation in the U.S.? The chi-square test was used to evaluate the relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET (FNFAET) and employment status and labor force participation. There was a significant relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET in the prior 12 months and employment status ($F_{R-S, Pearson}$ = 24.98, p<.001) for the 45 to 54 age group. Only 29.9% of the unemployed group participated in AET as compared to 64.5% of the employed group. This is of concern because the unemployed may require additional training to become reemployed. For the 55 to 65 age group, there was no significant relationship between participation in AET and employment status. Because of a small sample size in the unemployed group, we were unable to analyze the 45 to 65 age group separately for the employment outcome using logistic regression techniques. Considering all age groups, participation in FNFAET resulted in a significant (p <.001) expected improvement in the log odds of employment.

There was also a significant relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET and labor force participation for both the 45 to 54 age group ($F_{R-S, Pearson}$ = 104.42, p<.001) and the 55 to 65 age group ($F_{R-S, Pearson}$ = 172.70, p<.001). Participating in formal and non-formal AET in the last 12 months improved the expected log odds of participating in the labor force by 1.384 (p <.001). Older workers, however, are less likely to participate in the labor force—being over 45 reduced the log odds of labor force participation by -0.382 (p <.001) as compared to the 25 to 44 age group. Females were less likely to participate in the labor force with a -0.984 (p <.001) expected reduction in the log odds relative to their male counterparts.

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between participation in formal and non-formal AET and higher levels of income? Based on the chi-square test, there was a significant relationship between participation in FNFAET and income quintile ($F_{R-S, Pearson}$ = 15.36, p<.001) for the 45 to 54 age group and for the 55 to 65 age group ($F_{R-S, Pearson}$ = 4.20, p<.05). Overall, 66.3% of the 45 to 54 age group participated in AET but there were substantial differences in participation by the lowest and highest income quintiles. For the 44 to 54 age group, 47.4% of the lowest income quintile participated in formal and non-formal AET as compared to 83.4% of the highest income quintile. Overall AET participation by the 55 to 65 age group was 65.8% and as with the 45 to 54 age group, there were substantial differences in AET participation rates by the top and bottom income quintiles. The AET participation rate for the lowest income quintile was 50.5% compared to 77.4% for highest income quintile. Results of chi-square tests for research questions 1 and 2 for the 45 to 54 and 55 to 65 age groups are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Individuals who participated in FNFAET had an expected improvement in the log odds of moving up one income quintile of 0.441 (p <.001). Results for age and sex were also significant. Adults ages 45 to 65 had an expected improvement of 0.593 (p <.001) in the log odds of moving up one income quintile compared to the 18 to 44 age group whereas

females had an expected reduction in the log odds of moving up one income quintile of -1.027 ($p < .001$) compared to males.

Table 1

Relationship in the U.S. between Participation in Formal and Non-Formal AET and Employment, Labor Force Participation, and Income for ages 45 to 54 in the U.S.

	Non-Participation Group *n* (% of population)	Participation Group *n* (% of population)	Significance		
			Design-based F	*df, rdf*	*p*
Employment Status					
Unemployed	41 (70.1)	21 (29.9)	24.98	1, 79	<.001
Employed	298 (35.5)	537 (64.5)			
Labor Force Participation					
Not in the labor force	131 (81.4)	31 (18.6)	104.42	1, 79	<.001
In the labor force	339 (37.8)	558 (62.2)			
Income Quintile					
Lowest	57 (52.6)	46 (47.4)	15.36	3.64, 287.83	<.001
Next Lowest	69 (48.0)	68 (52.0)			
Middle	55 (42.0)	87 (58.0)			
Next to highest	40 (23.2)	126 (76.8)			
Highest	32 (16.6)	174 (83.4)			
Total *n* (income)	253 (33.7)	501 (66.3)			

Table 2

Relationship in the U.S. between Participation in Formal and Non-Formal AET and Employment, Labor Force Participation, and Income for ages 55 to 65 in the U.S.

	Non-Participation Group *n* (% of population)	Participation Group *n* (% of population)	Significance		
			Design-based F	*df, rdf*	*p*
Employment Status					
Unemployed	22 (43.8)	27 (56.2)	1.04	1, 44	0.314
Employed	225 (36.0)	430 (64.0)			
Labor Force Participation					
Not in the labor force	264 (78.9)	75 (21.1)	172.70	1, 44	<.001
In the labor force	247 (35.1)	457 (64.9)			
Income Quintiles					
Lowest	41 (49.5)	49 (50.5)	4.20	3.67, 161.35	<.05
Next lowest	30 (36.6)	50 (63.4)			
Middle	45 (40.1)	74 (59.9)			
Next to highest	37 (30.0)	97 (70.0)			
Highest	33 (22.6)	111 (77.4)			
Total *n* (income)	186 (34.2)	381 (65.8)			

Research Question 3: Based on participation in formal and non-formal AET, how do outcomes in the U.S. compare to the U.K., Germany, Sweden, and Japan? The chi-square test was used to compare the relationship between participation in FNFAET and employment between the U.S. and the U.K, Germany, Sweden, and Japan. For the 45 to 54 age group, the relationship between FNFAET participation and employment was significant for all countries except Japan. For the 55 to 65 age group, the results were only significant in Sweden. For the 45 to 54 age group, Sweden had the highest AET participation rate for both the unemployed (52.1%) and the employed (72.0%). The U.S. had the lowest FNFAET participation rate for the unemployed (29.9%) and Japan had the lowest rate of participation for the employed (51.0%). The U.S. had the widest gap (34.6%) in FNFAET participation by the unemployed as compared to the employed and Germany had the lowest gap (13.3%) (see Figure 1). For the 55 to 65 age group, the U.S. had the highest FNFAET participation rate for the employed (64.0%) whereas the U.K. had the highest FNFAET participation rate for the unemployed (66.8%). Japan had the lowest FNFAET participation rate for the employed (38.5%). Sweden had the widest gap (20.3) in FNFAET participation by the unemployed as compared to the employed and the U.S. had the smallest gap (7.8%) (see Figure 2). For the logistic regression analyses, due to small sample sizes for the unemployment group, only the U.K. and the U.S. were compared for employment status.
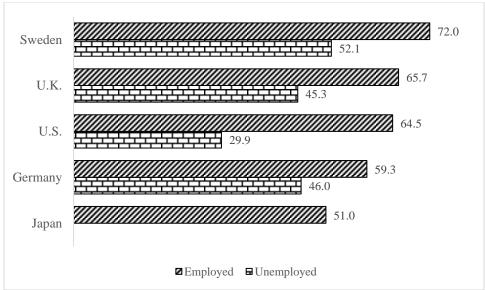

Figure 1. Participation in formal and non-formal AET by employment status, ages 45 – 54 (percent).
Source: OECD, 2014a.
Note: Sample sizes for the unemployed in Japan were too small to report.

Figure 2. Participation in formal and non-formal AET by employment status, ages 55 – 65 (percent).
Source: OECD, 2014a.
Note: Sample sizes for the unemployed in Germany and Japan were too small to report.

Using FNFAET as the predictor, the expected improvement in the log odds of employment was statistically significant for both countries. The expected improvement in log odds of employment was 0.698 (p <.001) in the U.S. and 0.572 (p <.001) in the U.K.

The chi-square test was used to compare the relationship between participation in FNFAET and labor force participation, between the U.S. and the U.K, Germany, Sweden, and Japan. For both the 45 to 54 and 55 to 65 age groups, there was a significant relationship between FNFAET participation and labor force participation in all countries (p <.001). For the 45 to 54 age group, Sweden had the highest rate (71.2%) of AET participation by those in the labor force and Germany had the highest rate of FNFAET participation (31.0%) for those not in the labor force. Japan had the lowest rate of FNFAET participation for those not in the labor force (16.2%) and the lowest rate of FNFAET participation (50.7%) for those in the labor force. For the 55 to 65 age group, the U.S. had the highest rates of FNFAET participation for both those not in the labor force (21.1%) and in the labor force (64.9%). Germany had the lowest FNFAET participation rate (12.9%) for those not in the labor force while Japan had the lowest FNFAET participation rate (38.2%) for those in the labor force. (see Figures 3 and 4). Individuals who participated in FNFAET had a significant expected improvement in the log odds of labor force participation in all five countries. The expected improvement in the log odds of labor force participation was 1.360 (p <.001) in the U.S., 0.780 (p <.001) in Germany, 1.030 (p <.001) in Sweden, 1.616 (p <.001) in the U.K., and 1.247 (p <.001) in Japan. With the exception of Sweden, increasing age was a significant predictor in an expected reduction in the log odds of labor force participation. Females in all countries saw a significant expected reduction in the log odds (p <.001) of labor force participation as compared to males.

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Figure 3. Participation in formal and non-formal AET by labor force status, ages 45 – 54 (percent).
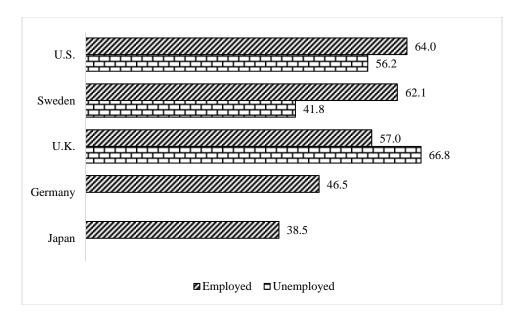Source: OECD, 2014a.

Figure 4. Participation in formal and non-formal AET by labor force status, ages 55 – 65 (percent).
Source: OECD, 2014a.

Results of the chi-square test indicate a significant relationship between FNFAET participation and income quintile for both age groups in all countries. No income data were available for Germany. For the 45 to 54 age group, Sweden had the highest overall FNFAET participation rate (72.7%) along with the highest rate of FNFAET participation for both the lowest income quintile (55.7%) and the highest income quintile (84.6%). The U.S. had the widest gap (36.0%) in FNFAET participation between the highest and

lowest income quintiles among the countries included in the analyses and Sweden had the lowest gap (28.9%). Japan had the lowest rates of FNFAET participation for all income quintiles for both age groups. For the 55 to 65 age group, the U.S. had the highest overall participation rate for FNFAET participation (65.8%) and the highest participation rate (50.5%) for the lowest income quintile while Sweden had the highest rate of participation (81.3%) for the highest income quintile. Sweden had the widest gap (34.7%) in FNFAET participation between the highest and lowest income quintiles whereas the U.S. had the narrowest gap (26.9%) (see Figures 5 and 6). Individuals who participated in FNFAET had an expected increase in the log odds of moving up one income quintile in all countries. The expected increase in log odds was 0.554 (p <.001) in the U.S., 0.699 (p <.001) in Sweden, 0.713 (p <.001) in the U.K., and 0.798 (p <.001) in Japan. Age was a significant predictor in expected increase in the log odds of moving up one income quintile in income.

Summary and Implications for Practice

This study examined the effect of participation in formal and non-formal adult education on employment, labor force participation, and income for adults aged 45 to 65. We analyzed employment for the 45 to 54 and 55 to 65 age groups in the U.S. using a chi-square test, which revealed smaller proportions of the unemployed in both the 45 to 54 and 55 to 65 age groups participated in AET as compared to the employed. This is of concern because the unemployed may require additional training to become reemployed.

Figure 5. Participation in formal and non-formal AET for selected income quintiles, ages 45 to 54 (percent).
Source*:* OECD (2014a)

		Sweden	
	Highest		81.3
	Average		63.5
	Lowest		46.6

Figure 6. Participation in formal and non-formal AET for selected income quintiles, ages 55 to 65 (percent)

Source*:* OECD (2014a)

The unemployed often rely on publicly sponsored training programs but there may be a lack awareness of these programs. Lack of awareness of programs and the economic benefits of training, fear of returning to the classroom at older ages, and low funding levels for training programs are potential causes for low participation rates by the unemployed.

There was also a significant relationship between AET participation and labor force participation in the U.S., but the implications are not necessarily straightforward, especially in the context of low AET participation rates by the unemployed. For example, during the recent recession, some of the unemployed simply withdrew from the labor force and thus shifted from "unemployed" to "not in the labor force" (Krueger, Cramer, & Cho, 2014). Participation in an AET program during the period of unemployment might prevent some from early withdrawal from the labor force and participation in AET by individuals who are out of the labor force might result in their returning to the labor market.

The relationship between AET participation and income is important from two perspectives. First, participation in AET increases the likelihood of moving up a level in income quintile. Second, for both the 45 to 54 and 55 to 65 age groups, the lowest income quintile participates in AET at a substantially lower rate than the top income quintile for all of the countries included in this study. This finding is consistent with previous research (Angotti & Belmonte, 2012; Johnson, 2007; OECD, 2004) and reinforces the importance of making opportunities available for lower-income groups to participate in AET.

The combination of increased labor force participation at older ages and a shift in the age distribution of the U.S. labor force results in the need for programs and policies to encourage and facilitate work at older ages. Despite widespread recognition that older workers may require skill upgrades to remain in the labor force at older ages, policies and funding are lacking to facilitate training older workers (Cummins, 2013; Field & Canning, 2014). FNFAET programs are important for older workers so they have the skills necessary to remain in the labor force at older ages and to improve their economic outlook in retirement. This study demonstrates the benefits to older workers of FNFAET participation and shows that unemployed and lower-income workers are less likely to participate in FNFAET. Outreach programs that encourage FNFAET participation by middle aged and older workers, especially those who are unemployed or low-income, are necessary so there is a better understanding of the benefits of participation. While countries generally recognize the need to increase participation rates in adult learning programs by lower income groups, policies and program funding are lacking to achieve this goal (Cummins, Kunkel & Walker, 2014). Programs that target older and low-skilled workers and encourage them to overcome the fear of returning to the classroom at older ages might increase FNFAET participation. Policies that provide opportunities for older adults to participate in AET programs are necessary to ensure economic security in retirement, a competitive labor force, and economic growth. Implementation of policies that focus on lower income groups and the unemployed, who are likely the most in need of skill upgrades and most at risk for economic insecurity in retirement, are especially important.

Acknowledgements

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THE POWER OF RELATIONSHIP BUILDING IN INTERNATIONAL SHORT-TERM FIELD STUDY EXPERIENCES AT THE GRADUATE LEVEL

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ABSTRACT: This paper derives from a case study of a 10-day cross-cultural field study experience held in Italy in which graduate students from master and doctoral levels in adult education participated. During group reflections, several students who participated in the course expressed the value of learning through personal connections made with students as well as the instructor. This relationship aspect of the short-term cross-cultural learning experience has only been briefly discussed in the literature. The research was framed by situated learning, and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), with an emphasis on the relationships built in learning practice abroad. Student blogs were analyzed to provide evidence of the benefits of interpersonal relationships to deepen learning in adult study abroad. This research offers insights into the nature of relational learning during field study experiences, learning outcomes that resulted from these relationships, and ways to offer similar learning opportunities during international field study experiences in graduate education programs.

Keywords: adult study abroad; adult study tours; relationships in adult learning; graduate study abroad

International student mobility in higher education is increasing at record rates (European Union, 2013; Hudzik & Briggs, 2012). While the majority of students who study in foreign locales are undergraduates, opportunities for graduate students to earn credit in study abroad programs are on the rise (Dirkx, et al., 2014). Dirkx, et al. (2014), however, stress that graduate students are different from undergraduate students in that their goals and purposes for participating in study abroad are often different.

In summer 2016, *International Comparative Adult and Higher Education Study Tour* (a graduate problems course in adult education), was attended by 10 graduate students from a large, public university in the southwest U.S. The learning goal of the course was to engage participants in collectively constructing new understandings of how individuals of different cultures, spiritual paths, and influences conceptualize knowing, knowledge, and adult education. The course required critical consumption of academic texts and an 8-day sojourn in Italy connected with a graduate adult education program at an Italian university. The course content included exploring a developmental model of intercultural sensitivity and the creation of an inquiry framework underpinning an action research project. Field experiences comprised of visiting sites of knowledge and cultural understanding, discussion with participants and Italian colleagues, and individual reflection activities. One of the reflection activities was a series of blog postings that were initiated by prompts that directed students to reflect in specific ways about their learning in the course. One of the striking themes easily recognized in both the blogs and informal reflection discussions that occurred throughout the course was the value participants placed on the relationships and interpersonal encounters they experienced

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during the course – both with course participants and Italians abroad. As such, we conducted an investigation to learn more about relational aspects that influenced adult learning in a short-term study abroad program. The research questions guiding our study included: What are the characteristics of the relationships that were built during the graduate study tour? And, what was learned through these relational encounters?

Brief Review of Related Literature

At present, much of the literature regarding international education focuses on undergraduate students and the benefits that derive from study abroad. Research on graduate study abroad is sparse and tends to focus on course development and transformational learning outcomes. As study abroad opportunities for graduate students continue to increase, understanding how to enhance the educational experience during the field study is imperative. Relationships between students, students and instructors, and students and international individuals, may have significant impacts on learning. The relationship aspect of short-term cross-cultural learning experiences, however, has only been briefly discussed in research.

We know that relationships with peers and faculty can enrich learning in higher education (Arnold, Kuh, Vesper, & Schuh, 1993; Astin, 1984; Tinto, 1998). Lundberg's (2003) findings investigating relationships in adult learning in higher education asserted that learning was enhanced when students viewed administrators as "flexible, helpful, and considerate rather than rigid, impersonal and bound by regulations" (p. 682). She also posited that similar to younger learners, adult students benefit from "educationally related peer-relationships" (p. 682). Discussion of relationship building during study abroad at the undergraduate level concludes that relationships formed while abroad are a natural progression for undergraduate students and can enhance the learning process (Talburt & Stewart, 1999). Within the adult education research, Dirkx, Spohr, Tepper, and Tons (2010) conducted a study with adult learners who participated in a study abroad program in hopes of understanding the transformational experiences that occur during field studies. Their research revealed that personal relationships influenced how the students perceived the study abroad experience, whether transformational or not. Likewise, Coryell (2011) conducted interviews with graduate and undergraduate study abroad participants and found that the relationships formed between students and instructors while abroad provided "rich opportunities for learning" (p. 8). The student testimonials suggested relationships were formed while abroad that meaningfully enhanced the experience. Further, in adult professional education study abroad, Coryell, Spencer, and Sehin (2014) found that learning often occurred through problem-solving dialogue and collaboration in relationships with co-participants and instructors. However, research in study abroad largely focuses on the benefits such as exposure to other cultures, language proficiency, personal growth, and increasing self-confidence (Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Freed, 1998; Henthorne, Miller, & Hudson, 2001), and not so much on investigating the power and influence of relationship building on adult learning, particularly in graduate level study abroad programs.

Methodology

This research was conducted as a case study. Case studies are bounded explorations that investigate situations by analyzing behavior patterns, interactions, or contextual structures (Hamel, Dufour, & Fortin, 1993). Given our interest in interaction and relationship, our research is framed by situated learning, and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This framework recognizes that people learn through social interaction, emphasizing the influence of relationships with other community members and acquisition of certain skills, standards, and behaviors the community values. As such, researchers framing their investigations with this theory often analyze the nature and characteristics of learning through participatory interaction within the community.

Participants

Participants ranged in age between 25 and 60 and hailed from a variety of backgrounds, race/ethnicities, motivations, and work experiences. Nine of the ten registered students participated in the study. Students were all enrolled in adult education graduate programs; seven were doctoral students, and two were master's level students. There were five women and four men. International experience varied from a few having never travelled internationally to ex-military members and others who had journeyed and worked abroad extensively.

Study/Course Context

The learning goal of the course was to acquire an amplified vision of one's own, of the Italian, and of the global context of adult life and education today, and to enhance knowledge and sensitivity to analyze and reconsider the future of adult education. The context of the course included pre-departure readings including texts on intercultural sensitivity, academic readings on modern Italian culture, and research conducted on study tours. Pre-departure meetings included information sessions, an orientation meeting, and two structured classes. In the class meetings, students discussed course readings and the course's comparative inquiry framework. This framework included the following questions in which participants first individually reflected upon their own responses and then engaged in world café style discussions (see www.theworldcafe.com for more information) to conclude collaborative responses to the inquiry questions. The inquiry framework consisted of the following questions:

- What is the purpose of Adult Education?
- How does learning in adulthood occur?
- What is knowledge and who owns it?
- What is the role/responsibility of the instructor?
- What is the role/responsibility of the learner?

The class then travelled to northern Italy for 8 days and was based at a university that confers masters and doctoral degrees in adult education. During the time abroad, participants engaged in scheduled cultural activities as well as two discussion-based

seminars with Italian graduate students and faculty in adult education from the local university. In the first of these sessions, the U.S. and Italian students learned more about the two educational systems from faculty presenters and then presented information about their own research projects. The second session was structured in world café discussions focused on the inquiry framework questions to identify similarities and differences present in adult education across the two cultures. Analysis of the individual and collective responses to the inquiry framework became the basis of the course's action research project designed ultimately to encourage the transfer of learners' new understandings from class to work and life practice. Throughout the course, the learners were asked to write a series of five prompted reflection blogs, three prior to departing for Italy, and two upon returning. The class met for a final time at the home university where students in small groups presented the findings of their action research projects.

Data Gathering

To investigate our research questions about the relational aspects of adult learning in graduate study abroad, we analyzed student blog postings. After reading the entire set of blogs, we identified two sets of postings in which participants most often discussed relationships and interpersonal interactions regularly in reflecting on their course learning and experiences. The first of these blogs was written and posted a week prior to departure, while the second blog was completed two weeks after returning from Italy. The prompts for these postings were,

> Blog 3: In this blog posting, you are to first post your group's additional questions that were added to the inquiry framework for the action research project. Then, take a moment to examine your hopes and goals for your experience in Italy. Articulate what you hope to learn and your aspirations about how that learning will affect your understandings of yourself, of adult education, and of the world. This posting should be at least 1500 words. Your posting may contain pictures or other graphics to help tell your story.
> Blog 4: In this blog posting, you are to reflect upon your experiences in the course and in your free time while in Italy. Be sure to respond at least to the following questions: What stood out to you as meaningful in your learning? What surprised you most? What relationships/interactions were helpful in your learning, and why were they so? Tell a story about a time where you learned something about Italian culture, intercultural sensitivity, adult education, and international study tours that expanded your thinking about your discipline and/or your life. This posting should be at least 2500 words. Your posting may contain pictures or other graphics to help tell your story.

These data comprised 48 pages of single-spaced text from the nine students who agreed to allow us to analyze their blogs.

Data Analysis

We began by reading and re-reading the postings multiple times to get a sense of the overall data set. These readings were coupled with a process in which we noted times when the participants discussed relationships, friendships, and social interactions related to their learning. These margin notes were then compiled to organize our coding process in which we looked for sensitizing concepts, "important features of social interaction" (Bowen, 2006, p. 3), that struck us as valuable in understanding characteristics of learning relationships, the contexts in which social interactions occurred, and the influence on learning that those interactions may have had. The participants' postings were analyzed first as individual cases, and then subsequently further analysis took place across the postings to determine subcategories and ultimately overarching themes to answer our research questions. The following section offers a brief description of findings supported by the data. All names are pseudonyms.

Findings

Data analysis led to the identification of two overarching themes with respective categorical descriptions that we describe here.

Theme 1: Interpersonal Relationships in Graduate Study Abroad

"What I believe was the most meaningful to me in my learning was to feel a real sense of connection between us, the Italian PhD students and professor." (Anna)

Anna's quote above offers the essence of the importance our graduate student participants placed on the relationships formed and fostered in their study abroad program. We found that friendships and interactions, among the program's students, as well as with Italians, were built throughout the experiences in the course. Characterized by the affective qualities of trust, safety, and emotional support, these friendships helped to buttress the participants' learning in a foreign locale. We found that participants established deeper connections with other classmates with whom they had already known, as well as those whom they first met in the course. These relationships were described by being "open" (Grant, Eva) and important to how the participants felt about the course and their learning while abroad. Eva offered, "[I am] proud to say that I have forged new relationships and solidified current relationships with my cohort members." Many specified how they "helped each other and shared resources [personal and educational]" (Maria) and highlighted the importance of having student colleagues who would look out for each other and assist when needed. Grant shared,

> The relationships and interactions that were most helpful for my learning in Italy were with my classmates and professor… I feel these partnerships resulted in a high degree of support for me as a traveler and learner through our informal conversations, our openness, and our ability to share in each other's excitement.

Another clarified, "the bonding [in the class] really helped make the entire experience more meaningful to me. …. the bonding and friendships that have occurred within the program and on this Italy learning experience have become relationships that I will always cherish" (Maria). Ultimately, participants emphasized that those who took the class and embarked on the study tour offered a unique camaraderie that provided what resulted in a foundation of support, acceptance, and security during a learning experience abroad.

"I am certain I am not the only one who feels that the opportunity to share with Italian PhD students ...was one of the highlights of the experience." (Anna)

Again, Anna's sentiments exemplify the analysis across the students' blogs. The respondents acknowledged the meaningful connections they made with Italian graduate students studying adult education during their activities at the Italian university. The U.S. students did not have a background in the Italian language nor much instruction in Italian beyond a few basic words. While they knew the Italian graduate students were attending their program in English, many took it upon themselves to learn more Italian independently as well. Cris, for example, who prepared a description of his dissertation study in Italian, offered,

> I was proud of myself for learning Italian and pushing myself to speak in a language that was foreign to me. I think this interaction with the [Italian university] students also enabled us to create bonds of friendship…I feel like I have made connections with the students by sharing our research topics and where we are all currently on our doctoral journeys. I felt that we were able to connect not only at academic level, but also at a personal level as we talked about the challenges and successes that we have experienced so far.

Maria also spent time learning some Italian yet observed,

> This Italian experience was extremely powerful to me, because even though we did not speak the same language, we actually DID speak the same language. It was the language of education, the language of the ideologies reflected in ideas of high participatory classes, true engagement of students and teachers, of education as the opportunity to explore the world and explore one's self, of the evolution of methodologies to better teach and better learn.

Others explained how much they enjoyed noting differences and identifying similarities as they discussed their programs and research. Anna offered, "I really enjoyed speaking and collaborating with the students from the university. Despite having different specific goals we all seemed to share the same ideals, how can we improve education, in one way or another." Charles expressed, "I also had the opportunity to speak with Claudia, who was also equally compelling and fascinating. The old adage that the world is a small place certainly held true in terms of Claudia's experience and my own."

Reflection on these experiences was encouraged throughout the course, as well as requested in their blog postings. The dialogue that occurred in the seminars, however, was certainly not always comfortable. Anna's self-reflection provides an example of this. She posited,

> I usually think I am culturally respectful and empathetic, but during our session I might have made a wrong assumption (as most assumptions are!). In this case it was about Giada. When she sat with us on the table, she kept making faces that might have been read as signs of a certain annoyance. She kept talking to Paolo, and the other Italians, and kept looking around with a certain uncomfort. It felt as if she did not want to be there. Later, during our conversations in smaller groups, I realized Giada had a very basic level of English and felt really annoyed at the fact that she was unable to express herself, or understand what we were saying. I could really understand her uncomfort, and once I understood what was wrong, we were able to integrate her and translate in a different way. By trying to speak her language, I wanted her to see we were also making an effort to get close to her, and not only expecting her to get close to us. I believe the very bad Italian made her feel more comfortable with her not so advanced English! It was wonderful, because she then started asking tons of questions to us, and got really engaged in the conversation.

Anna also offered these sentiments, which may explain how adults from different countries, cultures, and programs could engage in dialogue so quickly, "I felt that even though there were obvious cultural differences and language barriers, there was a very strong common ground, which made our deeper conversations possible." Ultimately, across the data set the interactions with the Italian students were often portrayed as "friendly, interested, and inquisitive" (Ian), "helpful", and "open" (Eva). There was a definite determination to develop a fellowship with the Italian students, and vice versa; this resolve was evident in communications that utilized languages, gestures, and common educational interests and experiences. Cross-cultural interactions were clearly essential in the overall learning experiences for our participants.

Theme 2: Learning Outcomes from Relational Encounters in Graduate Study Abroad

Two categories of learning outcomes that related specifically to the relational interactions of our participants include (1) enhanced understandings about the field of and research in adult education, and (2) new perceptions of both Italian culture and one's own culture derived from informal learning outside of structured academic activities. In the first category, student research presentations, faculty presentations on educational systems in the two countries, and the world café conversations were cited as opportunities for interpersonal exchanges. These interactions led to new and nuanced conceptions of how the discipline of adult education is defined and practiced in Italy. Further, these activities prompted reflection on the participants' own understandings of the field. Charles suggested, "The discussions on teaching technique in terms of the adult learner for Italy versus the US were similar in theory but differed quite a bit in technique." Ian added,

In many ways, a more practical approach to adult education is its direct application to economic issues and skill deficiencies; I am happy for the broader perspective [our] program has provided me, but I was reminded there is a very real need for a focus on implementation and delivery, without which the theory has little meaning.

These interactions also offered time for participants to engage in discussions about each other's research projects, which included discussions with the Italian students on "methodologies and study designs" (Cris), as well as the purposes of adult education. Beth, in a conversation about research with an Italian student learned that "the idea of adult education for a facilitator or instruction is newer to their system [of education/training]." In addition, Ian explained, "My impression of our Italian university counterparts is their orientation towards adult education is more vocationally and socially focused while our orientation is broader and more theoretical." As well, Charles presented these conclusions, "the World Café interaction expanded the learning and certainly highlighted the global learning opportunities available as adult learners." Having the opportunity to talk at length with the Italian students about adult education and research in Italy offered the opportunity for the U.S. participants to reflect on their previous perceptions of their fields and research, and expand their understandings about the influences of culture on adult education.

We know that learning does not always occur in a classroom, and that is certainly the case in adult study abroad (Coryell, 2011). Indeed, free time interactions in the foreign city constituted many of the meaningful learning experiences that our participants related in their blog reflections. These experiences were times for observing and engaging with Italians and classmates, and these experiences became opportunities to learn about Italian culture and reflect upon one's own cultural expectations and actions in a foreign community. The data were rife with participants' enhanced insights into several behaviors, values, and principles of Italian and U.S. cultural influences and perspectives. While some of the experiences out of class were with the Italian students they met, others were with individuals encountered in cafés, at the *residenza* in which the students were housed, in the train station, or simply walking in the town. An example is Cris' description of his experiences in cafés,

> My interactions with the locals at the different cafés were essential in learning the Italian culture…Ordering coffee was almost an art. I observed how the locals would order coffee and how they would interact with the barista or the wait staff. I tried to emulate these actions, successfully most of the time, and try to be cognizant of the dos and don'ts of the Italian culture.

Many participants were interested in "blending" in with the culture, as well as understanding some of the important etiquette expected in public settings. Additionally, the participants often found opportunities to reflect on their own culture and social interactions while engaged with others outside of class activities. Beth clarified,

> Despite not knowing the language the attempt [to speak Italian] seemed to please people. I learned that if you at least start with hello and ended with thank you that people were receptive to your request. I will make more of an effort at learning a language of a foreign country if I am to travel there. We as Americans expect people to speak to us in English when they come to visit, so I believe that we should make the same attempt.

Attending to cultural mores and behavioral expectations that may be different from one's own was a strong thread across the data. Anna offered "I feel like as individuals, we were very aware of the image we were projecting of ourselves, and we were careful on how we were perceived." However, she acknowledged that when they were together in a larger group of classmates outside of class, they would somehow more easily disconnect with their surroundings. In fact, many of the participants discussed times when they ventured out on their own, and how meaningful those occasions were for them in their learning about Italy, the pulse of the city, and the activities and interactions of the locals.

Discussion and Implications

Analysis of the blogs provided useful insights regarding the relational aspects among adults within the CoPs (communities of practice) in a study abroad program. The community of practice within this program can be characterized as existing within the context of the study tour course with the U.S. participants, as well as expanding to include the Italian town and university community once in-country. Throughout the blog data, students discussed the important benefits and the role relationships played in their learning in this community. The shared domain of interests (Wenger, 2009) among the U.S. and Italian students aided the strong and swift development of social-academic interactions. In describing the community of the course, itself, participants often mentioned the comradery present in the group; everyone helped each other and looked out for one another. Furthermore, interactions across the two student seminars allowed our participants to better place their own research interests within the broader, international field of adult education. Additionally, discussions between U.S. and Italian students often led to unique ways of viewing adult education as a field of study and may lead participants to consider new methods of addressing issues within the discipline. The connections built among the students allowed for candid conversations and authentic learning from one another.

Implications for practice suggest that study abroad program designers should ensure that time to share research interests and perspectives for graduate students from both countries is included in the course design. These structured activities are ideal for the initial contact between the two groups of students, as these events can serve as the foundations of relationship development by allowing students to connect and identify shared interests.

Our participants also enjoyed partaking in various non-academic activities together, such as sharing a coffee or a meal together in local cafés. They also took pride in the relationships that were built and developed while participating during free time abroad. As the relationships among the U.S. students grew, the level of comfort and safety began

to rise within the group, which subsequently provided space for our participants to develop trust and safety outside the "home student" community to include others from the foreign locale.

Corresponding with studies by Dirkx, et al. (2010) and Coryell (2011), a common theme across our data was the rich learning that occurred through engagement with locals in the host city's public spaces. Casual exchanges, observations, and conversations provided opportunities for participants to enhance their knowledge of the northern Italian culture and to attempt to assimilate, or at least be more sensitive to, the Italian culture more quickly. As such, we recommend that program designers allocate ample free time for students to explore on their own, as well as to collaborate with one another and with people from the local community. Adult students in study abroad are more self-directed in their learning choices (Coryell, 2011; 2013) and will often use their free time to continue their learning in meaningful ways. Our findings add to the literature by suggesting a concerted focus on the relational and cross-cultural learning benefits of scheduled free time in these programs, which allow students to utilize each other as resources in their academic and cross-cultural development. To foster relationships, we recommend that graduate study abroad instructors must not only design free time into the course design, but also allow students to have some autonomy over various aspects of the trip, such as with whom they travel, where they engage with the local community, and when some activities take place. These student choices may support relationships to develop organically as students with similar interests will stay together and continue to bond.

Finally, an important aspect to adult study abroad is structured reflection (Coryell, 2013). Our study's findings reiterate that program designers must create opportunities for reflective activities to assist graduate students in processing learning experiences that occur both inside and outside the classroom abroad. In the program under study in this research, blogs allowed time for our participants to reflect critically on academic content, cultural interactions and perspectives, and insights gained because these assignments provided a space for students to process both positive and negative experiences. These blog postings also gave learners an opportunity to show gratitude to their fellow classmates and share how helpful everyone had been, thus further building relationships.

While this research is limited in that it reports only the preliminary findings of our study, we intend to further the investigation by conducting in-depth interviews with the participants to analyze their preliminary motivations for learning in the program, and the relationship those motivations had on the social/relational learning that occurred. Our hope is that future research, ours and that of other scholars, will continue to investigate adult learning in graduate study abroad to include research on relational learning in these programs. Further research in this area will provide additional insight into effective facilitation and instructional methods in fostering enhanced understandings of graduate student research development, the academic discipline, and international, cross-cultural adult learning and knowing.

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A HISTORY OF ORAL AND WRITTEN STORYTELLING IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT: Storytelling is a powerful process in adult education as a useful instructional approach in facilitating adult instruction and learning, especially during preliterate eras. What began as oral tradition has evolved to include written literature. A popular Eurocentric perspective in the early 19th century was that before the arrival of Europeans Africa was a savage continent devoid of culture. Once Nigerian authors began to produce novels and other written works, authors such as Chinua Achebe continued using storytelling to debunk this Eurocentric narrative. Achebe employed storytelling and proverbs to establish that the continent wasn't devoid of culture. This approach resonated with readers and reignited interest in the storytelling tradition. Achebe provided historical information using storytelling narratives to help readers learn about life and culture in prehistoric African societies before the invasion of Europeans. Storytelling in both the oral and written tradition can help adult learners understand the impact of colonialism in Nigeria.

Keywords: Adult Learning, Oral Tradition, Storytelling, Nigeria

Storytelling is one of the oldest methods of interaction and communication in human history. Before the advent of the written word, historical events were transmitted to future generations through the use of compelling stories. A significant approach of human capacity was the ability to preserve its historical heritage using narratives. Every civilization has a historical and cultural heritage which people hold dear (Nduka, 2014), and transmitting history and cultural heritage through the oral tradition of storytelling is a common phenomenon of human practice. This shared way of knowledge not only details life's events but also preserves the history of people and societies from one generation to another.

As an instructional approach, storytelling has broad applicability in human learning both for children (Amali, 2014) and adults (Tate, 2004). The strong sense of emotional appeal and personal experience that is incorporated into storytelling makes it an appealing method in adult learning and instruction (Rossiter, 2002). Storytelling motivates learners as well as helps them access, express, and retain information and knowledge (Pfahl & Wiessner, 2007). It promotes brain-based learning and reflective thinking (Tate, 2004). Through storytelling, people and societies around the world learn, develop the codes of behavior, and formulate meaning-making in their lives (Adichie, 2013).

Mbiti (1966) observed:

> Stories are to a certain extent the mirror of life; they reflect what the people do, what they think, how they live and have lived, their values, their joys and their sorrows. The stories are also a means of articulating man's [sic] response to his [sic] environment. (p. 31)

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Storytelling is universal and is popular in many cultures where it became the medium the people used to preserve their beliefs, social values, wisdom, and cultural experiences as well as to transfer them from one generation to another. Through history, adult educators like Plato and Jesus of Nazareth have used stories to connect, demonstrate, illustrate and communicate with learners. This was true also in pre-literate Nigeria societies, where storytelling was used as a medium to educate, preserve oral history, and convey cultural norms to the indigenous people (Verbina & Damodaran, 2013). Nigerian communities used storytelling as oral discourse, since writing was unknown to most of the populace (Achebe, 1959). Storytelling occurred in both formal and informal settings. Some storytellers were considered oral artists or court historians, developing special talents in storytelling including the memory and endurance to tell lengthy histories (Ajuwon, 1985). In other settings storytelling was a communal participatory experience (Tuwe, 2016) or a way for parents to educate their children (Verbina & Damodaran, 2013). Even farmers who had worked all day in the fields would relax in the evening by telling stories in the evening (Ajuwon, 1985).

In informal and formal settings, the telling of stories in Nigeria is and was used by professional narrators, educators, and parents to teach respect, moral instruction, norms, societal values, and preservation of the historical, cultural customs (Gardner, 1990). In other words, storytelling was used to preserve the identity of the people. Storytelling was also used to promote listening skills among young Nigerians. As Oduolowu and Oluwakemi (2014) stated, in the traditional African environment, specifically Nigeria, young children were told stories in the form of oral narratives by parents, grandparents, uncles and aunts. This way, the younger offspring were able to learn how to obey instructions from their elders by practicing listening skills and learning about their heritage. For adult listeners, stories were used to depict the wisdom, knowledge, and power of elders.

These stories sometimes incorporated proverbs, which are short, memorable sayings that express a belief or piece of advice. "These words are words of 'experts' from a continuum that stretches from the ancestors to elders in the community" (Avoseh, 2013, p. 240) In fact, ancestors are considered to have "intellectual ownership of proverbs" (Avoseh, 2013, p. 240). Proverbs can be used for admonition, to warn of impending danger, or for counseling and encouragement depending on the context.

Folktales also have value to society in Nigeria (Amali, 2014). Folktales have a distinguishing feature and can include a combination of music, voice, drama, and dancing (Tuwe, 2016). It is an integral part of the oral society and played a significant role in the community life of Nigerians and also reflected a communal lifestyle of living (Achebe, 1959). Folktales were used to relate the diverse cultural and traditional aspects of the society (Amali, 2014). For example, in those days in Nigeria communities in rural settings, after the day's hard work, people would congregate around the village square every evening, a prototype of the modern day community center to listen to music, watch dances and special narratives that took on different characters.

The folktales are stories organized around a particular purpose and theme, either to relate a moral lesson, tell a human truth, describe the adventure of war and tell stories of personality types and figures (Achebe, 1959). This way, the folktales stories kept the history of Nigerian people alive, and people learned significantly from the narratives. According to Amali (2014), the Idoma people of Benue State that occupies part of the western areas of Nigeria, used folktales to demonstrate to people what the society expects of them such as acceptable behaviors. Folktales were also used to educate young children. Through this process, both the young and adults alike were able to learn the messages conveyed by the narratives of folktale stories. In other words, the values of the society were portrayed through folktales.

This oral tradition continued for thousands of years. There is evidence that Nigeria was inhabited at least 13,000 years ago (Shaw & Jameson, 2002). Much of what is known of Nigeria and its indigenous people in the pre-literate times is traced to oral traditions of storytelling (Gardner, 1990). Since then there have been several waves of foreign influence. By the eighth century (C.E.), Arabic influence had come to Nigeria along with the Arabic language and the practice of Islam (Nigeria History, 2012). By the 14th century, written and spoken Arabic were flourishing in northern Nigeria and by the 17th century some stories of the Hausa (members of the largest ethnic group in Africa) were translated into Arabic (Gardner, 1990). Then began a period of contact with Europeans who were driven by missionary zeal and the desire for trade. First came the Portuguese in the late 15th century and they established catholic missions in the early 16th century (Stewart, 2000). By the second half of the 17th century the power of the Portuguese declined as English and Dutch traders became more active in Nigeria. The British captured the Nigerian capital of Lagos in 1851 and began to colonize the country as an imperial power. Missionaries translated the Bible into Yoruba and Igbo languages and spread the Christian religion.

In the early 19th century, European explorers that visited Africa continent told and wrote stories about Africa to justify colonialization and exploitation of African territories. Many of the stories depicted Africans as people without culture and civilization. Nduka (2014) pointed out that although few Western writers had actually visited Africa, they wrote with a colonizer's perspective that "paint[ed] Africa black" (para. 5). Those stories negatively informed many in the west about life in Africa, and to this day it is difficult to erase the Eurocentric view about Africa. Stewart (2000) noted that:

> Although Nigeria was the creation of European ambitions and rivalries in West Africa, it would be an error to assume that its peoples had little history before its final boundaries were negotiated by Britain, France and Germany at the turn of the twentieth century. (para. 1)

By the 1930s several African writers (i.e., Mohammed Bello and Pita Nwana) began writing stories and novels to debunk Eurocentric narratives. Other writers began reflecting the power and influence of native stories in their work. The literary style was predominately fantasy-based until the late 1940s when a shift to realism occurred

(Ajuwon, 1985). The newer work included human characters and dealt with universal themes such as justice, corruption, religion, love and marriage.

Chinua Achebe was born in Nigeria in 1930 and became a prolific poet and novelist with a career that spanned many decades. In 1959, just as Nigeria was about to become independent, Achebe published his first novel titled *Things Fall Apart,* which is believed to be a response to Joseph Conrad's work *Heart of Darkness.* Achebe (1959) employed storytelling as an approach to establish that the Africa continent wasn't devoid of culture, as promoted by European early explorers; rather, Africa was a home of culture and this approach did resonate with many readers.

In this and his later writing Achebe took the style of oral narratives to communicate Nigerian culture using animated stories, and dialogue of life and culture in prehistoric eastern Nigeria. The stories in *Things Fall Apart* took the form of individual and community characters, proverbs, riddles, jokes, folktales, etc. (Verbina & Damodaran, 2013). The stories were used to communicate lessons of different messages from moral attributes to cultural practices, communal lifestyle, hard work, war, witchcraft, feminism and masculine to both young and old people in the community (Achebe, 1959). For example, in *Things Fall Apart,* the story of the fighter was told who was well known in the villages because of his strength and personal achievements. Okonkwo's fame spread like a "bush-fire in the harmattan" (Achebe, 1959, p. 3), the dry, dusty trade wind which blows from the Sahara Desert over West Africa. Okonkwo was unlike his father Unoka, who was weak, lazy, and improvident. When any money came his way, Unoka will make merry and frittered it all away. As a result, he was always borrowing and died in debt without taken any chieftaincy title in his community which was a mark of wealth and respect. This story illustrates the difference between hard work and laziness, failure and success among the Ibo people in Nigeria.

Achebe (1959) demonstrated this in most of his characters in *Things Fall Apart* and repeatedly used proverbs in his epic novel. He believed that "proverbs are the palm-oil with which words are eaten" (p. 7). Nigerian scholar Mejai Avoseh, believes that the "brevity and succinctness of proverbs" is part of the reason for this analogy (personal communication, October 4, 2016). Other famous proverbs include "he who brings kola brings life" which refers to the kola nuts which are important in spiritual practice in Nigeria. Also, "if a child washed his hands, he shall eat with kings" which means that a good reputation and integrity will take you to greater heights.

Novels that were written both before and after Nigeria gained independence in 1960 are still considered important literature. Nduka (2014) noted that "acculturation and western civilization have made the younger generation to [sic] pay less attention to some of the cultural beliefs because they see them as irrelevant and obsolete" (para. 10), so it is important to have the traditions preserved through the stories. These stories can be passed on through the oral tradition or through novels and other written works to promote a society's heritage.

This rejection of colonialism and reclaiming of identity by writers such as Achebe can be useful not just for Nigerians who remain in the homeland, but also those who have dispersed and become part of the Nigerian diaspora. These five to fifteen million people are in most areas of the world but the largest populations of Nigerians can be found in the United Kingdom, the United States, and South Africa (The Nigerian Diaspora, 2014, para. 1). A more contemporary Nigerian author, Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie, who came to the United States at the age of nineteen to study, wrote a novel titled *Americanah* (2103) which allows a view into the world of Nigerians who emigrated to London and the United States. Adichie was able to remember and narrate her experience and that of Nigerians in the United States through the influence of storytelling. Her constant comparison of her childhood experience in Nigeria and her adult life as a student in the U.S. details how storytelling can help people remember and narrate events in their lives using stories as a connection point. Storytelling helps to promote historical heritage.

Also, as adult learners and educators gather together in instructional and learning contexts, collective sharing of experiences both by learners and educators spring multiple perspectives that can translate to multiple knowledge and ideas. This way everyone becomes active participants and contributor to the learning process.

Significance of Storytelling for Contemporary Nigerians

In writing about adult education in Nigeria, Onyenemezu (2012) acknowledged that the country is facing challenges in the 21st century. Recently youth and young adults have been restive in the Niger Delta region resulting in violence and youth militancy in militias. More recently, Boko Haram is wreaking havoc through bombings, kidnappings, and assassinations. Onyenemezu argued that examining adult education could help to alleviate the instability and increase political and economic development. Oddly, when Zuofa and Olori, (2015) recently researched adult learning methods in Nigeria, they did not include storytelling. Evidence suggests that it would be an effective method of adult education in Nigeria. Whether in formal, informal, or non-formal learning, telling the stories of historical facts and cultures are significant aspects of connecting adult learners with their cultural heritage.

Although Achebe first wrote of the impact of colonizers on Igbo clans in 1959, as recently as 2014, Nduka expressed concern that the Igbo culture will be lost. He lamented that when fathers do not know the history and stories of their own culture, it is a tragedy that they cannot answer the questions of their children about festivals, the indigenous calendar, the age-grade or age-group system, chieftancy within the community, or meanings of proverbs.

Storytelling is useful for members of the African diaspora not just to remember their own history, but to adapt to their new homes. Tuwe (2016) studied African communities based in New Zealand and argued that the oral tradition of storytelling was useful when dealing with work-related challenges.

Decolonization involves challenging Western epistemologies and embracing an indigenous paradigm and traditional knowledge. Recognizing the power and influence of native stories can assist decolonization and reverse the perception of colonizers being knowers and indigenous people as being ignorant.

> First, the legacy of the helping Western colonializing Other must be resisted…As agents of colonial power, Western scientists discovered, extracted, appropriated, commodified, and distributed knowledge about the indigenous other. (Denzin, Lincoln & Smith, 2008, p. 5)

In order to undo western dominance and unravel colonialism, it is necessary to create knowledge based on African philosophy which includes "community-centred [sic] ways of knowing, the story-telling framework, [and] language as a bank of knowledge" (Chilisa & Preece, 2005, p. 49). Storytelling satisfies all three of those aspects. Since storytelling was a social practice and a participatory experience, it is community centered. The storytelling framework has been used for millennia in Nigeria in the oral tradition, which continues even with the evolution of written stories. Finally, language is a bank of knowledge since proverbs and cultural history are included in both the oral and written tradition. Although European colonizers renamed lands, bodies of water, and other African assets by inflicting names related by the colonizers and missionaries, in stories, Nigerians could reclaim their indigenous knowledge and language by reclaiming the original names.

In addition, storytelling as a motivational tool has the potential to expose learners to the path of success using inspirational stories that can foster strong connection. Denning (2011) noted that much of what we know is composed of stories, and many of them describe how circumstances and situations in the past have been successfully handled. In other words, through the application of stories, adult learners can gain knowledge that will be useful for undertaking life's arduous tasks. For example, hearing stories about conflict resolution, one could learn how to resolve a conflict. A personal life story could culminate in learning transformation and new understanding (Pfahl & Wiessner, 2007).

When people organize their experiences into stories, the resulting narrative "may be an ideal process in that it characterizes movement of development toward some future end" (Weissner & Pfahl, 2007, p. 28). Dillard (2008) has capitalized on this notion by adopting the idea of using the term African *ascendant* rather than *descendant* to describe "the upward and forward moving nature of African people through the diaspora as well as on the African continent herself" (p. 291). This is itself a decolonizing perspective.

When people examine their own stories, they can examine them in relation to larger cultural contexts (Rossiter, 2002, p. 4). Adults have the potential to make changes and rewrite their lives stories (Pfahl & Wiessner, 2007), reducing their colonized world views. Storytelling allows individuals to rewrite themselves, but it can also have a larger impact: indigenous peoples who are combatting the effects of colonialism can unite a group or community and rewrite communal memory (Weissner & Pfahl, 2007).

Implications for Non-African scholars and educators

When reading research about indigenous people or conducting research with indigenous people, it is important but challenging for scholars who are part of a dominant culture to view through an appropriate lens and be aware of our colonizing perceptions. Indigenous scholars have begun to push back to that end (Chilisa, 2012; Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Denzin et al., 2008; Kovach, 2010; Smith, 1999).

> The term 'research' is inextricably linked to European imperialism and colonialism. The word itself, 'research', it probably one of the dirtiest words in the indigenous world's vocabulary. When mentioned in many indigenous contexts, it stirs up silence, it conjures up bad memories, it raises a smile that is knowing and distrustful. It is so powerful that indigenous people even write poetry about research…It galls us that Western researchers and intellectuals can assume to know all that it is possible to know of us, on the basis of their brief encounters with some of us…'We are the most researched people in the world' is a comment I have heard frequently from several different indigenous communities. The truth of such a comment is unimportant, what does need to be taken seriously is the sense of weight and unspoken cynicism about research that the message conveys. (Smith, 1999, pp. 1, 3)

Hence, it is important to let Nigerian voices speak in both fiction and research. An example is scholar and scientist Osamuyimen (Uyi) Stewart (2000) who noted earlier that Nigeria had a rich history before European contact and is himself Nigerian. Although he is a highly regarded scientist, and IBM Distinguished Engineer, and Chief Scientist of IBM Research Africa, Stewart honors the indigenous way of knowing. Rather than stating a positivist perspective that preferences academic research and empirical findings, in his writing about the history of Nigeria he acknowledged that the "posting is a collection of oral tradition passed down to [him], [his] critical evaluation of folklore, and ideas from a variety of written sources [mostly African]" (para.1). This Nigerian-born scientist, who graduated from the University of Benin, Nigeria, then went on to earn a Master of Philosophy at Cambridge University in England, and a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Canada, acknowledged the oral tradition and the importance of folklore, rather than adopting a western scientific approach.

The oral tradition, which evolved to include written literature, allows the Nigerian people to ensure the preservation of the history and culture. Nduka noted that even if the younger generation neglects the teachings, they are preserved "so as to ensure that generations yet unborn would have access to them" (2015, para. 9). In that way indigenous knowledge systems can be restored.

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REFLECTIONS AFTER WORKING AT THE CENTER FOR REFUGEES OF CONETTA, ITALY: PRACTICE AND COMPETENCIES NEEDED

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ABSTRACT: During the 2014 and the 2015 the Mediterranean Sea continued to be the theater of a huge migratory flow. Only in these two years, more than 320,000 persons, especially from Nigeria, Gambia, Senegal, Mali and Bangladesh, left their countries for a long travel with the hope of finding a place where they could live with dignity. Once they arrive on the Italian costs of Sicily, Calabria, and Sardinia, immigrants are distributed throughout the different regions of Italy where they are hosted in centers for refugees' reception. In these centers they can stay until their request as political refugee is accepted. From November 2015 until April 2016, the first author worked in the refugee center of Conetta, a small village in the area of Venice in the north east of Italy. Established at the end of July 2016, the center is one of the biggest of the country and hosts more than 500 men hailing from the sub-Saharan countries of Africa, and the Asian countries of Afghanistan and Bangladesh. Starting from this experience the authors explain the different practices of the job as social worker in a reception center and identify the needed competences to carry out this work.

The following paper is written with the hopes of starting a series of research works in the years to come. The willingness to develop them originates from a work experience that allowed the first author to live personally the phenomenon of immigrants' reception in Italy and this paper just aims to set a starting point in describing the experience. Through this account we will attempt to highlight the characteristics of the community of practice (Wenger, 2006; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2007) of the social workers who every day are committed in the management of a reception center for immigrants. The second part of this paper originates, likewise, from a problem found during this experience: the lack of training the workers suffer in challenging the difficulties of their work in their relations with the immigrants. Our aim, in this part, will be to identify in the literature competences models and using them to define the most important issues in designing training courses for this sector of emerging professionals.

The reception center where the first author worked as a social operator from November 2015 to April 2016, is situated in the Venice area, north east of Italy. Conetta, the name of this village, is part of the municipality of Cona and has a number of inhabitants of about 200 people. Here the Prefecture of Venice has identified a former Italian Air Force military base as a useful place for the reception of immigrants. During the period under review, the center was giving shelter to an average of 500 people, thus exceeding by far the number of inhabitants who lived in Conetta. The guests of the center were native above all of the Sub-Saharan Africa (Nigeria, Gambia, and Senegal) and Asia (Bangladesh, Pakistan), they were all men, with a mean age of 25, partly English-

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speaking and French-speaking, but with a high percentage of people only speaking their native language.

The military base housing these people was a large fenced area in the Venetian countryside. Inside there were some buildings used as dormitories, a secretary's office, warehouses, a laundry, a gym, a canteen, a kitchen and a waste collection center. There were also three large tents, two used as dormitories and one as a common area where the guests could eat, and where other activities, such as Italian language lessons, took place. There were also containers, most of which were destined for use as showers and toilets, while only two as infirmary. Inside the camp there was a football field and a vegetable garden, too.

The Community of Practice of Social Workers

This paper will try to highlight the practices the social workers of the reception center of Conetta adopted during our stay there. By practice we mean the explicit and implicit elements of their work that are the outcome of a negotiation between tangible and intangible aspects through which they tried to reach the results expected in their work (Fabbri, 2007). The theoretical framework used for this analysis considers the learning of these practices (by any learner, social workers or students, general workers, etc.) as involving the persons while they realize activities related to their own interests or work. Thus, the learners adopt general practices, beliefs, and values shared by the community itself. These communities, called "communities of practice," are groups of individuals who, carrying out activities, develop a shared repertoire of experiences, tools, and ways to solve common problems. The repertoire provides a patrimony for the people who become part of these communities and contributes to the pursuit of their objectives. The community shares a wide range of practices developed through the efforts in solving both ordinary and significant problems (Budwig, 2015). The narration and the reflections that follow are relative to the period between November 2015 and April 2016.

The Working Hours

The working day of the social workers in the reception center lasted seven hours and half; they began at nine in the morning and worked until seven in the evening. Everyone was entitled to one three quarters of an hour break during the morning, a one hour break at lunch time and one more three quarters break in the afternoon. This was the only information social workers knew when they were recruited. But the information was not completely true. The greatest difficulty in schedule compliance was due to the lack of a room where operators could relax undisturbed. Being always in contact with the guests inevitably led the workers to always interact with them. Without the possibility to take regular breaks, as assured in the employment contract, each operator reacted in a different way. Most of them did not have breaks, allowing themselves only several cigarettes in the day. Some, especially the new workers, stopped their activities walking away from the busiest areas of the camp; others used their cars to relax for few minutes. Nevertheless, the workers' break was highly respected by all the other workers and even those who, by choice, didn't have breaks, didn't criticize their colleagues. Therefore, without the

opportunity to take regular breaks, everyone was implicitly forced to work more than they should, and this was experienced by many social workers as an injustice and created discontent.

The Journey to Reach the Camp

As a matter of fact, the working day began much earlier than nine o'clock in the morning and exactly at eight, when the social workers coming from the same area or city met to reach the center, sharing their cars in turn and drove for about one hour. In the evening we drove back home for one more hour. While travelling together, social workers had the opportunity to exchange their points of view on their work. The two-hour journey together represented a real opportunity for socializing and exchanging working strategies and information to accomplish our activities during the day. We could talk about the guests, their character, whether they were friendly or not, if they had correct behavior and if they were respectful. Also, we could exchange information on how to perform a given task. For example, if you had to accompany guests to hospital, it could be important to ask other colleagues information about the shortest road to arrive there, the bureaucratic procedure and the documents required. Finally, this hour's trip was important above all for those who had recently started to work because they could learn from more experienced operators, ask for advices and generally understand how to work better.

The Administrative Office and Different Types of Activities

Heart of all the activities done in the camp was the administrative office. Every morning, the social workers, arrived at the center, met in the office to know the tasks that would be assigned to them. The types of activities within the camp were various. There were very simple activities such as, for example, the supervision of the attendance register, of the register where the guests could declare their health problems and the cafeteria register; the supervision of the queues during the distributions of goods and services as well as the supervision of the structures of the camp. Other kinds of activities were more manual such as cleaning the camp with the aid of the cleaning staff and those guests who voluntarily offered their help; giving the meals and managing the laundry service, loading and unloading the various goods coming from outer suppliers. Other duties include checking temperature of food and of the water in the hydraulic system, distributing money, documents, clothes or medicines. Finally, there were more complex tasks such as, for example, when the guests were accompanied to hospital or to the police headquarters for the interviews through which it was possible to know their life history and allow them to apply for political asylum, the management of the documents concerning the requests for asylum or the residence permit and the documents that allowed them to access the national health service of the area.

The Participation in the Community of Practice

The participation of the members in a community of practice not only concerns their involvement in some activities with some people, but also becomes a process of building the identity of this community (Budwig, 2015). In Conetta center the participation of the

newcomers in the center activities followed an order tacitly accepted even if never formally established.

Newcomer social workers were initially involved in supervision activities and in the distribution of the meals. They supervised, for example, the register that guests had to sign every day as a guarantee of their presence in the center and which is necessary to determine the economic contribution they should receive. In addition, newcomer operators had to ask about the guests' health status and note any problem in a different register. They had just to sit at a table and control if the guests signed next to their names only. Thus, they could establish a first contact with guests, which was very important because the essence of the operator work is precisely to have a good relationship with the guests and be recognized by them as authoritative persons.

The distribution of the meals was a moment of great tension among the guests as the quality and quantity of food were always a source of discontent. The newcomers had to learn how to be quick and careful in distributing the right and same quantity of food to everybody. Also, the guests had to follow long lines before receiving their meals and many of them did not respect their turn. It was therefore necessary to control that the positions in the line would be respected not to cause further tensions.
The cleaning and control of the center facilities, that is green areas, dormitories, bathrooms, were constantly supervised to detect malfunctions or damages that were promptly reported to plumbers and electricians.

This kind of activity allowed the newcomers to orient themselves in the camp and memorize the bed occupied by each guest. This could be very important when it was necessary to communicate with them, as the center was very wide. At the beginning, these first activities were also helpful to understand the newcomers' abilities and readiness in performing the tasks and assign them more complex ones.
With the increase of the social workers' experience, the responsibilities they might have and the activities they could manage proportionally grew. For example, the task of accompanying the guests outside the center was assigned to more experts workers. They had to know the documents necessary to access the public health service and the different steps the guests had to follow to receive assistance. In addition, guests were also accompanied to the police station to get the residence permit. Also in this case it was necessary to understand what kind of documents were important to be sure that everything was properly filled out and validated.

The task of distributing documents, clothes, products for personal hygiene, and medicines was also assigned to the workers only when they had acquired some more experience. Crucial in the delivery of documents was to recognize the guests and know their position in the structures and tents. For the distribution of clothes and products for personal hygiene the operators had to know above all the booking process that allowed them to know who could receive the goods during that day and, in this way, prepare more easily the goods to distribute. They had also to know how to fill the forms used to record that received the goods and consequently who had not received them yet. A nurse distributed the medicines with the help of an expert social worker. In this case, the social

workers had to know the organization of the infirmary that is the disposition of the medicines and the documents, and how to use specific machinery as the nebulizer or fill out the forms to record the delivery of the therapies and the daily consumption of medicine.

In the administrative office the coordinators and the most experienced workers managed the center. The first task of the day was to print the updated attendance register, the register to monitor the health of the guests and the register the guests had to sign at lunch and dinner time. Later, the social workers and the coordinators prepared the agenda of the next day: that is, a list of activities to be carried out with the specification of the starting time and the social workers' name. The other activity managed by the administrative office concerned putting the guests in touch with the police headquarters and the national health centers of the territory. Every day, the social workers in the administrative office prepared the guests' documents necessary for their requests to the police, those required when the National Health Service called them for mandatory medical examinations or when they had to go back to hospital for a therapeutic follow up or to see a specialist. In addition, social workers in the administrative office also had the task of recording the goods of the warehouses and asking the employer the necessary supplies to prevent sudden run out.

The administrative office also included a front office to receive the guests' requests. The activities of the administrative office were very complex and to perform them, precise information was necessary about procedures and documents that had to be asked the central office. It was important to have basic knowledge of how the National Health Service and the police headquarters worked and it was necessary for the workers to ensure a continuous presence in the camp (a minimum of five days out of seven) in order to know what was going on and to have every situation under control.

There were two major obstacles in carrying out these activities: the lack of initial training and the difficulty in realizing coordination meetings. For this reason, often the information needed to perform the tasks was incomplete, unclear, incorrect or out of date. Moreover, as it was impossible to divide the back office from the front office section, this made it hard to concentrate and carry out what a social worker was doing due to the overcrowding of the guests.

The Meaning of Practices in the Social Workers' Community

The activities described above are only a small part of the many the social workers carry out during their working day. Furthermore, although they may seem very different, they had a common denominator. The social workers, while doing their work independently or using the advices of the most experienced operators, made the best of the continuous changes in the situations and, day after day, realized and shared practices that: (a) provided solutions to the conflicts generated by the contradiction between the needs of parties external to what happened in the center, such as the employer and the institutions, and the effective realization of the demands and the reality of the center itself; (b) promoted a common memory that allowed the individual operator to work even without

knowing all the information necessary to carry out the activities of the center; (c) helped the newcomers to become part of the community through their participation to its working practices; (d) allowed the creation of specific meanings and terms that distinguished the different procedures of the performed tasks; (e) created a working atmosphere in which automatic and repetitive tasks, sometimes considered unfair and meaningless, met with rituals, habits, stories, events, dramatic situations and rhythms of the community life (Wenger, 2006).

Competency Models for the Social Workers of the Reception Centers

The second part of this paper tries to identify, based on academic and institutional sources, the competences needed for the professionalism development of the operators engaged in the daily activities of the reception centers in Italy. The analysis of these competences might be useful to identify the most important issues and design possible training modules for these emerging professionals.

The first institutional source that outlines a competency model is the Operating Manual for the Activation and Management of the Reception and Integration Services for the Applicants and Beneficiaries of International Protection (Central Service of the Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees, 2015). This manual explains the importance of the relationship between social worker and guest, where the former plays a key role in the integration of the latter. The professionals assist the guests in solving any question of the everyday life and facilitate them in the knowledge of the territory. The manual recognizes, as written in the first part of this work, that the relationship between operator and guest is characterized by mutual trust, which is the starting point for an integration process necessary to strengthen the resources of the guests and apply them in a new social context. In order to help operators to develop their ability to manage effective interpersonal relationships, the manual contains some useful elements (p. 5):

- listen to the guests and help them in expressing their own needs;
- recognize the competences of their professional role, their duties and weaknesses;
- acquire the specific competences of the role and bring themselves up to date;
- be aware of their own personal weaknesses;
- make sure the guest is aware of how and when the social worker can intervene;
- know about the services and the resources of the territory;
- build relationships for information exchange and mutual cooperation with other institutions of the territory;
- orient and encourage the access of the guests to the services they need;
- build a reciprocity relationship with the guests, make them aware of their responsibility so that they will activate themselves independently according to their individual resources;
- relate with the guests based on their personal characteristics;

- share the intervention plan with other social workers, in order to realize complementary activities.

The operating manual (2015) states that the social workers' role is not to take the guests upon themselves, but to make their own expertise available to facilitate a personalized reception process based on the services available in the territory and on the guests' personal characteristics, rights and responsibilities. For this purpose the social workers must develop an expertise based on (p. 5):

- the empathic listening which allows the understanding of the guest's perspective;
- the building of a relationship based on dialogue and negotiation;
- a communication that aims to structure and make the relationship transparent during the integration process;
- the knowledge of the guests and their life story.

In addition to the social workers' individual ability in establishing a relationship of trust in facilitating learning (Henschke, 2011), it is important to develop competences to work with colleagues. As a matter of fact, the necessity to work as a group was one of the most important problems in the Conetta reception center. In fact, the lack of organizational meetings did not allow professionals to receive more detailed and updated information and reflect as a group on the procedures to carry out the activities.

A training program for the social workers' professional development should also make competences for teamwork easier to achieve. The Central Service suggests, in its operating manual, the importance of developing intervention abilities and tools for social workers working as group and it reports what should be the skills of the coordinators (see Table 1).

An interesting study by Boccuzzo and Grassia (2008) carried out a statistical analysis that describes and quantifies the activities of the social workers providing services to immigrants.

Table 3
Competencies Needed for Social Workers and Coordinators Working in Team

Team			
Social workers			Coordinators
Competences	Skills in assistance programming and planning	Tools	Competences
Ability to share a group work;	Verify and share both the problems of the intervention and the resources of	Periodic meetings for planning and implementation;	Coordination of the social workers and management of human

	the group;		resources;
Know the different spheres of the guests' life, even those not based on the social workers' specific skills	Assess the work done;	Share periodic reports about realized interventions and with whom, the outer contacts, etc.	Conduct periodic meetings;
Ability to listen (to the guests, colleagues and external actors);	Share any difficulties;	Share a telephone list of guests;	Management of the relations between the reception project and the team with the local authorities and other actors of the territory;
Knowledge of the specific kinds of guests (who the guests are, in terms of legal status and general psycho-social conditions);	Share the achieved results;	Opportunities for updating and training;	Promotion of agreements with the services of the area;
Ability to move within a local area.	Ensure a comprehensive approach in the project management and in taking charge of the guests	Supervision of the group that can support the single social workers' and/or the group work.	Promotion of training opportunities.

The study collected data through interviews and focus groups with social workers and coordinators on a national scale, to identify the competences considered necessary. The identified competencies are distinct in transversal, technical, specialist knowledge and personal characteristics.

Transversal competences concern interpersonal abilities, group works, work planning, decision-making, tracing and management of information and data, writing projects, organizing others' work, writing reports, public speaking, computer skills, and language skills.

The technical competences are motivating, developing and directing guests, negotiating conflicts, facilitating reconciliations, conducting interviews, listening to explicit or implicit needs, analyzing the behavior of a single person or a group, managing projects, adapting one's own actions to others', making of a cost-benefit analysis to determine the most effective solution, properly using equipment, tools and materials needed to perform a task, working in emergencies or in critical situations, explaining others how to do tasks, making communication and social marketing, managing other people's time, carrying out manual tasks and minor maintenance.

Specialist knowledge allows one to understand the regulations related to immigration, the procedures for the provision of services to persons, the cultures of multiethnic societies, the methods for needs assessment necessary for the design of social-educational interventions, the institutional system and the local welfare, the trends of the society, how the European Institutions, the national and the local authorities work, how to recognize the behavioral/affective disease, the leadership process, the social influence and the group dynamics, the individual differences in personality, how to design training programs and measure the effects, the social intervention techniques, the norms about health and hygiene, how the school system works, how to apply statistical techniques and social research, how to apply first aid techniques, how to recognize wounds, diseases, physical and psychic dysfunctions, the psychological development in childhood and adolescence.

Finally, the study of Boccuzzo and Grassia (2008) identified personal characteristics social workers and coordinators should have. These are values that integrate the technical, specialist and transversal competences. Personal characteristics relate to friendliness, mental elasticity, patience, interest towards diversity, detachment, self-control, deduction abilities, precision and accuracy, creativity, intuition, anthropological curiosity, persuasiveness, psychophysical endurance, courage, and willingness to play an affective role.

The ISFOL, agency of the Ministry of Labor and Social Policy is responsible for the systematization at a national level of the professions. During the years, the agency has carried out interesting researches designed to determine the necessary competences for those (social workers, coordinators, volunteers, etc.) working in the provision of services for immigrants. In research conducted for this agency, Gaudio and Caramelli (2009) identified data to select the competences considered important by coordinators and social workers of organizations that deal with international migration in Italy. Again, the data identified three types of competences: basic, specialist and technical, transversal (see Table 2).

Table 4
Competencies identified in the Work of Gaudio and Caramelli (2009)

Basic	Specialist and technical	Transversal
Management / organizational	Relational	Inter-cultural communication
Linguistic	Networking	Ability to handle stress

Technological	Problems of immigration	Conflict management
Job security	Policies of the labor market	Ability to establish helping relationships
	Design and management of social interventions	Team work
	Regulations of the welfare system	Problem solving
	Public events, communication, etc.	
	Design and management of research	
	Knowledge of local services	
	Analysis of capabilities and user needs	
	Monitoring and evaluation	

The competency models identified in this initial analysis of institutional and academic sources can be considered as the expression of the training needs that characterize the work of social operators and coordinators of the reception centers for immigrants in Italy. It is crucial to note that these models, based on the employees' opinions, give a strong emphasis to the relational component. The personal characteristics of the social workers identified by the second model can explain the nature of this professional role that, besides possessing technical and specialist competences, must be devoted to the aid of people in difficulty. The listed specialist and technical competences include a wide range of skills and knowledge that could justify the need to differentiate and categorize the specialties of individual social workers. They might specialize in health issues, legal issues, labor market, educational project, and so on. According to our experience as social workers, moreover, there is a strong need for expertise in specific roles in the management of reception centers such as: kitchen and cafeteria management, logistics, facilities management, as well as a coordinator role that require digital skills, ability in research and evaluation, communication skills, and ability in the management of human resources.

Transversal competences, other important components of these models, allow social workers to meet the challenges of a work where the situation is never well defined and is always subject to sudden changes in established procedures. Skills such as problem solving, stress management and decision-making are key features for this professional figure.

That is why, we reassert, this analysis of the competency models, although limited, can be considered a starting point to propose teaching modules, themes and methodologies for the realization of specific training courses.

Considerations for Facilitating Social Workers' Training in the Reception Centers

Knowing the learning needs of professionals working in this area of intervention leads one to reflect about the possibility of designing specific training courses. As claimed by Gaudio and Caramelli (2009), "an effective training program should start from what social workers experience through a process of reflexive rationality" (p. 474). This reflexive rationality could be based on the theoretical and practical frameworks of andragogy (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005), transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 2009), organizational learning (Argyris, & Schon, 1998), and action learning (O'Neil, & Marsick, 2007).

Starting from the identified competencies, it is possible to highlight the core themes of the course to develop teaching modules. These core themes could include:

- the relationship between social workers and guests;
- the teamwork with other social workers;
- the coordination of the team;
- the communication among social workers;
- the stress management;
- the provided services in the reception centers;
- the different activities in the reception centers;
- the evaluation of the effectiveness of the provided services;
- the social, political and cultural contexts of the countries of origin and of the guest countries;
- the types and characteristics of migrants;
- national and international standards on the right of asylum and on the request of a residence permit;
- the National Health Service;
- hygiene and first aid procedures;
- safety in the workplace.

Of course, most of these themes need to be taught through traditional methodologies as lectures, but to realize effective training, facilitators and trainers should consider active learning methodologies, too. In particular, it could be interesting to propose living lectures to foster discussions, roleplaying and simulations, focus groups and brainstorming among participants, action learning conversations, personalized learning through learning contracts, case studies and visits to reception centers.

Conclusions

The first part of this paper presented the experience of the authors as participants of the community of the social workers in the reception center for asylum seekers of the province of Venice. This narration can be useful to understand what activities and tools helped the operators in building the identity and meanings of the community of practice (Wenger, 2006; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2007). Although it is not possible to mention all the activities carried out at the center, the ones mentioned above in this paper

were presented in an attempt to highlight an implicit training performed by the social workers in the transition from a peripheral involvement to a greater participation in the community.

The second part presented three different competency models for the professionals who realize interventions with immigrants. They are interesting because they were realized through interviews with real social workers and coordinators in reception centers. Future developments in this direction could be made in collecting other competency models to achieve a comprehensive systematization by which to design training courses for those working in this area of intervention.

For sure, designing training courses for professionals in this field cannot be realized without thinking of personalized, experiential and reflective components facilitating authentic learning. A training course based only on the simple transmission of knowledge, although necessary due to the nature of certain themes, would limit the effectiveness of training. A training program to develop competencies for this kind of work should not be aimed exclusively to provide and manage services, but to work in highly complex situations with people who need to be accompanied to play a functional role in a new society.

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SUSTAINABILITY ADULT EDUCATION:
LEARNING TO RE-CREATE THE WORLD

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ABSTRACT: No crisis is as great as the environmental predicament we face. Globally, humans everywhere now confront problems of extreme weather, waste disposal, pollution, overpopulation, massive forest depletion, access to clean water, the depletion of natural resources, the destruction of natural habitats, and changes in the chemistry of the world's oceans. These ecological changes warrant our attention as global adult educators. Worldwide, adults will need to develop new ways of living. They will need to develop ecological intelligence and forms of eco-literacy that will support them in forging new patterns of sustainable life. Sustainability adult education is learning that helps prepare us to re-create the world to address current and future challenges through the development of new solutions and new ways of being. Adult education has a significant role to play in these efforts. This article explores the contested concepts of sustainability and sustainability education through a continuum of perspectives related to the environment and education.

Keywords: environmental adult education, sustainability, sustainability adult education,

Our environment and human impact upon it is a growing (and contested) concern. Sustainability and sustainable development have been advanced as a response to this increasingly pressing global issue. The term "sustainable development" (World Commission on Environment, 1987) entered our vocabulary in the 1980s and has been contested, politically charged, and evolving ever since. Conceptions of sustainability have been delineated into two philosophical camps - radical and conservative. Radical perspective views sustainability as focused on environmental protection, equity, local knowledge and the intersections of environmental, social, and economic issues. The conservative view is focused on environmental conservation, downplays the importance of equity, emphasizes expert knowledge, and views the environment as the primary focus of sustainability efforts (Jacobs, 1999). Regardless of one's philosophical view on sustainability, education is recognized as a key factor in moving toward sustainability (Kopnina, 2012; O'Sullivan, 1999; Stevenson, 2006; United Nations, 2014). However, what kind of education is needed (and who controls the educational agenda) is also contested, unsurprisingly along lines similar to sustainability itself. The radical perspective on sustainability education is largely transformative in nature, while the conservative perspective is transmissive (Jickling & Wals, 2008). While in practice, there are numerous examples of sustainability adult education representing both camps, the scholarly approach to sustainability education within the field of adult education has definitely trended toward the radical perspective. The purpose of this article is to (a) summarize the divergent and contested views of sustainability and sustainability education, (b) to position adult education within the overall context of sustainability and sustainability education, and (c) to summarize and expand upon how the field of adult education can continue to grow its contribution to sustainability efforts.

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Sustainability Overview

The concept of sustainability has no singular definition or agreed upon meaning (Jacobs, 1999). One of the earliest and most widely accepted definitions of sustainability emerged from the Brundtland Commission: "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 43). Such vague definitions as this are thought to be problematic by some (Kopnina, 2012) for their potential for maintaining the existing power structures that produced the current environmental, economic, and social crisis; undermining critical questioning of the terminology and its underlying assumptions; and de-emphasizing the seriousness of current environmental damage. Additional criticism against the concept of sustainability is an out-of-balance concern for humans at the expense of non-humans and the environment (Williams & Millington, 2004).

The major tension within sustainability discourse and practice is the tension between maintaining the status quo and changing our existing power structures and relationships. This tension becomes evident when exploring the contested issues within the discourse on sustainability perspectives. Many have delineated these perspectives as a continuum using a variety of labels: conservative to radical (Jacobs, 1999), weak to strong, or shallow to deep (Williams & Millington, 2004). Regardless of the label, the contested issues center around four main concepts: environment, equity, participation, and quality of life (Jacobs, 1999). A sustainability perspective that is conservative, weak or shallow, views the environment as natural resources available for human use. Protection is warranted only so far as it does not hinder economic activity. Sustainability perspectives on the radical, strong, or deep end respect the environment and seek to live within its limits. Equity is ignored or de-emphasized on the shallower end of the continuum, particularly in the northern hemisphere, creating tensions at the global level (Davenport, 2015). Towards the deeper end, advocating resource redistribution and raising global living standards are key concerns. Participation follows a similar formula, with the contested issue being top-down (shallower) versus bottom up (deeper) approaches. The top-down approach is favored by government and business and involves participation mainly at the implementation level. Objectives are set at higher levels and are not participatory, but consultative at best. In the bottom-up approach, objective setting and implementation is participatory. Input is sought from a broader group, including citizens. Shallower conceptions of quality of life limit sustainability to only focusing on environmental issues. Deeper conceptions advocate a broader view which seeks to create a new paradigm of how humans exist with their environment. Williams and Millington (2004) offer the concept of moderate sustainability, which combines elements from both ends of the continuum. Moderate sustainability seeks to both reduce the demands that humanity places on the earth (advocated by the deeper end) and increase resources through the use of renewable energies or improved, more efficient technologies (advocated by the shallower end).

Sustainability Education Overview

Like sustainability, sustainability education is a contested concept with many critiques (Jickling & Wals, 2008; Rathzel & Uzzell 2009). Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is an early manifestation, emerging also from the Brundtland Commission (McKeown, 2006). ESD involves "improving basic education, reorienting existing education to address sustainable development, developing public understanding and awareness, and training" (McKeown, 2006, p. 15). One major critique with ESD is the shift from an emphasis on the environment to an emphasis on development (Kopnina, 2012). More recent conceptions of ESD seek to shift the emphasis away from development by reframing it as education for sustainability (EfS). Jaimie Cloud of the Cloud Institute for Sustainability Education (borrowing from Donella Meadows' definition of sustainability) defines EfS as "an education that prepares people to be far-seeing enough, flexible enough, and wise enough to contribute to the regenerative capacity of the physical and social systems upon which they depend" (2009, p. 4). These differing definitions of sustainability education highlight the opposing philosophical viewpoints that underlie educational approaches and the overall discourse on sustainability itself.

The continuum of sustainability education can be viewed along the same lines as sustainability: radical/conservative, strong/weak, deep/shallow. The differences are visible in terms of educational perspectives, approaches and outcomes. With regard to perspectives, the continuum ranges from anthropocentric (shallower) to ecocentric (deeper). At the heart of it is the relationship between humans and nature or the environment. In an anthropocentric perspective, humans are naturally the focus and the environment is a natural resource available for their use (Williams & Millington, 2004). This perspective is concerned with fair distribution of resources among humans, positing humans as the impetus for action and moral concern. An ecocentric approach extends this concern to non-human species and views the environment as its own entity (Kopnina, 2012). Kopnina (2012) further illustrates the distinction by differentiating between environmental and ecological justice. Environmental justice is "the distribution of environmental benefits and burdens among human beings (Kopnina, 2012, p. 703). Ecological justice is "justice between human beings and the rest of the natural world" (Low & Gleeson, 1988, as cited in Kopnina, 2012, p. 703).

In general, approaches used in sustainability education tend to be transmissive (shallow) or transformative (deeper). Transmissive education involves curricula created and controlled by a few and either recreates the accepted social order or a new order determined by its creators (generally government and industry) (Jickling & Wals, 2008). Transformative education is co-created knowledge that has been socially constructed by a broad base of participants and has the capacity to move us beyond sustainable development (Jickling & Wals, 2008). Transmissive education, in a sustainability context, focuses on individual behaviors and concerns, consists of discrete facts about the environment, and relies on rational ways of knowing. Transformative curricula emphasizes community or society, places environmental concerns in the context of local

issues, and incorporates emotions, values and spirituality as ways of knowing (Stevenson, 2006).

In a shallow approach to sustainability education, the environment is a problem to be solved. A deeper approach claims the focus on environmental problems does not allow for a healthy environment to be the norm and leads to oversimplification of environmental issues on the part of educators in their curricula (Stevenson, 2006). Furthermore, a human-centered paradigm prevents the development of an environmentally minded population necessary to address current environmental damage (Kopnina, 2012). Shallower approaches also position the environment, economics and social issues as separate spheres, which places them in opposition to each other, and leads us to deal with them as problems within separate arenas instead of part of the same whole (Rathzel & Uzell, 2009). A deeper approach seeks to illuminate the interrelation among them, an approach which will:

> encourage people to formulate and understand in more comprehensive ways what they know through their experience in the everyday, thereby revealing the structural relations and ways in which we are all part of reproducing these relations through our daily practices (Rathzel & Uzell, 2009, p. 271).

The perspectives held and approaches used by differing branches of sustainability education produce different outcomes. The anthropocentric and transmissive perspectives and approaches prevalent at the shallower end of the continuum are viewed as a mechanism for maintaining corporate and governmental hold on the status quo. The use of such curricula may lead to homogenization and diminished levels of self-determination, autonomy, and local solutions. Transmissive education, serves to recreate the accepted social order or at best a new order or ideology determined by a select few (Jickling & Wals, 2008). Jickling and Wals (2008) identify three realms of possibility for the intersections of sustainability and education, based on the above perspectives: big brother sustainable development (highly authoritarian and transmissive), feel good sustainable development (some freedom, but most important issues in the hands of a few), and enabling thought and action: beyond sustainable development (transformative and participatory). It is beyond sustainable development that deep sustainability education seeks to take learners, seeking an "education free of specified ends" (Jickling & Spork, 1988, as cited in Kopnina, 2012, p. 711).

Adult Education and Sustainability

Much of the effort to provide sustainability and environmental education has been aimed at children (Walter, 2009). While children are an important audience as they will ultimately be charged with the stewardship of the planet, their education will not produce the changes that need to be made now. We simply cannot wait for our children to undo the damage that our ways of being in the world have produced. According the National Institute of Adult Continuing Education (1993, as cited in St. Clair, 2003), "there is insufficient time to wait for younger generations to mature before environmental action is

taken" and "adults must change if the environmental education of children is to have credibility" (p. 73). There is a need to facilitate a mass transformation in the worldview of adults in order to accomplish this. Thus, a focus on adult education for sustainability is clearly needed. The field of adult education could (and should) be a key player in moving toward global sustainability (Clover & Hill, 2003).

The fields of adult education and sustainability experience similar tensions, which is the pull between maintaining the status quo and creating social change. Indeed, this is perhaps an inherent tension in human history. Ostrom, Martin and Zacharakis (2008) identified this tension as a "divide between those for whom adult education is a tool for social progress, and those who view it as a means for individual human development" (p. 306). Parallels can be drawn between the practices of adult education for individual development with conservative/shallow/weak sustainability and between adult education focused on social change and radical/deep/strong sustainability (Ostrom, Martin & Zacharakis, 2008). These parallels are present within the subfield of environmental adult education to a lesser extent (Walter, 2009). Walter (2009) offers a typology of the philosophies of environmental adult education, based on the work of Elias and Merriam (1995), which outlined the five philosophical traditions of adult education as liberalism, behaviorism, humanism, progressivism, and radicalism. While "radical adult environmental education draws on humanistic and progressive traditions and, to some extent, liberal traditions of adult education" (Clover, 2002, as cited in Walter, 2009, p. 18), the philosophies, approaches, and outcomes of some liberal and humanistic environmental adult education efforts are clearly on the shallow/weak/conservative edge of the continuum. In the liberal environmental adult education tradition, rational adults aided by experts with knowledge about nature and the ecosystem will be able to better protect the existing natural environment (Walter, 2009). While humanistic environmental adult education acknowledges the wisdom of nature, it is largely focused on experiences of a metaphysical nature leading to individual self-awareness and growth (Walter, 2009). While activities in the liberal and humanistic traditions are valuable to a certain extent in their own right, on their own they do not move humanity to the level of action and critical questioning required to change our collective way of being. This is the work of radical environmental adult education.

The foundation for this work that has been laid as radical adult environmental education has traditionally been engaged in the type of learning called for by the radical/strong/deep branch of the sustainability movement (Walter, 2009). Not only have we been doing it in the environmental education arena, but have a long history of education for social change to draw upon. Clover (2003) outlined the common conceptual frameworks and strategies of radical environmental adult education, which include:

- making explicit the links between the environment, society, economics, politics and culture;
- utilizing engaged and participatory learning process not limited to individual behavior change and information transmission;
- focusing on root causes and critical questioning of market/consumer driven capitalism and globalization; and
- learning that is community oriented and contextually shaped.

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Within the adult sustainability and environmental education literature (a relatively small, but growing body of work), much of the scholarship is rooted in non-formal, informal and community learning contexts (Lange, 2004; Moyer & Sinclair, 2016; Plumb, Leverman, & McGray, 2007; Quinn & Sinclair, 2016; Vandenabeele & Wildemeersch, 2012; von Kotze, 2002). An additional vein of the literature is focused on philosophy or defining the field (Clover, 2003; Hill, 2006; Taylor, 2006; Walter, 2009). Still an under-investigated field (Hill, 2006), there is ample opportunity for research and application of adult education theory and practice within these and additional adult learning contexts.

Our knowledge about transformative learning is one theoretical base that has benefited from its application to sustainability education. Transformative learning is a key theory in sustainability education for its potential for breaking us away from our habitual habits of mind and helping us to be open to new possibilities and ways of being. As the theory evolved, various views have emerged, one of which is the planetary perspective (Taylor, 2008). According to a planetary perspective or ecological consciousness (O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004), transformative learning "recognizes the interconnectedness among universe, planet, natural environment, human community, and personal world. Most significant is recognizing the individual not just from a social-political dimension but also from an ecological and planetary one" (Taylor, 2008, pp. 9-10). O'Sullivan and Taylor (2004) juxtapose instrumental and ecological consciousness. Instrumental consciousness (dominant Western worldview) views the universe as a machine and only values what is produced. Education is simply information dissemination and knowledge is fixed and compartmentalized. The world economy is driven by material wants and needs and human experience is divorced from nature. Ecological consciousness emphasizes humanity's connection to the world and universe in which we are embedded. Relationships are valued. Education is an ongoing process of learning in relation to the people and world around us. Knowledge is co-created within relationships and "education is understood to be an ongoing process of learning and knowledge as temporary synthesis in ongoing change" (O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004, p. 22). Major tenets of ecological consciousness include reciprocity and relationships, especially concerning the co-creation of knowledge. The environment shapes social constructs, as well as individual experience and world views. Key perspectives facilitating the development of ecological consciousness include enhancing systemic awareness, cultivating a sense of place, nourishing a semi-permeable self, practicing dialectical-paradoxical thought, and standing on the cusp of mystery (Parks Daloz, 2004). Educators wishing to foster ecological consciousness need to address the following key factors: multiple frames in the context of the whole, safe mentoring communities, conscious focus on vocation, judicious use of ritual, contemplative time, reliable information on critical issues, and beautiful natural surroundings (Parks Daloz, 2004).

 While instrumental learning and consciousness have been traditionally downplayed in transformative learning theory, recent research exploring adult sustainability education in a variety of contexts using the lens of transformative learning indicate an important role for instrumental learning (Moyer & Sinclair, 2016; Quinn & Sinclair, 2016). According to Mezirow (2003), "instrumental learning is about controlling and manipulating the

environment, with emphasis on improving prediction and performance" (p. 59). Instrumental learning is about the technical and the rational, while communicative learning helps us understand and develop skills about human communication and make meaning of social experiences (Mezirow, 2003). Devising new ways of being in the world requires a certain amount of instrumental learning and behavioral change. The interplay between instrumental and communicative learning may occur in a parallel manner, serve as triggers for one another, and/or influence and support one another (Quinn & Sinclair, 2016). In their study on adults learning about clothing sustainability, Quinn and Sinclair (2016) identified skills, knowledge, and cognitive understanding as instrumental learning outcomes. Communicative learning outcomes related to instrumental learning were focused on learner insights about their personal values and interests related to clothing sustainability, the values and interests of others, and shared or collective values and interests.

The contributions to both transformative learning theory and sustainability education through such research is but one example of the potential impact adult education can make on the sustainability movement. There is much more to explore and learn as humanity prepares to undertake its most serious challenge yet.

Moving Toward (and Beyond) Adult Sustainability Education

The goal of radical/strong/deep sustainability education is not achieving our current conceptions of what sustainability may be. It is developing a citizenry capable of re-creating the world as needed to ensure a healthy and equitable existence for all. Several adult sustainability and environmental educators have provided guidance on how to facilitate "education free of specified ends" (Jickling & Spork, 1988, as cited in Kopnina, 2012, p. 711).

The first step in this process is to clarify our worldviews about the environment and develop our own visions of what a sustainable society looks like (Stevenson, 2006). Then we need to consciously find ways to communicate our worldview and vision through our teaching. If our language is devoid of words that convey respect and connection to nature, what does that communicate about our worldview (Hill & Johnson, 2003)? Once we have clarified our own perspectives and visions, we can create space for our learners to do the same. We can begin by simply making space in our curricula for exploring the connections between ourselves and the environment (Karlovic & Patrick, 2003). This curricula inclusion requires us to reflect critically on our own teaching and look for opportunities to help our learners critically reflect "on tensions between daily-life decisions and emotional connections to social and ecological concerns" (Karlovic & Patrick, 2003, p. 59). These opportunities need to be rooted in local issues of relevance and concern to your learners. As we well know,

> adults tend to be more motivated to learn and to act by things they care
> about rather than by abstract concerns, and one critical role of educators is
> to show people why they should care about the environment before
> expecting them to acknowledge its importance and begin to build
> environmental literacy. (St. Clair, 2003, p. 74)

For too long, the ecological dimension has been missing from learning and education. We are disconnected from the fact that we are dependent up on the earth for our own survival. The job of sustainability and environmental adult education is to address this deficiency (Sumner, 2003). In fact, any adult educator concerned about or working in the areas of social and/or economic justice must broaden their theory and practice to include the environment. These issues are too inextricably linked to address piecemeal. Our attitudes and worldviews toward the environment are bound up in our current system, which perpetuates the injustice we seek to end. If we stubbornly continue this disconnect, our efforts toward justice will fail in the long term.

Conclusion

Adult education has a significant role to play within the sustainability movement. Every adult educator has a worldview that includes perspectives, attitudes and values about the environment and education. These worldviews fall somewhere along the continuum described above. Responsible practitioners will engage in critical reflection to uncover and make explicit their assumptions about the environment and their role as educators in the movement beyond sustainability.

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NEW PERSPECTIVES FROM A QUASI-ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF DUSAN SAVICEVIC'S 2000 WORK ON ROOTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANDRAGOGY: THE 2016 UPDATE OF HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF ANDRAGOGY

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ABSTRACT: This 2016 updated capsule on a History and Philosophy of Andragogy includes 196 concepts and 268 names from a quasi-English translation of Dusan Savicevic's 2000 work on roots in the world-wide development of Andragogy from ancient times. Ten new items were discovered and added to the list. Some of these documents, however, present aspects of the events and ideas which recount the years and contexts prior to the time in which they appeared in published form. To date, nearly 600 documents have been discovered, but space limitations in this paper allowed the inclusion of only 150 – a fraction of the total number. Each of 16 eras is articulated with selected works and the recent discoveries are found mainly in the most recent era.

Keywords: Andragogy, eras, history, philosophy, ancient roots

Major Eras in the History and Philosophy of Andragogy

This history and philosophy study of andragogy has 16 eras that are identified. As near as possible, I have presented the documents mostly in the order in which they were published. Obviously, some of them indicate stages and years of development that are not strictly chronological. Nevertheless, the order in which they are presented provides a process of building and stronger case for considering andragogy as a viable part of the field of adult education.

Early Appearances of Andragogy: 1833-1927

The term 'andragogy,' as far as we know, was first authored by Alexander Kapp (1833), a German high school teacher. In the book entitled '*Platon's Erziehungslehre'* (*Plato's Educational Ideas*) he describes the lifelong necessity to learn. Kapp refers to vocational education of the healing profession, soldier, educator, orator, ruler, and men as the family father. Here we find patterns which repeatedly can be found in the ongoing history of andragogy: Included and combined are the education of inner, subjective personality ('character'); outer, objective competencies (what later is discussed under 'education vs. training'); and, that learning happens not only through teachers, but also through self-reflection and life experience, which makes it more than 'teaching adults.' The term

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andragogy lay fallow for many decades, until the 1920s, as it became used in the Workers Education Movement (Reischmann, 2004).

Lindeman (1926) from the USA traveled to Germany and became acquainted with the Workers Education Movement. He was the first to bring the concept to America. Although he clearly stated that andragogy was the method for teaching adults, the term did not take hold in the new land until many years later.

Andragogy's Second American Appearance and its Foundation Being Established 1964-1970

Another extensive period of time elapsed until the term andragogy was published in English. This time, it appeared in Great Britain. Simpson (1964) proposed and issued a call that andragogy could serve as a title for an attempt to identify a body of knowledge relevant to the training of those concerned with Adult Education. Knowles (1970) indicated that he acquired the term in 1967 from Dusan Savicevic. [It was actually in 1966 (Sopher, 2003)]. However, after becoming acquainted with the term, Knowles infused it with much of his own meaning garnered from his already extensive experience in adult education.

 Knowles' (1970) andragogical expression took the form of a process design instead of a content design, with assumptions and processes. The assumptions about adult learners at that time were: They are self-directing, their experience is a learning resource, their learning needs are focused on their social roles, and their time perspective is one of immediate application. The learning processes adults want to be actively and interactively involved in are: Establishing a climate conducive to learning, cooperative planning, diagnosing their needs, setting objectives, designing the sequence, conducting the activities, and evaluating learner progress.

Movement Toward Applying Andragogy To Human Resource Development: 1971-1973

Furter (as cited in Faure, 1972), from France, proposed that universities recognize a science for the training of man to be called andragogy. The purpose would be to focus not on children and adolescents, but on man throughout his life. Ingalls (1972) provided the first handbook guide to using andragogy in helping adult educators (they called them 'trainers' in those days) become more systematic and consistent in their engaging learners in the learning process. This was developed and tested in a branch of the US Government. Knowles (1973) focused a full application of his conception of andragogy toward the Human Resource Development (HRD) Movement. He worked vigorously in the corporate sector and thus saw the importance of testing and relating andragogy within it.

Emergence of Self-Directed Learning Skills As a Major Way to Implement Andragogy: 1975-1981

Knowles (1975) published his guidebook for learners and teachers on the topic of Self-Directed Learning. This was the first time that he labeled pedagogy as 'teacher-directed' learning and andragogy as 'self-directed' learning. Previously, pedagogy was for children and andragogy was for adults.

Mezirow (1981) developed a critical theory of adult learning and education, and laid the groundwork for what he called a charter for andragogy. This included the core concepts that would enhance adults' capability to function as self-directed learners. Suanmali (1981), a doctoral student of Mezirow, focused his dissertation research on Mezirow's charter for andragogy. He found support and agreement among 174 adult education professors and practitioners for andragogy, that the educator must: decrease learner dependency, help learners use learning resources, help learners define his/her learning needs, help learners take responsibility for learning, organize learning that is relevant, foster learner decision-making and choices, encourage learner judgment and integration, facilitate problem-posing and problem-solving, provide a supportive learning climate, and emphasize experiential methods.

Strengthening the Numerous Uses of Andragogy Along With Growing Controversy and Resistance Toward It: 1981-1984

Both the Nottingham Andragogy Group (1983) and Allman and Mackie (1983) addressed their beliefs about adults and adults' abilities to think creatively and critically in learning settings. Their perspective on andragogy is clearly driven by research in adult development through life phases. They also reported a belief that Alexander Kapp, a German teacher, first used the word andragogy in 1833 to describe the educational theory of Plato.

Nonetheless, some lack of enthusiasm about Knowles' andragogy concept was reflected by Hartree (1984). She expressed the feeling that Knowles' andragogy did not live up to what she interpreted as his desire for its becoming a comprehensive learning theory for adult education.

Jarvis (1984) wrote that the theory of andragogy had moved into the status of an established doctrine in adult education. However, he thought it did not have the grounding in sufficient empirical research to justify its dominant position. Not to be deterred at this point, Knowles (1984) presented the first book in which he cites thirty-six extensive case examples of applying andragogy in practice. In it he revealed what worked and what did not.

Identifying the Stronger European Base of Andragogy in Comparing it with the American Base: 1985-1988

Yonge (1985) perceived the European concept of andragogy as being more comprehensive than the American conception. He considered that most Europeans do not use the terms andragogy and adult education synonymously. Taylor (1986) offered a very strong and articulate research based model for the andragogical process of transition into learning for self-direction within the classroom. This is from the learners' point of view and has various phases on a cycle of what may be characterized as a cultural journey. Ross (1988) connected the concept of andragogy and its value with some of the research on teacher effectiveness. He believed that teachers' behavior relates to student achievement. Davenport (1987) questioned the theoretical and practical efficacy of Knowles' theory of andragogy. He suggested that adult education would simply be better off to drop the word from its lexicon.

The Foundation of Trust Undergirds Andragogical Learning Despite The Andragogy Debate: 1989-1991

Henschke (1989) developed an andragogical assessment instrument entitled, Instructional Perspectives Inventory (IPI). The central and strongest major core of this instrument was originally and still is a focus on the teacher trust of learners. Nadler & Nadler (1989) stated that Human Resource Development (HRD) is based in learning, and every HRD practitioner should have an understanding of the theories of Adult Learning. This was a crucial observation, because many in HRD have overlooked that consideration. Krajinc (1989) perhaps provides the most beneficial definition of andragogy. She states, "Andragogy has been defined as…'the art and science of helping adults learn and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology to that end' " (p. 19). Long (1991) speculated that although Knowles' form of andragogy is weak in empirical confirmation, it has survived the criticism leveled against it. Two reasons are that Knowles is a leader in the field and is widely respected for other contributions.

Savicevic (1991) provided a critical consideration of andragogical concepts in five western European Countries, and five eastern European Countries. He also drew on sources from ancient times. This comparison showed common roots and indicated endeavors toward andragogy as a fairly independent scientific discipline. Additionally, he credited J. A. Comenius in the seventeenth century with being regarded the founder of andragogy (p. 210).

At this time, there was again strong criticism of American andragogy, and that coming from Candy (1991) in Australia. At the time Knowles' articulated andragogy, self-expression and personal development were in vogue. Thus, self-directed learning and andragogy were gaining some prominence in becoming known as autonomous learning.

Scientific Foundation of Andragogy Being Established Amid Skepticism and Misunderstanding: 1992-1995

Houle (1992), in contrast, emphasized the impact of Knowles on American andragogy, and how he worked this out in practice especially in non-school settings and the workplace. He went on to indicate that scholars and theorists may find great value in Knowles' (1993) discussion of the development of learning theories in the educational literature, his exploration of the roots of his own thinking about theorizing. Knowles (1993) articulates on a very critical variable in andragogy, and the level of the learner's skill in taking responsibility for his or her own learning.

Knowles (1993) claimed that the andragogical model of adult learning provides guidelines for gearing Christian adult education toward the development and support of 'mature Christian persons' in contrast to 'dependent Christian persons.' The possible directions of Christian maturation include:

From	Toward
(The Pedagogical Model)	(The Andragogical Model)
▪ **Dependence on others for religious ideas**	▪ Ability to identify and think about religious issues for one's self
▪ **Ignorance of the traditions and literature of the Christian church**	▪ Informed understanding of the traditions and literature of the Christian church
▪ **Passive conformity to prevailing patterns of behavior of church members**	▪ Creative questing for continuously more effective ways to translate Christian ideals into behavior
▪ **Narrow interest in religious matters**	▪ Constantly expanding interest in religion
▪ **Selfish concern for personal problems**	▪ Altruistic concern for the welfare of others
▪ **Vague definition of personal value system**	▪ Clear and integrated perception of personal value system
▪ **Self-righteousness about state of personal religious development**	▪ Humility about state of personal religious development
▪ **Fragmentary application of Christian ideals to life**	▪ Total application of Christian ideals to life

Hooks (1994) said "the possession of a term does not bring a process or practice into being: concurrently one may practice theorizing without ever knowing/possessing the term…" (p. 61). It is sometimes later that this kind of practice is given a label that comes into common use. In this case the label would be andragogy. Poggeler (1994) listed trends which he hoped will be helpful for future development of European andragogical research. These include at least: International knowledge, "development-andragogy" of the Third World, and understanding the "lifeworlds" of the participants. Zmeyov (1994) clearly supported andragogy. He stated that the most important trend in

adult education in Russia is the application and further development of Knowles' (1970, 1980) theory of adult learning, or andragogy.

Welton (1995) asserted that "the 'andragogical consensus'…formulated by the custodians of orthodoxy in the American Commission of Professors in the 1950s and solidified by Malcolm Knowles and others in the 1960s and 1970s, has unraveled at the seams" (p. 5). He articulated that the fundamental accusations expressed are because this perspective inadequately serves the interests of the disenfranchised in North American society.

Momentum Gained Against Andragogy While Counter Arguments Assert Its Value: 1996-1997

VanGent (1996) asserted that andragogy has been used to designate the education of adults. He considered that its future lies only as a generic term for adult education. Hanson (1996), from the other side of the discussion, called for adult educators not to search for a separate theory of adult learning (andragogy). He suggests that we remove many of the unsubstantiated assumptions based on almost utopian beliefs about the education and training of adults linked to un-contextualized views of learning and empowerment.

Houle (1996), in talking about Knowles' work in andragogy said that it remains the most learner centered of all patterns of adult educational programming. He also added a number of other things. Knowles kept evolving, enlarging, and revising his point of view and therefore became something of a moving target, particularly since he was intimately involved with numerous projects at every level of magnitude in both customary and unusual settings all over the world. He could bring to discussions and debates a wealth of experience that his opponents could not match. In addition, some of his followers developed variant conceptions of andragogy, thereby enlarging the discourse. Knowles' idea on andragogy had application to a wide variety of settings. Houle concluded by saying,

> Those who wish to do so can wholly contain their practice in the ideas expressed by Knowles and others, establishing appropriate physical and psychological climates for learning and carrying forward all of its processes collaboratively. Far more significantly, andragogy influences every other system. Even leaders who guide learning chiefly in terms of the mastery of subject matter, the acquisition of skills, the facing of a social problem, or some other goal know that they should involve learners in as many aspects of their education as possible and in the creation of a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn. (p. 30)

Antecedents to a Historical Foundation of Andragogy Being Extended and Broadened: 1998-1999

Henschke (1998a) asserted that long before the term andragogy appeared in published form in 1833, ancient Greek and Hebrew educators, if not others, used words that although they

were antecedents to andragogy, included elements of the concept that has come to be understood as some of the various meanings and definitions of andragogy. He attempted a descriptive definition of andragogy that moved in the direction of calling it a scientific discipline of study. This he posed in contrast to what others considered to be a fading influence of andragogy. He went back earlier in history and claimed that the language of the Hebrew prophets, before and concurrent with the time of Jesus Christ, along with the meaning of various Hebrew words and their Greek counterparts -- learn, teach, instruct, guide, lead, and example/way/model -- provide an especially rich and fertile resource to interpret andragogy. He expected that by combining a probe of these words and elements with other writings, a more comprehensive definition of andragogy may evolve.

Draper (1998) in providing an extensive, world-wide background on andragogy, reflected on and presented an overview of the historical forces influencing the origin and use of the term andragogy: The humanistic social philosophy of the 1700s & 1800s, the early twentieth century labor movement in Germany and USA, international expansion of adult education since World War II, commonalities of different terminologies, the debate in North America, the progressive philosophy underlying andragogy in North America, stimulation of critical discussion and research, and the viability of andragogy as a theory.

Empirical Research Being Pressed for Investigating Andragogy's Value While Objections Remain: 2000-2002

 Billington (2000) found that with sixty men and women from ages 37 to 48, there were a number of key factors relating to andragogy that helped them grow, or if absent made them regress and not grow. The factors were: A class environment of respect; their abilities and life achievements acknowledged; intellectual freedom, self-directed learning, experimentation and creativity encouraged; learner treated fairly and as an intelligent adult; class is an intellectual challenge; interaction promoted with instructor and between students; and, regular feedback from instructor.

To the arguments that question the value of Knowles' approach to andragogy, Maehl (2000), in addressing the philosophical orientations of a number of adult educators, suggests that Knowles led in the direction of making andragogy quite humanistic that gained wide adoption in the field. This approach also was fused with other philosophies, particularly in human resource development applications. He also emphasized that Knowles elaborated his ideas of self-directed learning within the context of andragogy. This influenced a generation of adult educators, through his sensitive and nurturing spirit, to adopt the practice of andragogy broadly. What drew and maintained a strong following was what Maehl described Knowles as advocating.

Rachal (2002) clearly identified seven criteria suitable for implementation in future empirical studies of andragogy: Voluntary participation, adult status, collaboratively-determined objectives, performance-based assessment of achievement, measurement of satisfaction, appropriate adult learning environment, and technical issues. This certainly presents a challenge to those in the field that may be willing to expend the energy to conduct any empirical research study on the results of andragogy.

**Bringing European and American Andragogy Closer Together As Distance
Education Emerges: 2003-2004**

Showing the strength of andragogy through its long history in Europe, Savicevic (2003)
indicated that comparative andragogy has numerous elements that are essential in
addressing this scientific research topic. Those eight elements included in the book are:
Comparative perspectives of education and learning of adults; historically-comparative
researching in andragogy; andragogical comparisons in our cultural environment;
international dimensions of adult education; conceptual and linguistic standardizing in
andragogical comparisons; theoretical and methodological scope of comparative
andragogy; currents of constitution of comparative andragogy; and, conclusions
concerning comparative andragogy.

Sopher (2003) asserted that Malcolm Knowles taught her more about adult education
than even he realized. Her experience of learning with him in 1991 was a magical
experience that she still recalled 12 years later in 2003 as if it happened yesterday. For
her, experiencing Knowles 'the person' and Knowles 'the facilitator of adult learning'
was seamless –his modeling every aspect of what he taught and wrote, a process that was
consistent, authentic and practical. In order to understand his method, one would need to
experience it directly – it was like his facilitation of participants' learning was done
throughout any given day as with the grace of a skilled conductor directing an orchestra.
Her thought was that the main reason Malcolm's hierarchy of andragogy did not appear
in his publications is that it would be challenging for anyone to separate him personally
and professionally. Moreover, it would have been more challenging for Knowles to
reflect on details of his practice that are tightly intertwined with him on a personal level.

Drinkard and Henschke (2004) found nurse educators who have a doctoral degree in
other than nursing (adult education to be specific) as more trusting of their learners in an
andragogical classroom than nurse educators who have a doctoral degree in nursing. This
was largely due to the lack of anything regarding how to facilitate the learning of adults
in the nursing doctoral program, as contrasted with facilitation of the learning of adults
being a very prominent part of the adult education doctoral programs where andragogy is
actively practiced.

Illeris, (2004) a Danish adult educator for 30 years, who by his own declaration is not an
andragogue, but a pedagogue, was convinced that adults need to be actively involved in
developing and executing adult education programs. He asserted that it is of "… entirely
decisive importance that the point of departure of planning is that the participants in adult
education programs are *adults*, humans that both formally and in reality are responsible
for their own actions and decisions" (p. 163). He went on to indicate here that he is quite
in line with Knowles in his agitation for andragogy as a discipline, which is in many
ways different from the pedagogy of children's schooling and upbringing.

The Hesitation Concerning Andragogy Continues While Many Still Stand By Andragogy: 2005-2006

Sandlin (2005) admitted that andragogy was a cornerstone of adult education for many decades. Notwithstanding, she has serious reservations about its prominence, and critiques it within the Africentric, feminist, and critical adult education perspectives. Stanton (2005) related the andragogical concept to the concept of readiness for self-directed learning. There was not only congruence between the two, but also the Henschke (1989) Instructional Perspectives Inventory [IPI] was validated as an almost perfect 'bell-shaped' measurement of an andragogical facilitator.

Wilson (2005) conducted this predictive study which tested the theory of andragogy in a post-secondary educational setting. It produced a sound psychometric instrument (ALPDEQ) presumably named "Adult Learning Professional Development Educational Questionnaire." It is one of the first to successfully isolate adult learners, a major step forward in testing andragogy. Results provided insight of andragogy's effect on two student outcomes, learning and satisfaction. The findings revealed adult learners enrolled in a MBA degree program provided evidence of learning and were not influenced by andragogy. However, satisfaction with instructor and course was affected by perception of andragogical teaching behaviors exhibited by faculty. The study included many exploratory faculty and student characteristic variables, never before studied, and results indicated characteristics, above and beyond age, gender, and ethnicity, were predictors to learning and satisfaction.

Another use of the principles of andragogy is in the public school setting. The purpose of Stricker's (2006) research was to determine the attitudes of principals toward teachers as learners by answering the following question: Do principals understand adult learning (andragogy) and do they have the competencies to create the conditions conducive for learning in school based staff development? He found a relationship between principals and teachers that does not contribute to creating the conditions conducive for adult learning in school based staff development. He posited that principals in this district would benefit by a better understanding and implementation of andragogy. Teachers, on the other hand, would also benefit from gaining understanding and implementing self-directed learning so they may become actively involved in and take responsibility for their own continuing, lifelong learning.

Savicevic (2006a) expressed his realization that almost 50 years of experience with andragogical ideas acquired in different social, cultural and educational environments, are reflected through the prism of his personal experience. Very importantly, he also observed that since his first visit to the USA in 1966, up through 2006, the identifiable trace of andragogy on USA universities is that there had not been a single serious study on adult education and learning that did not refer to andragogy as a conception. Savicevic also addressed the diversity of andragogical ideas in an international framework, which also became obvious in the expanding depth, breadth, worldwide nature of this research.

Isac (2006) analyzed the five distinct features Lorga and Gusti explicitly or implicitly asserted concerning andragogy in the interwar Romania: There is a peculiar difference between andragogy as theory (i.e., the principles of adult education) and the practice of adult education. In their efforts to innovate, adult education was completely neglected during the Communist Regime from 1945 to 1989. As a consequence Romania did not have enough time to succeed with desirable outcomes of reaching a uniquely Romanian theoretical paradigm of 'andragogy'. Therefore, Isac suggested that it is now up to the post 1989 Revolution to reconsider and seek to renew these valuable traditions according to contemporary imperatives of the European Union.

Knowles' Prominent Long Range Contribution to Andragogy's Continuance into the Future: 2007-2011

Although Newman (2007) declared he was not a fan of andragogy, he said that in his estimation Knowles had contributed something to adult education and andragogy that was quite unique. As he thought it through, he came to the conclusion that Knowles provided a means to assess the needs of adult learners, and he could not detect that any other adult educators provided such. They only had talked about assessing adult learner needs. Knowles had provided an elaborate system in which one came up with a model of competencies for being an excellent adult educator drawn from a number of sources. Then that same person would assess (on a Likert type scale) her/his level of functioning on each of the competencies. Next, the person would go back to the competencies and indicate the level s/he thought was required for effectively doing the particular task at hand. Finally, the person would select the competencies to work on and improve that exhibited the largest gap between their present level of performance and required level of performance.

Cercone (2008) asserts that the online educational environment is increasingly being used by adults and should be designed based on the needs of adult learners. This article discusses andragogy, an important adult learning theory, and reviews three other adult learning theories: self-directed learning, experiential learning, and transformational learning. During this discussion, the theories are examined for the ways in which they may be applied to the design of online learning environments. In addition, the 13 characteristics of adult learners developed by the author are examined, and an analysis of how these characteristics influence the design of an online learning is presented. Recommendations follow regarding how to design an online classroom environment while considering the application of adult learning theories. Of the 13 characteristics developed by the author, andragogy is the most comprehensive as it considers 10 of the characteristics, experiential learning only considers four [4] characteristics, self-directed learning theory considers three [3] characteristics, and transformative learning theory considers three [3] characteristics. The author provides a total on 93 techniques for helping address and enhance the 13 adult learner characteristics.

Savicevic (2008) reflected about his perception of Knowles' position in sustaining andragogy over the long range of its history into the future.

Forty years in development of a science is not a long or ignorable period. I met professor Knowles four decades ago and argued on term and on concept of andragogy. Since then, the term and the concept of andragogy enlarged and rooted in the American professional literature. There is no doubt that Knowles contributed to it, not only by his texts, but with his spoken word and lectures. He was a 'masovik', i.e., a lecturer on mass events. He told me that he lectured on 10,000 visitor stadiums. As if he was inspired by an ancient agonistic spirituality! His contribution to the dissemination of andragogical ideas throughout the USA is huge. The history of andragogy will put him on a meritorious place in the development of this scientific discipline. (p. 375)

Prusakova (2010) studied the andragogical theoretical basis for the analysis of educational needs. It is based on the results of primary andragogical research specifically focused on defining terms and on determination of applied andragogical disciplines according to interest (career, social and cultural andragogy). Furthermore, it is also focused on determination of target groups, on characteristics of sources and on principles for the analysis of their educational needs.

Henschke (2011) considers that andragogy has much to contribute to the vibrant future of the adult education and learning field. He bases this on his research of having discovered and identified at that time at least 330 English Language documents that had been published on andragogy. Despite resistance from various quarters of the field, some of the more astonishing and seemingly positive and valuable empirical and experiential findings relate to effectively applying andragogy to internet learning, andragogy being more effective than pedagogy in preparing police for their role in society, and an Arab and American jointly contending "…that andragogical adult educational theory, processes, and research are elemental to a vision of a peaceful world and a stabilized Iraq" (p. 36).

Henry (2011) said that the purpose of his book is twofold: to trace the evolution of the thinking of Malcolm Knowles over the period 1950 to 1995 and to show that during the course of his writing he developed a clear and coherent conceptual framework. This book is a journey through the pages of Knowles' major writings. It plots the emergence of new ideas in the sequence in which they occurred and provides an account of the overall development of Knowles' thought. This book does not attempt to impose viewpoints on Knowles but strives to allow an authentically "Knowlesian" andragogical perspective to emerge according to what the principal writings themselves disclose.

Clearer Emphasis on Congruence between Scholarship and Practice Accompanied by Contribution to the Shaking World Economy: 2012-2014

Henschke (2012b) talks about his work in Nation Building through andragogy. He indicates that his international experience of and involvement in the very essence of exemplifying a conception of the following in various countries around the globe – nation building through andragogy and lifelong learning: on the cutting edge educationally,

economically, and governmentally. Although he has been privileged to engage adult learners in research and learning experiences in a dozen countries through andragogical and lifelong learning processes, he presents here only a sketch of his personally unique approach of work and learning in what he calls 'nation building' with people in five countries: Brazil, South Africa, Mali, Thailand, and Austria. His purpose is to clearly articulate some of the who, what, when, where, why and how of his most successful facilitation activities of helping adults learn in such a way that any adult educator, who may be disposed and committed to do so, could learn these processes and replicate them with others.

Henschke (2012c,d,e,f) also presents various research findings of the element of trust in andragogical learning. With each finding, trust is strengthened as important in learning.

Risley (2012) discovered an important aspect of finding out whether one adult educator, who espouses andragogy in scholarship, is congruent and consistent in practice and actually exemplifies andragogy. She triangulated this research through ten data sets and confirmed 'saying and doing' as a clear overlay and just about perfect fit. *The eleven andragogical elements of teacher trust of learners measured were: purposefully communicating to learners that each is uniquely important; expressing confidence that learners will develop the skills they need; trusting learners to know what their own goals, dreams and realities are like; prizing the learners' ability to learn what is needed; feeling learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings; enabling learners to evaluate their own progress in learning; hearing what learners indicate their learning needs are like; engaging learners in clarifying their own aspirations; developing supporting relationships with learners; experiencing unconditional positive regard for learners; and, respecting the dignity and integrity of learners.* The ten data sets used in confirming that this adult educator's scholarship and practice are andragogically congruent were: focus group of students in class regarding anticipated and actual trust; the teacher's perception of his trust in students; course evaluations from Fall, 2009 through Spring, 2012; video recording of the adult educator facilitating 28 clock hours of class time with students; interviews with facilitator's current and past colleagues, some who agree with andragogy and some who disagree; interview of the course facilitator; observations regarding the facilitator's congruence of practice and scholarship; memories and reflections of the researcher on the facilitator.

Henschke (2012a) provides the unique professional preparation he has in both fields for merging counseling and andragogy – the art and science of helping adults learn. Providing general counseling information, he then gives a sketch and time gaps of publication in adult education and counseling. Next, he presents a chronology of publications merging the two fields. In the future trends section, a comprehensive model for counseling in adult education is constructed, including: an andragogical approach, dimensions of maturation, closely connecting counseling and learning, with life tasks, challenges, and dealing with our human values and priorities within human systems of adult life. Examples are articulated of both the professional and learner implementing the model.

Dr. Malcolm Shepherd Knowles popularized andragogy as the theory of adult learning and was referred to as the Father of Adult Education in the United States (US). As his andragogical doctoral students, Han and Henschke (2012) had extensive personal contacts with him. This paper utilizes the method of auto-ethnography to explore how cross-cultural learning and cross-cultural mentoring facilitate transformative learning with the development of intercultural competencies for sojourners when they interact with a significant human being in cross-cultural settings.

Savicevic (2012) gives a broad-brush sweep in addressing a number of current major issues in andragogy research. He declares that research in andragogy cannot be reduced to research techniques. It includes theoretical ground as well. Theory is a research base for understanding. Philosophy is very important for research in andragogy: spiritual values, aims of education and learning, conceptions of an adult person, andragogical ethical reflection on theory and practice. Research in andragogy has its research context. The problem of methodology has been neglected. Research methods and procedures that a person uses are not separate from philosophical grounds, but are consistent with one's belief system. Contradictions have appeared in andragogy over whether one should create knowledge through research or borrow the knowledge from other sciences. Since andragogy has become a university discipline, the link between teaching and research has been requested by some.

Andragogy has received mixed reviews in the past. Some have analyzed it from a positive perspective. Some have analyzed it from a negative perspective, and some have ignored it altogether. Very little if any effort has been devoted to researching the economic impact of andragogy, especially during this prolonged economic downturn in the USA, in addition to many other countries throughout the world. In this article Henschke (2013a) looks at the theories undergirding his practice of andragogy, eras of the scope of various writings in English concerning andragogy, economic implications of his application of andragogy, and his thoughts about future research trends in andragogy.

Henschke and Isenberg (2012) and Isenberg and Henschke (2013) presented the idea of building an andragogy doctoral program, and doing it andragogically. This actual illustration is of one university that is doing it by presenting various stages of this as the program grows. Developing and conducting the andragogical program in an andragogical manner has its benefits and pitfalls and these are clearly explained in each paper.

Henschke (2013b) looks at the History, Philosophy and Major Themes of Andragogy that have emerged in his research and practice. He explores those aspects of andragogy within the context of the theme of the conference – Lifelong Learning for All in 2013 – and indicates how the expanding scope of this investigation offers a frame for carrying forward an inspirational concept to the great benefit of lifelong learning constituencies around the globe. He also emphasizes the eleven elements of trust that make this variety of andragogy 'super.'

Henschke (2013c) provided thoughts on how the conception came about regarding reorienting a Higher Education Institution toward Lifelong Learning (LLL). The background of LLL in ancient times and its emergence in recent times is presented. The researcher's involvement is described in bringing this about as a concept, and doing the research to flesh-out the specific elements. The research includes: developing a definition of LLL; bringing together the international partners from 19 countries to identify the seven major elements of a LLL Higher Education Institution; engaging two universities from opposite sides of the globe in articulating the 78 measurable performance indicators; and, actively involving a major International University (Chulalongkorn – Bangkok, Thailand) to go through the steps for setting in place and implementing its being a global player on the stage in moving forward that idea for the future of the world in general and the world of lifelong learning – its length, height, depth, and breadth.

Henschke (2013d) focused this study on the extent trust, empathy, and reciprocity in sensitivity may enhance the andragogical foundation of learning, but that insensitivity may destroy andragogical learning altogether. The influence of insensitivity upon the andragogical foundation of learning is striking, especially in its possible negative impact on learning.

Henschke (2013e) asserts that trust has moved well beyond the lofty literature of the abstract discussions into the usable, where the rubber-meets-the-road application and development into practice and technology. Even in a highly unlikely place as a very brutal prison, the implementation of trust throughout helped to radically transform its culture into a very humane place. This is true across the board in many institutions and numerous communities. Clearly, the trend is toward conducting more research in trust and understanding the basic notion of trust as a way to foster its development and implementation across all levels of organizations and communities, throughout society.

Lubin (2013) used an instrument, originally developed by Henschke (1989) for teachers, and modified it for use with coaches measuring the extent to which coaches used the philosophy of andragogy in their practices. Andragogical elements of empathy, trust and accommodating coachee *(i.e. trainee)* uniqueness were revealed at above average or high above average levels. Of those interviewed, 100% of the coaches reported using the principles and processes of andragogy in their practices. Based on their stories, best practices (88) for engaging andragogy in the practice of coaching were developed.

Reischmann (2013) believes that andragogy is the discipline that deals with the lifelong and life-wide learning and education processes of adults. He usually expresses it with less impressive words: If I had the money that companies and administrations, hospitals and the military throw out of the window right now within a circle of 20 miles because of poor and demotivating personnel management, unnecessary conflicts, incompetence of the workforce, and poor leadership of the managers, I would immediately be a millionaire! My graduates, working in these organizations, for sure reduce this unnecessary cost, and even if they are only successful in 30% of the situations, that is a lot of money. In addition, andragogy is a value to people, who are more happy in their daily work life, and develop a stomach ulcer many years later than most, or never. Our

graduates are searched for specialists on the job market. He says andragogues can do this kind of work. We do not talk any longer about some nice cultural entertainment a night per week: We talk about dollars, effectiveness, a humane place in the workplace and community. And not only for individuals, but likewise for society and country: International competition leaves back those national economies that do not invest in educated citizens. And that means investment in adult and continuing education. Competencies are needed so fast (today), that we cannot wait until the children bring these new competencies from school. He identifies four [4] competencies in andragogy that are needed: Teaching, Counselling/Consulting, Planning/Organizing, and Research.

Henschke (2014e) addressed the crucial issue of Andragogy receiving various mixed reviews in the past. Most of the discussions have limited their observations to how Malcolm S. Knowles addressed andragogy. There has been an inadequate investigation of the foundation and background of andragogy from a world perspective. This research is based on more than 450 major works published in English from national and international sources on andragogy that may help provide a clear and understandable international foundation for the linkage between the research, theory, and practice of andragogy. However, less than 100 documents are referenced in this paper. Six themes have emerged that provide a foundation for the linkage: The evolution of the term; historical antecedents shaping the concept; comparison of American and European understandings; popularizing and sustaining the American and world-wide concept; practical applications; and theory, research, and definition. This is an update for 2014 of this ongoing research.

Henschke (2014c) addresses a curriculum definition, especially as it relates to preparing teachers to be successful in working with adult learners. The main thrust is to clearly articulate some of the major elements needed to help the art and science of helping adults learn idea and practice of that process be as consistent/congruent as feasible. Reciprocity among empathy, trust, and sensitivity are considered to be crucial in the teaching and learning exchange. Competence and experience in andragogy is important even to the extent of selecting and using various techniques and methods in the learning experience, whether used with learners in higher-order thinking or used with lower-level learners. Techniques the author has found helpful are mixing a lecture with discussion of questions raised by learners in response to content of the lecture; encouraging and giving learners opportunity to take more responsibility for their learning, thus becoming more self-directed; varying one's approach for accommodating different learning styles each learner possesses; looking at a perspective of learning in various areas/pillars of life – being, knowing, doing, living together, changing, and developing sustainability. A true story is provided illustrating a principle of andragogy – doing in practice the same thing one believes and says.

Henschke (2014d) posited a definition of lifelong learning as a master andragogical principle/concept regarded as the continuous and never complete development, changes, and adaptation in human consciousness in an ever increasing number of situations. This paper provides thoughts on how this international conception came about and moved forward regarding reorienting Higher Education Institutions toward Lifelong Learning

(LLL). The background of LLL in ancient times and its emergence in recent times is presented. His involvement is described in bringing this about as a concept, and doing the research to flesh-out the specific elements of LLL. This research includes: Developing a definition of LLL; bringing together the international partners from 19 countries to identify the seven major elements of a LLL Higher Education Institution; engaging two universities from opposite sides of the globe in articulating and listing the 78 measurable performance indicators [MPI] for LLL; bringing together participants for discussing the MPI from 13 nations at an International Lifelong Learning Conference; and, actively involving a major International University (Chulalongkorn – Bangkok, Thailand) to go through the steps for setting in place and implementing its being a global player on the stage in moving forward that idea for the future of the world in general and the world of lifelong learning [LLL] – its length, height, depth, and breadth.

Lu (2014) addressed the issue that in higher education, teaching effectiveness in the classroom is a guarantee to improve the quality of education. However, teaching effectiveness comes from the personal motivation, perception and satisfaction in the teachers' jobs. The merit incentive payment system is directly linked to teachers' motivation and perception, which also directly or indirectly results in satisfactions with the teachers' career and students learning in the classroom. This study investigates the relationships between teachers' payment, teacher's/student's satisfaction, and teacher's performance evaluated from an instructional perspective and certain factors such as ages, gender, degrees etc. in relation to teacher/student motivations and perceptions. Study participants were students and teachers both working and enrolled in four different higher education systems from 2012 to 2014 semesters in Nanjing, The Peoples' Republic of China. Henschke's (1989) Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory (MIPI) [an andragogical measurement inventory] had been used in various situations to evaluate teacher performance in the class from instructional perspectives. The MIPI includes seven factors: *Factor 1: Teacher Empathy with Students, Factor 2: Teacher Trust of Students, Factor 3: Planning and Delivery of Instruction, Factor 4: Accommodating student Uniqueness, Factor 5: Teacher Insensitivity toward students, Factor 6: Experience-based Learning Techniques (Learner-centered Learning Process), and Factor 7: Teacher-centered Learning Process.* The MIPI-s, an adaptation of the MIPI, will be used to evaluate student's teacher performance in class from an instructional perspective. Students and teachers reported satisfaction with learning and teaching using a *Likert-type scale* is based on a demographic questionnaire. This study utilized a quantitative approach with standard multiple regression analysis and ANOVA. There were three dependent variables: teacher annual incomes, teacher satisfaction and student satisfaction. The independent variables included some covariates in relation to teacher motivations and perceptions and seven factors of MIPI and MIPI-S with 45-item respectively. The results of the regression analysis and ANOVA demonstrate significant relationships between teacher annual incomes and seven factors of MIPI/MIPI-S, and teacher's/student's satisfaction with teaching/learning as well. The sample contains 457 teachers and 9,017 students. The data had been collected via online questionnaires.

Henschke (2014b) provided a personal perspective and description of his learning experience on living a long, healthy life. It is my story on this topic and includes the

following sections: An introduction, healthy life descriptions according to various age categories; a healthy long life depicted in relationship to various human values and human systems; dimensions of maturing for healthy, long lives; for seekers of self-actualization reaching toward a long healthy life; his more personal side of this story in experiencing a long healthy life of 82 years thus far; a disclaimer on the reader being free to choose or not choose some of his guidance processes; how he came into adult education; numerous Bible instructions guiding and helping him learn in his long, healthy life to date; a source of influence – an idea that takes hold on a person; andragogy took hold of him and eight central elements of this; additional promises from God enhancing his healthy and lengthy life; a view by some other person than Henschke – Lori Risley; and, a conclusion to this matter from his point of view on tools, trends, and methodologies in adult and community health education.

Charungkaittikul and Henschke (2014) set forth the andragogical idea that today's world may be characterized as the dawn of the new millennium of the learning society where knowledge is considered as a country's most valued asset and primary source of power. In the increasingly intense competition among the international communities, Thailand has been respected as advancing the andragogical approach to transforming communities, cities and regions into learning societies engaged in a sustainable development strategy that promotes the continual learning of individuals – the smallest unit of society. It emphasizes balance among the economy, society, natural resources and environment; and, is transforming the Thai people into knowledge citizens and knowledge workers. These carry stipulations concerning lifelong learning, educational enhancement and global competitiveness aimed toward developing appropriate manpower to move the society toward sustainable happiness as compared and contrasted with maintaining the 'status quo.' This article aims to identify the current situation of lifelong learning and education in Thailand; analyze and synthesize the five best learning society case studies; and, propose guidelines for developing a sustainable lifelong learning society.

Henschke (2014a) designed this article to address: the introduction of lifelong learning from ancient times; dimensions of maturation as guides for lifelong learning; considering the andragogical approach in early, adult, and lifelong learning; counseling adult learners contributes added dimensions to facilitating lifelong learning; assessing life's challenges within the decades of lifelong learning, core values, and human systems; 1997 – CONFINTEA V – Hamburg, Germany – lifelong learning emphasis only on older adults; 2009 – CONFINTEA VI – Belem, Para, Brazil – lifelong learning emphasis being throughout life; prominent role of higher education institutions changing toward lifelong learning; developing definitions of lifelong learning and learning in general; characteristic elements of lifelong learning higher education institutions; implementing challenges of lifelong learning, core values and human systems; and, two appendices including beneficial instruments for use in lifelong learning.

 On the Cutting Edge of Additional Developments 2015 and Beyond into the Future

Henschke (2015a) declared that trust, empathy, and sensitivity enacted, combined and expressed reciprocally toward learners/supervisees and fostering in them the

same toward facilitators/supervisors, begins with their extending the "benefit of the doubt" to learners/supervisees in the workplace. Reciprocity on a daily basis means: Interrelatedness, mutual assistance, give and take, aiding and abetting, mutuality, interplay, learning, cooperation, and collaboration, that most especially becomes operational in the workplace. Trust, empathy and sensitivity in reciprocity are central components to developing classrooms or workplaces ripe for fostering learning, producing job satisfaction, and providing an atmosphere and environment conducive for fostering and enhancing supervisees' desire to retain their employment with the corporation -- thus reducing costs of employing new workers/supervisees. Developing relationships that nurture learners/supervisees *and* learning in the workplace is of significant importance to workplace learning. Learning at its best is built on trust, empathy, sensitivity and reciprocal relationships through practices in the workplace. Through the use of what I call "A Living Lecture," participants and the facilitator share in identifying a number of elements of trust, empathy, and sensitivity with reciprocation, and minimizing insensitivity in the learning process, as well as uses of the same "in practice"; and, will utilize the process of raising questions for clarification, rebuttal, elaboration and practical application. In this way, learners have the opportunity to discuss, debate, and construct a usable framework of trust, empathy, reciprocation and sensitivity through the lens of their own experiences that can strengthen learning in their own learning and work environments.

Grosso (2015) addressed the sub question: "which andragogical and gerontological adult learning needs must be met for aging adults with DD to successfully age in place?" She presented the following chart in slide # 20 of the PowerPoint used at her doctoral dissertation defense, July, 2015.

Andragogical Learning Needs	**Gerontological Learning Needs**
- Engage, protect, teach/help learn - Promote respect - Create a climate conductive to learning (physically and psychologically) – have fun! - Promote identity in retirement - Collaboration - Develop friendships/social ties - Individualize learning - Modeling - Repetition	- How to prepare for and address age-related challenges faced by the general population - How to deal with health problems that have a higher prevalence in older adults with DD (e.g., vision and hearing concerns, obesity, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease) - How to manage weight by eating healthy and exercising regularly is essential for those striving to successfully age in place - How to tackle myriad social age-related learning challenges (e.g., coping with an accumulation of loss, grief, isolation, and barriers to resource utilization)

Nukic (2015) completed his study as an andragogical exploration of how formal and non-formal adult English as second language programs helped non-English speaking adults learn English as a second language in the United States. He wanted to find out what ESL

programs did to help adult students learn English. He explored 10 ESL programs through secondary interview data and primary data provided by focus groups and observations. He used axial coding to determine if Billington's (1988) seven characteristics were present in ESL programs, and he determined that most of the programs did include the seven characteristics which are: *A class environment of respect; their abilities and life achievements acknowledged; intellectual freedom, self-directed learning, experimentation and creativity encouraged; learner treated fairly and as an intelligent adult; class is an intellectual challenge; interaction promoted with instructor and between students; and, regular feedback from instructor.* However, none used all seven consistently. Based on open coding, eight themes emerged: goals, resources, qualifications, curriculum, environment, teaching strategies, learning, and obstacles. Throughout the ESL teacher interviews, focus groups, and observations, these themes emerged as the most important characteristics ESL programs used or needed in order to help non-English speaking adults learn English. All 10 ESL programs had a common goal – help adult ESL learners learn English. However, not all ESL programs helped non-English speaking adults in the same way.

Henschke (2015b) updated capsule on a History and Philosophy of Andragogy includes nine new items and is mainly limited [with a few exceptions] to a chronological history and the accompanying philosophy of andragogy, in line with when the English language documents were published and personal descriptions of events were recorded. Some of these documents, however, present aspects of the events and ideas which recount the years and contexts prior to the time in which they appeared in published form. To date, nearly 500 documents have been discovered, but space limitations in this paper allowed the inclusion of only 140 – a fraction of the total number. Each of 16 eras is articulated with selected works and the cutting edge discoveries are found mainly in the most recent era.

Nukic further emphasized how each program helped students varied in students' and program's goals - most ESL programs helped non-English speaking adults learn English by having a goal that aligned with students' individual goals. The resources commonly used were a large amount of classes offered in easily accessible locations. With regard to teachers' qualifications - most ESL programs had qualified individuals (minimum master's degree in teaching) teach ESL courses. With regard to curriculum - the curriculum was recommended to be adjusted to what students wanted and needed to learn. In consideration of environment – the classroom environment should be welcoming and open for students to feel non-threatened. For teaching strategies, most programs recommended participation as the main approach for helping students learn, and for learning – most of the data represented indicated that student engagement and self-directness was the most important factor in students' abilities to learn. And, with regard to obstacles – most programs indicated that attendance and diversity were the largest obstacles in students' learning.

Pagano (2015) likens the andragogy of nature as man being like a tree. There is the root system of personal values, made up of: respect, passion, determination, enthusiasm, awareness, responsibility, listening, integrity, creativity, courage, and trust. There is the

conductor system [or trunk] which is the torso-person system seen as a bio-psycho-social being. This torso-person is made up of six concentric rings: the need to know, motivation, orientation towards learning, willingness to learn, the role of experience, and self-concept. The foliage system is the V.I.T.A. – the [*volonta*] will, imagination, tolerance and action. This is comprised of the umbrella – will to meaning and is composed of: family of origin, health/physical shape, partner or stepfamily, personal growth (spiritual dimension), hobbies/passions, friends, money/finances, and work/career. This is quite a metaphor that could be developed into a comprehensive perception of the dynamic, living, human being.

Giampaolo (2015) studied the idea that creation of a personalized learning path has been proposed to students attending six courses of two graduate degree programs at the University of Padua in Italy. The personalized learning plan concluded between teacher and students allowed to define objectives, strategies, resources and evidence that have been assessed. The practice of the personalized plan saw the teacher become a resource for students, a facilitator of learning. The realization of these plans allowed developing an experiential reflection on practice to better understand how academics could respond to the needs of personalization for students and, specifically, how the learning contracts could help faculty members to draw guidelines to personalize learning. The idea of personalized learning reflects many of the earmarks or process elements of Knowles (1995) take on andragogy, such as: (a) prepare the learner to the learning program, (b) create a climate conducive to learning psychological and physical, (c) involve the learner in a mutual planning, (d) engage the learner in diagnosing their learning needs, (e) engage the learner in the formulation of the learning objectives (f) involving learners in designing learning plans, (g) help learners to complete their learning plan, (h) engage the learner in the assessment of learning outcomes.

When Ramnarayan and Hande (2015) addressed using Self-Directed Learning in conducting educational experiences in the Johns Hopkins Medical Schools they used the Theoretical Framework of the andragogical process elements outlined by Knowles (1970), Setting a climate conducive to adult learning, establishing a structure of mutual participative planning, diagnosing the needs of adult learners, setting the learning objectives for adult learners, designing a plan to carry out the learning, conducting the pattern of learning experiences, and evaluating the learning experiences by the learners.

Keefe (2015) said that in the field of adult education, one of the better known concepts is that of the Six Assumptions of Malcolm Knowles. These assumptions, according to Knowles, divide the world of pedagogy, defined as the art and science of teaching children, from that of andragogy, conceived as the art and science of helping adults learn. In the realm of education for older learners, myriad schools and programs dot the educational landscape, but one particularly unorthodox institution of adult education, the Highlander Folk School, led by activist educator Myles Horton, stands out for its teaching roles in the Union Labor Movement of the 1930s and 1940s, and the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s. This paper looks at Myles Horton of the Highlander Folk School, his background, education and preparation for establishing his lifelong dream of using alternative education among the "common

uncommon people" for learning how to solve social and economic justice problems, and this paper then focuses on the extent to which the philosophy and teaching actions of Horton correspond to the Six Assumption Framework of andragogy as delineated by Malcolm Knowles.

Henschke et al. (2015) updated a paper on the History and Philosophy of Andragogy includes 25 new items related to andragogy, which have been discovered and in some instances developed and published since the previous year iteration.   It is mainly limited (with a few exceptions) to a chronological history and the accompanying philosophy of andragogy, in line with when the English language documents were published and personal descriptions of events were written down. Some of these documents, however, present aspects of the events and ideas, which recount the years and contexts in which they appeared in published form. This will not be an exact history of the events and philosophy as they appear in chronological order. But, this will be presented in the general sequence of the years that the articles, books, commentaries, and any other publication forms were recorded or appeared in print and / or were published. There are nearing 500 documents thus far in this collection.

From an e-mail on August 3, 2016, shortly after Patricia Cranton died, Allan Quigley, in tribute to Patricia, wrote: "For example, when we [*Allan and Patricia*] taught a 3-week cohort class one summer at StFX [*St. Francis Xaiver*], she cautiously asked if I would agree to having no curriculum. She said, 'If we believe in andragogy, why can't we first ask the students what they want to learn'? I was terrified. A classic case of Brookfield's Imposter Syndrome, I wasn't sure how--or even *if* I could do that. However, with some scrambling, we did build the entire curriculum around what the adult learners wanted and said they needed, we included a few topics which we explained were important and why, and they agreed those should be include; and the course-end evaluations were off the scale. I know this was one of the best classes I ever co-taught and I learned a lot then and since from Patricia."

Henschke (2016) conducted a research on the History and Philosophy of Andragogy includes items related to andragogy, especially as they apply to adult basic and literacy learners as well as the educators and instructors that facilitate the learning of these adults. Many of these documents and the accompanying experience of the author have been discovered and accumulated over a period of 16 years. While this article includes only 70 documents, there are now more than 500 documents covering wider and more extensive andragogical research. These particular documents, though limited to the English language, are arranged chronologically and have been obtained from the Internet. The author began his privileged journey into adult education in 1984 and has since traveled to 20 countries to work with adult educators.

Henschke (2016a) presents his perspective and experience on how Self-Directed Learning [SDL] and Andragogy may complement and contrast with each other. Focus is on: theoretical/practical, historically/currently implementing, strengths/weaknesses,

foundational/personally engaging, comparing/contrasting; a case will be made for valuing each (SDL & Andragogy) for enhancing benefit to the constituencies we serve.

Henschke (2016b) said, "My first exposure to Dusan Savicevic was in Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA, during the 1988 American Association for Adult and Continuing Education [AAACE] Conference. I had a very positive experience in meeting face-to-face with the man from whom my mentor [Malcolm S. Knowles – my major adult education Professor at Boston University (BU) from 1967-1969] had received the term and concept andragogy. Malcolm had talked about Dusan and andragogy; and, he had developed his own brand and adaptation of it in the Doctoral Program at BU. I have adapted my own version and application of it in scholarship and practice of it over the years since. Nonetheless, it was not until 1993, where I was presenting a conference paper at Wadham College, Oxford University, United Kingdom, on some aspects of my practice of andragogy, that someone from Belgium called my attention to Savicevic's (1991) aper on some extensive andragogical research Dusan had conducted. I went to the library at Oxford, found the paper and copied it. This piqued my interest on the fact that andragogy had an extensive history about I knew very little. This started my very extensive journey of researching on andragogy that did not really begin to come to flower until around 1997. As I studied this 1991 work that became my initial inspiration to investigate Dusan's work."

Henschke (2016c) in providing a tribute: "If there is one thing I would say about Dusan Savicevic [a treasured friend who passed from this world in June, 2015] it is that he is the most clearly researched person in andragogy anywhere around the globe. Not only that, he had what I consider a very stalwart character regarding his understanding of and taking a stand regarding andragogy. My initial meeting with Dusan was at the 1988 American Association for Adult and Continuing Education [AAACE] Conference in Tulsa, Oklahoma. It was a special privilege to listen and watch his interaction with the world outside of where he lived/worked in a Communist country – Yugoslavia. When he was asked by inquiring scholars at AAACE, how he was able to deal with and work within that situation, his response was striking to the point that I never forgot it, "Don't take those people so seriously." He had learned how to live within a restrictive system, but he did not allow himself to be controlled by it. That made an indelible impression on me, which inspired me to seek that kind of a stand in my own life; to not be controlled by others, but be in charge of my own life. Thank you, Dusan, for being the generous and wonderful person I found you to be!!!"

Kheang and Henschke (2016) identified that in the translated work, there were 196 concepts and 268 names are included in this quasi-English translation of Dusan Savicevic's 2000 work on roots in the world-wide development of Andragogy from ancient times. This document (in its translated although not perfect, form) comes a treasured addition to the rich global history, philosophy and themes of andragogy. This translation is an attempt to make available a very important historical work in the development of andragogy.

Henschke (2016d) indicated that the recent research foundations and practices in andragogy have focused on identifying and testing the contributions each make to the field of adult and higher education in many places around the globe. The author has developed and used to great benefit the 'living lecture', and the factors of the Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory [MIPI]. This stage of the research and practice brings the view of how organizational learning capabilities may be merged with the living lecture and the MIPI to strengthen competence in research and best practice of andragogy.

A recent update from John Henschke's posting on the International Adult and Continuing Education Virtual Hall of Fame (IACEVHOF) section of the trace Tennessee website   http://trace.tennessee.edu/cgi/myaccount.cgi?context= indicates that he had from his 172 posted papers there on the topic of andragogy are: 3462 total downloads, 377 institutions, and 118 countries.

Conclusions on the History and Philosophy of Andragogy

This is a History and Philosophy of Andragogy around the world, based on numerous English language documents. Eight new documents are included in the 2016 iteration of this andragogical research. There are a total of nearly 500 English Language documents identified for the broad research on andragogy through 16 major eras. Only a fraction of these documents are included in this work. Two Hundred more are waiting to be included in further iterations of this research. Nonetheless, andragogy is not just the work of one or a few persons, but is the result of efforts by multiple people from numerous nations around the globe. The reader is invited to join that effort. Please contact the author at the e-mail address provided on the bottom of the first page of this article.

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AGAINST ALL ODDS: SOCIO-CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON NONTRADITIONAL INTERNATIONAL LEARNERS PURSUING HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT: The decision to migrate to a foreign country with an unfamiliar educational system to pursue higher education as a nontraditional adult learner is a decision that is not taken frivolously. Despite the motivation and excitement coupled with such a journey, there are numerous unforeseen accompanying challenges from a socio-cultural perspective that can influence this experience and hence have a rippling impact on the learning process. This qualitative study explored the experiences of seven nontraditional international students that travelled to the United States to pursue higher education. Data were collected through structured interviews using convenience sampling. The study revealed that the major challenges experienced by international students from a socio-cultural perspective were a) Language and communication barriers, b) Acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences, c) Racial identity and associated stereotypes, and d) Networking (making friends). With regards to socio-cultural influences that impacted the learning process, the following themes emerged: a) Language barriers, b) Difference in the learning environment, and c) Support from faculty and classmates. The study contributes greatly to the field of adult education and adult learning from an international perspective.

Keywords: International, non-traditional, adult learners, social cultural

An international student in the United States (U.S.) can be defined as an individual, "non-immigrant" that migrates to the U.S. for the purpose of obtaining higher education and does not have citizenship or permanent residency at such time. Within colleges and universities in the United States, the international student population contributes vastly to the overall student population and hence influences not only the changing demographic landscape of students but also contributes to cultural diversity, which can present many benefits and challenges at both the individual and institutional level. According to the Open Doors Report on International Education Exchange (Institute of International Education, 2015) there has been a significant increase, the highest rate of growth in 35 years, in the amount of international students transitioning to the U.S. to obtain higher education.   In the academic year 2014/2015 approximately 974,926 international students represents spanned countries across the world. The most prevalent countries being India, China and South Korea while China being the top country of origin for international students. China and India together accounted for 67 percent of international students studying in the U.S. in the academic year 2014/2015. It is also worth noting, that a large percentage of international students also migrated from Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Nigeria, Latin America and the Caribbean (Institute of International Education, 2015). Subsequently, it was also notable that international graduate students compared to international undergraduate students showed a significant increase and accounted for the greater number of new students reversing a two-year trend that reflected undergraduate's students accounting for the greater new student population (Institute of International Education, 2015).

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The migration of international students to the U.S. to receive higher education contributes greatly to the U.S. economy and has a positive impact on academics. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce, in 2014, more than $30 billion was contributed to the U.S. economy by international students studying in the U.S. Such funds would have been generated from personal, family, scholarships, universities or governmental funds of the international students and their host countries. With regards to academia, the inclusion of international students within the college/university community contributes greatly to enhancing the learning experiences and prompting exposure to U.S. students (domestic students) with regards to the inclusion of international perspectives in the learning environment, research initiatives, networking, developing long term business relationships, and preparing students to be global citizens. Additionally, The American Council on Education has emphasized the value of preparing graduates to "operate effectively in other cultures and settings…and to better meet their responsibilities as citizens" (as cited in CIGE, 2012, p.3). From an educator's perspective, the inclusion of international students provokes educators to modify their teaching strategies and create a learning climate to benefit different groups (Halx, 2010), hence promoting a learning environment that is culturally aware and sensitive.

Despite the trend of internationalization in higher education and the benefits not only from an institutional perspective but inclusive of the economy, international students encounter numerous unique challenges. Such transitional challenges experienced by international students are quite different from those that the traditional American (domestic student) would encounter (Andrade, 2006). These challenges can include but are not limited to: pressure to adjust (acculturation), financial constraints, limited support systems, culture and social differences, language barriers, different academic environment and much more. Most of which can be categorized under the conceptual theme of social-cultural. On this premise, this study was designed to explore the social-cultural experiences of international graduate students studying in the U.S. and to explore whether these social-cultural experiences has influence their experiences as non-traditional adult learners.

This study was guided by two research questions:

1. What are the experiences of non-traditional adult learners that travel internationally to receive higher education from a social-cultural perspective?
2. How has the social-cultural difference influence the learning experience of nontraditional learners receiving higher education internationally?

Theory

The theoretical underpinning for this study is the sociocultural theory. Although this theory is vastly defined and utilized in a multiplicity of contexts, there is still a commonality that exists-- the underlying fundamental concepts of social and culture (Rezaei 2011). Vygotsky, a psychologist, originally introduced the theory, recognized specifically with regard to theories of learning and development, which emphasizes that learning occurs within a social world and is the origination of human intelligence in

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society and culture (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertch, 1991). It is Vygotsky's belief that social interaction has an essential role in the development of cognition. This theory was selected for this study because it provides a theoretical explanation with regard to the experiences of international students seeking to receive higher education in the USA and how the social-cultural difference can influence their learning experience.

Background
Motivation and Challenges of International Students Pursuing Higher Education

The decision to migrate to the U.S. to pursue higher education as a graduate student can be rooted in personal expectations of a greater quality of life, financial stability, international exposure and experiences and professional development. From a professional perspective, according to Asgari and Borzooei (2014) many international students are motivated as a result of many business and organizations around the globe requiring employees to possess the ability to think critically, communicate competently and engage in innovation--skills that can be augmented due to international exposure to higher education. Valdez (2015) indicated that reasons for mobility of international students are the gap in between educational supply and demand in many countries of origin and access to economic resources. Other scholars such as Liu, Elston, & Zhou (2013) suggest that an influential factor in the decision making process of Chinese students include students' social influences, specific countries valued for perceived high quality of education and social-economic pragmatism. Despite the motivation of international students to pursue higher education in the U.S. and their country of origin, international students encounter many unique challenges that can impede their experience while pursuing higher education and hence has impact on their learning experience.

There is a vast amount of literature that amplifies the challenges encountered by international students pursuing higher education and spans across a multitude of domains. International students encounter a great amount of challenges that domestic students would not normally encounter (Sullivan & Kashubeck-West, 2015). Unlike domestic students, international students in addition to transitioning to a foreign country with the goal of pursuing higher education are required to adjust to a new academic/learning environment that varies in most instances from their host countries, a new culture, language barriers, and communication style (Baba & Hosoda, 2014). Further challenges include but are not limited to: lack of social support (Hechanova-Alampay, Beehr, Christiansen, & Van Horn, 2002), excessive amount of loneliness and isolation (Rajapaksa and Dundes, 2002, Rajapaksa, academic challenges, disengagement from educational activities (Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005), acculturation challenges (Campbell, 2015), unfamiliar teaching practices, communication barriers, and identity issues (Jackson, Ray, & Bell 2013; Kim, 2012; Kuo, 2011; Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010; Sue & Rawlings, 2013; Telbis, Helgeson, & Kingsbury, 2014; Young, 2011), cultural insensitivity by academic advisors and research supervisors specifically regarding doctoral students (Sato & Hodge, 2009); indifferent mentoring relationships and inadequate career guidance (Knox et al., 2013).

Specifically as it relates to social and cultural issues, challenges included but are not limited to: a vast difference as it relates to the norms and social practices in an American society that were not common in their host culture or social practices (Jackson, Ray, & Bybell, 2013; Sherry, Thomas & Chui, 2010), identity complications, which were often related to their different race and ethnicity (Kim, 2012), change in family structure and relationships as an adjustment strain (Poyrazli & Kavanaugh, 2006). Other challenges include: change of confidence, which can influence academic success (Telbis, Helgeson, Kingsbury (2013), change in culture values (Marin, Gamba, Chun & Organista (2003), cultural shock and its influence on learning, depression, relationship challenges and anxiety (Mesidor & Sly, 2014), acculturation level and stress (Sullivan & Kashubeck-West, 2015, and social support or lack therefore (Bai, 2016). Despite the voluminous literature on the experiences of international students, there is limited literature that focuses specifically on how such challenges influence the experiences of the nontraditional international students and more specifically on their learning experiences as adult learners.

Method

Study Design, Data Collection and Analysis

A qualitative design was employed in this study and was reflective of structured interviews. Approximately seven in-depth interviews were conducted over a period of two months which ranged from 60 to 90 minutes in length. Convenience sampling was utilized to recruit participants for this study. Feasibility and access to participants were the underpinning for the sampling technique used (Andrews & Frankel, 2010). The inclusion criteria for participants were: participants must have been born in a country other than the United States of America, migrated to the United States as an adult to enroll in an institution of higher education as a non-traditional adult learner, obtained or currently obtaining a graduate degree from a university within the United States, and both genders. Participants were informed of their rights not to participate in this study in compliance with the Institutional Review Board.

Open coding was the method of qualitative analysis used with a focal point of establishing themes and main concepts coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Recurring topics in the text were recognized as themes and sub-themes utilizing the research structure provided by the research objectives, research questions and the theoretical framework. This process allowed a deeper understanding and explanation of issues that were being studied. To ensure greater validity and reliability, a peer reviewer read through the data to ensure themes and categories corresponded with the research questions. Upon completion of the transcription, the participants were allowed to review for accuracy and ensure it was a true account of the information relayed.

Participants' Demographic Profile

There were a total of seven participants in this study who are categorized as international students: three males and four females. The participant's age range varied. The participants represented Asia *n*=3, The Caribbean n=3, and Malaysia *n*=1. The educational level of the participants included both masters (*n*=1), currently enrolled in a doctoral program (*n*=5) and recent graduate from the doctoral (*n*=1). Employment status of participants varied.

Findings

Research Question One

What are the experiences of non-traditional adult learners that travel internationally to receive higher education from a social-cultural perspective?
The response was unanimous amongst the study participants as it relates to their experience being influenced from a social-cultural perspective. The major themes that emerged from a social-cultural perspective included: a) Language/communication barriers, b) Acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences, c) Racial identity and associated stereotypes, and d) networking (making friends).

     Language and communication barriers. All of the participants, whether or not English was their first language, indicated that the language barrier was an overwhelming factor as it relates to their social-cultural experience and adjusting to life in the U.S. while pursuing higher education. Approximately 43% of the participants indicated that English was not their native language. As a result of this, prior to pursuing higher education although they would have prior exposure to English language, still pursued additional English courses to ensure they were proficient in the English language, which ranged from six months to one year. However, despite the initiative to engage in additional English classes, the barrier of the English language still existed. One participant was very candid and explained that when communicating with other students, faculty or persons with whom he may have to interact, he would always question himself as to whether he was communicating correctly and how his voice sounded. He stated, "When I first moved here and even now, the thought would come to my head regarding my voice. If I am saying the right thing and if I am saying it clearly… one thing associated with me is my accent."

With regard to the other participants who indicated that English was their first language, barriers with regards to the English language still exited. One participant from the Caribbean indicated that English is the only language she knows. However, there was still evidently a communication barrier. She indicated that Americans do not realize that they too speak with an accent. However, to her surprise, Americans only recognize the accents of international individuals not realizing that all people speak with an accent. She indicated that the English she speaks originates from the British; this creates a challenge compared to American English as it relates to the enunciation, pronunciation and spelling of some words. There would be some instances when Americans would

correct the manner in which she pronounced a word. For example, the enunciation of the word "Exuma" and the spelling of the words "colour" and "favour" (British English) and color and favor (American English). She stated, "rather than acknowledging there is a difference there would be the underlying assumption that the British English is incorrect."

Communication styles was a sub theme that emerged. It was particularly noted with regards to the participants of Asian descent. One participant indicated that their communication style is more reserved and indirect compared to the American style of communication. She indicated that if there is an explicit desire for something, it is done indirectly in her country. However, in America, it is a common practice to communicate directly. She indicated that this is indeed different for her but is a positive factor and is very effective especially in institutions of higher education.

It was worth noting that language and communication barriers were an overwhelming concern for both English as the first language (but spoken with an accent) and those for whom English was a second or third language. Participants indicated how this impacted them not only as individuals but as nontraditional adult learners and the strategies they would utilize to minimize such barriers even to the extent of receiving accent modification therapy.

Acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences. The second theme that emerged was acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences. All of the participants indicated that there was a vast difference as it relates to social-cultural matters in the U.S. compared to their home country. Various sub-themes emerged: the difference in dress, networking or making friends, fitting in, cultural shock and difference in cultural values. It was revealed that the manner in which Americans would dress especially within institutions of higher learning was vastly different compared to how individuals would dress in institutions of higher education in their home country. It was made known that most institutions of higher education (in their home countries) would have a dress code that would guide how students would dress. Students would be required to adhere to such dress codes or would not be permitted to enter in any institutions of higher education. It was discussed that this also creates a concern with regard to children of international students. In some instances it creates a cultural divide within the household and in some instances it leads to questioning of cultural values.

It was revealed by some of the Caribbean participants that the issue of hospitality, which is usually considered the number one industry in their country, contributes to the need and value of always "being nice," friendly, respectful, communicating with people whether they are known to you or not. Additionally, their culture is one that focuses on collectivism rather than individualism. However, in America as expressed by a participant it is the complete opposite. One participant indicated, she would enter a room or an elevator and say "good morning" or "good evening" and in most instances no one would look at her nor reply which is considered rude in her culture. However, it is embedded in Americans especially children not to speak to strangers because of security reasons. She indicated that this also has a rippling impact in the learning environment.

Culture shock. Another theme expressed by the participants when they initially arrived in the U.S. was culture shock. There were numerous strategies discussed with regards to how to adjust or assimilate to the American culture.   Some strategies revealed included watching American television shows with the view of learning and adjusting to the culture, observing American students while in institutions of higher education and trying to dress and "act" as the American do to accelerate the adjustment to the American culture.

The ability to network (make friends). Networking is a challenge for international students, which often has a rippling impact in the learning environment especially as it relates to group assignments and discussions. It was revealed that it is a frequent practice for international students to network and support each other especially those from the same country. In the learning environment, most international students would be in the same group. One participant revealed that the challenge that exists is that as soon as a friendship is developed, it would not be long before that individual graduates and moves on with his or her life. To the contrary, another participant indicated that just making friends was a challenge. He stated the fear of being rejected by Americans was a social challenge for him. Other challenges associated with networking/making friends included negative stereotypes associated with being an international student and language/communication challenges. However, there was one international student who indicated that he often is not recognized and fits in as the traditional international student because of his social status (financially advantaged). On this premise, he feels isolated as an international student with other international students and as it relates to the American students.

It is also worth noting that some participants indicated that the emersion with different cultures and social variety created a richer learning experience. The opportunity to learn about different cultures and its influence on the learning process and the diversity present in the American society creates a holistic learning experience and creates opportunities for future networking.

Racial identity and associated stereotype. It was revealed that racial identity and stereotypes associated with being an international student was noted and concerning. It was expressed that because of some noted difference associated with being an international student-- language barriers, communication style and physical appearances-- this created some identity issues and hence stereotypes.   Such challenges evidently impacted the adjustment of international students to the U.S.   Since none of the participants were Caucasians, which is the predominant race/ethnic group of the students in their current school, they were considered and categorized as a minority group, which is contrary to their classification in their home country. Often, there is a negative connotation associated with being a minority with which international students are not familiar or do associate themselves with.

It was interesting to note that 67% of the male participants indicated that there were negative stereotypes associated with them being males of color.   Such stereotypes did not only manifest with students but also faculty, staff and administrators at their

respective universities. One particular male indicated that travelling from a country where he is considered the majority and now being referred to as a minority with negative connotations is unfamiliar to him. He stated, "I am comfortable with who I am but I can see [sic] the stereotypical dumb statements that would be made." He also indicated that there were instances where he was marked down with his graduate work because the professor thought that he did not actually do the work because it was of good quality. He explained that because of such negative stereotypes associated with being an international male of color he had to work harder. He stated "I have to be three times better so to speak and being a black male I am not use to that." Another male participant indicated that some Americans associated the intelligence level of international students with their accent or language barrier. Hence suggesting that because he spoke with an accent or his English was not as fluent, he was not intelligent. This had a rippling impact on confidence as indicated by numerous participants.

All stereotypes were not noted as negative, one participant indicated that although most American students thought he worked in a call center and/or very good at computer repairs because he was a Malaysian Indian, they all automatically assumed that he was very smart. He stated that, "I guess one of the biggest stereotypes is that I am hard working". He indicated that while in some instances this could be seen as a good thing it could also be equally mechanistic and dehumanizing.

Research Question Two

How has the social-cultural difference influenced the learning experience of nontraditional learners receiving higher education internationally?
The major themes that emerged were: a) Language Barriers, b) Difference in the Learning Environment, and c) Support from Faculty and Classmates.

       Language barrier. The results from this study revealed that language barriers impacted the learning experience of nontraditional international adult learners while pursuing higher education. For those international students for whom English is not their first language, this created a major problem with regard to the processing of information and being able to fluently communicate their thoughts whether with educators, in class discussions, group projects and some assignments (group or individual). An Asian male participant explained that although he speaks English, "I need more time to absorb new knowledge and longer times to finish my assignments." Another female Asian echoed this sentiment stating "…because English is my second language, it influences my understanding of knowledge…I use English to comprehend or master knowledge or skills required in higher education." As a result of this challenge, she spends a longer time and works harder to read a text book and write a paper to understand the knowledge. Within an adult learning environment, it is customary for the learning environment to incorporate class discussions. While this may have proven to be an effective manner in which to ensure the inclusion of student's personal and professional experience, demonstrate knowledge on a particular topic and promote critical thinking, for international students, especially those for whom English is their second language, it can create a barrier to the learning process. This barrier to learning may not only manifest itself as a language

barrier but also a cultural barrier. An Asian female indicated that she has a difficult time in the class when the professor teaches. She further expanded and said, "Normally when they ask for discussion, this is a tough time for me because normally in my country, we don't have discussion with the students and the professor." With regard to group work and projects, it was a general consensus that international students are often shunned from American students because of their language barriers and accents. This has a rippling impact on the self-confidence of international students and their ability to communicate and network effectively in the learning environment. Hence, in most instances, international students would utilize each other as support systems in the learning environment.

Difference in the learning environment. A difference in the learning environment from a social-cultural perspective compared to the participant's home country was identified as a positive theme that influenced the learning experience of international nontraditional adult learners. The theme learning environment includes sub-themes of teaching and/or instructional methods, interaction between student and teacher, standards of education and educational systems. Most participants identified the difference in the learning environment as a positive factor. Such current experiences contradict what they were exposed to in their home country, which emphasized the importance of rote memorization, memorizing the text, incorporating exams techniques which are reflective of the pedagogical approach. One participant explained that within her country of origin, "I would need to highly respect the instructors even if they are wrong." She further stated that it was not uncommon to hear the phrase from an educator. "I am the authority on this and memorize it." However, in the U.S., the approach to learning is vastly different with a focus on understanding of material, discussions, debates on differing points of view, promoting critical thinking among learners in higher education and reflective of the andragogical approach. From a social perspective, as it relates to communication between the educator and students, it was a general consensus that within their home country, the educator is dominant as it relates to the knowledge level and students' roles are more passive. There is limited interaction between the students and the educator within the classroom environment with regard to course content and delivery of content. However, in the U.S. institutions of higher education, discussions are evident and encouraged by educators. Students' opinions and experiences on a subject matter are encouraged and valued by not only educators but also by other classmates. As it relates to the type of relationship demonstrated between faculty and students, in the U.S. it is more as colleagues and/or friends. Students are given the opportunity to publish with faculty and present at academic conferences but in her home country that would never happen. The faculty in her country is the authority and the relationship with the students is that students are inferior.

Support from faculty and classmates. Support whether from faculty or fellow students is paramount in any graduate program. On this premise, the lack of support can be problematic. Within any graduate program, it is crucial to receive guidance from faculty, mentors and administrators and the constant flow of information regarding the program, courses, opportunities for growth and development and basically how to navigate the landscape of a graduate program.   Without such guidance and the constant

flow of such critical information the success rate of any graduate student can be negatively influenced immensely. This sentiment was echoed by a male participant in this study. He reflected on his personal experience when faculty would provide specific students "usually Caucasians Americans" with certain information that he would not have been privy to but information which was needed to be successful in the program and the usual comments when he later received the information by another means would be " you didn't know that and I would say when was I supposed to know that…some of them are very secretive…there were some (faculty) who would share information but others would not."

Discussion

This research is meaningful and contributes to the field of adult education and adult learning practice and research in many ways specifically from an international learner's perspective. First, the study revealed that the findings were consistent with the literature and supported the notion that there were some adjustment challenges from a social-cultural perspective for international students pursuing higher education in the U.S. Specific challenges echoed in this study were: a) Language and communication barriers, b) Acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences, c) Racial identity and associated stereotypes and, d) Networking. This suggests that the landscape of higher education is diversifying, which can be attributed to the increase in international students. Therefore, emphasis need to be placed on addressing the challenges they experienced from an institutional perspective and how to best meet those needs through program implementation and support systems (i.e., internationalization of curriculums, mentoring programs, networking opportunities, cultural sensitivity awareness and training, diversity training, proper orientation for international students and much more).

Second, with regard to a sense of awareness of how the social cultural experiences of international students in higher education influence their learning process, it is essential not only for the learner but educators of such students to be knowledgeable and sensitive to such needs. From a learner's perspective, both international and domestic students, it is imperative to understand how to utilize the global perspectives that international students can contribute to the learning environment and utilize this unique phenomenon as a learning tool and opportunities to network. Additionally for international students, it is imperative to enroll in programs that can provide a supportive environment during the adjustment period and to network with fellow international students who can assist with social-cultural challenges one may encounter.

Third, as educators, it is crucial to ensure the learning environment is one that promotes cultural sensitivity and awareness, basically demonstrating an appreciation and understanding for difference. Further, it is imperative that educators take into consideration some of the challenges that impede learning from an international student perspective. Initiatives to address such issues can include opportunities such as: peer mentoring, network opportunities, and a supportive learning environment for students with differing backgrounds and cultural experiences. With regard to instructional

techniques, assignments and assessments, incorporate a myriad of techniques with an underpinning of cultural awareness and sensitivity, learning styles, and globalization.

Conclusion

The focus of this study was to explore the experiences of international students from a social-cultural perspective and how such experiences can influence and/or impede the learning process. The study was informative and identified challenges encountered by international students as: a) Language/communication barriers, b) Acceptance and assimilation to social-cultural differences, c) Racial identity and associated stereotypes and, d) Networking (making friends). Influential challenges specific to the learning environment include: a) Language barriers, b) Difference in the learning environment, and c) Support from faculty and classmates. The findings from this study were consistent with the literature. However, further research could supplement this study incorporating a larger sample size with more countries represented. Additionally, further exploration is called for into whether international students are transformed as a result of exposure to the various social-cultural challenges and would be a good focus for further studies.

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EXPLORING THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING EXPERIENCES OF BAHAMIAN STUDENTS STUDYING IN THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT: Within recent years, there has been a trend of students (traditional and nontraditional) travelling abroad, more particularly to the United States, with the view of pursuing higher education at both the graduate and undergraduate level. Among the most popular influential factors to obtain higher education internationally are government and private scholarships, international exposure and experience, professional development, and a quality of education that could not have been obtained locally. Despite the accelerant that ignited the desire for travel, most students are not prepared for the vast social and cultural difference in the educational system. However international students are resilient, adapt and are successful and often result in them transforming as individuals. This qualitative study examined the effects of U.S. based education on Bahamian students, from the perspective of transformational learning theory. Emphasis was placed on the extent to which these students' international learning experiences transformed them into scholars of positive social change within their respective fields of study. Data were collected utilizing semi structured interviews of 10 Bahamian students. All of the participants were born in The Bahamas, but traveled to the United States to pursue higher education as a nontraditional adult learner. The study results provide a foundational platform for current and future Bahamian adult learners pursuing higher education in the United States.

Keywords: Transformation, Bahamas, Non-Traditional Adult Learners

The concept of travelling abroad to pursue higher education is not necessarily unique to The Bahamas but is a notion explored by many individuals at an international level. This concept is often coupled with the expectation of receiving a better quality of life, a diverse educational experience, personal and professional development, financial stability, experience and relevant exposure which is often due to the limited supply of higher education opportunities in their host country. Despite the motivation to pursue higher education, there are some perceived challenges as it relates to relocating to a foreign country and enrolling in an unfamiliar educational system. Further, as a result of embracing such opportunities, change at an individual level becomes inevitable. Hence, these individuals who study abroad often transform as individuals and as learners which adds further complications upon return to their host country.

It may be a myth that the underlying benefit of travelling to the U.S. is only advantageous to the international student because universities and the American economy at large benefit greatly from the inclusion of international students in American higher education. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce, in 2014, more than $30 billion was contributed to the U.S. economy by international students studying in the U.S. Funds to pursue higher education were generated as a result of personal, family, scholarships, universities or governmental funds of the international students and their host countries.

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Examining from an academic perspective, the inclusion of international students in the U.S. learning environment contributes greatly to a diverse student population, incorporation of creative teaching styles, networking opportunities, and inclusion of global perspectives. On this premise, this study was designed to explore the socio-cultural experiences of Bahamians studying abroad in the U.S. and examine how they have transformed as individuals and their perception of returning home upon completion of their studies.

Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded upon the theory of transformation (Mezirow, 1994). This theory is one that encompasses adult learning processes, generic structures, and elements, which are acted upon in certain situations or cultures. This theory posited that through reflection (when solving a problem), one's actions and thoughts are adjusted, or rather *transformed*, in an effort to yield a different result. Due to the social nature of this theory, its application is specifically useful in social contexts, where differences may arise, such as in a school environment. This theory suggests that through learning and enlightenment, transformation occurs.

Literature Review

Why Students Pursue Higher Education Outside of their Native Home

The trend of students leaving their native home to seek higher education internationally, particularly within the United States, has increased significantly over the past decade (Fielding & Gibson, 2005). More so in recent years, it has been found that the enrollment of non-traditional learners attending institutions of higher learning in the United States has proliferated (Jesnek, 2012). The most common reasons why individuals seek higher education outside of their native home, which emerged throughout the literature, include (a) better training and skills acquisition, (b) exposure to a different culture, or a better way of life, and (c) to receive opportunities that would better assist them in becoming a more successful contributor to their respective fields of study (Abdullah, Adebayo, & Talib, 2015; Fielding & Gibson, 2005; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007; Yusoff, 2011). The purpose of this review of literature is three-fold (a) to examine factors that impact the adjustment process of non-traditional, international learners enrolled in institutions of higher learning, (b) highlight ways in which non-traditional learners have been transformed by their transition to and from an international institution of higher learning, and (c) explore how socio-cultural differences have influenced the learning experiences of the non-traditional learner.

However, as researchers (Mahmud, Amat, Rahman, & Ishak, 2010; Mittal, & Wieling, 2006; Poyrazli, & Kavanaugh, 2006; Ye, 2006; Yusoff, 2011) have found, the transition from a student's native land to an international institution of higher learning presents many experiences, and perhaps challenges, which impact the learner, thereby influencing the overall learning experience. This transition may result in the transformation of the non-traditional learner as s/he begins to see oneself from the perspective of an adult

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learner. However, based upon the theory of transformation, the learner's personal perceptions are reevaluated, and perhaps questioned, in light of new paradigms and situations (Mezirow, 2000). It is interesting to note that the majority of one's reflection occurs within the context of problem-solving. This justifies how one's thinking and actions are adjusted or *transformed* when faced with a challenge of some kind. It also embodies the process of communicative learning, which is simply trying to understand what someone means and is an important process when interacting with individuals from diverse cultures and ethnicities.

International students derive from a myriad of culturally diverse backgrounds, and this factor is one of the primary reasons why these students experience difficulty in adjusting to their new learning environments. While psychologists like Vygotsky (1978) and Piaget (1951) supported that individuals learn through interactions within their environment, others (Mahmud, Amat, Rahman, & Ishak, 2010; Ye, 2006) have found that socio-cultural differences can pose a difficulty for students studying outside of their native home. As a result, misunderstanding, socio-cultural differences such as language and cultural norms can affect communication between individuals (students and their peers/students and their instructors). This, according to Yusoff (2011) causes students to experience feelings of insecurity, nostalgia, and low self-efficacy, thus hindering successful adjustment.

Poyrazli and Grahame (2007) conducted a qualitative study, which was taken from an ecological perspective. This study took place at a U.S. institution which offered degrees at the baccalaureate, master's, and doctorate levels. The purpose of the study was to determine whether the needs of the international students were adequately met by the university. The participants included 15 students (12 males, 3 females), and focus group interviews were used to collect data. The participants represented various nationalities including German, Korean, Indian, Chinese, Turkish, and Mexican. The study revealed several areas of concern, in relation to students' adjustment process. The more paramount issues were communication with peers, and social interaction. The study also found that students' experiences both inside and outside of their classroom environments significantly impacted the adjustment process.

Yusoff's (2011) quantitative study investigated the relationship between social support, self-efficacy, and socio-cultural adjustment. This study was conducted in a public higher education institution in Malaysia, and the participants consisted of 185 international undergraduate students. The hypotheses were tested using a multiple linear regression analysis. Findings from this study indicated that support from friends is positively related to the process of socio-cultural adjustment. In a qualitative study, Mittal and Wieling (2006) examined international doctoral students' experiences. Data were collected using 13 in-depth interviews, and findings revealed that most participants experienced some type of adjustment problems. Participants expressed the need for more academic and career support, in addition to increased recognition for their cultural differences.

Ye (2006) examined the relationships between social support, acculturative stress and the use of online ethnic social groups. The participants of this study included Chinese students pursuing doctoral degrees in the United States. Findings revealed that students who received adequate social support, exhibited less feelings of fear, in terms of their adjustment process. It was also found that students who received high levels of support from their social ethnic groups experienced less acculturative stress. Researchers (Mahmud, Amat, Rahman, & Ishak, 2010; Mittal, & Wieling, 2006; Poyrazli, & Kavanaugh, 2006; Ye, 2006; Yusoff, 2011) have confirmed that socio-cultural elements such as language, social support, and the interpersonal interactions all play a significant role in determining how successful an international student's adjustment will be in the future.

Socio-cultural Challenges

Language. Research has shown that language barriers negatively impact international students' ability to adjust to their new academic environments (Mahmud, Amat, Rahman, & Ishak, 2010). Poyrazli and Grahame's (2007) findings correspond with those of Mahmud, Amat, Rahman and Ishak (2010), who found that the inability to communicate effectively across cultures limits the student's ability to be fully involved in both his learning, in addition to his adjustment process. Li and Gasser (2005) and Yusoff (2011) argued that there existed a significant correlation between socio-cultural adjustment and one's level of self-efficacy. These researchers found that international (foreign) students who were capable of communicating effectively in the native language of their host country, expressed higher levels of confidence in their abilities as an adult learner. In support of such findings, Bamber and Tett (2000) proposed that institutions of higher education provide transitional programs for their international students. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) and Jesnek (2012) also supported the concept of transitional programs, and concurred that such programs be sustained throughout the entire duration of the students' programs of study. According to Yusoff (2011), "language self-confidence played a pivotal role, mediating the relations between psychological adjustment and sociocultural difficulty" (p. 4).

Social support. Researchers defend that social support is a critical factor in improving international students' adjustment processes (Yusoff, 2007). These students are separated from their homes, and familiar support systems, only to find themselves in unfamiliar territories, where they are forced to find new support. In addition to the challenge of language differences across cultures, researchers (Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Ye, 2006) have found that international students were often faced with a lack of social support whether from their peers or instructors. Participants in Verbik and Lasanowski's (2007) study expressed concern about not receiving the experience that was advertised by the university in which they were enrolled. This view was shared by participants in a similar study conducted by Abdullah, Adebayo and Talib (2015), who found that students who did not receive sufficient academic or social support, experienced feelings of low self-efficacy, anger, depression, and often felt as if they were discriminated against. Similarly, Mittal and Weiling's (2006) findings showed that international students desired a higher level of academic and career support. Such findings corresponded with

those of Ye's (2006) study, which defended the fact that higher levels of interpersonal social support for international students reduce the level of stress associated with their adjustment process (Ysuoff, p. 5). International students expressed the view that they did not feel welcomed, or prepared for by the institution of higher education that offered them admission. While social support is considered crucial, the establishment of relationships across cultures is not easy, in light of students' varying beliefs, customs, and dispositions.

The development of relationships across cultures speaks to the level of transformation experienced by the individual (Mezirow, 1994). The theory of transformation, as explained previously, involves adult learning processes, and is determined by cultures and situations in which one finds oneself. This therefore speaks to the importance of individuals becoming more social in nature, if they are to effectively adapt to their new surroundings, and foster cooperative relations with others. Some students have a tendency of being fearful of situations or people that threaten their beliefs or assumptions. Through interaction with others, however, we have the opportunity to examine and reflect upon our preconceptions, in an effort to determine whether or not a change is warranted (Mezirow, 1994, p. 223).

Non-traditional learners. According to current research, non-traditional learners are becoming more prevalent in higher education within The United States of America (Wyatt, 2011). How do these learners differ from the traditional learner? Non-traditional learners are individuals who are 25 or more years of age, and are often inadequately prepared for college-level work. Many of these learners return to college to obtain an undergraduate or graduate degree, in an attempt to enhance their performance on their jobs, or to qualify for promotions. These learners have been found to be more challenged than the traditional college student (aged 18-24 years), as they have additional obligations such as kids and full time jobs, in addition to returning to college to obtain a higher degree (Spainer, 2001)

Institutions of higher learning are faced with a daunting task of engaging the non-traditional learner. In recent years, student engagement has been deemed highly critical to student success (Atnafu, 2012). In light of the many responsibilities the non-traditional learner has, it is difficult to ensure that they are consistently motivated. Lack of motivation, which negatively impacts student engagement, has been found to be a paramount cause of student attrition (Wyatt, 2011). Research therefore justified the importance of creating learning communities on college campuses, in an effort to attract, motivate, and engage its non-traditional learner, in particular. In doing this, these students are able to adjust more smoothly to their new learning, and social environments.

Mahmud, Amat, Rahman and Ishak (2010), conducted a qualitative study which examined the experiences faced by non-traditional students which negatively impacted their adjustment within international institutions of higher learning. The study's participants included 30 international students who studied at public funded universities. Data were obtained through the use of six focus groups (each consisting of five to six students). The participants were natives of South East Asia, Africa, China, and the

Middle East. The study revealed three major elements of culture that negatively impacted students' learning and adjustment: (a) language, (b) values, and (c) food. Mahmud, Amat, Rahman and Ishak (2010) defended that ensuring successful adjustment to any institution is not only the responsibility of the institution, but the student as well. Bamber and Tett 2000) suggested that an institution of higher learning ensure that the [non-traditional] students are supported through the establishment of systems and policies that facilitate students' transition. Bamber and Tett ((2000) also purported that students should apply coping strategies in an effort to help themselves adjust to their new learning environment, specifically to the demands of college life. It is at this point that the transitional process of the student begins to unfold.

Method

Study Setting

The Commonwealth of The Bahamas is an archipelago of 700 plus islands and cays. Located north of the Caribbean, this country has an ongoing tradition of providing financial opportunities for its citizens to study abroad, particularly in the United States of America. The Bahamas' Ministry of Education is responsible for the educational system within the country. There are 247 schools in The Bahamas (159 public schools, 88 private schools). The College of The Bahamas is the country's flagship for higher education. Additionally, there is one community college, The Bahamas Baptist Community College, also located on the island of New Providence. Several American universities have campuses established on the island of New Providence, and offer degree programs to Bahamians. Such institutions include Omega College, Nova Southeastern University, University of Miami, Kent State University, Barry University, and Sojourner-Douglas College. Through organizations such as the Organization of American States (OAS), and the Inter-Development Bank, the Bahamas' Ministry of Education has offered numerous scholarships for the pursuit of undergraduate and graduate studies in a myriad of fields. This tradition has been ongoing for centuries. Whether as a non-traditional adult learner, or a recent graduate from high school, Bahamian students have sought to enhance their academic and professional skills in the United States, as in some cases, desired programs of study are not available in their homeland.

Study Design and Data Collection

This study adopted a qualitative phenomenological design. Data were collected through the use of semi- structured interviews, from 10 Bahamian participants throughout the island of New Providence in The Bahamas. The interview questions were delineated by the researcher. The interviews were conducted in person, and recorded. Immediately following each interview, the audio data were transcribed. Analysis of the data were carried out through the process of open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 2010), in an effort to establish themes and major concepts. The recurring themes retrieved from the data were used to construct a table of the major themes, as well as subthemes. This process facilitated a more profound understanding of the phenomenon being studied. In an effort to ensure validity and reliability, the data were peer reviewed to ensure that the themes

were in alignment with the research questions. The research questions that guided the research were (a) What is the lived experience of Caribbean students as adult learners while pursuing higher education in the United States? (b) What are some possible factors that affect the success of Caribbean students as adult learners in their pursuit of higher education in the United States? (c) How do Caribbean students as adult learners in pursuit of higher education in the United States describe sociocultural factors as an influence and/or impediment on educational success? (d) How would Caribbean students describe transforming as a learner after pursuing higher education in the USA? (e) What are the perceptions of Caribbean students regarding returning home after pursuing a higher education in the U.S.?

Participants

The method of convenience sampling was used to select participants, as this was better suited, considering the easy access to participants (Andrews & Frankel, 2010). A group of teachers (*n*=10), all of which met the inclusion criteria, was selected to participate in this study. To meet the inclusion criteria, all participants had to have studied in the United States for at least two years, having returned home (The Bahamas) within the past three years. All of the participants were notified of their rights, as they pertained to the Institutional Review Board.

Findings

There were 10 participants interviewed for this study, eight females (80%) and two males (20%). The participants' highest levels of education varied between Bachelor's Degree and Master's Degree. There were seven participants whose highest level of education was a Master's Degree (70%), and three participants (30%) whose highest level of education was a Bachelor's Degree. Number of years of study in the United States ranged from 3 to 10 years.

Challenges

This study's findings revealed that pursuing a higher education in a foreign country can wreak havoc on one's emotions, when trying to adapt to customs and lifestyles different from your own. In a few instances, however, participants of this study expressed that their intrinsic motivation to continue in their studies was stronger, because they enjoyed their area of study. One of the female participants stated, *Despite the challenges I faced upon attending university in the US, I continued to the end of my program, because I enjoy what I do (nursing).* Another female participant stated, *I was still able to find joy in my experience, regardless of my struggles, because of the passion I have for my career.* This defends the research that posited intrinsic motivation as critical in the adult learning process. According to Atnafu (2012), learners are more likely to pursue a task if they are actively engaged. Engagement, as argued by Atnafu (2012), enhances one's level of intrinsic motivation, and lengthens the amount of time that an individual will choose to participate in any given task.

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The data obtained through this study showed that the Bahamian students who studied in the United States, were plagued with several challenges, most of which they all shared. Such challenges included (a) financial restrictions, (b) lack of social support, and (c) adapting to diverse cultures and ethnicities. In an effort to better facilitate their assimilation into a new academic and social culture these participants indicated the significance of implementing various coping strategies. One of the male participants recalled that after he had become a member of football team, it was easier for him to fit in with the American students with whom he often had to interact. He found that this strategy (joining a team) made him feel more comfortable making friends with persons who were different from him, as they would now have something in common. A female participant mentioned that her coping strategy for fitting in, and making new friends within her university, was to join the university's choir. These individuals found that the key to fitting in was simply to be sociable with the colleagues around them, in an atmosphere that was comfortable and relaxed. Researchers defended the strategy of socializing as an effective way of learning more about the people with whom we interact on a daily basis (Gloria, Castellanos, & Orozco, 2005).

Finances. An important part of studying abroad is the financial aspect. Relocating to a foreign country is expensive, and as several of the study's participants stated, this was cause for discouragement as they engaged in their studies. One of the participants who was forced to take her three-year old daughter along with her while she completed her Master's degree in the U.S., found that it was extremely difficult finding funds for housing, transportation, food, and text materials. Being a working mom in her native home, she mentioned that she had to save for three years in an effort to have enough money to satisfy her tuition costs for an American university. The disadvantage of being a non-traditional student, as experienced by 70% of the study's participants (1 male, 6 females), is the difficulty in obtaining a full scholarship to pursue a higher education. According to one of the participants, younger students have a greater probability of securing a scholarship than older students.

Lack of social support. Support from family, friends, and professors was a common factor that was identified by participants as being significant to their learning process while studying overseas. Being separated from one's family leaves an individual feeling lonely. The absence of support during difficult and stressful times often resulted in periods of sadness. One participant mentioned that she felt as if she did not truly belong at the university where she studied. This sentiment was shared by other participants who also felt that without a network of individuals to lean on when situations arose, adjusting to a strange environment was extremely difficult. In contrast, as one of the male participants pointed out, having a supportive program coordinator helped him greatly through his academic journey. Another male student who was fortunate to have his brother attend the same university he attended, discussed how having his brother near him, made him feel more at peace in an unfamiliar world. One of the female participants expressed her appreciation for the ways in which her instructors often facilitated socialization and cooperation through group assignments and class activities. She reflected on how working along with other diverse learners helped to grasped concepts

which she would not have normally grasped, had she worked alone. This is indicative of the role of faculty in promoting student fellowship, collaboration, and cooperation. This is a validation of Vygotsky's (1969) socio-cultural theory, which purported that students learn through interactions within their social environments.

      Socio-cultural factors. All of the participants in this study expressed that their initial concern regarding studying in The United Sates was interacting with individuals from different cultures and beliefs, and persuasions. They feared that their personal values would be negatively influenced and even changed. However, the participants found that the key to effectively, and peacefully interacting with people from diverse backgrounds, is to respect their culture and ways of thinking. One of the female participants reflected on a situation where her roommate tried to convert her from Christianity. However, she found that through mature communication and openness with each other, her roommate realized that what she was trying to do was wrong. According to one of the participants, *No one should try to impose their beliefs on another individual. We should choose to respect one another's culture, and agree to disagree.* When asked if their personal beliefs were changed in any way, due to exposure to diversity in The United States, the participants all replied that their cultural beliefs and patterns remained just as strong as when they first relocated to The United States. Several participants shared the realities of the pressure placed upon them as an outsider:

I would not say that there was no peer pressure. As an adult, I experienced pressure while I pursued higher education. I was pressured to rethink my values, but at the end of the day, I knew that I was who I was because of how I grew up, and I maintained that belief.

Some of the other students from other countries who were studying in the U.S. questioned my religion. This was very uncomfortable for me. I never experienced this before, coming from a small country. We shared about our different faiths, and did not get upset with each other. We tried to refrain from trying to prove that each other's religion was the correct one.

I was shocked to discover that people in the United States were so open about alternative lifestyles. I ended up having a roommate that was gay, but I did not discriminate against him, and he respected my wishes.

Positive Influences

This study's findings showed that amidst the challenges associated with studying in a foreign country, there were several positive factors that contributed to the participants' successful completion of their degrees (a) support from classmates and friends, (b) intrinsic motivation, and (c) supportive faculty. Three of the participants expressed that they were inwardly motivated to continue in their quest, despite their challenges because they possessed a joy for their areas of study. This is confirmed by research, which suggested that motivation drives engagement

(Keengwe, Onchwari, & Agamba, 2014). One of the participants credited his successful completion to his academic advisor and program coordinator who were always supportive of his efforts, and made themselves available for him whenever he had questions or concerns. Research has proven that supportive instructors maximize their students' potential, and enhance students' self-concept and self-efficacy (Movahedzadeh, 2011). Another participant stated, *It was good to have a professional to talk to, and to share my concerns with. They did not only listen to me, but thought of ways to bring about a resolution to my issue.*

Transformation

Data from this study indicated that the participants, upon returning home from studying in the United States, were more knowledgeable than they were when they first began their degree programs. One participant found himself to be more skillful than he was prior to completing his higher education, and other participants described themselves as being less naïve regarding the cultures of people from other countries around the world. One of the male participants mentioned that because of his international training, he has experienced a shift in his thinking, as he views situations differently, and from a more objective perspective, now. Almost as if in shock, one student exclaimed, *I couldn't believe how out of date we (my company) are, compared to businesses in the United States.* The participants expressed concern regarding their ability to adjust to working in their home country again. It was found that after being exposed to work ethics of America, the work ethics of their country needed a change. *Everything is so slow. When I worked in The States, people (employees) were held accountable, and efficiency was demanded. Here, it's just, anything goes.*

One barrier to the efforts of the transformed adult scholar is the nonchalance exuded by colleagues who have not achieved the level of training and competence as his counterparts. With the exception of three of the participants, it was found that upon returning home, individuals experienced major adversity in attempting to change the status quo of their working environment. These seven participants found that their colleagues were not as open to change as they had anticipated. In such a case, it is incumbent for employers to use their trained employees in devising change initiatives that would eventually change the overall atmosphere of the organization in a positive way. The purpose for pursuing a higher education is to not only transform oneself but to transform the world in which we all live.

Recommendations

The most common recommendations given by the participants of this study include (a) maintaining family connections, regardless of how far away, (b) socializing more in an effort to develop new friendships and relationships among peers and faculty, (c) remaining open to the differences in others without compromising one's own beliefs. The participants emphasized the importance of collaboration and networking when operating out of one's element.

<center>**Discussion**</center>

Implications for Students Studying Abroad

The findings of this research validated the current literature on the factors impacting one's study in a foreign country. Pursuing higher education in a country other than one's native land has been found to affect a student emotionally, culturally, socially, and ultimately, academically as well. This suggests, therefore, that when considering studies within the United States, or any other country, it is imperative that the learner mentally prepare oneself for the potential changes or challenges that may negatively impact one's success. As identified by various participants, implementing particular coping strategies was useful in aiding their adjustment to a different culture. Some participants stated that being open-minded towards individuals who were of a different culture, was effective in fitting in, while simultaneously maintaining their personal cultural beliefs.

Support from family and friends was identified as one of the most significant contributors to students' academic success. This is an implication of the importance of keeping the lines of communication open with relatives and friends, even when far away. The need for social support speaks to the significance of developing positive relationships with colleagues, classmates, and more importantly professors and instructors on campus. Few of the participants acknowledged the major role their professors played in making them feel comfortable in their classes, and assisting them whenever they felt confused or uncertain about a specific concept. It was this feeling of comfort that motivated the students in continuing with their studies. As this research found, unmotivated learners are more likely to discontinue their studies, than those learners who are confident in their self-efficacy, and receive consistent support from faculty.

The effective development of relationships among learners of diverse cultures, ethnicities and beliefs strongly depended upon one's overall attitude and outlook. Looking upon the culture or beliefs of other students with disdain was found to be disadvantageous to the growth of professional friendships. Some of the participants of this study found that their personal culture and beliefs were not threatened or negatively influenced in any way by the American (or any other) students they met on campus. Participants emphasized the crucial role played by professional networking in their learning process. "Peer learning," as one student described, was an important source of extrinsic motivation for him. This study showed that the ability to successfully adjust to a new way of life was determined by one's mindset.

Another important factor to consider when studying in a country away from home is the matter of one's finances. Studying at American universities is a very costly venture, especially if one is not fortunate to have been provided with a scholarship. Financial constraints affected how many courses students could afford to take within any given semester, thereby prolonging their length of study. Limited finances also affected how often students were able to visit their home country to reunite with their families. This long absence from family adds stress to an already stressful and unfamiliar learning process. The lack of financial support, as highlighted by several participants, caused

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many of their counterparts to drop out of university until they were able to financially support themselves again. This financial strain, coupled with feelings of nostalgia and loneliness, significantly hindered students' learning progress.

Professionals are faced with a myriad of mixed feelings upon returning home from studying abroad. Being more enlightened, as some participants described their transformation, removes the scales that once hindered their ability to see how obsolete and perhaps ineffective their past working environments were. This more specifically applied to the non-traditional learners who were previously a part of the workforce. Returning to one's previous place of employment after receiving more advanced training, and acquiring new skills, can leave an individual feeling despondent, as his colleagues, and perhaps employer, may not necessarily be open to suggested change initiatives. This, as some participants expressed, made their newly obtained degree seem negligible.

Implications for Institutions of Higher Learning

As supported by this study, a greater part of adjusting to a new academic environment is the initial feeling of a sense of belonging. Not feeling welcomed by their respective universities was a major concern. The campus life experienced upon a student's initial arrival should not differ from the campus life advertised by the university. Institutions must endeavor to provide genuine opportunities for students to become assimilated into their learning environment, and create a community of which students could feel a part. Faculty interactions with students are crucial to the academic success, and assimilation process of foreign students. Institutions should ensure that special programs are in place that would provide an added support for students (e.g., mentoring programs, new student associations, etc.).

Limitation of the Study

While this study is a useful resource for both traditional and non-traditional Bahamian students studying (and considering studying) in The United States of America (or anywhere outside of The Bahamas), the sample size used is rather small, and does not allow for an adequate generalization.

Conclusion

The process of transformational learning is only as successful as the learner's adjustment to his learning environment. Several factors were cited in this study, as being significant contributors to the successful learning process of the non-traditional learner pursuing higher education in a foreign country (U.S.) (a) social support from family, friends, and instructors, (b) financial support, and (c) the feeling of belonging created by the institution. It is equally important to consider the cultural diversity of colleagues and students, which could become a potentially negative influence upon one's academic progress and personal level of intrinsic motivation. Research proposed that it is critical for students to adopt coping strategies that would assist them in becoming assimilated into new and diverse environments. Transformation, as a learner, can be a daunting

experience, as one's new ideas, skills and training may be faced with opposition upon returning home. Being exposed to newfangled techniques, strategies, and skills, are not often met with enthusism from others less trained or exposed. This speaks to the need for organizations to provide consistent levels of professional development for its staff, in an effort to provide all employees with equal opportunities for professional training and advancement. This study serves as a basis for future research in the area of study abroad, specifically from the perspective of Bahamian students.

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DESIGNING PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITIES THROUGH UNDERSTANDINGTHE BELIEFS OF LEARNING

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ABSTRACT: This study was designed to initiate the process of building professional development learning communities for pre-service math teachers through revealing those teachers' conceptions/beliefs of students' learning and their own learning in China. It examines Chinese pre-service math teachers' conceptions of student learning and their related pedagogical beliefs with respect to the following four aspects: self-regulation, construction of knowledge, the social nature of learning, and a dynamic view of ability. A total of 129 middle-school and secondary pre-service math teachers from China participated in this study. The results indicated that the Chinese pre-service teachers' conceptions of student learning and their pedagogical beliefs are constructive, process-oriented, and progressive. In addition, the traditional Chinese socio-cultural values still have an impact on the pre-service teachers' conceptions of student learning. Implications and recommendations for designing meaningful and effective teacher professional development programs that not only incorporate teachers' beliefs of student learning but also are aligned with Chinese mathematics education reform are also discussed.

Keywords: Professional development, learning community, adult education, beliefs of learning, Chinese educational reform, mathematics education, teacher education

Background

The past decade has witnessed worldwide reforms in teaching math, science and technology. Studying how to improve teaching and learning of the teachers in related subjects in the fields, therefore, becomes a focus of attention in the field of adult education. Loucks-Horsley, Stile and Hewson (2009) summarized the trends in the academic community regarding teaching science and mathematics, one of which that related activities became more purposeful and teacher professional development was designed with a clear intention of improving students' learning. Loucks-Horsley, et. al also developed and expanded the idea of professional learning communities. According to the Professional Development Design Framework (Loucks-Horsley, Stile & Hewson, 2009), the first step of designing a teacher professional development program is to commit to vision and standards; and the first inputs designers acquire to achieve this are *knowledge* (solid facts and research) and *beliefs* (knowledge based on personal experience, observations and convictions).

China started the educational reform on mathematics in 2004. The Ministry of Education released its 2011 version of the curriculum standards, which is an update of its 2001 standards. The parallel documents were issued by the National Council for the Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) of the United States about a decade ago (1989, 2000). Those documents set up the vision and standards for building professional development communities for math teachers in China. Now that the first step of the Loucks-Horsley et.

al (2009)'s Professional Development Design Framework, committing to vision and standards, has been established, it is the next step to build professional development communities that acquire and acknowledge knowledge and beliefs of learning of both pre-service and in-service teachers in order to further the reform and improve the quality of teaching mathematics in China. With those inputs, professional development/training strategies can be devised to strengthen or modify these conceptions (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc, 2009).

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

This study was designed to jump-start the design process of professional development communities for mathematics teachers through revealing math pre-service teachers' conceptions/beliefs of students' learning and their own learning in China. The study also presents the current state of teaching and learning the subject of math in China and explores the desired state that is aligned with its national policy. The study hopes to fill the void in literature on designing an effective model of professional development for mathematics teachers in China.

The following questions guided the study:

1. How do math pre-service teachers view students' learning?
2. How do math pre-service teachers view their own learning?
3. How do their conceptions/beliefs influence their decisions on teaching strategies?
4. What factors do designers of professional development communities need to take into consideration based on the findings of pre-service teachers' beliefs on their learnings and their students' learning?

Literature Review

Teacher Professional Development and its Characteristics

Teacher professional development is "the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically" (Glatthorn, 1995, p. 41). According to Villegas-Reimers (2003), professional development is different from career development, and carries the following characteristics (pp. 11-13): a) it is based on constructivism rather than on a 'transmission-oriented model.' Teachers should be treated as active learners; b) it is perceived as a long-term process as it acknowledges the fact that teachers learn over time; c) it is perceived as a process that takes place within a particular context; d) many identify this process as one that is intimately linked to school reform, as professional development is a process of culture building and not of mere training which is affected by the coherence of the school programme; e) a teacher is conceived of as a reflective practitioner; f) professional development is conceived of as a collaborative process; and g) professional development may look and be very different in diverse settings, and even within a single setting. In order for a professional development program for teachers to be successful, the

program must be grounded in knowledge about teaching and model constructivist teaching (Corcoran, 1995).

The Impact of Professional Development on Teachers, Students' Learning and Educational Reform

Numerous research studies around the globe have found that successful professional development experiences have a noticeable impact on teachers, in and out of classroom (Ball, 2000; Henning, 2000; Kallestad & Olweus, 1998). Furthermore, Villegas-Reimers (2003) summarized many research studies on the effect of teachers' professional development on students' learning and concluded that the more professional knowledge teachers have, the higher the levels of student achievement are. Borko and Putnam (1995), in particular, pointed out that professional development plays an important role in changing teachers' teaching methods, which in turn have a positive impact on students' learning. As to the impact of professional development on education reform, many countries, such as Finland, provided a good case where professional development of teachers successfully transformed the country's educational systems (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Jamil, 2014; Sahlberg, 2010). In conclusion, professional development of teachers plays a key role in ensuring the effectiveness of an educational reform at all levels, if any (Villegas-Reimers, 2003).

Teachers' Beliefs about Student Learning and the Related Pedagogy

This study used Bolhuis and Voeten's (2004) study as the conceptual framework for the following reasons. First, it treats teacher beliefs as a complex, multidimensional construct and reflects the interconnectedness of teacher beliefs as discussed in the research literature (Cooney, Shealy, & Arvold, 1998). Second, Bolhuis and Voeten's Learning Inventory is closely aligned with a student-centered, inquiry-oriented pedagogy which is the underpinning of the current mathematics education reform movements in China. In addition, Bolhuis and Voeten's framework is the only one the researchers have found that examines teachers' implicit beliefs of students' intelligence or ability, in addition to their beliefs about student learning. Examining and comparing such implicit beliefs are relevant and meaningful in the contexts of US and Chinese mathematics education. In particular, students and teachers in China and other Confucian Heritage Cultures (CHC) have a tendency to attribute success to effort and persistence. With such a philosophical orientation, Chinese students are less likely to adopt the "helpless learner" syndrome than American students (Moy & Peverly, 2005). Bolhuis and Voeten (2004) identified five dimensions of teacher beliefs about student learning: self-regulation of learning, the construct-character of knowledge, the social nature of learning, a dynamic model of intelligence, and tolerance of uncertainty.

Self-regulation of learning. Mathematics teachers' beliefs about students' self-regulated learning are closely tied to their knowledge of how students learn and think about mathematics, which in turn influence their perceptions of the teacher's roles (Fennema, Carpenter, Franke, Jacob, & Empson, 1996). The authors categorize teacher beliefs regarding students' abilities to self-regulate into four levels ranging from the

belief that students learn best by being told how to do math to the belief that students can solve problems on their own without the needs of direct instruction. They also observed that although teachers' beliefs and practices are not always categorized at the same level, there was a clear relationship between beliefs and instruction. This result suggests that studying pre-service teachers' beliefs about students' self-regulated learning may help to predict the type of instructors they will eventually become.

Student-centeredness is one of the leading themes of China's mathematics education reform movement. For instance, the Ministry of Education's standards (2011) made the explicit recommendation that "instruction should actively involve teachers and students into a process of interactions and mutual development. Effective instruction is a union of teaching and learning. Students are centers of learning. The teacher is the organizer, guide, and collaborator" (p. 2).

Studying Chinese pre-service teachers' conceptions of student self-regulated learning is likely to reveal interesting results also because of the culture's emphasis of balance over extreme positions. Such a cultural value seems to be consistent with Eshel and Kobavi's (2003) more balanced view of student self-regulation: classroom control is not necessarily a zero-sum game and students' control is not always at the expense of teacher's control.

The construct-character of knowledge and the social nature of learning

These two dimensions in the Bolhuis and Voeten's (2004) framework reflect the basic tenet of constructivism in that "knowledge is not passively received but is actively built up by the cognizing subject" (von Glasersfeld, 1989, p.162). Although we do acknowledge that constructivism as an epistemology does not always dictate how one teaches, we also take the stance that there are models of teaching that could be legitimately called "constructivist" (Steffe & D'Ambrosio, 1995). Teachers might build their own legitimate models of constructivist teaching" depending on how they interpret constructivism (Steffe & D'Ambrosio, 1995, p. 146). However, there are common elements across these models that are generally accepted as the central characteristics of "constructivist teaching" such as student-led inquiry and social learning. The constructivist-oriented teaching model serves as the underpinning of the mathematics education reform in China. For instance, the Ministry of Education's curriculum standards (2001, 2011) stress, on multiple occasions, the importance of students making conjectures through observations and experience, as well as reasoning about mathematics and making generalizations.

Two common and interrelated features of "constructivist teaching" are student-led inquiry and social learning. Vygotsky's (1987) original notion of zone of proximal development refers to what students cannot achieve by themselves but can accomplish with the aid of the teacher. Drawing from Vygotsky's initial conception of the zone of proximal development, Steffe and D'Ambrisio (1995) extend the zone to what they call the "zone of potential construction," which encompasses various mathematically meaningful contexts that stimulate rich "interactive mathematical communications"

including those among the learners themselves (p. 154). Although we have noted that "constructivist teaching" does not always lead to social learning, we do believe that when students develop mathematical understanding through collaborative problem solving, they produce the deepest and most powerful form of knowledge. If social learning results in a truly profound understanding of mathematics, then we believe that it is consistent with the social constructivist theory of teaching and learning (Wood, Cobb, & Yackel, 1991). In addition, we agree with Bolhuis and Voeten (2004) that if a teacher conceptualizes learning as a social process, she/he is also likely to value the process of learning rather than give attention only to the end results, and thus, is a process-oriented teacher.

Fixed versus dynamic ability. Dweck and her colleagues conducted research to solve the puzzling phenomenon, i.e., why individuals of equal abilities respond to challenges with marked differences that eventually lead to quite different levels of achievement (e.g., Dweck & Leggett, 1988). They formed, tested, and verified a couple of hypotheses: (a) People who pursue performance goals (concerned with gaining favorable evaluation of their performance) are likely to develop the "helpless" learner pattern and show vulnerability when facing learning challenges; while people who seek learning goals (concerned with increasing skills or competence) are likely to seek challenge and be persistent in their efforts, (b) The views of intelligence as fixed versus incremental (implicit theories of intelligence) predict adoption of different learning goals. In particular, people who view one's intelligence as fixed (entity theorists) tend to adopt performance goals; while those who view one's intelligence as malleable (incremental theorists) tend to adopt mastery goals. Traditional beliefs about mathematics teaching and learning may be associated with the entity theory of intelligence and ability because of their shared emphasis on the product of learning or the end results (Stipek, Givvin, & MacGyvers, 2001). Teachers who view intelligence and ability as fixed entities may not be persistent in their efforts to help the students that they deem as possessing low abilities. On the other hand, constructivist teaching and learning are aligned with the incremental theory of intelligence and ability because both theories emphasize the process of knowledge construction (Bolhuis & Voeten, 2004). When facing challenges, teachers who view intelligence and ability as incremental are likely to examine and modify their teaching process in order to bring out maximized learning outcomes from their students.

Methodology

The study adopted the learning inventory developed by Bolhuis and Voeten (2004), which contains two parts. The first part includes 24 items on student learning and the second part consists of 22 items on the teachers' own learning. Each item consists of two contrasting statements, a more constructivist-oriented statement and a more traditional statement. Bolhuis and Voeten identified five dimensions of teacher beliefs about student learning: self-regulation of learning, the construct-character of knowledge, the social nature of learning, a dynamic model of intelligence, and tolerance of uncertainty. Bolhuis and Voeten's Learning Inventory is closely aligned with a student-centered, inquiry-

oriented pedagogy, which is the underpinning of the current mathematics education reform movements in China. Convenience sampling was used in the survey study.

Participants

A total of 129 pre-service math teachers from China participated. The Chinese sample included grade 7-12 pre-service math teachers who were respectively enrolled in two 4-year teacher preparation programs at two universities, one in the southeast coast of China and the other in central China. Among the 129 Chinese pre-service teachers, 74 were female; 35 were male; 20 did not identify their gender on the returned questionnaires.

<center>**Data Analysis and Results**</center>

There were a few missing values (less than 0.1%) in the sample. These missing values were replaced with the score of the highest frequency for that particular item. In addition to descriptive statistics (e.g., means, standard deviations), Pearson correlation, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis) (CFA) were conducted to analyze the data. In order to correlate the factors of student learning with those of their own learning, mean scale scores (i.e., the mean of the observed item means, with equal weighting of all items belong to that factor) were computed for all the pre-service teachers. The criteria specified by Cohen (1988) to interpret the strength of the correlation coefficients, specifically, $0.10 < r < 0.30$ is interpreted as a weak correlation, $0.30 < r < 0.50$ as a moderate correlation, and $r > 0.50$ as a strong correlation.

The overall reliability alpha was .69, which met Nunnally's (1978) minimum criterion (> .60) for early-stage, exploratory study such as this one. The factor structure extracted from the EFA was validated by CFA with the maximum likelihood method of estimation. Satisfactory goodness of fit indices were found for both conceptions of student learning in terms of CFI (comparative fit index). RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation, and SRMR (standardized root mean square residual) (CFI: .93, RMSEA: .04, SRMR: .06) and conceptions of own learning (CFI: .93, RMSEA: .04, SRMR: .06). The resulting factor structure also supported Bulhuis and Voeten's (2004) conclusion that conceptions of student learning and own learning are multi-dimensional constructs. However, the factor structure found by Bolhuis and Voeten was not replicable in this study. In EFA, only three instead of five factors were extracted for the conception of student learning: Individual versus Social Learning (4 items), External versus Internal Regulation of Knowledge Construction (5 items), and Fixed versus Dynamic Ability (4 items). The conception of own learning is also comprised of three factors: Social and Lifelong Learning versus Individual and Limited Learning (6 items), Externally versus Internally Regulated Learning (6 items), and Knowledge as Fixed versus Actively Constructed (4 items). The three factors extracted for conceptions of own learning were not parallel to the three factors for conceptions of student learning, which is inconsistent with the findings of Bolhuis and Voeten (2004).

All the correlations, except one, were tested positive. The correlations varied between -.07 and .41. Almost all the correlations between a factor of conceptions of student

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learning and a factor of conceptions of own learning were moderate to high. This finding suggests that the pre-service teachers' conceptions of student learning and their conceptions of own learning tend to be consistent with each other.

Discussions

In general, the Chinese pre-service teachers in our study showed a strong preference and support for constructivist conceptions of learning over traditional conceptions of learning. It is surprising to see the overwhelming support for student self-regulation expressed by the Chinese pre-service teachers. Bolhuis and Voeten (2004) found that Dutch teachers strongly endorsed the notions that knowledge should be actively constructed and learning is a social process. However, Dutch teachers' support for internal regulation was relatively low.

It was also found that Chinese pre-service teachers did not perceive strong preference over students' social learning, which echoed the findings of Chan, Tan & Khoo,2007). In terms of conceptions of own learning, the Chinese pre-service teachers strongly believed that they were capable of learning from others and continuing to grow as learners throughout their teaching careers.

As to whether pre-service teachers' conceptions of student learning were in agreement with the conceptions of their own learning, the researchers found a moderate to moderately strong agreement between the two, which supports the coherence theory of conceptions (Correa, Perry, Sims, Miller & Fang, 2008).

The results also suggest that Chinese pre-service teachers' conceptions of learning are complex and likely to be influenced by multiple theoretical and social-cultural perspectives. Confucianism, together with other traditional educational values and practices, may be too narrow a focus for understanding Chinese pre-service teachers' conceptions of learning (Chan & Elliott, 2004). Our findings suggest that while paying attention to the impact of traditional cultural and social norms, we should not overly stereotype.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Comparing the findings of the study and the national guidelines for reforming mathematics education in China, the researchers identified some gaps although alignments do exist.

The national standards promote a constructivist epistemology toward the nature of mathematical knowledge; and emphasize conceptual understanding over memorization and the connected nature of knowledge. In the Ministry of Education of China's standards (2011), it is stated: "Mastery of mathematics knowledge is not achieved through memorization and rote learning, but based on conceptual understanding" and "the teacher should emphasize the connection between mathematics and students' lived experiences, and the relation between mathematics and other school subjects" (p. 45). In

addition, the national guidelines stress the importance for the teacher to provide worthwhile tasks and a nurturing learning environment for students to "make conjectures, experiment with alternative approaches to solving problems, and construct and respond to others' mathematical arguments" (Martin, 2007, p. 40). The Ministry of Education of China's standards (2011) stated: "Students should be given time and space to observe, experiment, make conjectures, compute, reason, and verify in mathematics learning" (pp. 2-3).

Based on the findings, the training of pre-service math teachers should be focused on; first, creating opportunities to make pre-service teachers' conceptions of learning more explicit to them; second, encouraging pre-service teachers to take a more critical view of their conceptions through discussions and reflections. Finally, in light of our finding that there is a moderate to moderately strong correlation between pre-service teachers' conceptions of own learning and their conceptions of student learning, positive conceptions of student learning may be brought about through affecting teachers' conceptions of own learning. It is, therefore, believed that a professional learning community should provide an environment to train teachers to take more responsibilities for their own learning and help them deliver pedagogy that develops their students' self-regulatory abilities (Loucks-Horsley, Stile & Hewson, 2009; Tang et al., 2012; Villegas-Reimers, 2003).

Significance of Study and Limitations

This is an indigenous study in the context of Chinese math education reform, which presented the mixed and conflicted thoughts on math teaching and learning during the math education reform in China. This research helped us understand the nature of developing professional learning in the context of Chinese culture, and proposed strategies to build a learning community for teachers' professional development. These proposed strategies are intended to make fundamental changes instead of incremental changes to the field of math education in China by understanding pre-service teachers' beliefs of their students' learning and their own learning.

Several limitations of this study need to be acknowledged. First, the samples were relatively small and were drawn from two universities in China. The samples did not necessarily represent the variety of pre-service teacher education programs in China. Second and the most important, the results of this study were based on self-reported data. Respondents may tend to provide socially desirable answers with self-reported measures. This may have skewed the results from both samples toward a more constructivist view. Future investigations of pre-service teachers' conceptions are needed to solicit multiple sources of data such as observations, interviews, and artifacts, and correlate these sources with self-reports.

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OLMYPIC SPORTS COACHING EDUCATION: AN INTERNATIONAL COACH'S PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT: The profession of high performance sports coaching is a complex process focused on performance improvement with the goal of producing international sporting success. Rising demand for top-level coaches has been matched with the increasing amount of resources allocated to producing world-class performances. This includes creating and sustaining a culture of learning and competition. For a foreign coach, the culture of an adopted country can differ dramatically from that in their homeland. This discussion explores the challenges and opportunities an expatriate coach may experience in an effort to succeed in an adopted nation at the highest level of competition.

Keywords: high performance coaching, coaching education, expatriate coaching

The professionalization of sports coaching has evolved in recent years but hiring coaches dates back to the mid-19th century. The Yale Rowing team hired William Wood in 1864 as the first intercollegiate coach in the U.S. to help them beat its rival Harvard (Dealy, 1990). With the increases in professionalization of sport around the world, there are no signs of slowdown in the increase in resources allocated to sport at all levels (Hong & Zhouxiang, 2016).

The following data illustrated the state of play at the Olympic level of competition after the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. For participation at the Olympics, since the 1970's, the growth of Olympic Games has been on many levels. The total number of events increased from 198 in Montreal to 306 in Rio in 2016 and as a result, the total athletes have increased from 600 in 1976 (Montreal) to over 10500 in 2016 (Rio) (IOC, 2016).

The International Olympic Committee is focused on increasing the internationalization of participation for the Olympic Games. This is reflected in an increase in countries represented at the Olympics and also the number of countries winning medals. The number of National Olympic Committees sending athletes increased from 92 countries in 1976 to 206 in Rio in 2016. Total medal winning countries has doubled since Montreal in 1976, 41 countries won at least one medal and in Rio 2016, 87 countries won medals (IOC, 2016).

In financial terms, the pressure to perform and win medals grows even stronger. The Australian media have reacted to underperformance of their athletes wondering if their $340 million dollar investment was worth it for the 2016 Rio Olympics. In Rio, Australia won 29 medals, at a cost of $12.5 million per medal. Great Britain spent $600 million on the 2016 Olympic cycle which is around $10.9 million per medal. High Performance Sport New Zealand spent $163 million at $11.6 million per medal. The U.S. spent over $1 billion on the 2016 Games cycle which would also be around $11 million per medal (IOC, 2016). The significance of the relationship between money spent and Olympic

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success has been well documented (Bernard & Busse, 2000, 2004; Hogan & Norton, 2000). Bernard and Busse (2000) found that "medal winning has become less concentrated, with large and prosperous nations winning a smaller share of medals, and with more smaller and less prosperous nations among the regular medal winners" (p.23).

As demand in the global market for high performance coaches expands, more coaches are being hired from outside of the region in which they may have been born or received their training. Smith (2011) confirmed that while coaching mobility has been typically short-term and in close proximity to one's home country, global trends indicate a growing willingness for coaches to move further away and for longer periods. Hubbard (2011) reported, of the 26 Olympic sports at London 2012, in Great Britain 21 sports had senior coaches or directors recruited from abroad.

High performance coaches are most successful at connecting with their athletes, by understanding their norms, their values and beliefs (Maitland, Hills & Rhind, 2015). Why is better coaching a function of better connection with athletes? This paper explores some of the findings in the literature about expatriate coaches, and examines the complexity of understanding and mastering culture. The paper also provides some examples of strategies that successful coaches have implemented in cultures of a new homeland.

Cultural diversity in coaching needs more attention in the literature and especially because limited attention has focused on the topic of issues of nationality, which focus on coaches and athletes of differing national background. Kamphoff, Gill, Araki & Hammond, (2010) are not alone in their call for greater attention to be focused on addressing cultural diversity, especially issues of nationality in coaching development and education. This discussion highlights an aspect of what coaches need to know and do to excel as a high performance coaches. Understanding the coaching context is not unique to high performance coaching, but defining the context at the highest level is differentiated by the level of complexity that comes with professionalization of the sport.

Coaching Abroad and Olympism

Human history is characterized by people moving, races mixing and undoubtedly explains why civilization as we know it has advanced. The migration of sporting talent and the resultant global cultural flow can develop at least five different dimensions (Appadurai, 2011). The international flow of people produces 'ethoscapes.' The 'technoscapes' are created by the movement of equipment, machinery and technology. The finance scapes are the flow of money around the world. The mediascape is a function of the images and information that are produced. And the 'ideascapes' are the flow of ideas that come from movement globally.

Migration in sports and the international movements of athletes and coaches have many examples:

- basketball coaches and players move to and from the U.S. and Europe, football players and managers to and from Latin America, Africa, and Europe.
- ice hockey players from Canada and Russia move in different directions in the western world.
- baseball personnel moved to and from the Caribbean, the U.S. and Japan, and
- African distance runners represented different nations at the Olympic Games (Bales & Maguire, 2013).

Robertson (1990) described these trans-national movements as key to sustaining the exchange and flow that introduced their home sports to world. Taylor (2010) examined British soccer coaches working abroad from 1910-1950 and found that the transfer of football (soccer) knowledge across culture was not straightforward at all. And as a result, coaching methods and strategies were adapted to suit local circumstances. These coaches were essential components of the transfer of ideas about football (soccer) to the world (Carter, 2006). This example of globalization of sport is characterized by the growth of international sporting organizations, the competition among national teams, the worldwide acceptance of rules governing each sport and the expansion of international sporting events like the FIFA World Cup and Olympic Games (Bales & Maguire, 2013).

Torres (2012) contended that expatriate coaching at the Olympic level extends the tenets of Olympism. The vision of the Modern Olympics was based on Pierre Coubertin's humanism of fair play, participation for sport's sake, and moral development and aims to enrich life experience and lead to a fully integrated individual (Coubertin, 1967). Olmypism is a mindset that transcends sport and reflects a philosophy of development of the individual and mankind. In the context of coaching, Torres (2012) argued that coaching abroad is a pursuit of embracing sporting culture and advancing it. According to Orlowski, Wicker & Breur (2016), five factors contribute to a coach's consideration of a coaching position abroad: income, contract length, responsibilities, reputation of the position, and language requirements.

Understanding Culture in Sport

Ryska, Zenong, Cooley, & Ginn (1999) defined sports culture as the "attitudes, values and beliefs engendered by sport in that particular society. As another description, the notion that culture of the same sport in different countries is the same is as highly unlikely as is the culture of different sports in the same country are the same.
The discussion of culture in organizations is not a new discussion (Martin & Siehl, 1983). Cooke & Rousseau (1988) defined culture as the way things are done with a common understanding of beliefs, values and actions and that valuing culture is a function in developing an ideal organization.

According to Kamphoff, Gill, Araki & Hammond (2010), more literature is required on the issues of nationality (defined as athletes and coaches working together from other

countries). With an increase in the impact of globalization in sports coaching, a growing need exists for developing a better understanding of cultural diversity and how it impacts sporting performance. Jones & Wallace (2005) highlighted an absence of a comprehensive framework to represent the ambiguity and complex reality within coaching work.

Expatriate coaches often learn to move away from their more traditional coaching practice of 'watch and copy' to more innovative approaches so they could be more considerate of their host's culture (Carter, 2006, Smith, 2011, Taylor, 2010). Taylor (2010) argued that expatriate coaches have helped to develop sport around the world as they are agents of change. Smith (2011) suggested that expatriate coaches follow coaching opportunities where there is a demand for their coaching talent and expertise.

Wang & Calloway (2011) argued to be successful, Olympic coaches from abroad need to understand the differences of culture, political structures, language, communication, style of administration, coaching philosophy, and sports systems. Their findings encourage international Olympic coaches to develop a conscious awareness and sensitivity to culture of their adopted country so they can effectively produce results on the international stage of competition.

Expat coaches at the international level of competition have shown and continue to prove that success is possible. After great success in the 1960's in his homeland, New Zealander, Arthur Lydiard long distance running coach moved to coach in Finland and was successful there too. New Zealander, Robbie Deans coached the Australian Rugby team to international success. German born rowing coach, Jurgen Grobler, took two Olympic gold medals for Great Britain at the 2016 Olympic in Rio extending his coaching streak of gold medals with GB rowing that started in 1992. Each has results reflecting an understanding of the culture of their adopted nations to develop successful systems to get the most out of the resources and people that they have been able to utilize.

Reflections of an International Coach

After returning from the 2016 Rio Olympic Games, I share a contrast of what I have experienced since my first Olympics in Athens in 2004. I was born in Australia and was raised in a Greek family. I have lived in the United States for the last 16 years. It seems that more and more coaches are better qualified and the drive to succeed is growing every year. The gap between success and failure at the Olympic level in almost all sports is getting tight and tougher. The International Olympics Commission (IOC) seemed to have found a successful formula in that more nations are participating at the Olympics and it also appears that more nations are also winning medals.

This topic of international coaching at the Olympic level is of great interest to me. This is because I come in contact with more and more coaches that are establishing themselves abroad now more than ever before. The conversations on culture, adapting, and learning are on-going in international coaching.

My own learning as an Australian living in the U.S. also continues to evolve. The two countries have many similarities from the language spoken to the love of sport, the competitive drive and the historical links to Europe and Great Britain.

One aspect of American culture that stands out as the model to the rest of the world is the evolution of higher education. More specifically, the notion of the "student-athlete" is a result of athletic programs competing at the highest level. The drive for excellence at the collegiate level is having a direct effect on performance at the Olympic Games across so many Olympic sports.

The number of international student-athletes on US college rosters has risen dramatically (Weston, 2006). In 1991, 8.5% of student athletes were not from the US, by 1996 the percentage had double to 17.1%. And during the decade from 2000-2009 the number of international student-athletes in NCAA Division I rosters had increased by more than 1000% (Hosick, 2010). While it is not a new phenomenon, relatively little is known about the migration of student-athletes to US college compared to the academic-talent migration and it is a complex, covert and problem that needs more attention in regard to intercollegiate athletes (Bale, 1991).

American colleges have supported their student-athletes to attend university through awarded scholarships as one of many means of support (Fleisher, Goff & Tollison, 1992). International student-athletes have been attending US based NCAA colleges since the 1950's (Stidwell, 1984). Over 17,000 international student-athletes competed in US colleges in 2014-2015 (NCAA, 2016). From an adult learning perspective the cultural diversity and cross-cultural comparisons are a critical aspect of life on a college campus (Bollinger, 2003). McMahon (1992) stressed the importance of understanding the economic, educational and political factors that influence mobility patterns of international students. Understanding the motivation of international student-athletes has been the focus of a number of research studies. Some researchers have identified that international student-athletes may come to the US as they may not be satisfied with the sporting opportunities in their native countries (Popp, Hums, & Greenwell, 2009). The challenges that international student-athletes face attending school in the US are unique and complex compared to their non-athlete and non-international peers (Watt & Moore, 2001). The international student-athlete is faced with a new education system, in a new country and a different culture (which for many includes a new language) that comes with living and competing in a new nation (Kontaxakis, 2015).

Title IX of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Educational Amendments of 1972 states "any institution receiving federal funds may not discriminate against anyone by gender" but is best known for its impact on high school and collegiate sports which is not mentioned in the original statues. The Equity in Disclosure Act of 1994 resulted in institutions having to annually disclose all program information (rosters, budgets, scholarships, and coaches' salaries) to assist in improving compliance procedures for Title IX (Anderson, Knowles & Gilbourne, 2004). This legislation has contributed to Olympic successes by increasing the athletes participating; there are more programs, hiring more coaches and with more resources in U.S. Olympic women's sports (Brake, 2001).

One example of this is the success and establishing a winning culture is that of the U.S. Women's eight at the Olympic Games in the sport of rowing. Their record is unprecedented, undefeated in international competition for the last 11 years, and in 2016 winning their third Olympic gold medal in a row. The evolution of Title IX is one of the reasons that rowing in the U.S. and especially in the Women's eight has become a dynasty and complete domination of the rest of the world.

The culture of the U.S. Women's gymnastics is another example of success on the international stage. After achieving Olympic success coaching Nadia Comenci for Romania at the 1976 Olympics in Montreal, Bela and Martha Karolyi defected from Romania to the U.S. in 1981. They were able to establish a dynasty of world-class standards in Texas with their own gymnastics training center. With the retirement of the Karoli's from coaching, their Olympic Gold Medal in Women's team Gymnastics at the 2016 Rio Olympic Games may end their reign for the U.S. Women at the Olympic games that dates back to the success of Mary-Lou Retton and her Olympic gold medal at the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

For an expatriate coach working in a foreign coaching environment, knowledge and expertise alone are not enough to be successful at the Olympic Games (Wang & Calloway, 2011). Whether it is the development of a pipeline of athletes such as with the US Women's rowing program, or a Romanian defector to the U.S. who had a vision of Olympic glory in gymnastics, the drive and determination to create a successful athletic program comes down to managing the complexity of many moving parts. From understanding how to motivate people, through the critical selection of outstanding talents, creating a competitive environment is a fundamental aspect of a coach's success and this is especially the case at the Olympic level of performance.

Conclusion

Increases in competition leads to improving overall performance of athletes and coaches at the highest level of sport. The global mobility of coaches shares the influx of knowledge, expertise and new perspectives. Learning new norms, values and beliefs can be challenging. This discussion explored this topic from the perspective of an Olympic coach. In summary, this discussion expands our understanding that for coaches to better connect with their athletes, understanding their norms, their values and beliefs is a pathway to high performance coaching (Maitland, Hills, & Rhind, 2015).

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GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES IN SELECTED ADULT EDUCATION GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES AND WESTERN EUROPE

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ABSTRACT: Researchers in the field of global leadership have reported a lack of qualified leadership candidates who are able to perform from a global perspective. Adult education graduate programs represent a unique pool of aspirants to help fill this gap. In 2014, the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE) published updated Standards for Graduate Programs in Adult Education, which included two standards addressing globalization and leadership. This study explored the context of competencies, identified by Bird's (2013) nested framework of global leadership competencies, in seven selected adult education graduate programs in the United States and Western Europe. This paper addressed which competencies were addressed in the selected adult education graduate programs and which ones were perceived to be most and less important from the perspective of the faculty participants. Findings indicated the competencies of (a) valuing people, (b) inquisitiveness, (c) leading change, and (d) vision and strategic thinking emerged as most important among the participants across all seven cases, as well as within the two geographical locations.

Keywords: Global leadership, leadership development, multiple case study, iterative analysis, global leadership competencies.

The field of global leadership developed as an offshoot of traditional leadership studies into a construct with its own scholarship and literature in response to the need for an increase in the quality and quantity of leaders in an emerging global context (Gupta & Van Wart, 2016; Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012). Whether in the field of education, training, business, government, or non-profit organizations, today's global economy requires an awareness of issues and trends from a global mindset to succeed in the current workforce (Goldsmith, Greenburg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003). Terms such as cultural competency, global mindset, and global citizen are commonplace in today's leadership development models (Livermore, 2010), and represent the shift from the need for competency only in one's particular area of expertise to a need for competence in a transnational, cross-cultural context.

As the globalized economy creates a more multifaceted and dynamic work environment, members of the new workforce must find ways to compete effectively while fostering an expanding worldview (O'Dell & Hwang, 2008). Educators in general—and adult educators in particular—are called upon to incorporate high quality global competency development initiatives into the training and curriculum of their student populations (Caligiuri, 2006). In fact, the *Standards for Adult Education Graduate Programs*—published by the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE)—include both "the study of leadership, including theories or organizational leadership, administration and change" (CPAE, 2014, p. 9) and the "analysis of globalization and international issues or perspectives in adult education" (CPAE, 2014, p. 10). This study examined the

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extent to which global leadership competencies, as defined by Bird's (2013) framework of nested global leadership competencies, are addressed in adult education graduate programs.

Merriam and Brockett (2007) discussed how graduate degrees in adult education are among the most practical—and adaptable—in all of higher education. Furthermore, Hoppe (2007) posited that adult learning theory may be a catalyst to boost global leadership competency development. Bolman and Deal (2008) discussed how graduate programs can provide a source for the new leaders required by these increasing challenges. Specifically, adult education graduate programs prepare students for careers in adult education fields such as business and industry trainers, higher education faculty, literacy education, independent training consultants, educational program writers and evaluators, individuals with special consulting skills and interests, or community or organizational leadership positions (Merriam & Brockett, 2007). Until this study, there had been no empirical research that explored the extent to which global leadership competencies are addressed and developed in adult education graduate programs.

Conceptual Framework

By sorting and organizing the complex original list of over 160 competencies down to 15, and ordering them into three broad categories, Bird's (2013) framework of nested global leadership competencies incorporates multifaceted competencies spanning pre-dispositional, attitudinal, cognitive, behavioral, and knowledge aspects. See Table 1 for a visual representation of the conceptual model used in this study.

Bird's (2013) Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competencies

Central to this study was the concept of global leadership competencies. Bird's (2013) framework was used to explore the content domain of the research questions. In this model, Bird systematically evaluated the existing literature and consolidated the semantic differences, arriving at 15 competencies—five within each of three broad categories: (a) business and organizational acumen, (b) managing people and relationships, and (c) managing self.

Business and organizational acumen. The five competencies associated with this grouping include (a) vision and strategic thinking, (b) leading change, (c) business savvy, (d) organizational savvy, and (e) managing communities. *Vision and strategic thinking* includes the ability to understand and act in complex and strategic settings, intellectual intelligence, short- and long-term thinking, and see the interdependent aspects of strategic thinking. It also includes the development of a global vision for an organization and the development and implementation of strategic plans. *Business savvy* encompasses two types of knowledge—general business savvy and technically-oriented knowledge—as well as the attitude of incorporating entrepreneurialism and creativity into the organization. *Managing communities* centers on global leaders' ability to succeed within the vast network of relationships developed through interactions of a global workforce, and includes the skills of spanning boundaries, influencing stakeholders, and

accomplishing strategic objectives. *Organizational savvy* includes the ability to design organizational structures and processes, as well as function effectively within the organization. Finally, *leading change* indicates a results-oriented competency derived from the application of all previous competencies.

Table 1

Categories and Competencies of Bird's (2013) Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competency Development

Business and Organizational Acumen	Managing People and Relationships	Managing Self
Vision and strategic thinking	Valuing people	Inquisitiveness
Leading change	Cross-cultural communication	Global mindset
Business savvy	Interpersonal skills	Flexibility
Organizational savvy	Teaming skills	Character
Managing communities	Empowering others	Resilience

Managing people and relationships. The five competencies associated with this grouping include (a) valuing people, (b) cross-cultural communication, (c) interpersonal skills, (d) teaming skills, and (e) empowering others. *Valuing people* is a foundational competency describing the respect shown for people and their differences, a deep-level understanding of the emotions and motivations of others, and the creation and maintaining of trusting relationships. *Interpersonal skills* consist of both emotional intelligence (sensitivity, engagement, and self-awareness) and relationship management (influencing, listening, goal setting). *Cross-cultural communication* is a broad competency which includes the mindfulness of a general cultural awareness and specific cognitive and behavioral skills in an intercultural context—including foreign language skills, negotiating, and communication skills. *Empowering others* addresses talents such as increasing self-efficacy within the relationship of direct reports, colleagues, and superiors, as well as the skills related to coaching, instructing, personal and professional development, and delegation of authority. Finally, *teaming skills* refer to effectively working in multicultural and global teams, as well as being able to both lead and take subordinate roles in global teams.

Managing self. The five competencies associated with this grouping include (a) resilience, (b) character, (c) inquisitiveness, (d) global mindset, and (e) flexibility. *Resilience* is characterized by the pre-dispositional dimensions of optimism, hardiness, and stress-reduction; the attitudinal dimensions of resourcefulness and self-confidence; and the behavioral skills that include healthy lifestyle choices (exercise, medication,

proper rest, nutrition) and work-life balance. The competency of *character* contains the greatest number of possible dimensions in the literature, but includes such traits as honesty, maturity, and diligence. *Inquisitiveness* refers to a willingness to be open to new ideas, experiences, and people. Additionally, humility can be added here, as it refers to the trait of not letting pride or self-consciousness interfere with the learning process; in short, allowing oneself to be taught by others. A *global mindset* is a cognitive competency that reflects the complex melding of new perspectives, attitudes, and knowledge within a global context. It includes cognitive complexity and cosmopolitanism, including interest in and knowledge of the greater world. And finally, the competency of *flexibility* refers to both intellectual flexibility (a tolerance for ambiguity) and behavioral flexibility (a willingness to adapt behaviors to fit the demand of the situation).

Literature Review

Global Leadership

The literature for the construct of leadership is vast and evolving, and today's global leaders represent the increasingly complex, ambiguous, multicultural environment of the everyday global economy (Osland, 2013). Mendenhall et al., (2012) argued "the lack of a precise, rigorous and commonly accepted definition of global leadership limits the field's conceptual and empirical progress" (p. 493). Mendenhall and his colleagues found only one agreement among all the definitions their study collected: "Global leadership is significantly different from domestic leadership due to the salience of the context—characteristics of the global context appear to exert greater influence than is the case for domestic contexts" (p. 494). The authors further classified the list of definitions into descriptions of global leadership as either a *state*, centering on specific tasks, scope, roles, and responsibilities; or as a *process*, reaching beyond the goals of the individual leader and focusing on the broader global responsibilities embedded in the construct itself.

There is a presumption among scholars that research in global leadership represents a complementary, though alternative line of leadership research (Osland, Bird, & Oddou, 2012). Osland and colleagues in *Advances in Global Leadership* reported the following list of expectations faced by global leaders:

> a greater need for broad knowledge that spans functional and national boundaries; strong requirement for wider and more frequent boundary spanning both within and across organizational and national boundaries; pressure to understand a wider range of stakeholders when making decisions; heightened need for cultural understanding within a setting characterized by wider ranging diversity; more challenging and expanded list of competing tensions both on and off the job; heightened ambiguity surrounding decisions and related outcomes/effects; and more challenging ethical dilemmas relating to globalization. (Osland et al., 2012, p. 109).

Global Leadership Competency Literature

The identification of a core set of global leadership competencies has proven to be a difficult task, and researchers and practitioners alike have struggled not only with coming up with a comprehensive set, but also with organizing them into a useable framework (Bird & Osland, 2004). Twenty-seven publications were reviewed for this study, and eight were highlighted as attempts to provide an organizing framework or model for the 160+ global leadership competencies delineated throughout the literature. These include two literature reviews— Mendenhall and Osland's (2002) global leadership dimensions and Jokinen's (2005) integrated framework of global leadership competencies—as well as six models— Brake's (1997) global leadership triad, Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Philips' (2000) global literacies, Bird and Osland's (2004) pyramid model of global leadership, Peters and Gitsham's (2010) the global leader of tomorrow, Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou's (2010) content domain of intercultural competence in global leadership, and ultimately, Bird's (2013) framework of nested global leadership competencies.

Altogether, over 160 competencies have been described by the literature reviewed for this study, "a list too large to be useful" (Osland, 2013). Overlapping concepts, semantic differences, and categories which are qualitatively different fill the literature (Bird, 2013; Jokinen, 2005). Though global leadership research is advancing with a body of literature all its own, it is still reminiscent of the kind of literature which explores traits and lists found in the early stages of the field of domestic leadership (Osland, 2013). Gaps exist in global leadership process, development, and theory (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008; Mendenhall et al., 2013). This study sought to add to this body of knowledge by expanding the application of these ideas and competencies into the field of adult education.

Adult Education Graduate Programs and Global Leadership

Adult education as a field of graduate study is characterized with a "distinctive body of knowledge that embraces theory, research, and practice relating to adult learners, adult educators, adult education and learning process programs, and organizations" (CPAE, 2014, p. 3). In 2012, the American Management Association (AMA) stated that in addition to academic careers in continuing education, postsecondary environments, cooperative extension, and adult basic education, among others; graduate students in adult education are also entering the global workforce in the areas of program development, workplace learning, nonprofit organizations, corporate training, and human resource development (AMA, 2012).

In 2014, the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE) published updated *Standards for Graduate Programs in Adult Education*, suggesting "guidelines and standards for high quality planning, administration, and evaluation of adult education" (p. 3). These *Standards* describe four distinct sections: (a) administration, (b) organization of graduate study, (c) curriculum, and (d) faculty members. CPAE (2014) acknowledged, "Adult Education programs of study encompass a wide range of specialty areas and institutional contexts" (p. 4). For the purpose of this study, two of the nine standards were

directly related: including (a) the study of leadership, including theories or organizational leadership, administration and change; and (b) an analysis of globalization and international issues or perspectives in adult education.

Method

A qualitative, multiple case, phenomenological study was designed. Seven cases—four in the United States and three in Western Europe—were purposively selected to increase an understanding of how the phenomenon of global leadership competency development is perceived and developed among different graduate programs and in different geographic settings. Two current faculty members from each institution were interviewed, for a total of 14 participants. An interview protocol was developed and vetted through a multi-level panel process incorporating peers and professionals in the fields of adult education, leadership development, and research and measurement. The interview protocol was also developed with the framework of appreciative inquiry (AI) in mind.

The following research questions were addressed: (a) Which global leadership competencies are addressed in the selected adult education graduate programs in the United States and Western Europe? and (b) Which global leadership competencies are perceived to be the most important and less important by faculty and administration?

The data collected were from multiple sources, including semi-structured interviews, researcher field notes, reflective journals, and supporting documentation. The interviews were conducted over a three-month timeframe in 2015. Twelve of the 14 interviews were conducted in the academic setting of the selected adult education graduate programs. Two of the interviews were conducted via Skype. Prior to the interviews, the researcher conducted an examination of available syllabi, mission statements, program descriptions, and other supporting documents which led to additional probing questions and deepened the researcher's familiarity with the selected adult education programs.

The data were mined for meaning in a detailed line-by-line analysis of the information (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Tracy, 2013). Both within-case analysis and between-case analysis were conducted to answer the research questions. The emergent themes within each a priori category were a direct reflection of the interview questions and the research questions, and the labeling of the themes were modified and relabeled as the research progressed through the process of constant comparison. Rich, thick description of notes and all data were documented to strengthen all coding decisions. All data was validated utilizing triangulation, member checks, audit trails, and multi-layered peer reviews.

Findings

Research Question 1: Global Leadership Competencies

The first research question was designed to determine which of the 15 global leadership competencies associated with Bird's (2013) framework of nested global leadership

competencies were addressed in the selected adult education graduate programs. An a priori coding analysis of the global leadership competencies within each case was combined with an emergent thematic analysis of descriptive codes arising from the data. Table 2 presents an overview of the data collected for research question 1.

Managing self. The competencies from this broad category were described by most of the participants in this study as important and solid components that permeate throughout the curriculum of the adult education graduate programs. Admittedly, though The programs were not designed around a framework that focused on these kinds of competencies, the development of these competencies were integrated into every aspect of the student experience. While there may not be particular courses or modules associated with them specifically, they are an important part of the interaction that takes place between the professors and the students. These competencies are often a reflection of the teaching practices and expectations of the students themselves. As one participant from Germany stated, "We don't really talk so much about the personality in terms of managing yourself. It is more something that we do *between the lines* [emphasis added]; for instance, it is more something that you get from the professors when you talk to them face-to-face." The participants in this study were keenly aware of the value these competencies played in the success of their students.

Managing people and relationships. Findings from this broad category identified more specific teaching practices among these five competencies and, in general, the most energetic moments of the conversations occurred during this phase of the interviews [Researcher's reflective journal, June 2015].

Business and organizational acumen. The competencies associated with this broad category were described by most of the participants in this study as important, but there were some very specific caveats and reservations regarding the application of business vocabulary to the field of adult education. On one hand, none of the participants denied the value of possessing competencies related to this category as their students move into their individual career paths. However, there was also hesitancy towards bringing the world of adult education into a discourse of this nature. As a participant from Ireland described, "This process brings some very good ideas into the service of a particular way of looking at the world." Frederic, also from Ireland, said there was a real danger in mistranslating the vocabulary associated with this category into the fundamental aspects of adult education, and that precision regarding the definitions of these terms and what are behind the terms are paramount. Also, a few of the participants noted that faculty are often just not set up to teach at this broader level. One participant commented on the organizational restrictions: "We're not allowed to teach them the stuff that would cross over to the MBA program. That's interesting". Another said, "This is a really big thing you are asking me, because I don't think we are working enough in this area."

Table 2

Overview of Broad Categories, a priori categories, and thematic codings from the data.

Broad Category	A priori Category	Coding
Managing Self	Inquisitiveness	• Student experience
		• Role of professor
	Global Mindset	• Encouragement of new perspectives
		• Resistance
		• Global applied to local issues
	Flexibility	• Benefits for student success
		• By-product of neo-liberal economics
		• Influence of professors
	Character	• Expectations of the students
		• Developmental practices
	Resilience	• Disorienting dilemma
		• Student agency
Managing People and Relationships	Valuing People	• Conditional positive regard
		• Importance of student voice
		• Capacity for collaboration
	Cross-cultural communications	• Student demographics
		• Program support
	Interpersonal skills	• Building affective capital
	Teaming skills	• Working in teams necessary

		• Structured support
	Empowering others	• Student-claimed power
Business and organizational acumen	Vision and Strategic Thinking	• Pragmatic for career in adult education
		• Teaching of theory only
		• Neo-liberal economic perspective
		• Programmatic visioning
	Leading change	• Fundamental human capacity
		• Continuous reflection
	Business savvy	• Criticism of using a business model
		• Issues in the adult education program
	Organizational savvy	• Knowledge of adult education institutions
		• Student knowledge requirements
	Managing Communities	• Building communities
		• Management in education

Research Question 2: Perceived Importance

The second research question addressed which global leadership competencies were perceived to be the most important, or less important, by the participants selected for this study. A ranking analysis of the interview transcripts was conducted and compared to the rank order each participant provided during the course of the interviews. The participants were asked to rank order the competencies within the three broad categories detailed in Bird's (2013) framework. Table 3 provides an overview of the rank order for each participant for each of the three categories. A rank of "1" indicates that competency was perceived to be the most important. A rank of "5" indicates that competency was perceived to be less important.

- For the category of managing self, inquisitiveness and global mindset were perceived to be most important across all seven cases, while flexibility and resilience were ranked as less important.

- For the category of managing people and relationships, valuing people was ranked as the most important across all seven cases, while cross-cultural communications and empowering others ranked as less important.
- Finally, for the category business and organizational acumen, vision and strategic thinking and leading change ranked as most important across all seven cases, while business savvy ranked as less important.

Table 4 provides a frequency distribution of how many times each competency was ranked at each interval. Combining the competencies with the highest combined rank of numbers one and two across all three categories and all seven cases, the following competencies can be said to be perceived as the most important according to the findings in this study:

- Valuing people
- Inquisitiveness
- Vision and strategic thinking
- Leading change.

With respect to the lower ranking competencies across all three categories and all seven cases, the following competencies can be said to be perceived as less important according to the findings in this study.

- Business savvy
- Resilience
- Cross-cultural communication
- Organizational savvy
- Empowering others.

Discussion

This study sought to expand discussion about the connection between two specific *Standards* (CPAE, 2014) related to globalization and leadership, and to illustrate the gap in the literature through an examination of the phenomenon of global leadership competencies in selected adult education graduate programs in the United States and Western Europe. All of the competencies associated with Bird's (2013) framework were addressed to some extent across all seven cases. However, the participants did not define the construct of global leadership as the researcher expected. During the course of the discussion of each competency, a gap emerged between the participants' focus on the global angle of the study, and the leadership aspect. Most of the participants agreed that the unique nature of the field of adult education, which includes program planning, non-profit organization administration, corporate training, and human resource development, would be enhanced with more of an emphasis on leadership development. Yet, the conclusion across the study indicated there was little emphasis on any specific global leadership competency within the adult education programs.

Table 3

Overview of Rank Order of Each Participant by Category

Category	1a L F	1b B U	2a R W	2b J K	3a G H	3b R M	4a J S	4b M F	5a K E	5b C N	6a J T	6b F C	7a J C	7b E C
Cat 1: Managing self														
Inquisitiveness	2	2	1	2	2	3	1	2	2	3	2	1	4	1
Global mindset	3	5	3	1	3	2	5	1	4	1	3	2	5	2
Flexibility	1	3	2	4	4	1	4	3	5	5	5	5	3	5
Character	5	4	4	3	1	5	3	4	1	2	1	4	2	3
Resilience	4	1	5	5	5	4	2	5	3	4	4	3	1	4
Cat 2: Managing people and relationships														
Valuing people	1	1	1	2	1	4	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	3
Cross-cultural Communication	5	4	2	1	4	3	5	1	4	4	5	2	5	4
Interpersonal skills	2	2	3	5	2	1	2	5	3	1	2	4	2	5
Teaming skills	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	5	3	4	5	1	1
Empowering others	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	2	2	3	3	4	2
Cat 3: Business and organizational acumen														
Vision and strategic Thinking	2	1	5	2	1	5	1	1	1	2	1	1	3	3
Leading change	1	2	2	5	2	4	2	2	2	4	2	2	1	1
Business savvy	5	4	3	1	4	1	4	4	5	5	4	3	5	5
Organizational savvy	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	5	4	1	5	4	4	4
Managing communities	3	5	1	3	5	2	5	3	3	3	3	5	2	2

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Ranking of All 15 Competencies by Category

Category	1	2	3	4	5
	n	*n*	*n*	*n*	*N*
Managing Self					
- Inquisitiveness	4	7	2	1	0
- Global mindset	3	3	4	1	3
- Flexibility	2	1	3	3	5

- Character	3	2	3	4	2
- Resilience	2	1	2	5	4

Managing people and relationships

- Valuing people	9	2	2	1	0
- Cross-cultural communication	2	2	1	5	4
- Interpersonal skills	2	6	2	1	3
- Teaming skills	2	1	6	3	2
- Empowering others	0	3	3	4	4

Business and organizational acumen

- Vision and strategic thinking	7	3	2	0	2
- Leading change	3	8	0	2	1
- Business savvy	2	0	2	5	5
- Organizational savvy	1	0	4	7	2
- Managing communities	1	3	6	0	4

The four global leadership competencies perceived to be most important across all seven cases—(a) valuing people, (b) inquisitiveness, (c) vision and strategic thinking, and (d) leading change—indicate an emphasis on student experience and development. The five global leadership competencies perceived to be less important were (a) business savvy, (b) resilience, (c) cross-cultural communication, (d) organizational savvy, and (e) empowering others. The participants either believed they exercised the least amount of control over the students with regards to these competencies (resilience, empowering others) or they were simply not the focus of the adult education program (business savvy, cross-cultural communication, organizational savvy).

The findings of this study indicated the 2014 CPAE *Standards* were not being universally addressed in adult education graduate programs. Many of the participants of this study were only cursorily aware of the *Standards*—or not aware of them at all, especially the participants from Western Europe—while others were extremely familiar with them and were utilizing them in departmental organizational change. The Commission should revitalize their efforts to develop creative ways to market the *Standards* for adult education graduate programs and determine measures for instigating standardized approaches toward implementing the *Standards*, not only across the United States, but throughout the broad international expanse of graduate programs existing in the world.

A central assumption of this study was the desire for all adult education graduate students to obtain fulfilling employment in the global workforce upon graduation. To this end, adult education graduate students could seek out opportunities in support of this goal. Finally, adult education graduates have a broad range of backgrounds compared to many other degree offerings. They represent a unique population for global leadership competencies to manifest itself at the graduate school level. Students could establish a global research agenda during their programs, attend and present at international conferences, collaborate with international scholars on globally-focused research projects. Furthermore, they could actively participate in discussions, assignments, and global teams to facilitate a more global perspective and learning experience during their progression through graduate programs.

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ADULT DEVELOPMENT: A GLOBAL IMPERATIVE

Linda E. Morris, Ed. D.[1]

ABSTRACT: As individuals and adult educators we consistently face an array of what seem to be increasingly complex challenges. These run the gamut from battling poverty and illness with their deleterious and deadly effects, to acquiring literacy and workplace competencies and to building expertise in communication, collaboration and innovation. And we live in a time of rapidly shifting technology, social and political unrest, and burgeoning environmental threats. How are we to grow, thrive and lead? One option is to consider what we can learn and apply from adult development theories and practices for own and others' intentional development -- and then to deliberately act to foster adult development in individuals and within organizations and communities. There are, of course, many views of what constitutes adult development and how it occurs. In this paper, written to initiate dialogue and discussion, I focus on the perspective that development in adulthood represents a set of substantive qualitative changes that we may undergo moving from dependency to interdependency, from being shaped to a great degree by our environment, to constructing and co-creating thoughts and views. Theories, e.g., by Boydell, Cook-Greuter and Kegan, are related to concepts of individual, workforce and community development, and intentional/deliberate adult development practices in universities and the workplace are described.

Keywords: adult development, development, stage theory, constructive developmental theory, deliberately developmental organization, development organization

As I write this paper, the contentious presidential election of 2016 is in full swing in the United States. Listening to the candidates and their supporters and noting the contrasts that abound, I have begun to consider that what is at play is not a clash of political parties or theory but a developmental collision, perhaps more ubiquitous and difficult to mitigate or overcome than party or political differences. While political commentators and the media discern differences in values, temperament and character, I wonder: Are these candidates at different points in their developmental trajectories?

Grasping the concept of development in adulthood and comprehending how we and others develop and take charge of or influence the journey is critical not only to understanding political candidates, but also for preparing ourselves to function as individuals, workers and citizens in our complex world. Perusing a newspaper, exploring the Internet, or listening to radio or television, we are constantly bombarded with information, scenes, and sounds of the challenges of our times: abject poverty, crippling and deadly illnesses, the churn of labor markets where demands for specific skills and knowledge are rapidly shifting with the spread of technology, social and political strife and endangered environments. This is the backdrop for us and the adult learners we as adult educators, managers and leaders serve.

My purpose in writing this paper is to highlight the need to be more explicit and intentional about development throughout adulthood and to provide increased and varied opportunities for development. As an adult educator I have focused on both adult learning -- helping learners to "acquire, enhance or make changes in knowledge, skills, values and worldviews" (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007. p.277) -- and

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development -- to "unfold, to grow into latent potential" (Smith & Taylor, 2010, p. 49). For me, as a member of learning and development groups in consulting organizations and university faculties, advancing adults' learning has been an explicit goal and encouraging their development more often an implicit one. Given the challenges of today's workplaces, communities and nations, it is now time to more explicitly concentrate on promoting adult development to prompt longer term shifts in perspectives and behaviors, simultaneously continuing to support adults' immediate and short-term learning needs.

Meeting these ends requires intensifying actions to:
- Further understand the integral relationship between adult learning and adult development.
- Explore theories of adult development. For example, identify one or more framework(s) for development through adulthood as a basis to engage in dialogue and developmental experiences.
- Investigate broadly. Theories and practices relating to adult development can be discerned in multiple disciplines (e.g., psychology, management development, organizational development).
- Reflect on current practice. Though we may not have been *explicitly* focusing on adult development, the perspectives and practices we use (e.g., self-directed, transformational and transformative learning) may in fact be strategies and tactics to foster development, calling out for a framework to bind them together.
- Learn and act together. Through dialogue and knowledge sharing across roles, venues, countries, and perspectives we may move more quickly towards greater, more comprehensive and more universal understanding on the process and enablers of adult development.

Included in the paper are discussions on development theories and practices, including the current focus on *developmental* or *deliberately developmental* organizations. Given the field's depth and breadth, what is here is the top of the tip of an iceberg, informed and limited by my study and practice, primarily within the United States. Yet, by sharing my views within this international forum, I hope that the ensuing dialogue may be useful to practitioners, managers and organizational leaders from other perspectives and countries as we all support human growth and development.

Adult Learning and Adult Development: An Integral Relationship

Adult learning and adult development are connected and similar but distinct concepts; both are factors in how adults change and grow. Understanding the dimensions and facets of these inextricably combined processes helps us to become aware of or to determine possible outcomes of learning or development opportunities, focus attention on them and create occasions for growth.
According to Merriam and Brockett (2007, pp. 5-6), *adult learning* is: "a cognitive process internal to the learner; it is what the learner does in a teaching-learning transaction, as opposed to what the educator does. Learning also includes the unplanned, incidental learning that is part of everyday life." Hoare (2011, p. 397) defined *adult development* as "systematic, qualitative changes in human attributes (e.g., intelligence,

insight, social cognition) as a result of interactions between internal and external environments." Further, she noted, "Each person's life stage, itself an internal dynamic, influences the way one sees oneself in the world" (p. 397). She pointed out:

> Adult learning is itself a developmental quality and process. Such learning includes a change in behavior, a gain in knowledge or skills, and an alteration or a restructuring of prior knowledge. Such learning can also mean a positive change in self-understanding or in the development of personal qualities such as coping mechanisms. (Hoare, 2011, p. 398)

Boucouvalas and Krupp (1989) conceptualized adult development and learning as circular and asserted that adult development refers to growth or change in the nature, modes, and content of learning, which in turn leads to further development and forms a continuous cycle of development and learning. Boydell (2016), whose theory of Modes of Being is described later in the paper (Figure 1), linked development to learning and to crossing a threshold from one mode --or stage-- to another while retaining the capabilities that emerged in a mode appearing earlier. Tennant and Pogsen (as cited in Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007, p.322) observed that "the raw materials in the process of development are the organism, with its constitutionally endowed equipment and the social environment with its historical and cultural formations. Development thus proceeds through a constant interaction between the person and its environment."

Among the thoughts that come to mind when considering the concepts of adult learning vis- a-vis adult development are:

- Both deal with changes—learning in terms of specific knowledge and skills, development with changes in underlying attributes.
- Learning may often be mastered in the short term; development is likely a longer term happenstance.
- With learning we might speak of designing learning activities; with development it may be more appropriate to focus on generating or establishing environments for growth.

Our Developing Selves

Theories of adult development abound. Our challenge is to understand them and how to use them to encourage development. In their robust review of adult development theory, Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) noted that adult development is best understood from a multi-disciplinary approach. Hoare (2011, p. 398) listed the following as attributes that can and may develop during the adult years: "intelligence, cognition, emotional maturity, identity, interpersonal competence, ethics, spirituality, generativity, insight, self-esteem, flexibility, and historical awareness (sentience)."

Cook-Greuter (2004, p. 3) distinguished between lateral and vertical development:

> Both are important, but they occur at different rates. Lateral growth and expansion happens through many channels, such as schooling, training, self-directed and life-long learning as well as simply through exposure to life. Vertical

development in adults is much rarer. It refers to how we learn to see the world through new eyes, how we change our interpretations of experience and how we transform our views of reality. It describes increases in what we are aware of, or what we can pay attention to, and therefore what we can influence and integrate. In general, transformations of human consciousness or changes in our view of reality are more powerful than any amount of horizontal growth and learning.

Developmental Assumptions and Trajectory

Cook-Greuter (2013, pp. 2-3) compiled the following list of tenets of constructive developmental theory (which is a *stage theory* of vertical development) and notes that "full-range" human development theories share most of these assumptions. The list represents a synthesis compiled from results of thousands of hours of work by many researchers and practitioners:

- Development theory describes the unfolding of human potential towards deeper understanding, wisdom and effectiveness in the world.
- Growth occurs in a logical sequence of stages or expanding world views from birth to adulthood. The movement is often likened to an ever widening spiral.
- Overall, world views evolve from simple to complex, from static to dynamic, and from ego-centric to socio-centric to world-centric.
- Later stages are reached only by journeying through the earlier stages. Once a stage has been traversed, it remains a part of the individual's response repertoire, even when more complex, later stages are adopted as primary lenses to look at experience.
- Each later stage includes and transcends the previous ones. That is, the earlier perspectives remain part of our current experience and knowledge (just as when a child learns to run, it doesn't stop to be able to walk). Each later stage in the sequence is more differentiated, integrated, flexible and capable of optimally functioning in a rapidly changing and ever more complex world.
- People's stage of development influences what they notice and can become aware of, and therefore, what they can describe, articulate, cultivate, influence, and change.
- As healthy development unfolds, autonomy, freedom, tolerance for difference and ambiguity, as well as flexibility, self-awareness, and skill in interacting with the environment increase while defenses decrease.
- Derailment in development, pockets of lack of integration, trauma and psychopathology are seen at all levels. Thus later stages are not more adjusted or "happier."
- A person who has reached a later stage can understand earlier world-views, but a person at an earlier stage cannot understand the later ones.
- The depth, complexity, and scope of what people notice can expand throughout life. Yet no matter how evolved we become, our knowledge and understanding is always partial and incomplete.
- Development occurs through the interplay between person and environment, not just by one or the other. It is a potential and can be encouraged and

facilitated by appropriate support and challenge, but it cannot be guaranteed.

- While vertical development can be invited and the environment optimally structured towards growth, it cannot be forced. People have the right to be who they are at any station in life.
- The later the stage, the more variability for unique self-expression exists, and the less readily we can determine where a person's center of gravity lies.
- All stage descriptions are idealizations that no human being fits entirely.

A useful context for understanding and presenting an overall view of adult development is that of a trajectory – a life journey – illustrated in Table 1. As with the tenets above, the table is based on study and analysis of multiple researchers and perspectives, and earlier renditions were developed in conjunction with Tom Boydell (2016).

Table 1
The Trajectory of Development

As they develop, adults become more able to…	
• Be aware and intentional	• Connect with others
• Make their own meaning	• Be collaborative
• Take initiatives and risks	• Be independent and interdependent
• Be systematic and systemic in problem solving	• Identify and act consistently with a purpose

Note: Adapted from "Revisiting Adult Development: Changing Capabilities, Perspectives and Worldviews," by L. E. Morris and C. D. Klunk, 2016, *Adult Learning, 27,* pp.3-6.

Developmental Practices

As individuals and in our roles as students, educators, parents, siblings, children, church members and/or citizen we encounter many situations that require us to go into and beyond ourselves. If we accept the assumptions above (or some of them) and presume the trajectory to be real, we may intentionally adopt practices that may shift our capabilities to be, for example, more systematic, connected with others, collaborative, or independent then interdependent. Even without specific guidelines for such actions, we and others can adopt and experience practices that lead to growth.

These include incorporating learning processes leading to increased understanding and growth into multiple aspects of life, for example:
- Self-directed learning
- Transformational learning
- Experiential learning
- Reflection (coupled with any type of learning)
- Journal writing for reflective practice

Drivers for Developing Adults in Organizations

The workplace, where so many of us spend so many hours, may be viewed as a cauldron and as a foundry for development. Internal and external factors alike propel today's organizations to place increased emphasis on developing employees to build individual, organizational and even societal capabilities. Employees' careers are increasingly fluid, and people are far more likely to engage in a variety of positions at a number of companies (or be self-employed) than in the past, making learning and development activities a recruitment as well as a training factor. Organizations continue to face complex challenges including globalization and ever-shifting technology. Learning and development strategies deployed by organizations and management consultants are employed to increase skills and capabilities

In one sense, the idea of adults developing in the organization or workplace is not new — perhaps it is even "old hat." Organizations provide on the job learning, rotational assignments, classroom training, elearning modules and management development. Indeed, *Training Magazine's* "2014 Training Industry Report" estimated total US expenditures for training and development in 2014 to be $61.8 billion (2014, p. 17), with average expenditures for large companies at $17.6 million, mid-size companies at $1.5 million and small companies at $338,386 (p. 18).

Despite the magnitude of such expenditures, organizations struggle to obtain the leaders they seek. For example:

> Nearly 60 percent of respondents to a recent McKinsey survey say that building organizational capabilities such as lean operations or project or talent management is a top-three priority for their companies. Yet only a third of companies actually focus their training programs on building the capability that adds the most value to their companies' business performance. (Gryger, Saar, & Schaar (2010, para. 1)

Gryger et al. (2010) reported that only about 25% rated training programs as "extremely" or "very effective" in preparing various employee groups to drive business performance or to improve the overall performance, noting that training programs are misaligned with what is thought to be the capability most important to a company's business performance.

> Leadership skill, for example, is considered by the majority of respondents to be the capability that contributes most to performance. Yet only 35 percent of respondents say they focus on it. And only 36 percent of executives consider their companies better than competitors at leadership development. (para. 10)

Petrie (2014) in a white paper published by the Center for Creative Leadership assessed the current situation of leadership development and noted (p. 5):
- The environment has changed—it is more complex, volatile, and unpredictable.
- The skills needed for leadership have also changed—more complex and adaptive thinking abilities are needed.

- The methods being used to develop leaders have not changed (much).
- The majority of managers are developed from on-the-job experiences, training, and coaching/ mentoring; while these are all still important, leaders are no longer developing fast enough or in the right ways to match the new environment.

As for the future, he continued:

- This is no longer just a leadership challenge (what good leadership looks like); it is a development challenge (the process of how to grow "bigger" minds).
- Managers have become experts on the "what" of leadership, but novices in the "how" of their own development. (Petrie, 2014, p. 5)

Management and leadership development literature, thus, provides valuable information on efforts to promote adult development in the workplace.
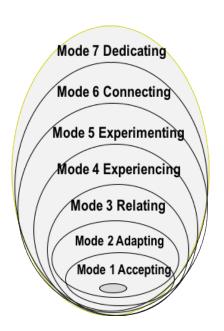
Promoting Development

Two perspectives on adult development seem particularly useful in developing strategies to promote development in organizations: Tom Boydell's Modes of Being and Learning (2016) and constructive-developmental theory (McCauley, Drath, Paulus, O'Connor, & Baker, 2006).

Modes of Being and Learning

According to Boydell (2016, p. 11), development is "moving away from isolated, fragmented atomism, to joining with one or more relatively localized communities or sub-sets of people, thence to a larger unity, seeing everybody, everything, as part of an integral whole," describing it as "decreased duality, increased unity."   The Modes framework, then, exemplifies a stage model of development, in this case, on the dimension of *worldview* "in the sense of my perception of, and relationship with, the context in which I find myself" (Boydell, 2016, p.11).

Boydell (2016) posited that development occurs in distinct stages that appear in a particular sequence; once a new stage is reached, previous ones remain but have a different significance. Rejecting the notion of a ladder, he noted he preferred the image of nested eggs (Figure 1); as the whole egg expands, each wave can get bigger.

The Modes of Being and Learning framework originated in the 1980's (Boydell, 2016). Over time, Boydell and his colleague Chris Blantern found that in their management and organization development world people related more readily to a threefold condensation of the seven Modes into three Stances (Boydell, 2016).

Modes 6 and 7:

Stance 3. Doing better things—together

Modes 4 and 5:

Stance 2. Doing things better

Modes 1 to 3:

Stance 1. Doing things well

Figure 1. Modes and Stances.

The Modes and Stances are very much about how people relate to and operate in the world. Perhaps that is why I have found this perspective so helpful in designing learning activities and analyzing training programs. (Interestingly, Bloom's taxonomy was an input into Boydell's thinking when developing the theory [T. Boydell, personal communication July 4, 2002].) For example, at one organization, when we assessed our training activities, we found that while our intention was to build a workforce capable of problem solving and initiating actions (Mode 5), the methods we most frequently used were lectures, didactic instruction, and question and answer sessions (Mode 3). We then substantially changed our approach. See "Facilitation of Development" (Boydell, 2016) in the Special Issue on Adult Development in *Adult Learning,* Volume 27, for a more in-depth discussion of the framework and application suggestions.

Constructive-Developmental Theory

McCauley et al. (2006, p. 635) noted that constructive-developmental theory is the developmental stage theory most frequently used in the management and leadership literature. Defining *constructive-developmental theory* as "a stage theory of adult development that focuses on the growth and elaboration of a person's ways of understanding the self and the world" (p. 634), the authors provide an overview of it. They review how the constructive-developmental frameworks of Robert Kegan, William Torbert, and Lawrence Kohlberg have been applied in the theoretical and empirical literature on leadership and management.

The term *constructive-developmental* was first suggested by Kegan in 1980 to refer to a stream of work in psychology that focuses on the development of meaning and meaning-making processes across the lifespan (McCauley et al., 2006). Kegan, for example, posited levels of consciousness or orders of mind, including the following three adult levels described by Petrie (2014, p. 13):

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- **3--Socialized mind:** At this level we are shaped by the expectations of those around us. What we think and say is strongly influenced by what we think others want to hear.
- **4--Self-authoring mind:** We have developed our own ideology or internal compass to guide us. Our sense of self is aligned with our own belief system, personal code, and values. We can take stands, set limits on behalf of our own internal "voice."
- **5--Self-transforming mind:** We have our own ideology, but can now step back from that ideology and see it as limited or partial. We can hold more contradiction and oppositeness in our thinking and no longer feel the need to gravitate towards polarized thinking.

View Kegan speaking on *The Further Reaches of Adult Development: Thoughts on the Self-Transforming Mind* (2013) at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BoasM4cCHBc.

According to McCauley et al. (2006), constructive-developmental theory is built on the work of Jean Piaget and part of a large and diverse literature on life-span development, which is concerned with psychosocial growth and aging from birth to death. Other early theorists contributing to this stream include Fingarette, Kohlberg, Perry, Selman, and Loevinger. McCauley et al. reported:

The theory:
- is *constructive* in the sense that it deals with a person's construals, constructions, and interpretations of an experience, that is, the meaning a person makes of an experience.
- is *developmental* in the sense that it is concerned with how those construals, constructions, and interpretations of an experience grow more complex over time.
- takes as its subject the growth and elaboration of a person's ways of understanding the self and the world.
- assumes an ongoing process of development in which qualitatively different meaning systems evolve over time, both as a natural unfolding as well as in response to the limitations of existing ways of making meaning.
- views each meaning system as more complex than the previous one in the sense that it is capable of including, differentiating among, and integrating a more diverse range of experience. (McCauley et al., 2006, p. 635)

Constructive-developmental theory is referred to as neo-Piagetian theory because it extends Piaget's ideas in several important respects. It:

- takes the view that the developmental growth Piaget studied includes the way adults as well as children construct and interpret their experiences.
- moves beyond Piaget's focus on cognition and includes the emotions.
- recognizes qualitatively different *stages* of development and *focuses* on transformation processes — the challenges, achievements, and costs of moving from one way of making meaning to another.

- moves beyond Piaget's exclusive attention on external manifestations of development to also include the inner experience of developing.
- broadens its focus beyond the individual to include a study of the social context and how it affects development. (McCauley et al., 2006, p. 636)

Summarizing their literature review, McCauley et al. (2006, p. 650) observed that "developmental theory is evolving toward a more holistic, integrative perspective that views individual development as one facet of a developing system." This finding seems consistent with the tenets compiled by Cook-Greuter (2013) and presented earlier.

Additionally, McCauley et al. (2006, p. 650) asserted:

> Because it deals with an aspect of leadership that may be taken as basic— the generation and development of meaning for individuals and social systems— constructive developmental theory has the potential to act as an integrative framework in the field. This potential can only be realized to the extent that theorists, researchers, and practitioners work in more interconnected ways to test and refine the propositions generated by applying this theory to leadership.

Kegan (as cited by Petrie) has summarized what researchers have learned about what causes vertical development (transitions from one stage to another):

- People feel consistently frustrated by situations, dilemmas, or challenges in their lives.
- It causes them to feel the limits of their current way of thinking.
- It is in an area of their life that they care about deeply.
- There is sufficient support that enables them to persist in the face of the anxiety and conflict. (Petrie, 2014. p. 6)

Constructive developmental theory and Kegan's perspective on transition factors have undergirded the Leadership for Transformational Learning (LTL) program depicted by Drago-Severson, Blum-DeStefano, and Asghar (2013). In *Learning for Leadership: Developmental Strategies for Building Capacity in Our Schools* (2013) they described a 15 week graduate program for teachers, delivered first at the Harvard Graduate School of Education and later at Teachers College Columbia, that focused on helping educators understand how to support adult learning and capacity building, including the results of longitudinal research about the program's impact.

The course (and later graduate action) was structured around a learning-oriented model for school leadership developed by Drago-Severson (Drago-Severson et al., 2013). The model, based on constructive-developmental theory and "composed of four pillar practices—that is, **teaming**, **providing leadership roles,** engaging in **collegial inquiry (CI)**, and **mentoring**—helped leaders learn about and experience the kinds of practices that actually support adult growth, and *why*" (Drago-Severson et al., 2013, p. 11). Course content and processes included:

1. Conceptions of leadership in support of adult learning and development
2. Constructive-developmental theory
3. Essential elements for enhancing schools, systems, and workplaces to be even healthier learning environments for adults
4. Practices that support adults' transformational learning (e.g., teaming, assuming leadership roles, collegial inquiry, and mentoring), as well as the developmental principles informing them
5. The importance of caring for one's own development and learning while caring for the learning of others. (Drago-Severson et al., 2013, pp. 12-13)

Drago-Severson et al. (2013, p. 13) emphasized:

> It is important to note that in addition to *teaching* about developmental theory and practices that can be employed to support adult growth, we sought in LTL to *establish and model* the conditions for supporting adult learning and development so that the learners could *experience the practices that support growth while they were learning about them.*

Drago-Severson et al. (2013, p. 158) provided details on how leaders use developmental practices and ideas learned during LTL, including discrete examples of "(a) establishing and nourishing the preconditions for developmentally oriented leadership, (b) implementing and adapting the four pillar practices for growth….and (c) differentiating supports and challenges within the pillars to support adults with diverse ways of knowing." They also incorporated research findings from the graduates that detailed approaches and practices they adopted in school systems in subsequent years.

Reading about the Leadership for Transformational Program (Drago-Severson et al. 2013) provides a window into practices that not only help individual adults grow and develop, but also contribute to the growth of a community – in this case a cohort of students. Because the students were in fact teachers, we also gain glimpses of the program's impact within a wider community.

An Organizational Perspective

Adults spend countless hours each day in the workplace—in communities of their fellows. One wonders how might they develop if the policies and practices of these workplaces were designed to enhance or enable their progress. Certainly, increasing awareness of development processes and being in a conducive climate for growth may be precursors for individuals deciding to take on developmental tasks.

One option for organizational leaders wishing to foster adult development is to create a *development organization*—where emphases on productivity and development are intertwined (Morris & Klunk, 2016)—which "consciously and intentionally transforms itself through supporting and encouraging the development of its members, who in turn consciously transform the organization, enabling it to meet its strategic goals" (Morris, 1997, p. 53). Morris described implementation of a competency-based framework for

career development, job assignment, and performance appraisal processes, tied to Boydell's Modes of Being and Learning, aiming to simultaneously increase both individual and organizational capabilities. According to Morris and Klunk, "The focus—linked to adult development theory—is on changing organizational strategy and human resource processes" (2016, p. 5).

More recently the concept of *deliberately developmental organizations* (DDOs) has emerged. Kegan, Lahey, Fleming, and Miller (2014, p. 4) characterized these as organizations "committed to developing every one of their people by weaving personal growth into daily work." Highlighting organizational strategy and culture, DDOs reflect the following foundational assumptions:

- Adults can grow.
- Not only is attention to the bottom line and the personal growth of all employees' desirable, but also the two are interdependent.
- Both profitability and individual development rely on structures . . . built into every aspect of how the company operates.
- People grow through the proper combination of challenge and support. (Morris & Klunk, 2016, p. 5)

Moving forward, research on the effects of shifts in organizational strategy, processes, policies and culture will be invaluable towards creating organizations with an increased emphasis on supporting the development of individuals, not only to carry out their current roles, but also to build capabilities for the future. Such efforts benefit organizations and the community at large as well as individuals (Kegan et al., 2014; Morris, 1997).

Conclusion

I have contended that it is now imperative for adult educators, managers and leaders to make explicit and concerted efforts to further the development of adults we serve. In doing so, we have an opportunity to enhance opportunities for individuals to realize their own potential and to build capabilities vital to performing their roles as individuals, parents, workers and citizens and to contributing to society as a whole.

We have an increasing body of knowledge about adult development from research and practice and are positioned to apply and extend that knowledge. The challenge is there. Many of us already engaged. Will we take it on in a rigorous and resolute manner? If we do so, and work together, sharing knowledge, experiences and insights, what might we achieve? What are next steps?

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HENRY CARMICHAEL [1796 TO 1862]: AUSTRALIA'S PIONEER ADULT EDUCATOR

Roger K. Morris PhD[1]

ABSTRACT: This paper outlines the important role that Henry Carmichael played in the foundation of adult education in Australia. He was the driving force in the foundation and early success of the Sydney Mechanics' School of Arts. He also played a very significant role in the establishment of public schooling. His wide interest in educational thought is also canvassed. Finally, his considerable achievements as a government surveyor and as a pioneer of the wine industry are considered.

Keywords: history of adult education, mechanics' institutes, public schooling

One hundred and eighty-five years ago, on October 13, 1831, the ship *Stirling Castle* arrived in the then penal colony of New South Wales (NSW) after a voyage of some four months. On board were some 59 Scottish mechanics or skilled tradesmen [including carpenters, bricklayers, stonemasons, plumbers, glaziers, and blacksmiths] who had been recruited to build a new Presbyterian college in Sydney. Also on board were their families and the core teachers who were to staff the Academy, which was to be called the Australian College (Crew, 1970).

The voyage had been organized by John Dunmore Lang (1799–1878), Australia's pioneer Presbyterian Minister, who had arrived in NSW in 1823. He soon became one of the most controversial figures in Colonial religious and political history. He was imprisoned once for debt and twice for libel. Deposed from the Presbyterian ministry in 1842, he then went on to become a long time elected politician (1843 to 1870). He was a radical democrat and Australia's first republican but he also sought to end or at least minimize the influence of the 'convict stain' (particularly the Irish Catholic variant thereof) on the colony's reputation by recruiting respectable Scottish Presbyterian immigrants. His life was, however, a mass of contradictions. Despite his militant anti-Catholic/anti-Irish views, many poorer Irish Catholics voted for him because of his radical democratic and republican views, and among the Scottish immigrants he sponsored, there happened to be some Scottish Catholics, including the future parents of Mother Mary MacKillop, Australia's first Saint (Baker, 1967).

Chief among the teachers, who travelled to Sydney on the *Stirling Castle* was Henry Carmichael (born 1796). He had matriculated to St Andrew's University in 1814 and had graduated with an M.A. in 1820. Although he was an ordained Presbyterian minister, he had pursued a career in education. Based in London he was prominent in liberal and more progressive educational circles and a follower of the English social reformer Jeremy Bentham, whose views on education – the separation of religious teaching from general education, less emphasis on teaching the classics, more emphasis on practical studies ('useful knowledge') – were strong influences on Carmichael's own thinking. Carmichael, in accepting the position, was also contracted, while still in London, to

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source suitable books and equipment for the new college (Turney, 1969).

A scholar of education as well as a practitioner, Carmichael was very familiar with contemporary European educational ideas, particularly the work of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827) and the work of Philippe Emanuel von Fellenberg (1771–1844). Greatly impressed by their ideas, he sought to implement their work in his own educational endeavors (Nadel, 1966).

Pestalozzi emphasized that every aspect of the learner's life contributed to the formation of personality, character, and reason. Pestalozzi's educational methods were learner-centered and based on individual differences, sense perception, and the student's self-activity. Pestalozzi's ideas had an important influence on the theory of physical education, linking it to general, moral, and intellectual development, and thus reflecting his conception of harmony and human autonomy.

Fellenberg founded a self-supporting agricultural school for poor children that combined manual training with agricultural instruction and academic education. Later he founded schools for girls and for the education of teachers. His social aim, to be achieved through education, was to raise the living conditions of the poor and to create a much more inclusive society. Fellenberg's educational approach initially provoked ridicule, but gradually pupils came to him from all over Europe, both for agricultural training and for the academic and moral development associated with his approach.

Lang's plan for his Australian College seemed to suit Carmichael's educational beliefs. The college was to be divided into four departments, each supervised by a specialist master or professor, and there was to be a broad curriculum including English, mercantile instruction, mathematics and physics, and classics. The students were to be educated from an elementary standard through to a university level, with no restriction on religious denomination or social background (Turney, 1969).

On the long voyage to the new world Carmichael turned his intention to the moral and intellectual enlightenment of the mechanics. He formed a small class that met five days a week to study those aspects of arithmetic and geometry useful to the work of the mechanics. Later he also formed a class, which met twice a week to study political economy. These classes, both of which were most successful, must rank as the very first examples of formal adult education in Australia. Both Carmichael in London, and some half a dozen or so of the mechanics in Edinburgh, had had prior knowledge of, and experiences with, the then emerging Mechanics Institutes and Schools of Arts movement (Turney, 1969).

While the remote origins of the Mechanics' Institute or Schools of Arts movement may never be untangled and that while the movement's final emergence was the result of the convergence of a great many factors, George Birkbeck is generally acknowledged as its founder and Scotland as its birth place. In 1800, as Professor of Natural Philosophy at the Anderson Institute in Glasgow, he began a special course of lectures "solely for persons engaged in the practical exercise of the mechanical arts". Birkbeck, an English Quaker,

later moved back to London where he was associated with the founding of the London Mechanics' Institute.

The Mechanics' Institute was an idea whose time had come and soon purpose built schools/institutes were spreading across the English-speaking world. These schools/institutes emphasized the importance of vocational education to the health of the society, popularized the idea of science and progress, promoted the concept of individual responsibility in adult learning, and provided basic infrastructure for the later development of more formal adult and technical education, recreational facilities and local public libraries.

After arriving in Sydney, Carmichael was approached by the Colony's Governor, Sir Richard Bourke, a man much interested in education, seeking his opinion on the possibility of establishing a mechanics' institute in Sydney. Carmichael saw the opportunity for the creation of a much more comprehensive adult education enterprise than that had been envisaged on board the *Stirling Castle*, and one that could be run on the principles expounded by Jeremy Bentham in London (Carmichael, 1844).
The first meeting of interested parties was held at Carmichael's own house, at which a provisional committee was formed to devise a set of regulations for the proposed Institute. On March 22, 1833, the first public meeting to form a Mechanics' Institute was held, with approximately 200 in attendance. After a number of addresses and speeches, the meeting resolved to form the Sydney Mechanics' School of Arts (SMSA), with the colony's Surveyor-General Major Thomas Mitchell elected as president of the school, the Reverend Henry Carmichael elected as vice-president (and Chief operating Officer), and the Governor as patron (Carmichael, 1844).

The object of the SMSA was to be the dissemination of scientific and other useful knowledge throughout the colony of NSW. The means to be used to attain this object were set out as follows:
- the establishment of a library and reading room
- the purchase of scientific apparatus and models
- the delivery of public lectures
- the formation of classes.
  (*The Sydney Herald*, March 21, 1833)

Carmichael was to be the School's driving force in an administrative and managerial sense and was its principal lecturer in the early days. The School was soon a great success. Two hundred and fifty lectures were given in the 1830s on subjects ranging from chemistry, electricity and steam to "how to choose a horse", phrenology and "vulgarities in conversation". Membership increased from 91 in 1833 to 609 by 1838 when the library contained 1700 volumes. Through Governor Bourke's influence, an annual subsidy from the Legislative Council was granted. In 1836 the School moved to its own purpose-built home at 275 Pitt Street, where it remained for the next 150 years.

However, things were not going so well in Carmichael's day job. By 1833 Carmichael's enthusiasm for Lang's college had largely evaporated, as Lang's abrasive personality had

alienated many supporters and the public had grown increasingly antagonistic to the College. As the only senior master left, Carmichael, felt that the criticisms of the school's decline were being leveled unfairly at him rather than at the personal style of Lang. Carmichael was concerned that the school could never prosper under Lang's leadership, due to his private and religious interests being too closely linked to his administration of the College. In particular, Carmichael saw Lang's sectarianism as a major stumbling block (Turney, 1969).

Carmichael left the Australian College at the end of his contract in 1834, to set up his own school taking 45 of the College's students with him. Carmichael's new school, the Normal Institution, was established in January 1835. Carmichael set out his objectives for the school in the local newspapers. Carmichael said that he wished to lay the foundations of an institution for promoting the real business of education, which shall be altogether independent from the control of 'clerical interference, and undeterred by the narrow-minded enactments of 'party spirit' or 'sectarian influence'.

The school was also to act as a training ground for future teachers, with advanced students acting as teachers to more junior pupils in the school. The teachers produced by the institution would then be employable in the new National or Public School system that Governor Bourke was proposing. Based on the Irish National School model, Bourke's National Schools would be 'Public Schools' providing general education to all denominations rather than being predominantly Anglican as the schools that currently existed were (King, 1966).

As well as teaching reading, writing and arithmetic, the Normal Institution, as part of its regular curriculum, also taught modern and Oriental languages, portrait painting, drawing, dancing, gymnastics, fencing and military drill. And, in line with his opposition to the teaching of sectarian religious opinion in schools, Carmichael included the study of general religious knowledge, making students aware of the history of all religions. (Turney, 1969).

In 1838, after five years as vice-president, Carmichael retired from his formal position with the SMSA and left Sydney, moving to the rich farmlands of the Hunter Valley with his wife and family, where he worked as the government surveyor and planted vineyards on his property, Porphyry Point, near Seaham. These were to become longest lived of all the vineyards on the Williams River. Carmichael's success with winemaking meant that his wines soon became well known in the colony, and he helped to found the Hunter River Vineyard Association, became its president for a time and remained a prominent member and a leader of the wine industry (Driscoll, 1969).

Despite these new directions, Carmichael's interest in education remained undiminished. In the late 1830s he was considering establishing a school at his Porphyry Point estate, but the economic depression that hit the colony in 1840–1841 meant instead that Carmichael was forced to return to Sydney to seek employment, taking on work as a tutor instructing in grammar and mathematics, especially in relation to their application to surveying and navigation. In 1844 Carmichael was again invited to present the opening

lecture of the twelfth session of his beloved SMSA, and in doing so revisited his favorite subject: education in the colony. Carmichael's return to the public debate regarding education was met with enthusiasm in the local press, with one newspaper noting that

> There are perhaps few individuals in the colony who have
> rendered such important services to the causes of public education
> as Mr. Carmichael. The establishment of the Mechanics' School
> of Arts was of itself no trifling influence in the dissemination of
> useful knowledge. (*The Maitland Mercury and Hunter River
> General Advertiser,* July 13, 1844)

His lecture, delivered on June 3, was titled 'How shall education best be rendered universal?' and its content returned to his earlier assertions on the benefits of a public system for schooling, distanced from sectarian religious teaching as much as possible. Carmichael's lecture was aimed squarely at the approaching review of the colonial educational system, with a call for the adoption of the National School, i.e. the public school, model. Carmichael gave a second lecture at the School of Arts on 'Political Economy' before returning to his Hunter Valley property. He was soon back in Sydney, having been requested to present expert evidence at the Governor's select committee on the future of education in the Colony.

Returning full-time to his Hunter Valley vineyard, in October 1844, Carmichael opened a new academy, which following the Fellenberg system, trained young men in the practical skills of agriculture in the context of a more academic and general education. Carmichael's aspirations for involvement in the wider education sphere continued into his later years. In 1849, while still operating his agricultural academy, he applied to the Board of National Education for appointment as General Superintendent of National Schools in NSW. He was told that no such appointment was to be considered at that time (Turney, 1969).

Carmichael later offered his services in 1854, to help with the writing of a curriculum and to train schoolmasters for the new National or public schools. During this period he continued to promote education locally in the Hunter Valley. He was instrumental in the establishment of a National (i.e. Public) School at Seaham in 1849, and took an active role in adult education, often speaking, at the Maitland Mechanics' Institute through the 1850s, and returning to his beloved SMSA to present major addresses on questions of educational import (Turney, 1969).

In 1860, his old University, St Andrews's, awarded him a doctorate (LL.D *honoris causa*) in recognition of his most significant contribution to education in the colony of NSW. Carmichael decided to return to England on a private visit, and a farewell dinner was held at Clarence Town in May 1862. On June 28, 1862, Carmichael died at sea, aboard the ship *Light of the Age,* a very apt name considering Carmichael's life's work in education (Dunn, 2011). To Carmichael education was the great moral panacea, by which all mankind's affections, social and moral, could be developed. The cultivation of the intellectual and hence the moral facilities would aid the true understanding of any

question, and thus foster true morality rather than narrow sectarian opinions (Nadel, 1966).

An advocate always ready to articulate a philosophical defense of the value of education, Henry Carmichael was a liberal and progressive thinker in politics, and a tireless champion of the twin causes of adult education and public schooling. His views on education were always strongly anti-sectarian and inclusive. Moreover, he was a competent and conscientious public servant, who as the government surveyor for the Hunter Valley region did much to promote local development. Finally, he was an important pioneer of the great Australian wine industry.

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DO COLLEGE INSTRUCTORS HAVE IMPLICIT BIAS TOWARD LATINO-ACCENTED ENGLISH SPEAKERS?

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ABSTRACT: The purpose of this study was to examine the implicit attitudes of college-level instructors toward Latino-accented English and the effects of gender, teaching experience, home language, race/ethnicity, and rank on those attitudes. The auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT) was used to measure the implicit accent preferences. Participants ($N = 93$) included college instructors at an urban university in Florida. In this study, instructors were defined as full-time and part-time faculty members and paid graduate assistants. Statistical analysis results suggested college instructors in this study exhibited some bias towards speakers of Latino-accented English. Gender, teaching experience, home language, race/ethnicity, and rank had no effect on implicit preference scores. Faculty, administrators, and students could use this study as a topic of discussion in faculty development, teaching assistant training, student services, diversity training, and hiring practices in higher education institutions. The discussions might help awareness of hidden-yet-present accent bias and prevent potential prejudice toward Latino-accented English speakers. Recommendations for further research were also provided.

Keywords: Accented English, accent prejudice, Implicit Association Test, implicit language attitudes

Language establishes a speaker's social identity as instantly as with gender or race (Lippi-Green, 2012). Accented language can reveal even more information such as national origins, homelands, ethnicities, or social classes about the speakers (Edwards, 1999; Giles & Johnson, 1987; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010a; Lippi-Green, 2012; Neuliep & Speten-Hansen, 2013). A listener's evaluative reactions (i.e., attitudes) to language varieties whether it be standard accent, regional accent, or nonnative accent reflect the listener's language attitudes. Previous research has supported this notion by showing that listeners tended to make value judgments and formed linguistic prejudices based on the speaker's spoken language (Fuertes, Gottdiener, Martin, Gilbert, & Giles, 2012; Lambert et al., 1960; Nesdale & Rooney, 1996).

Language attitudes research since 1960s has shown that individuals who spoke a language with a nonnative accent were perceived more negatively than were those with a native accent (Bradac, 1990; Brown, 1992; Edwards, 1999; Fuertes et al., 2012; Lindemann, 2003, 2005; Pantos, 2010; Rubin & Smith, 1990; Rubin, 1992). The data collected in both English-speaking countries and non-English speaking countries showed the same results (Fuertes et al., 2012; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010b). Particular native regional accents and dialects have also been associated with a range of negative stereotypic trait perceptions and viewed as less intelligent, less loyal, and less competent (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Lippi-Green, 2012). For example, in America, non-black Americans tend to judge African American Vernacular English (AAVE) as coming from ignorance or stupidity because of a lack of education (Lippi-Green, 2012). Attitudes toward southern American English were rather negative in comparison to a more *neutral* accent (Soukup, 2001). Latino-accented English speakers frequently perceived

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negatively compared to native English speakers in previous research (Fuertes & Gelso, 2000; Giles, Williams, Mackie, & Rosselli, 1995).

Understanding prejudiced linguistic attitudes toward Latino-accented English has become important as the number of Latino-accented English speakers entering schools and workplaces in the US has been increased. There were 55 million Latinos in the US, the largest ethnic minority that constituted 17% of total US population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). About 38.4 million spoke Spanish at home in 2013. This was 120% increase compared to the number of Spanish speakers at home in 1993. Of 38.4 million Spanish speakers, 58% were bilingual (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

Past research indicated language attitudes influenced many aspects of an individual and society. When they are associated with critical decisions such as those involving jobs, promotions, tenure, or academic achievement, such prejudiced language attitudes can bias social interactions. However, decision makers (listeners) may not be aware of their negative language attitudes as being a form of discrimination as clearly as they might for the more high-profile issues of gender and race. This study attempted to access hidden language attitudes of college instructors toward Latino-accented English using an indirect measuring instrument, the auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT).

Theoretical Framework

The social identity theory and implicit social cognition theory served as the theoretical framework of this study. The social identity theory proposed by Tajfel & Turner (1986) assumes individuals tend to categorize the social world and perceive their social identities as group members. According to Tajfel (1982), social identity is a part of the individuals' self-concept which derives from the knowledge of their memberships in a social group or groups together with the value and emotional importance of that membership. The social identity theory involves intergroup relations between in-groups (our own groups) and out-groups (other groups). Tajfel argued that individuals vied for positive social identity by striving to achieve favorable comparison with out-groups. According to Tajfel, language is one of the categories in which individuals acquire positive social identities.

The social identity theory was relevant for this study as more language attitude research has been based on an intergroup (relationship between an in-group and out-groups) perspective (Ryan, 1983). In addition, language influences the perceptions of others (Giles & Johnson, 1981) and the language varieties speakers use, particularly accents and dialects, influences the perceptions of listeners (Eisenstein, 1983; Fishman, 1977; Giles & Johnson, 1981; McKirnan & Hamayan, 1984). Many studies have indicated nonnative accented speech signaled in-group and out-group membership status (Bresnahan, Ohashi, Nebashi, Liu, & Shearman, 2002; Reid & Giles, 2005). Listeners quickly make judgments or evaluations of what they had perceived.

The implicit social cognition theory posits social judgments are influenced by an automatic cognitive process of favorable or unfavorable feeling, thought, or action

toward a social object. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) termed these social judgments implicit attitudes and defined them as introspectively unidentified and inaccurately identified traces of past experiences that mediate favorable or unfavorable feeling, thought, or action toward social object. The implicit attitudes are the attitudes people do not express openly or even realize they hold while explicit attitudes are the ones people are consciously revealing. Banaji and Greenwald (2013) claimed that individuals hold stereotypes or biases as a result of the accumulated past experiences stored in the human brain. The implicit social cognition theory has been informative in understanding subconsciously held beliefs towards socially sensitive topics such as racial prejudice and sexual orientation (Levy, Stroessner, & Dweck, 1998).

Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to examine implicit attitudes toward Latino-accented English among instructors in higher educational settings. The research questions guided this study were:

1. What are the implicit preference of college instructors toward Latino-accented English as measured by the auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT)?
2. Does this implicit preference differ by gender?
3. Does this implicit preference differ by teaching experience?
4. Does this implicit preference differ by language background?
5. Does this implicit preference differ by race/ethnicity?
6. Does this implicit preference differ by rank?

Accent and Adults

Definition of an Accent

Many linguists expressed frustrations defining the word accent accurately (Pennington, 1996). This study used the definition of an accent attempted by Lippi-Green (2012). According to Lippi-Green, an accent is a loose reference to a specific *way of speaking* and it involves two widely recognized elements. They are prosodic features such as intonation, pitch, stress patterns, and rates of speaking and segmental features such as vowels and consonants.

In accent studies, Lippi-Green also emphasized the importance of distinguishing between the two types of accents: First Language (L1) accent and Second Language (L2) accent. In case of America, L1 accent is the native variety of spoken American English. According to Lippi-Green (2012), every native speaker of American English has an L1 accent. L1 accent is usually marked by geographic area with examples such as Appalachian accent, Southern accent, and New York accent. L1 accent is also marked by social features such as Black accents and Native American/Indian accents and further by other social identity accents such as race, ethnicity, income, religion, and gender.

L2 accent, which is the focus of this study, includes prosodic features (intonation, pitch, stress patterns, and rates of speaking) and segmental features (vowels and consonants) distinctive in people who learned English as a second language or a foreign language. L2 accent is usually the result of the L1 interference, which means prosodic and segmental features of the native language transfer into the second language (Lippi-Green, 2012; Parker & Riley, 2010). It is worth repeating that language attitudes are closely related to the listeners' evaluative judgment of speakers (Bradac et al., 2001). Therefore, in language attitude studies including this one, how listeners perceive L2 accent is more meaningful than how an individual speaks with the L2 accent. L2 accent is an extremely salient feature among speech varieties (Major, 2007; Scovel, 1988). Fuertes et al. (2012) claimed listeners made evaluative judgments as soon as they heard a single word such as "hello."

Accent Acquisition and Adults

Researchers generally agree that the majority of adults who learn a second language will speak with an accent with very few exceptions (Derwin & Munro, 2009; Scovel, 1988). Many researchers explained the importance of the start age of L2 acquisition for an accent-free L2, but the critical age varied slightly according to researchers (Tahta, Wood, & Loewenthal, 1981). Scovel (1988) suggested that nearly all individuals who started learning L2 after the *age of 12* had a detectable accent. Tahta et al. (1981) presented the following accent study results and claimed their results matched well with those of other studies: accent-free L2 if L2 is acquired by age 6, slight accent if acquired by the ages 7-11, and usually very marked accent if acquired after the ages 12-13. Their study showed the chances to speak accent-free L2 were minimal if L2 was acquired past the language acquisition period. In addition, levels of nonnative accent, from light to heavy, correlated with number of factors such as age of L2 acquisition, formal L2 instruction, gender, length of residence in L2 country, L2 use at home, and experience (Major, 2007; Tahta et al., 1981).

The above studies implied that adults who started to learn English after the ages of 12-13 had to speak with their nonnative accents all their adult lives. Considering the strong effect of accents in social evaluations (Fuertes et al., 2012), this could be a huge disadvantage to these adult speakers as they would be evaluated initially based on nonnative accent. The disadvantage would be greater with the impact of accent by context. The study result by Fuertes et al. (2012) indicated standard accent was favored with much stronger effect in formal and high stakes contexts such as job interviews and sales positions.

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Literature Review

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As mentioned earlier, past research on language attitudes showed that listeners evaluated nonnative-accented speakers more negatively than those who were perceived to speak native-accented American English simply based on accent of the nonnative speakers (Brown, 1992; Fuertes et al., 2012; Lippi-Green, 2012; Williams, Hewett, Miller, Naremore, & Whitehead, 1976). Latino-accented English speakers were frequently

viewed negatively compared to native English speakers in previous research (Fuertes & Gelso, 2000; Giles et al., 1995). The speakers of various Latino-accented English speakers were perceived to be less competent than speakers of native English varieties in the United States (Bradac & Wisegarver, 1984; Carranza, 1982; Fuertes & Gelso, 2000) and worldwide (Giles et al., 1995). Latino-accented English speakers were also judged to be of lower socio-economical class compared to standard-accented speakers (Ryan & Sebastian,1980).

Frumkin (2007) examined the effect of three foreign accents of Mexican, German, and Lebanese and ethnic background in eyewitness testimony in a criminal trial setting. The researcher prepared three-minute videotaped speeches with six accent variations including Mexican, German, Lebanese, accented- and accent-free English. The text of the testimony was identical. Participants were undergraduate students ($N = 174$). The researcher measured the perception of mock jurors on four favorability variables (i.e., credibility, accuracy, deceptiveness, and prestige) in eyewitness testimony using a self-report measure. Results indicated there was a significant main effect of accent for the four favorability variables. That meant the participants perceived the eyewitness who delivered the testimony with an accent as less favorable even when the text of the testimony was identical and the witness was the same person. In regard to the accent condition, the German-accented eyewitness was rated as the most favorable followed by the Mexican-accented one. The Lebanese-accented eyewitness was the least favored.

Fuertes and Gelso (2000) conducted a study on the perception of European American college students ($N = 212$) toward Latino counselors' accent and race. For accent condition, they used a Latino actor to create two one-minute recordings; Latino accent and no accent. The content was identical. The researchers employed the Counselor Rating Form-Short, Working Alliance Inventory-Short, Willingness Scale, and the Universality-Diversity Orientation (UDO) Scale as outcome measures. The result showed that the respondents preferred to work with non-accented counselors rather than with the accented counselors in long-term therapy. The result also suggested that the respondents with low UDO scores rated the non-accented counselors higher in attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertness than the accented counselors.

Giles et al. (1995) examined the affective reactions and national identity of undergraduate students ($N = 83$) in southern California toward Anglo- and Latino-accented English. The researchers used Zahn and Hopper's (1985) Speech Evaluation Instrument (SEI) and the researcher-devised (Giles et al., 1995) National Identity Measure which attempted to assess the strength of the identification with their own country. The content of the recorded speech used in the study discussed the English-only controversy. The SEI adopted a three-factor model of language evaluation: superiority, attractiveness, and dynamism dimensions. The result showed Latino-accented speakers were rated low in superiority, but high in attractiveness. It also revealed that when an ethnically similar sounding speaker argued against the English only recorded speech, Anglo-accented respondents' affective reactions and national identity scales were rated high. The authors claimed this was the first research to investigate affective reactions and national identity in language attitude domain.

Ryan and Carranza (1975) evaluated reactions toward speakers of standard-accented English and Mexican-accented English. Participants were 21 European American and 21 African American high school students and 21 Mexican Americans. Participants listened to the Mexican-accented English and rated the speaker on 15 pairs of traits such as educated-uneducated and kind-cruel. The results showed standard-accented English speakers received higher ratings in both status (e.g., intelligent-unintelligent) and solidarity (e.g., pleasant-unpleasant) dimensions.

According to Lindemann (2005), American undergraduate students rated nonnative English speakers from Mexico and China as the most incorrect English speakers among many countries and evaluated most negatively. Lindemann asserted sociopolitical factors and familiarity of the countries may contribute to positive and negative evaluation of the nonnative speakers of those countries.

Method

The research used a quantitative design to investigate the implicit attitudes of college instructors toward Latino-accented English. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board.

Sample

The total number of college instructors participated was 93. In this study, instructors were defined as full-time and part-time faculty members and paid graduate assistants. The sample was obtained through a combination approach using convenience and chain sampling strategies. The researcher initially invited 10 college instructors personally known to her. After they completed the auditory IAT, each was asked to recommend an additional three participants.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used to collect the data: a demographic questionnaire and the auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT).

Demographic questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire was in a paper-and-pencil format. It has 13 questions about the participants (age, gender, ethnic background, education, and teaching experience) and their language background (country of birth, first language, home language, and foreign language).

The auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT). The computer-based auditory IAT was used for this study. It measured automatic evaluative associations of two accented English (i.e., Latino- and Standard-) and two attributes (i.e., Good and Bad). The auditory IAT protocol for this study included eight sound stimuli and eight text stimuli. Latino- and Standard-accented speakers were selected from the Speech Accent Archives website (accent.gmu.edu) maintained by Weinberger (2014) at the George

Mason University. The selection criteria for the speakers were that they were males in their 20s and 30s, Standard-accented speaker was from the mid-Atlantic region in the US, and Latino-accented English speaker started to learn English as a foreign language at around 12 years old and lived in the US less than two years. The speakers read a short passage with neutral content. The words were downloaded. Eight digital sound files, each lasted about five seconds, were used as audio stimuli for this study. The text stimuli consisted of four bipolar pairs of traits describing evaluative judgment of language attitudes. They were: intelligent-ignorant, competent-helpless, friendly-aloof, and pleasant-rude.

The auditory IAT for this study was based on the method of standard and visual IAT, simply known as the IAT. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) introduced the IAT for the first time. In 1998, Greenwald, McGhee, and Schwartz released a more advanced version. The IAT measures reaction time, called latencies in the IAT studies, of participants to assess implicit attitudes. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) claimed the IAT could capture implicit attitudes that were under the control of automatically activated evaluation without the participants' awareness of that causation. Banaji and Greenwald (2013) claimed that the effectiveness of the IAT lies in the premise that individuals hold stereotypes or biases as a result of the accumulated past experiences stored in the human brain. They further explained that the participants cannot set aside these established stereotypes while they perform the IAT tasks.

Procedure

The demographic questionnaire and auditory IAT were administered in one session. The demographic questionnaire was in a paper-and-pencil format. The auditory IAT was computer-based. The researcher administered the auditory IAT to one person at a time in a quiet room. The researchers' laptop computer with built-in microphones was used to collect data. Once a participant sat in front of a laptop computer, each received the same verbal task instructions regarding how to take the auditory IAT. The participants had a chance to practice two trial blocks to familiarize themselves with two types of stimuli and task format. The audio clips and visual texts were presented in a series of testing blocks. Participants responded to the researcher-assigned association-compatible pairings (e.g., Standard accent/Good) or association-incompatible parings (e.g., Standard accent/Bad) using two response keys, E or I key, on the computer keyboard. They were instructed to respond as quickly and accurately as possible.

The basic concept of this version of the IAT protocol was as follows. If test participants exhibited the briefest of hesitations when they were hearing an accented audio clip and saw it associated with the keyboard key that they were instructed to associate with "good attributes," then a potential bias was indicated when compared to their responses of a Standard- and Latino-accented English. In the protocol, the participants were asked to repeat these associations numerous times building a body of responses that generated the final IAT scoring at the end of the test.

Data Analysis

The data for this study were collected during seven-week period in Fall, 2015. A total number of 93 (N = 93) college instructors participated. The data analyses were conducted using SAS software.

Demographic Data

Among the 93 participants, there were 53 females (57%) and 40 males (43%). The age of participants ranged from 23 to 73 years old (*M* = 38.8, *SD* = 11.5). The range of teaching experience in years was from 0.5 years to 45 years (*M* = 10.7, *SD* = 9.5). There were nine bachelor's degree holders (9.7%), 46 master's (49.4%), and 38 doctorates (40.9%). The number of non-white (*n* = 47) and white (*n* = 46) was almost the same with 50.5% and 49.5% respectively. Among non-white (*n* = 47), the Asians (*n* = 20) represented the highest portion followed by Blacks (*n* = 13), Latinos (*n* = 6), Bi-racials (*n* = 6), and Middle Easterners (*n* = 2).

The participants were born in 20 different countries. More than half (*n* = 57, 61.5%) of participants were born in the US while the rest (*n* = 36, 38.7%) were born in Vietnam (*n* = 7), China (*n* = 5), Korea (*n* = 4), Venezuela (*n* = 3), Turkey (*n* = 2), and Taiwan (*n* = 2). One participant each was born in 13 different countries. As for the language background of study participants, English was the first language (L1) of 59 participants (63.5%). The rest of the participants (*n* = 34) described 13 different languages as L1. All of the participants attempted to learn foreign languages at certain points in their lives. However, 34 participants (36.6%) did not speak any foreign language, nine spoke two, and two spoke three foreign languages. There were two participants who spoke four to five foreign languages.

Implicit Accent Preference Data.

The auditory IAT measured latency (i.e., response time) of participants in milliseconds and produced *d* scores which determined the implicit preferences. The *d* scores vary from -2 to +2 and indicates the direction and magnitude of association. A score of zero indicates no preference. The *d* scores of Standard- vs. Latino-accented English were obtained which could be interpreted as implicit preference. For descriptive statistics, see Table 1 for the means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence interval of the auditory IAT *d* scores.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and 95% of Confidence Intervals of the Auditory IAT d Scores

Accent category	*M*	*SD*	95% CI
Standard- vs. Latino-	0.185	0.426	[1.020, -0.650]

Note. N = 93; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; CI = confidence interval.

The mean of the *d* scores for the Standard- vs. Latino- (*M* = 0.185) was positive. According to the scoring algorithm description in Inquisit 4.0 program (Draine, 2014), a positive mean of the *d* scores indicates a preference for the left side category and a negative mean of *d* scores indicates a preference for the right side category. The scoring algorithm section also describes the interpretations of *d* scores of the IAT regarding the strength of a preference. The *d* score between -0.15 and 0.15 indicates no preference.

The positive and negative *d* scores of 0.15, 0.35, and 0.65 are thresholds to indicate slight, moderate, and strong preferences respectively. Based on the interpretations of *d* scores of the IAT, the college instructors who participated in this study indicated a slight preference for the Standard-accented English over Latino-accented English.

Regression Analysis

The regression equation analysis was conducted to determine the effects of gender, teaching experience, language background, race/ethnicity, and rank on the implicit accent preferences. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the researcher checked the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance. To evaluate the normality, the skewness (0.1177) and kurtosis (-0.1410) of the residuals from the regression model were calculated. The absolute values for skewness and kurtosis were within "1" indicating that the normality assumption was not violated. To assess the homogeneity of variance, the researcher checked the residuals against the predicted values. They scattered equally around "0" line indicating that the assumption of homogeneity was not violated. See Table 2 for the regression analysis for outcome of Standard- vs. Latino-accented English model.

Table 2
Regression Analyses for Outcome of Standard vs. Hispanic-accented English Model
Regression Analysis for Outcome of Standard- vs. Latino-accented English Model

Predictor variable	*b*	*SE*	*p**
Intercept	0.1576	0.1564	0.3162
Gender	-0.0557	0.0922	0.5478
Teaching experience (years)	-0.0049	0.0062	0.4368
Language background (L1)	0.0830	0.1153	0.4737
Race/ethnicity	0.0287	0.1109	0.7963
Rank	0.0779	0.1187	0.5133
	$r = 0.1944$	$R^2 = 0.0378$	

Note. *N* = 93; *b* = *β* coefficient, *SE* = standard error; **.05 α* level.

The effects of each predictor variable on implicit preference score are presented by the beta coefficients (*b*). The difference between male and female participants was -0.0557 in the implicit preference score given other variables being constant. In other words, male participants had 0.0557 point higher score than females on average. However, the results suggested no significant effect of gender on the implicit preference score, since the *p* value of gender variable was 0.5478, which was greater than .05 alpha level.

Regarding the teaching experience, the more years of experience the college instructors had, the average implicit preference score was 0.0049 point lower. For the language background, participants whose home language was not English had an average 0.0830 point lower score than the ones whose home language was English. For the race/ethnicity, non-white participants had an average 0.0287 point lower than white on the implicit preference score. For the rank, teaching assistants had an average 0.0779 point lower than faculty on the implicit preference score. However, the result suggested the teaching experience, language background, race/ethnicity, and rank had no significant effect on the implicit preference score since all the p values were greater than .05 alpha level.

Findings

Research question 1 was "What are the implicit preferences of college instructors toward Latino-accented English as by the auditory Implicit Association Test (IAT)?" The results indicated the 93 college instructors ($N = 93$) who participated in this study had slight implicit preference for Standard-accented English over Latino-accented English. Research questions 2-6 were "Does this implicit preference differ by gender, teaching experience, language background, race/ethnicity, and rank?" A regression analysis for outcome of Standard- vs. Latino-accented English model suggested gender, teaching experience, language background, race/ethnicity, and rank had no significant effects on the implicit preference scores.

Concluding Remarks

The purpose of this study was to examine the implicit language attitudes of college instructors ($N = 93$). The researcher customized a widely used psychometric instrument, commonly known as the IAT, to assess the implicit attitudes toward Standard- vs. Latino-accented English. The effectiveness of the IAT lies in the premise that individuals hold stereotypes or bias as a result of accumulated past experiences stored in the human brain. The participants cannot set aside these established stereotypes while they perform the IAT tasks.

Based on the results of this research, there were slight biases toward Latino-accented English in favor of Standard-accented English. Gender had no effect on the implicit preferences towards Latino-accented English. Similarly, home language background, the years of teaching experience, home language, race/ethnicity, and rank had no effect on the implicit preferences towards Latino-accented English.

Limitations

The previous IAT studies have mostly been visual. For this study, the researcher imbedded audio stimuli in Inquisit 4.0 software which was released in 2014. Although the result of this manipulation opened a new way to measure implicit accent bias, this study has limitations. This protocol was formally used for the first time with the latest

software version. Attempts to control voice tone, accent strength (understandability), and speech rate of the accented English speakers were made so that they were as similar as possible. However, the researcher's experience with administering the test indicated that more emphasis was needed on controlling these attributes of the audio clips. In addition, task-irrelevant errors could have occurred due to environmental confounding factors such as incidental background noises during the test administrations.

Implications and Recommendations

College instructors in this study seemed to have a slight preference toward Standard-accented English over Latino-accented English. Faculty, educational administrators, and students could use this study as a topic of discussion in faculty development, teaching assistant training, student services, diversity training, and hiring practices in higher education institutions. It potentially would aid in raising the awareness about hidden-yet-present accent bias and prevention of potential prejudice toward Latino-accented English speakers.

Further research can be conducted to examine the source of some biases toward Latino-accented speakers. In addition, to help move the implicit accent studies to next phase, further research regarding under what conditions these implicit accent biases will predict and change behavior can be conducted. This study can also be expanded to examine the hidden accent bias in different sectors in society. It might help shed light on understanding how this type of bias impacts different relationships in society.

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EXPERIMENTING WITH THEORY OF CHANGE FOR INTERCULTURALITY AND MUTUAL LEARNING IN ADULT EDUCATION

Annalisa L. Raymer, Ph.D.[1]

ABSTRACT: With a goal of creating conditions wherein college students of adult learning paired with international adult learners form mutual partnerships for educational mentoring, where to begin? How to take into account the contextual factors and priorities of multiple stakeholders in creating academic courses and learning-focused partnerships while staying focused on a core aspiration: that of fostering meaningful relationships across differences of age, class, country of origin, educational attainment, first language and life course position? Theory of change (ToC), a process from the field of evaluation, is a means of mapping out pathways from initial conditions toward desired outcomes. Theory of Change is a powerful heuristic for acknowledging significant aspects of context, bigger picture perspectives, and stakeholder interests. I find particular value and relevancy of ToC as a planning tool for curriculum design, especially in the complex conditions of community-engaged courses. Importantly, mapping a change theory serves as a way to involve stakeholders, creating in this case, a wide-ranging constituency including culture communities, union leaders, campus service workers, academic leaders, administrators, and undergraduate students. With Theory of Change, curriculum design and program development progresses with a clear-eyed embrace of actual circumstances. When informed by such pragmatics, the act of planning toward an aspirational vision gains "robust hopefulness." An actionable characteristic, *robust hopefulness* is handy when returning to a campus years after the demise of its Education Department and setting about to re-establish and make relevant the field of adult education.

Keywords: Theory of Change, robust hope, democratic praxis, curriculum mapping

The notion of *robust hope* is a term found in print since the late 1800s, and until recently, most often in religious contexts. Over approximately the past dozen years, the language of hope and robust hopefulness has been increasingly appearing in the educational literature. In this context, robust hope refers to a pragmatic, "multi-faceted contemporary expression of social justice" (Singh & Shrestha, 2006, p. 1). Webb (2013) frames different *pedagogies of hope*, within a more general understanding of hope as "a socially mediated human capacity with varying affective, cognitive, and behavioural dimensions" (p. 397). A picture of hope with some muscle—or least a degree of proactive fitness— begins to emerge. Sawyer and collaborators speak of "the robust hope project," which they link to the work of Henry Giroux and others who connect education, democracy, and hope (Sawyer et al., 2007, p. 229). According to Sawyer and co-authors, "the robust hope project relies on a number of key resources: utopianism, an enhanced vision of democracy, agency, a futures orientation, a research-based approach, sustainability and resilience" (p., 228). Here is a portrayal of robust hope not as a naïve, utopian ideal, but rather a culture of praxis, one with full recognition of deep-seated inequalities even while maintaining a steadfast commitment to teach and cultivate habits, knowledge, and relational action to create more just policies and conditions (See also Singh & Han, 2007; Singh & Sawyer, 2008; McInerney, 2007).

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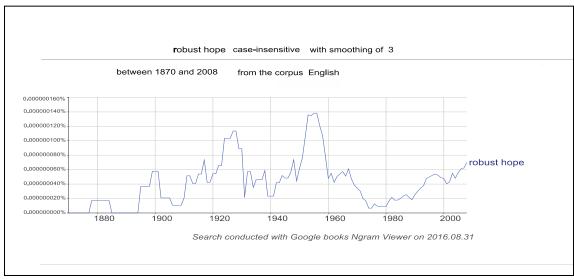
Figure 1. Frequency of term "robust hope" (English corpus), lexical analysis 1870-2008

A good measure of robust hopefulness is both instrumental and expressive when approaching the task of breathing new life back into an adult education program that had long languished after the closure of a university's department of education nearly a decade before. Even prior to the department's demise, the population served by the adult education program had shifted away from a primarily local staff who sought literacy and adult basic education. Over time the composition of the employee population became increasingly diverse, with a higher percentage of immigrant service staff members coming to the program for assistance with learning English. Additionally, the nature of the work became more dependent on technology, prompting a growing interest in learning computer productivity. I came into the position with the program on hiatus, and without the benefit of overlapping with anyone who had been previously involved in the operations or related courses, even something as seemingly apparent as a shift in employee interests was a matter of discovery rather than a given.

As described before, robust hope requires more than a can-do spirit; to re-establish a program outside of a department would require researching, identifying stakeholders, initiating relationships, framing priorities, and making plans. A tall order, but one for which the heuristic called Theory of Change (ToC) can provide a means of beginning and going forward.

Theory of Change

A theory of change (ToC) is a tool for developing solutions to complex social problems. A basic ToC explains how a group of early and intermediate accomplishments sets the stage for producing long-range results. A more complete ToC articulates the assumptions about the process through which change will occur and specifies the ways in which all of the required early and intermediate outcomes related to achieving the desired long-term change will be brought about and documented as they occur (Anderson, 2005).

Theory of change is often regarded as both process and product. As a process ToC is a means of mapping out pathways for achieving a desired outcome, the product of which includes graphics and narratives created collectively through a series of critical thinking activities. As such, both the process and visualizations facilitate making visible and accessible the thinking and assumptions that inform plans and program designs. Evaluator Carol Weiss (1995), one of the originators of ToC, noted that the concept of grounding evaluation in theories of change takes for granted that social programs are based on explicit or implicit theories about how and why the program will work (p. 66). In the often-referenced work of Fulbright-Anderson, Connell, and Kubish (1998) on new approaches to evaluating community change, the authors emphasized a theory of change approach to evaluation as "as a systematic and cumulative study of the links between activities, outcomes, and contexts of the initiative" (p. 16). Both definitions, while admirable in their simplicity, suggest an application of change mapping for describing a program. Not as evident are the more anticipatory, predictive and even diagnostic potential usages of theory of change for design. Now that ToC has been in use in multiple settings for several decades, the concept and practice has evolved in multiple directions, and descriptions, both simple and complex, abound.

It's a Bird, It's a Plane, It's a Theory of Change!

A lack of consensus regarding protocols, procedures, and modes of representation further complicates the challenge of definition. Moreover, the multiple views about what a theory of change comprises is matched by a spectrum of purposes ascribed to its use. Accordingly, it is perhaps more accurate to speak of "ToC approaches" rather than a singular understanding of theory of change. Attempts to scan the landscape and make sense of the concept have resulted in a number of review articles in fields in and beyond the evaluation literature, such as public health (Breuer, Lee, De Silva, & Lund 2016) and international development (Stein & Valters, 2012; Vogel, 2012a). Notable in the review by Stein and Valters is their suggestion to think of the purposes for which users employ ToC as positioned along a continuum with, at one end, a view of ToC as a technical tool, and, at the other end, as an avenue by which participants gain "political literacy," while in the middle of the spectrum they place "ToC thinking" (Stein & Valters, p. 5).

While I admire the conceptual insight this continuum provides, I opt to construct the spectrum a little differently. At one side I place ToC as a product, one with particular emphasis on the various genre for graphically representing relationships and assumptions among elements along pathways of expected change. Next, I position ToC as semi-structured process employing a backwards planning approach or way of thinking. In this mode, users of ToC draw from a variety of critical thinking activities to generate program theory. Finally, at the other far side I situate ToC as a democratic praxis, one which not only serves to generate program theory within a wider consideration of contextual factors, but is explicitly accountable to a vision of public good and practiced with a staunch commitment to collaborative capacity building, direction-setting and ongoing learning.

Borrowing the idea of a continuum then, the one I envision looks like this:

ToC = product	ToC = process	ToC = democratic praxis
As a set of graphic conventions for making thinking visible, of representing relationships among elements, of illustrating assumptions, preconditions and outcomes along pathways of expected change.	As a backwards planning approach utilizing a set of critical thinking and analytical exercises to facilitate identification of assumptions, aspirations, outcomes strategies, activities and indicators.	As a public-minded capacity-building practice for naming and articulating preferred futures, catalyzing alliances, and working collaboratively to frame outcomes of long, medium and short term within delineated fields of action and influence, and constructing strategies for accomplishing change while setting up means of specifying necessary preconditions and actions as well as setting up means of *assessment as learning* within the initiative.

Terminology can be a bit treacherous and is frequently noted as a barrier in ToC literature. A phrase I used in the description of ToC as praxis warrants explanation: "delineated fields of action and influence." As with systems thinking, change mappers have to set the boundaries of their system. Those aspirations, which the initiators cannot directly or even indirectly influence, are held to be beyond the realm for which the participants can reasonably take responsibility. In some conventions of graphic representation of ToC maps, the ultimate aspiration, while kept in mind as the vision toward which the work being designed strives, is situated above a "line of accountability." The outcomes below the line of accountability are those initiators regarded as within their field of influence and action.

A Theory of Change *Process*

Among multiple descriptions of a ToC as a mapping process certain key elements are common across most, if not all. Primary among these are:

- Situating a long-term aim, sometimes in the service of an articulated preferred future or aspirational ideal, at the top of the map;
- Specifying the existing conditions extant at the start of the process at the bottom of the map; and
- Backwards (or sometimes bi-directional) mapping in tiers to identify what state would need to be accomplished (precondition) in order to achieve the outcome above it. Eventually a path running between the long-term aim and the existing conditions is constructed with short- and medium-term outcomes in between.
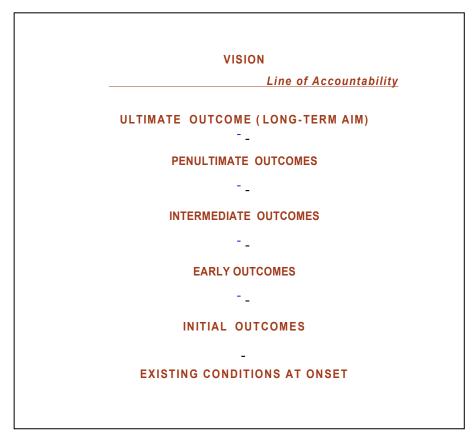
Many descriptions of ToC also include the steps of naming and questioning underlying assumptions and, for each outcome, identifying indicators for determining when an outcome is achieved. The relationship among tiers within the map is such that each row serves as pre-conditions necessary for the outcomes in the row above. In this manner, each element within a tier is simultaneously an outcome of the tier below and a precondition of the tier above. With this in mind, the statements, which comprise these elements, are usually written as if the state has already been achieved (or the action taken). Thus, checking the reasoning of the map can be readily sounded by inserting the phrase "only if" when reading the map downwards from the top, or, if reading upwards from the bottom, by inserting the phrase, "so that." For example, picture two elements in a change map which state: "Students design weekly teaching plans and write a session debrief and reflection after each weekly Learning Partner meeting. Instructors comment on debriefs and share adult learner feedback" and "Student partner learns about the skills and life stories of her/his adult partner, in part, to tailor teaching strategies for the individual." With the second statement in the tier beneath the first one, we can read a shorter excerpt of this part of the map downwards with the "only if" insertion:

> Students design and facilitate weekly teaching plans and then write a
> session debrief reflecting after each weekly Learning Partner meeting
> and assessing the effectiveness of the plan and how the session went.
> ONLY IF Student partners learn about the skills and life stories of their
> adult partners, in part, to tailor teaching strategies for the individual.

Likewise, we can read the same pair of statements in an upward direction with the "so that" phrase inserted, like this:

> Student partners learn about the skills and life stories of their adult
> partners, in part, to tailor teaching strategies for the individual SO
> THAT Students design and facilitate weekly teaching plans and then
> write a session debrief reflecting after each weekly Learning Partner
> meeting and assessing the effectiveness of the plan and how the session
> went.

As is apparent, there is a close connection between the process and the visual representation. While space constraints preclude the inclusion of a full ToC schema, the most basic infrastructure of the conceptual mapping is easy to visualize, as illustrated in Figure 2.
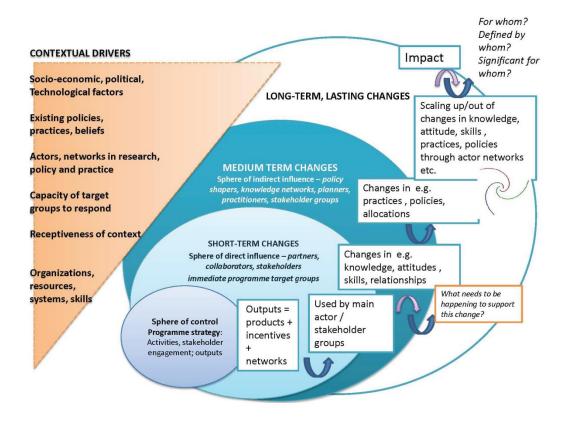
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│                         VISION                          │
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│                           Line of Accountability        │
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│                                                         │
│            ULTIMATE  OUTCOME ( LONG-TERM AIM)           │
│                           -  -                          │
│                  PENULTIMATE  OUTCOMES                   │
│                                                         │
│                           -  -                          │
│                  INTERMEDIATE  OUTCOMES                  │
│                                                         │
│                           -  -                          │
│                    EARLY OUTCOMES                       │
│                                                         │
│                           -  -                          │
│                   INITIAL  OUTCOMES                      │
│                                                         │
│                            -                            │
│              EXISTING CONDITIONS AT ONSET               │
│                                                         │
│                                                         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Modified after Anderson, 2006, p. 20

Figure 2. Simple schematic of Theory of Change

Less easy to capture is the sense of scale. A mapping process can be used for a single project, for a multi-site program, for a national policy, or an international initiative. Within whichever unit attention is directed, the process entails, as the simple graphic above suggests, a chain of cumulative impact. Vogel (2012b), in her guide to working with ToC for research projects, provides a good illustration, presented here on the following page (Figure 3). Not only does Vogel's illustration provide a sense of decreasing proximity in relation to increasing impact, the graphic includes some of the contextual factors as well. This representation begins to convey in a snapshot the potential of ToC for developing robust hopefulness by starting with those things the initiators can most readily control and expanding outward to areas of less direct influence but greater lasting change.

In her guide to working with ToC for research projects, Vogel provides a very good illustration (titled, "Visual Illustration of the Main Elements to Consider in a Theory of Change Analysis," p. 6). Not only does Vogel's illustration provide a sense of decreasing proximity in relation to increasing impact, the representation conveys, in a snapshot, the potential of ToC for developing robust hopefulness by starting with those things the initiators can most readily control and expanding outward to areas of less direct influence but greater lasting change.

Adapted from Vogel, 2012(b); Morton, 2012; Montague, 2011. Used by permission.

Figure 3. Visual illustration of elements to consider in a Theory of Change

To further illustrate how this approach can be employed in the service of robust hopefulness by one coming into an unknown situation to rally allies and make plans, I transition now to give a first person account of my entry into the "post-department" milieu of our university. I begin with a brief history of the twenty-six year old adult education program for service employees at Cornell University, the Community Learning and Service Partnership, CLASP. As will become evident, the relationship between CLASP and the academic education courses in adult learning offered at Cornell are closely interconnected.

The Community Learning and Service Partnership, CLASP

Begun in 1990, Cornell's adult education program, the Community Learning and Service Partnership celebrated its silver (25th) anniversary in 2015. Five years previously, in marking the 20th birthday, Ruth Bonous, the founder of CLASP, sketched a brief history. Bonous described how Cornell received very modest federal funds to further adult literacy, after conferring with the director of the local literacy agency,

> It became clear to me that those in need of literacy services were present, and yet invisible to those of us at Cornell. They were the Cornell employees who provide the most basic and essential services to the University: housekeepers, food service workers, custodians, and

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groundskeepers. At the time Cornell had excellent continuing education courses available for most of its employees. However, the level of the courses and course meeting times were not compatible for the group just mentioned.

I met with Cornell management, including human resources, and with the United Auto Workers Union that represented these employees. Both groups supported beginning a literacy program. With the support of the UAW, Cornell management agreed to allow the employees in the program to meet with literacy tutors during paid work time. This agreement was, and is, crucial to the program because many employees have childcare responsibilities, hold a second job, or live at such a distance from campus that after work schooling is not feasible. (Bonous, 2010, pp. 2-3)

Thus the origins of the Community Learning and Service Partnership entailed community input, union and management support and a lecturer, Bonous, committed to service learning. While much has changed since then, that CLASP and the affiliated academic courses continue is a testament not to a campus-wide awareness of the program and courses, but rather to the deep commitment on the part of a stalwart minority who are familiar with the academic courses and the adult education opportunity for service employees. After the initial federal grant, the university's central Office of Human Resources assumed the program costs, viewing CLASP as an avenue of educational growth for a population of not served by other university professional development offerings. With a mutually agreeable arrangement, the Education Department in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences welcomed the opportunity to become the academic home of the adult learning courses and the CLASP program when the College of Human Ecology closed its Field and International Study Program in 1997.

In a surprising turn of events, Cornell began dismantling its Education Department a dozen years later, with the departmental closure completed by 2009. Once a flag bearer for Adult Education and home to the journal, *Adult Education Quarterly*, names of Cornell education faculty familiar to those in the Adult Education field include Rosemary Caffarella, Arthur (Butch) Wilson, and J. David Deshler. Faculty remaining at the time of closure either found places in other departments, at other institutions, or retired.

Here, then, was the challenge–to:

1. Investigate and define the best "fit" between CLASP mission and our contemporary Cornell context.
2. Seek clarity for CLASP programming priorities given the updated information uncovered
3. Redesign the courses to both facilitate student access and achieve the intended aims.

This challenge eventually led to a series of three stakeholder convenings and the construction of not one but three interlocking theory of change maps: one for the student experience, one for the employee experience, and one future-looking map for program directions and opportunities to bring into being or be ready to recognize.

Sample of Outgrowths from Collective Mapping

Out of the mapping convening, a dual theme of particular interest to members of the Commission on International Adult Education emerged: interculturality and mutual learning. In recognition of the shift in the employee population to a larger percentage of immigrants, a couple of threads arose. With respect to students, we saw that we needed to equip students with awareness and tools for being respectfully interested in others' experiences, perspectives and cultural practices. With respect to adult learners, we saw that we needed to provide the employees with student Learning Partners who were better trained to effectively mentor language learners.

The mapping exercise thus led to framing specific learning outcomes for students, which, in turn, suggested learning activities for achieving those aims. For example, one learning outcome reads: "Examine roadblocks to intercultural communication and practice strategies for mitigating barriers through role-playing techniques for transforming situations of bullying, disrespect or cultural faux pas." Toward accomplishing that outcome, course strategies included a workshop on intercultural communication and co-development by the student and the adult learning partner of a set of mutually agreed upon questions for a StoryCorps interview. The class took part in StoryCorps' first national Great Thanksgiving Listen, interviewing their adult learner instead of a relative.

Similarly, the program directions map identified the prospects of developing a language teaching curriculum with the possibility of students being able to earn a TESOL certificate. Toward that end, we have piloted one course, Partnering for Citizenship, which introduced basic English language instruction to students whose adult partners were interested in applying for the U.S. citizenship exam but for whom language was an obstacle. Next semester (Spring 2017) we will pilot an Introduction to Teaching English course. In this respect, we have begun meeting with campus stakeholders and exploring the state process for seeking approval for a certificate program.

Recapping

Theory of change is not merely a method; it is an intentional approach to involving diverse stakeholders in shaping together the design of an initiative with perspectives of multiple voices in a way that makes the thinking visible and accessible both to participants and, in the form of the resultant map, to others not involved in the process. In such mapping endeavors, there are fundamentally two roles: that of, (a) eliciting and facilitating the process, and (b) articulating the content of the map. Mapping a theory of change begins with articulating the top and bottom of the map. Just as making a ToC map includes specifying initial conditions, which are then positioned at the bottom of the map, it equally entails articulating a vision—located at the top. In ToC terminology, the vision

is positioned above a *line of accountability* while the program (or course) outcomes are located at the accountability line. To translate, this means the vision informs the work, but while ToC mappers are not realistically committing to bringing about elements of the preferred future beyond their realm of direct and indirect influence, they are dedicating themselves to achieving the stated outcomes (Iversen, 2014, p. 20).

Constructing a theory of change is a process of articulating and testing the reasoning and assumptions that inform choices of strategies and ways of working to achieving the desired outcomes. Theory of change is not a completely static blueprint of the cognitive and contextual infrastructure of a program, and in this case, courses, but more a dynamic heuristic for surfacing (and questioning) a plausible path of action and outgrowth for getting from an initial set of conditions through a journey to a new, preferred state. The application of ToC for course design developed by my colleagues and me is possibly unique, but seems to me to be a natural addition to the use of backwards planning approaches embraced in many fields and well-articulated in education as, for example, by Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe in *Understanding by Design* (2005). Furthermore, many, including James P. Connell, one of the editors of the seminal series on new approaches to evaluating community change, has been using theory of change in educational policy contexts such as planning urban education reform (Connell & Klem, 2000) and evaluating public investments in public education (Connell & Klem, 2002).

If, as architect William McDonough has famously said, "design is the first signal of human intention," then the course design, as well as the interface between courses and an adult education program, is primary (McDonough & Braungart, 2012, p. 4). Design does not take place in a vacuum; this is where ToC is a very useful tool for mapping out pertinent consideration and factors; that is, for scoping the terrain, both conceptually and pragmatically, within which the course and education program are planted. With our pathway mapped, we were able to identify points in the course in which *assessment as learning*, rather than assessment *of* learning, can be employed with well-designed assignments to provide a window into the students' development over the course of the semester (e.g. see Raymer and Horrigan, 2015). By looking to the tier above, we can describe the design specifications of an assignment: i.e., what "work" the assignment needed to accomplish in order for students to progress along the pathway toward the ultimate aim of the course.

Theory of Change, then, is one means of cultivating robust hopefulness, of making a grounded plan from the ideal vision which inspires our work and mapping pathways out of our actual contexts to move us toward that future.

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THE KEY-ROLE OF TEACHERS WITHIN THE ITALIAN SCHOOL-WORK ALTERNATION PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT: The EU through the flagship initiative "Youth on the move" promoted by *Europe 2020 Strategy* (European Commission2010), invites State Members to improve educational outcomes, at every level of education using an integrated approach, as a way to connect formal and informal learning, theory and practice, because only within the experience, can a theory find its vital and verifiable meaning (Dewey, 1916). The aim is not only to offer students opportunities to develop key competences, but also to reduce drop out. The Italian practice of School-Work Alternation (SWA) in secondary schools is a response to the European recommendation and part of Work-Related programs, whose aim is to integrate formal and informal approaches in order to develop students' soft skills, professional competences, and to allow them to live vocational guidance. This contribution presents the key-role of teachers as being responsible for the realization of SWA programs. The paper is part of a wider research effort and discusses the results of 14 interviews aimed at 7 teacher-tutors and 7 teacher–coordinators, in 7 different secondary school, (VET and general education), located in five Northern Italian regions.

Keywords: School-Work Alternation, situated learning, partnership, Activity Theory, boundary crossers

The transformation that today characterizes society is caused by different phenomena: on one side the internationalization of markets, the new mass migration and the progressive development of national forms of state, towards new supranational and multiethnic configurations that are drawing a new geography of the world; on the other side the new technologies, the computerization that has created a radical revolution of space-time categories, moving from the continuous succession, as aspects of learning and of doing, to the discontinuous simultaneity dimension; we have passed from a linear world to a complex universe. The virtual world is becoming more a real world; therefore, new categories and new principles are supporting the knowledge. In this new perspective the linear passage from the possession of cognitive skills to that of professional and interpersonal skills is no longer a process able to rule the world and to help people orient themselves. In the complex world it is necessary to have luggage of knowledge as result of a simultaneous integration of cognitive, professional, and relational knowledge. Today we are observing the end of an instructional system where education and training, as two faces of the same coin, have lived for long time in a separated way and within an independent space. This transition from linear to complex paradigm breaks the systems' integrity, asking the educational system to change and to exploit the different kinds of learning and knowledge, within an integration capable of pollinating the knowledge, the relationships, the identities, and the learning contexts. The importance of introducing an integrated approach within the educational system and efficient partnerships between educational system and workplace is strongly suggested by the EU (European Parliament, 2000; European Commission, 2010) as a way not only to develop key

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competences useful to take part in the knowledge society, but also as a way to reduce drop out. In particular, within the strategy Europe 2020 a special space is dedicated to young peole with the flagship initiative "Youth on the move" with the aim of inviting the members States to improve young people's education and employability, by making education and training more relevant to young people's needs, by encouraging more of them to take advantage of EU grants to study or train in another country, or by simplifying the transition from education to work in every EU country. This attention to young people is due to the fact that over 5 million young people (under 25) are unemployed in the EU-28 area with the 23.2% of unemployment rate that is twice as high as the adult unemployment rate (9.0%), and 7.5 million young Europeans between 15 and 24 are Neither in Employment, nor in Education or Training (NEET).[2] The same necessity to create strong partnerships between the two systems is strongly supported by the Italian policies (D.Lgs. n. 77/2005; L. n. 107/2015); in fact, with the objective of overcoming the current crisis of learning, which unfortunately in Italy still recorded negative results referring to the drop out levels (17%), unemployment (21.7%), the presence of population NEET (29.3%) (Cedefop, 2014), since 2004, many programs of School-Work Alternation (SWA) are being implemented for secondary school students, as a way to integrate formal and informal learning, to connect theory and practice. If these programs until 2015 were implemented at the experimental level, with the most recent law on educational Italian system (L.n.107/2015) they become compulsory for all secondary schools: within vocational and technical pathways with 400 hours and within general education with 200 hours spent in workplaces, during the last three years of secondary school. SWA in this way becomes an integrated part of instructional and training pathways of every Italian student. From this perspective SWA is considered as a way to innovate didactics and school programs, in order to overcome the inability of traditional educational systems to create congruence between the formal learning and the real contexts' needs. It is that schools lack competence described clearly by Resnick (1987) through four elements of discontinuity between the formal and informal contexts: (a) while the school focuses on individual activities, the real contexts involve individuals within shared cognitive activities; (b) the school supports the thinking development only through mental activities, while the extra school activities include handling objects and experimenting practices; (c) the school nurtures symbolic thinking, while the situations require the ability to act a contextualized thinking; (d) even if the school promotes general skills development, external reality demands people with specific and situated skills.

All these considerations and the European Union recommendation can support educational institutions to reflect on the possibility of innovating didactics, teaching and learning methodologies, through their openness to external world in which students need to take part for their life.

At this point it is necessary to explain what is SWA within the Italian context. Its structure is similar to the international practices of Work-Related Learning (WRL) that "involves learning **F**or, **A**bout, and **T**hrough work." The acronym **FAT**, in fact, includes

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[2] http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=950&langId=en

"planned activities that use the context of work to develop knowledge, skills and understanding useful in work, including learning through the experience of work, learning about work and working practices, and learning the skills for work" (Lucas, 2010, p.3). Its real development requires the creation of a continuous process of learning between class-based and work-based learning, supporting the transfer of learning between work and education contexts. SWA has the same characteristics of WRL, but it needs to be deeply known by its actors. It corresponds to a complex paradigm, because it is composed of two intertwined factors: (a) on one side it is a situated practice, where knowledge and learning are developed thanks to the participation within communities of practice with their cultural activities and relationships (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Fabbri, 2007; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1995), and where theory learnt by students within formal context can find its vital and verifiable meaning (Dewey, 1916); (b) on the other side it is the result of an efficient partnership (Engeström, Engeström, & Vähäaho, 1999) between formal contexts and workplaces, where all people involved need to cooperate in order to create a new shared space of learning (Tino & Fedeli, 2015). It is a place where the two contexts meet each other with their culture and their differences, creating a kind of *dialogization*; in fact, "Dialogue is not simply between people and languages, but within people and between the frames that people use to categorize experience" (Gutierrez, Rymes, & Larson, 1995, p.446). In this new scenario, ASL, if its actors try understanding its double nature, will be the space for creating intentionally opened systems useful for solving problems that can no longer be solved individually (William, 2002).

This paper is supported by the Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) (Engeström, 2001) and focuses specifically on the key-role of some of its actors, teacher-tutors and teacher coordinators of ASL system, as important characters within ASL's partnerships, because they play the role of *boundary crossers* between the two systems.

Theoretical Framework

According to the Activity Theory of the third generation (Engeström, 2001) the interaction between systems can generate expansive learning through a cycle of collective transformation. It is a kind of change that requires the protagonists of systems to develop awareness of the following five principles that characterize the systems' nature: (a) the systems of activity are mediated by artifacts and are *goal oriented*; (b) every system has its traditions and its rules; it is composed of different people with different stories, therefore it is a *multifaced* and a *multivoiced* community where the same division of labor demands clarification and negotiation; (c) systems have their historicity, that needs to be known through their *rules, objects*, and *tools,* because they have shaped the systems' activity; (d) due to the nature of activity systems, within them there are a lot of differences and contradictions that generate disturbances and conflicts; it is exactly this phenomenon that can move the community forward a common vision and a collaborative effort in order to conceptualize the differences and promote the beginning of change and a wider horizon of possibilities of learning compared to the previous mode of the activity. This cycle of expansive transformation can be considered a collective journey through the *zone of proximal development (*Vygotsky 1934; 1978).

This awareness of the nature of systems can lead the actions of SWA key-actors for whom an efficient partnership demands involvement in a process made of two important elements: *policontestuality* and *boundary crossing* (Engeström, Engeström & Kärkkäinen, 1995). The first element helps not only students but also teacher-tutors and teacher-coordinators to take part in an active way of school and work contexts living different cultures, rules and traditions. In addition to their active involvement, they also serve as protagonists of the boundary crossing process helping teachers to leave their activity systems and to enter into unfamiliar boundaries, to gain more awareness of reasons for the whole boundary- crossing process, where SWA becomes the common *object* forward orienting the shared actions. To be protagonists of the boundary crossing process, it is supposed to mobilize interest, energy and creativity useful for creating boundary objects. It means that a real shared process of communication, monitoring and collaboration, needs to be intentionally built. The boundary crossing process is not a sufficient condition to promote learning within systems and for its actors, but a process of change and learning that demands the ability to create objects, tools, rules and shared activities (Kerosuo & Toiviainen, 2011). Therefore schools and workplaces to achieve an effective partnership, capable of generating expansive learning (Engeström, 2001), require an intentional cooperation, shared processes and objects that help systems to cross their boundaries.

Study Overview

This study is part of a wider research effort, whose objective is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of Italian School-Work Alternation programs. The collaboration of different school and workplace actors: teacher-tutors, teacher-coordinators, headmasters, teacher-committee, students, parents, tutors, and coordinators of SWA within workplaces has been very helpful. Specifically, the aim of this study is to investigate the key-role that teachers (tutors and coordinators) played within the Italian SWA programs.

Methodology

The context of research is the Northern part of Italy, where seven secondary schools of five different regions were selected from a rank of national list of schools that have implemented some SWA programs. They include four technical schools, one vocational school, two high schools (general education). The criteria of schools selection were: (a) the geographical area (different regions); (b) different kind of schools; (c) the highest rank score (from 88 to100) among the schools of the same region.

The methodology used during this specific study was a qualitative approach realized through fourteen semi structured interviews, an instrument that combines the flexibility demanded by the kind of the conversation, that allows the researchers to observe not only what they planned but also new elements, and the necessity to follow the draft interview as important condition to gather the information for the aim of the research. In summary, this kind of interview hast two specific advantages:, (a) the areas of investigation are defined in advance, allowing a systematic collection of data provided by the respondents; (b) its situational and conversational nature allows the interviewer and the interviewee to

feel comfortable (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Lucisano & Salerni, 2012). The dimensions of the semi -structured interview addressed to seven teacher-tutors and seven teacher-coordinators of SWA programs of different schools involved, had the same structure and they focused on: tasks of teacher-tutors or coordinators, internal and external communication, students 'training project, realization of the experience, students' and teachers' learning, evaluation of the experience, strengths and weaknesses of SWA experiences.

Analysis of Data

After the first contact with the principal of each school from the beginning of the research, which started in 2014, a detailed plan for the interview was defined with the teacher tutor and coordinators of every school. The interviews presented in this specific study were conducted from May to December 2015 in the same schools where teachers usually work. Every interview, which lasted about one hour and half, after having received the participants' consent were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim as electronic documents. The content analysis of the electronic documents was conducted through the software Atlas.ti.07, whose feature is its flexibility; in fact, even if it was created according to the principles of *Grounded Theory* (Gibbs, 2008) according to inductive criteria that enable the emergence of analysis categories (*bottom up approach*), it also allows the use of a deductive approach (*top down*), in the case of analyzing the content according to theoretical categories. The prevalent approach in this study was the second one, but also the first one found space when important elements were retrieved.
The procedures used for the content analysis through Atlas.ti included the: (a) preparation of *Primary Documents (PD)*; (b) preparation of the *Hermeneutic Unit* (HU) as space for gathering *PD, pre-codes* and *codes*, *group-families* and *networks*; (c) labeling of different *quotations* through two functions: *open coding* and *add coding*; some codes from the previous coding list were often selected, in cases of similar meaning; (d) definition of code families by means of Code Manager in order to describe the identified new macro-area; (e) the graphic presentation as networks of the most meaningful code families with their categories. This last process allowed the researchers to have a useful map of all categories. The whole process of analysis generated 14 PD and 549 codes.

Results

The results obtained from the data analysis process offered important information about the key-role of teacher-tutors and teacher-coordinators within the process of SWA programs. The areas investigated will be presented one by one. The teachers involved within the SWA process as tutors or as coordinators have some relevant tasks connected to their specific role, but they have also common tasks, because generally the coordinators are also tutors. The most important tasks for a SWA coordinator are to lead and monitor all the SWA projects within his/her school, identify teacher-tutors for a class or a group of students, elaborate a precise report of the activities as evaluation of the experiences. Other common and important tasks for tutors and coordinators are related to the development of partnerships with local representatives of workplaces, the constant relationship with students' tutor-workplaces, the organization of SWA experiences, the

correct student-workplace matching, the monitoring of the whole experience, the preparation of all the documents for the school and the workplace as *mediating artifacts* (students' log, grid of monitoring, grid of evaluation filled by workplaces tutors, periodic reports on students' SWA experiences to the teachers council), the periodic personal visiting within workplaces in order to monitor the students 'activities. These kind of tasks show how these teachers need to be able to constantly cross boundaries of the two systems, school and workplace, becoming efficient *boundary crossers*. This is demonstrated by the required ability of communication: at the internal level with headmasters, colleagues for reporting and with students for monitoring the experience, and solving eventually emerged problems within workplaces; at external level with representatives of world of work and workplaces tutors, who should guarantee the involvement of the students within the work community of practices, giving students support and explanations about the learning activities, giving their feedback or evaluation on the students' experience to the teacher-tutors. The soul of SWA programs is the personalized training project that should be the most important *boundary object* of this partnership. In fact, it should be the synthesis of the whole process: the reciprocal knowledge of the systems with their cultures, their objectives, their traditions, their competences. Furthermore, it includes the clarification and the negotiation of the SWA objectives as a possibility to create a *boundary zone (*Konkola, Tuomi-Gröhn, Lambert, & Ludvigsen, 2007), free of traditional rules or preset activities. In this sense it should represent the space where every system is invited to reflect on itself and on its culture, in order to express then its creativity for promoting change. In reality from the data emerged the observation that this important aspect is almost completely managed by teacher-tutors, even if it should be the most important shared process within the school and among all teachers, and between the school and the workplaces. Another investigated dimension was the realization of SWA experiences that included the phases before, during and after the experience that students live within workplaces. Before this experience teacher-tutors plan in collaboration with tutor-workplaces the period of the year in which students will spend at least two weeks within workplaces; they have to guarantee that students have completed the training safety course, and the preparation of all documents useful for the monitoring and evaluation process of the experience. During students' SWA activities teacher-tutors have to personally monitor the experiences through visits to some workplaces. When students have completed their activities and come back to school teacher-tutors require them to report on the lived experience and their logs, which are useful documents for monitoring and evaluating the process. But what is the kind of learning for students and teachers from these experiences? The respondents emphasized that the SWA experience promoted in students not only soft and professional skills development, but also problem- solving abilities, foreign languages skills, and knowledge about world of work with its professional language and culture. They recognized that these kinds of partnerships also promote their professional and personal learning and training, because it is an opportunity to improve their teaching methods, and provides the opportunity to improve their relationship with students, and improve their competences as tutors.

The focus on the evaluation dimension highlighted the complexity of this aspect. Actually, it should be one of the most important *boundary objects* (Akkerman & Bakker,

2011) of this shared process, but it does not present an harmonic and systematic structure among and within schools. In fact, if within a community of practice there should be the *division of labor*, why is the evaluation process of SWA experience strongly managed by the internal tutor and only in part by external tutor or teachers' committee? The lack of *division of labor* was registered within schools, and between the two systems. In fact, the external tutors generally fill in the evaluation grid that teacher-tutors give them, but they do not participate in a sharing process of building *boundary objects* (grid of evaluation, definitions of competences at the end of students' experiences). At the same time, within the schools, even if the whole class committee should be actively involved within the evaluation process, only teachers-tutors and coordinators are those people who really monitor students' workplaces experience, who usually write the evaluation reports on SWA experiences. In writing the report they take account of workplace tutors' grid evaluation or oral feedback, and, in some schools, of students' logs, or students' questionnaires, or oral students' feedback. The class committee usually takes cognizance of what teacher-tutors and coordinators report, but it does not play an active role.

In all schools the most important evaluation *tool* is the students' final report on their global evaluation of SWA experience that included information on the workplace environment, their learning, their relationship,. Until now another weak point of SWA evaluation has been the lack of a shared formal recognition of the experience.

In addition to these weak points some others were emphasized by participants. The additional weak points included lack of economic and human resources, the lack of teachers' competences, the lack of time and flexibility within the educational Italian system, but also the lack of the SWA culture. Other weak aspects are related to the difficulty to develop a shared students' training projects with workplaces actors, to change teachers' culture, to enhance the relationship with the external contexts, or to ensure a good training for internal and external tutors. Despite these weaknesses, participants emphasized some important strengths of the SWA program, such as the increase of students' motivation, responsibility, and commitment; the improvement of teachers professionalism and communication skills with real outcome on the didactics; the enhancement of relationships between schools and the local territory, allowing schools to be part of the local contexts; the improvement of relationship between teachers and students, thanks to the possibility for tutors to be seen by students as facilitators of their learning within an informal context.

Conclusion

The relationship between the two systems (School and Work) requires the recognition of boundaries as characteristics of organizations, and at the same time, the boundary roles as possibilities to create links between organizations and external environments (Aldrich & Herker, 1977). The results presented here have shown that within SWA programs, as part of Italian educational system for students of secondary schools, teacher- tutors and teacher-coordinators, are the people who play this important boundary- crossing role. They represent the schools outside, who introduce the schools' students to the external environments and connect school life with work life, showing contents, using methods to link those to the external environments' needs. They are the key school- actors who navigate between internal and external boundaries, because they are managing the

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internal and external communication processes. They are playing some important roles such as buffering, facilitating, mediating, filtering, and storing information for the future trying to enhance its social legitimacy. Besides the description of the key role of these teachers within the SWA programs, the aim of this study was to invite teachers and policy makers to reflect on the presence of boundary- crossing processes within these kind of programs, because they cannot be well realized without thinking or planning their double nature: as a situated learning experience (Cobb & Bowers, 1999; Lave & Wenger, 1991); as a partnership between systems that requires a formal recognition of boundary crossing process (Engeström et al., 1995; Engeström, 2001) and of boundary roles in order to think about appropriate training pathways for people involved in this process, and who must integrate very different objectives and requests of two different organizational systems, playing a dual professional identity (Richter, West, Van Dick, & Dawson, 2006).

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AN ANALYSIS OF EUROPE WITHIN ADULT EDUCATION LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT: This literature review analyzes how Europe is situated within adult education literature from 2005 to present. Europe as a place and an idea influences and is influenced by adult education as well as historical and current events. The conceptualization of Europe within the dynamic field of international adult education is a necessary realm of investigation in order to gauge trends in scholarly work to inform future inquiry. The literature related to adult education and Europe was analyzed to identify main themes and subthemes. Main themes include Europe situated as a space, a standard, and a voice. These themes lead to a discussion of the ideal vs. dominance, insider vs. outsider, and third space. The literature connotes specific centering with regard to context and geography suggesting a need to further explore lived experiences and worldviews, which may be less known or marginalized at the intersection of Europe and adult education.

Regions within international adult education fluctuate in organizational and strategic importance. Cavanagh's (2015) article "'Non-strategic' Eastern Europe and the Fate of the Humanities" scrutinizes what makes an academic area "non-strategic" in United States higher education. Part of Cavanagh's analysis is that the non-strategic label is a result of neoliberalism, which adult education scholars have examined in-depth (Leach, 2010; McLean, 2015). In addition to this critique of neoliberalism within higher education, I argue that the adult education field needs a current and broader picture of Europe within the literature in order to better map Europe and its relationship to our diverse foci within adult education. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to describe and analyze how Europe is situated within adult education literature.

Europe as a place and an idea influences and is influenced by adult education and historical and current events. At present, we are in the midst of Brexit, the well-known vote of the United Kingdom of Great Britain to leave the European Union, a migrant crisis in Europe, and a divided populace in European nations and the United States. The question, *How is Europe situated within adult education literature?* is of great interest to scholars whose work is based in European spaces. Such an analysis also may provide starting points to further explain and ground our work, including program planning for adult learners, in international spaces in an era of program elimination and isolationist movements to turn inward.

As European outsiders, insiders, and those walking a space in between, we have more to unpack about Europe in relationship to our adult education practice and research. I purposefully leave Europe undefined here so that the emergent concept as a focus of this paper develops within the analysis presented. The methodology of the analysis will be addressed first followed by a discussion of the thematic findings of a space, a standard, and a voice. Finally, points of discussion supported by a concept map, limitations, and implications will be explored.

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Methodology

The keywords "Europe" and "adult education" or "adult learning" were used to identify peer-reviewed texts with keywords as well as within abstracts. The parameters of 2005 – 2016 were used in order to hone the analysis on the recent geopolitical and social context. Texts that made a tangential reference to Europe without an incorporation of Europe into the whole of the analysis were excluded. Subsequently, 198 texts were selected for the analysis. Concept mapping (Carnot, 2006; Novak, 2010) was utilized as a strategy to organize the data into themes and sub-themes related to the main focus of analysis: How is Europe situated within adult education literature? This visual organization process facilitated the coding and a view of the interrelationship between themes.

Findings

Three main themes were identified in the thematic analysis: Europe was situated as a space, a standard, and a voice within adult education literature.

Space

Europe as a space emerged as the first theme. Within the literature, this space is addressed as a geographic area (Beblavy, Thum, & Potjagailo, 2014; Szakos, 2014) or a region of adult education partnerships (Billett, 2014; Dang, 2013; Garavan, Wilson, Cross, & Carbery, 2008; Hunter & Austin, 2015; Piazza, 2010).

How Europe is discussed as a space within adult education varies. In empirical studies on educational attainment, certain European countries may be grouped based on findings, for example, Nordic, Central European, and Ireland and the United Kingdom (Beblavy et al., 2014). Central and Eastern Europe and South Eastern Europe may be considered different geographic regions as well such as in the case of science education reform (Kapanadze & Eilks, 2014) and lifelong learning advocacy (Dimitrova, 2007). Literature focusing on the European Union (EU) (Szakos, 2014) may address Europe, but not all EU countries may be included. For example, Stanziola's (2011) study examining issues of monitoring and evaluation of lifelong learning in public libraries includes twelve European Union countries. How each independent nation state is situated within "the European setting" (Avis, Canning, Fisher, Morgan-Klein, & Simmons, 2012, p. 187) or "European space" (Lareki, de Morentin, & Amenabar, 2010, p. 491) is important within the literature as well, such as in the case of vocational educators in England and Scotland (Avis et al., 2012), ICT training for faculty in the autonomous Basque region of Northern Spain (Lareki et al., 2010), the recognition of experiential learning in France (Mehaut & Lecourt, 2009), and participation in continuing education in Germany (Ozturk & Kaufmann, 2009).

Regions of educational partnerships also comprised a space situated in Europe. These educational partnerships between continents, such as Asia and Europe (Dang, 2013); within Europe, such as European Union member state initiatives informed by the European Commission's Action Plan on Adult Learning (European Commission, 2007 as

cited in Buiskool, van Lakerveld, & Broek, 2009) or learning regions within Europe (Piazza, 2010); or in virtual or on-line spaces (Hunter & Austin, 2013; Manning, 2007). In a postmodern analysis, Europe may refer to a connecting space for adult learning in which Europe is a "learning region between pedagogy and economy" (Piazza, 2010, p. 402). "Learning cities and regions" (Preisinger-Kleine, 2013, p. 521) are also indicative of how Europe is situated within adult education literature. Educational partnerships may transcend the boundaries of the continent or the EU and represent Europe as a connector of ideas in a specific space.

Standard

Europe as a standard within the realm of adult education emerged as the second theme. Within the literature, a standard is defined as a policy (Alquézar Sabadie, Castaño Muñoz, Puni, Redecker, & Vuorikari, 2014; Biesta, 2006; Johnson, 2013; Lee, Thayer, & Madyun, 2008), a benchmark (Ala-Mutka, Gaspar, Kismihok, Suurna, & Vehovar, 2010; Boeren, 2012), or a framework (Bohlinger, 2012; Deissinger, 2009; Pirrie & Thoutenhoofd, 2013; Tierney & Clarke, 2008; Young, 2008).

Policy most often was referred to as a European policy (Alquézar Sabadie et al., 2014) related to various areas of adult education. For example, the European Union approach to open educational resources (OER) (Alquézar Sabadie et al., 2014) is an example of a policy impacting adult education and learning. European Commission programmes related to agreements such as the Bologna Process are also a focus on the European as a standard. Johnson (2013) discusses the Bologna process as an agreement to establish qualifications within European countries related to higher education. This process impacts adult education in areas such as library science and information studies (Johnson, 2013). Lifelong learning policies are another example of European Union policy that impacts adult education (Lee, Thayer, & Madyun, 2008) and agenda setting for policy, which have been critiqued by some for lack of a democratic approach (Biesta, 2006).

With regard to a benchmark, European is often determined as a benchmark to which countries need to maintain or strive to reach. This benchmark refers mainly to those within the European Union or those that aim to be part of the European Union. For example, Ala-Mutka et al. (2010) analyze the status of eLearning in ten European Union member states. They refer to existing digital divides as related to economic, regional, and social divides within some member states and discuss the ideal condition in information and communication technology (ICT) skills as one in which new member states such as Estonia, Hungary, and Slovenia still are "catching up to older member states" (Ala-Mutka et al., 2010, p. 494). In addition, there are European benchmarks on adult lifelong learning participation such as the Eurostat Adult Education Survey, with which Boeren (2014) notes some limitations and weaknesses for policy development. Therefore, the established European benchmarks also are debated within the literature.

A European framework is an undergirding system that may be formalized or simply considered a European approach informing a standard. Bohlinger (2012) discusses the challenges for European frameworks and lifelong learning and suggests motives to

participate in formal adult education are impacted by "labour market, education, and social policy" (p. 279) in a nation state, challenging the overall European approach, which Young (2008) argues should be treated as an important threat to social cohesion. Frameworks also may connote a perspective or philosophy to which European countries "need to cope" (Deissinger, 2009, p. 1) in areas such as vocational education and training and lifelong learning (Pirrie & Thoutenhoofd, 2013). European frameworks may be those instituted in agreements among individual nation states and are examined within the experiences of respective countries such as Ireland in the case of further education and training (Tierney & Clarke, 2008).

Voice

Europe as a voice emerged as the third theme around three sub-categories: a voice of solidarity (Boeren, Nicasise, & Baert, 2010; Castaño Muñoz, Redecker, Vuorikari, & Punie, 2013; Gornitzka, 2010; Harris, 2012; Lundvall, Rasmussen & Lorenz, 2008; Macha & Bauer, 2009; Negt, 2008), a voice of colonialism (Beyer, 2010; Geertz, 2011; Glasson, Mhango, Phiri, & Lanier, 2010; Knijnik, 2007); and a voice on the margins (Borg & Mayo, 2008; Milic, 2013; Zarifis, 2009; Zinser, 2015).

Europe as a voice of solidarity refers to a European perspective (Lundvall, Rasmussen & Lorenz, 2008; Macha & Bauer, 2009), a Europe of knowledge (Gornitzka, 2010), a European vision (Harris, 2012), or a European identity (Negt, 2008). Within the literature, Europe as a voice of solidarity is the connection to shared values and beliefs. For example, participation in adult education as a value is part of the European voice (Boeren, Nicaise, & Baert, 2010). Planning for open education and adult learning while avoiding social exclusion is a European vision (Castaño Muñoz, Redecker, Vuorikari, & Punie, 2013; Harris, 2012). The diversity in Europe and nation states comprising Europe is addressed; however, a European perspective is one that connects all of Europe through educational "cultures of collaboration" (Lundvall et al., 2008, p. 681), social justice (Macha & Bauer, 2009), and focusing on real world problems in education as a principle (Macha & Bauer, 2009). This concept of a European identity is a democratic voice that positively aims towards and embraces "political, social, and cultural unity" (Negt, 2008, p. 744) in Europe.

However, literature focusing on colonialism views the solidarity of a European vision in adult education as a voice that has overshadowed other voices. Europeans or European approaches to adult education are critiqued as voices having silenced indigenous voices in the United States (Beyer, 2010; Geertz, 2011) as well as regions of Africa, for example, in sustainability science education (Glasson et al., 2010) and teacher education in Lesotho (Griffin, 2009). The critique within the literature is that European vision has become that of a Eurocentric discourse within all areas of adult education such as mathematics instruction in Brazil (Knijnik, 2007). Therefore, Europe often is situated as the voice of a colonial power in countries having experienced European colonialism.

Voices on the margins are those European voices that are a part of Europe, but are not as dominant and in many ways seem to be asking to be heard. For example, several authors

(Borg & Mayo, 2008; Zarifis, 2009) argue that Southern Europe's voice has not been fully incorporated into EU policy and that Nordic and Central European voices are those that have been the major focus in areas such as non-vocational adult learning. Borg and Mayo (2008) also address migration from the South to the North as indicative of existing economic opportunities and divisions. As another example of a voice on the margins, Milic (2013) describes the twenty-first century university and the concept of lifelong learning in Montenegro. He problematizes the current situation in adult education and describes transitioning to the future of a European standard in which the university's role in the positioning of adult education and lifelong learning is ambiguous.

In other cases, the author is the voice of an outsider for a European experience on the margins, such as in the case of the analysis of vocational education and training in Ukraine (Zinser, 2015). The article provides the voice of a country; however, statements such as "Ukraine is struggling to establish itself as an independent, modern country" (Zinser, 2015, p. 685) ask the reader how the writer's positionality of an outsider looking in impacts the analysis and may situate the country's experience on the margins. Adult educators may be positioned as a European voice on margins and Nicoll and Edwards (2012) argue that their voices need to be included as voices in the development in the push for adult educator standards.

The main findings of how Europe is situated in adult education literature within the three main themes of space, standard, and voice have several interconnected points of discussion and areas for potential research that will be explored next.

Discussion

Europe as a space, standard, and voice provide important areas for discussion to help inform future directions in the adult education field as we situate our work and research. Figure 1 provides a concept map of the previous findings and this discussion section.

Throughout the literature, the thematic tension between the representation of Europe as an ideal and Europe as dominance reoccurred. Adult education projects aim to facilitate the development of the ideal European, democratic citizen who has access, education, and opportunity. European, often specifically European Union, initiatives aim to encompass common European ideals, beliefs, and values. These initiatives can be understood as a peace project informed by the experiences of two world wars in the twentieth century. However, this ideal also was described as a kind of adult education standard to which the Central, Eastern, and Southeastern European countries needed to "catch up" (Ala-Mutka et al., 2010). This adult education benchmark often recognizes that lived experiences of Central, Eastern, and Southeastern European countries were different from those in the west in the form of Soviet domination or authoritarian governments. However, researchers may wish to further deconstruct statements of "catching up" to better understand what it is Central, Eastern, and Southeastern European countries wish to catch up to and how they view their contributions to Europe to which others may wish to aspire. How are these ideals incorporated into shared adult education

standards, benchmarks, or frameworks? How are those outside of the EU part of Europe? These questions pose areas for further exploration in adult education.
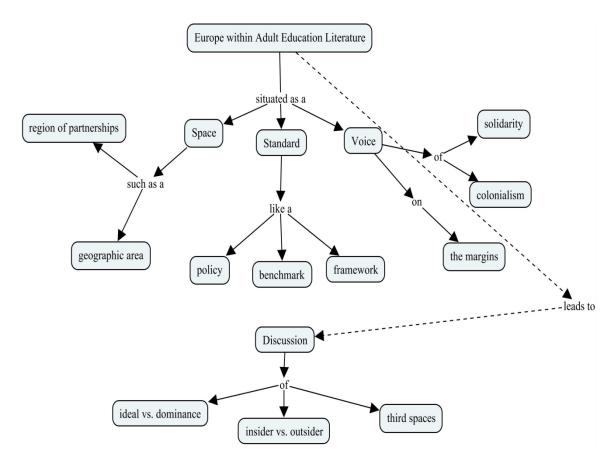

Figure 1. Concept map of findings and discussion

The tension between insider and outsider within the concept of Europe is present within the analysis as well. As adult education researchers and practitioners, this literature review prompts the question: How do we divide European spaces, how do we label them, and why? Who is inside and who is outside Europe deserves greater attention, particularly if Europe as an ideal transcends geography. Parameters of inclusion in studies are not always stated clearly, which may limit participation of some EU member states and nations outside of those member states. In addition, groups who may be at risk of social exclusion most often are addressed in empirical studies without the inclusion of the voices of individuals within these groups. Therefore, more in-depth analysis on how we decide who matters as Europe deserves attention.

The tension between the insider and outsider may lead to a third space, or an in between space, in which authors, practitioners, and concepts reside. Insiders, outsiders, and those on the margins can form new, adult education models of reciprocity to work and research in educational partnerships. Within those spaces, we may have an opportunity for incorporating additional spaces, standards, and voices. For example, Milic (2013)

discusses lifelong learning strategies in transition in Montenegro. How can we incorporate additional voices of adult education in transition? Zinser (2015) writes as an outsider about Ukraine, but what would the piece look like co-authored with a Ukrainian counterpart? Therefore, this third space could bridge the insider and outsider voices to create something new.

The discussion of the ideal vs. dominance, insider vs. outsider, and third spaces may give us ways of more contextual ways of thinking about our research and practice related to Europe. Program planning, curriculum design, and nonformal education could be guided by concepts presented within this literature review.

Limitations

The strength of this literature review and analysis is that it provides a broad lens through which to view how Europe is situated within adult education literature; however, additional in-depth analysis is needed on each thematic category. In addition, the analysis did not take into consideration white papers and academic journals of nation state countries written in languages other than English. Therefore, more specific inquiry building on the questions and themes raised should examine additional works in order to build on the concept map of themes and discussion.

Implications and Conclusion

This literature review focused on how Europe is situated within adult education literature 2005-present. Main themes include Europe situated as a space, a standard, and a voice. These themes lead to a discussion of the ideal vs. dominance, insider vs. outsider, and third space. The literature connotes specific centering with regard to context and geography, specifically EU and Western European standards, suggesting a need to further explore lived experiences and worldviews, which may be less known or marginalized at the intersection of Europe and adult education. Additional research and practical guides for novices and experts could focus on specific program planning within third spaces in order to bridge the ideal vs. dominance and insider vs. outsider paradigms situated in Europe.

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PARTICIPATORY COMMUNITY EDUCATION TO MITIGATE HUMAN-ELEPHANT CONFLICT IN BOTSWANA

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ABSTRACT: In northern Botswana, conflict between subsistence farmers and elephants can result in destroyed agricultural crops and death for both species. In June of 2016, students and faculty mentors from four universities traveled to the Okavango Delta region of Botswana to participate in a community education project designed to develop locally relevant solutions to mitigate human-elephant conflict. Local farmers and community members partnered with university students to design solutions and build prototypes of those solutions. In this paper, we present findings pertaining to the university students' experiences, perceptions, and learning during and as a result of the workshop, including ways in which expectations and the actual experience were aligned and the experience of partnering university students with members of the local community. Findings indicate that future, similar projects should work to ensure an appropriate balance of instruction attention between the local and student participants. Successes include open dialogue and collaboration among all workshop attendees, application of university coursework to address issues of problem solving, design, working with diverse groups, and co-creation of prototypes of simple machines, tools, and devices ready for use and testing by local farmers.

Keywords: experiential learning; collaborative design; non-governmental organization; development; problem-solving

In northern Botswana, conflict between subsistence farmers and elephants can result in destroyed agricultural crops and death for both species. Current solutions to prevent elephants from raiding crops are typically low-tech and less effective than desired. For example, farmers may use chili peppers, which deter the elephants, but elephants are intelligent enough to navigate around the chilies. More sophisticated deterrents are needed to protect the elephants and the humans in this region; unfortunately, known effective solutions are too expensive for these communities, thus creative design using local materials could provide the best solutions.

The goal of the educational program at the center of this study was to create effective, sustainable, and culturally appropriate solutions by partnering university students (from American, South African, and Botswanan universities) with diverse local participants, including men and women, and a variety in age and social status. We used English and the most common local language, Setswana, for the workshop. The lead facilitator provided English instruction, which was translated in real time by the co-facilitator. For the team design portion of the workshop, we required groups to have speakers of each language. During the program, students and locals collaborate to identify specific challenges and develop solutions' prototypes. The innovation of this project derives from the inclusion of the participatory community education in conjunction with conservation efforts around human-elephant conflict in the Okavango Delta region of northern Botswana. In this paper, we present findings from the project evaluation, including successes, opportunities for improvement, and possible adaptations to other contexts.

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The purpose of this paper is to (a) present the background and context of human-elephant conflict in Botswana and the community development workshop at the center of this study, (b) share preliminary findings from a study of university student experiences in the workshop, (c) identify successes and opportunities for improvement of the present community education program in partnership with the international, collaborative experience for university students, and (d) begin to explore ways to apply or adapt this program model to other contexts.

Background and Context

At the center of this study is a weeklong workshop conducted in Seronga, a remote village located in the Okavango Delta region of northern Botswana. The Okavango Delta is known for being the largest inland delta in the world and is crucial for most of the wildlife in this water scarce region. Human population levels are low and the region is known for its dense wildlife. Eco-tourism is an important industry for Botswana and the government places great value on conservation of wildlife. The region is home to one of the most important ranges for elephants left in Africa, as well as lions, hippopotamuses, zebra, ostriches, crocodiles, and numerous other species drawn to the seasonal water source. Wildlife conflict, particularly with elephants, creates additional challenges for farmers in the region. In order to help mitigate this conflict, we invited farmers and representatives from 14 communities in the region to participate in a workshop aimed at co-creating effective, sustainable, and culturally appropriate solutions alongside university students. The workshop occurred during one week of June, 2016. Roughly three days were spent on the design process, team building, and generating consensus around the problems small groups would like to tackle. Small groups then worked to design and build prototypes that would in some way address the problem. The end of the fifth day was dedicated to project show-and-tell and a large group debrief. For students traveling to and from the U.S., the trip also included three days of travel to get to Seronga and two days of travel to return home.

The workshop was hosted by Ecoexist, an internationally-funded, locally-based non-governmental organization. Ecoexist's mission is to "support the lives and livelihoods of people who share space with elephants while considering the needs of elephants and their habitats" (Our Response, para. 1). The present workshop was a component of their work to "empower farmers with practical, affordable, and effective tools to deter crop-raiding and reduce conflicts with elephants" (Our Response, para. 4). Their leadership and contributions, both financial and logistical, were critical to the success of the event. Ecoexist coordinated the location of the workshop, engaged the local farmers and community members through their extensive network of partnerships, funded travel, food, and lodging for local participants, and coordinated the participation of the students from the University of Botswana (UB). The three co-directors of Ecoexist, Drs. Amanda Stronza, Anna Songhurst, and Graham McCulloch were in attendance, as were a number of other personnel. Ecoexist projects are coordinated through local community liaisons, Ecoexist Community Officers, or ECOs, one from each village. Of the ECOs, 14 attended the workshop (three women and 11 men), as well as eight farmers (seven women and one

man), identified by the ECOs as individuals willing to explore new farming and wildlife deterring practices.

The workshop was led by Amy Smith of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) D-Lab and co-facilitated by Thabiso Mashaba of These Hands, a Botswanan non-governmental organization (NGO). D-Lab's mission is to build "a global network of innovators to design and disseminate technologies that meaningfully improve the lives of people living in poverty" (About D-Lab, para. 2). The workshop, which focused on design thinking and process, is part of D-Lab's outreach to people in developing regions around the world. The aim of this and similar workshops is to encourage and grow the skills for individuals to create their own solutions to local challenges. Smith and D-Lab provided the curriculum for the workshop and brought facilitators skilled in the design process to lead and support the small group projects.

The various stakeholders in this workshop were brought together and coordinated by Assistant Director Dr. Leslie Ruyle at the Texas A&M University (TAMU) Center on Conflict and Development (ConDev). ConDev's mission is "to improve the effectiveness of development programs and policies for conflict-affected and fragile countries through multidisciplinary research and education" (About Us, para. 2). Conflict between humans and elephants falls within their purview.

Finally, university students from TAMU, UB, MIT, and the University of Stellenbosch (SU) traveled to participate in the workshop along with a number of faculty mentors. This experience was considered a high-impact practice by the institutions involved, incorporating both international experiences (for the TAMU, MIT, and SU students), and service learning (for all). Students not only encountered other cultures and ways of life but also had the opportunity to contribute their subject matter expertise and problem solving skills to the project.

Conceptual Framework and Methodology

The study is situated in the context of the previously described community development workshop and focuses on the experience and perceptions of the university students engaged in the workshop and interacting with rural Botswanans. To effectively capture the perceptions and experiences of the university students, an interpretive approach was applied to design the study.

Experiential Learning

In the workshop at the center of this study, the instructors from all institutions applied experiential learning and adult education methods to teach university students and rural Botswanans how to use critical thinking and engineering, design, and business skills to develop sustainable, locally-appropriate solutions to problems, with a particular emphasis on the conflict between humans and elephants unique to the Okavango Delta region of Botswana. The students came to the course with concrete experiences that inspired them

to find solutions to the problems they saw in the world, including poverty, environmental degradation, and harm to wildlife.

Faculty mentors applied teaching methods and strategies to provide students with experiential learning opportunities in alignment with Kolb's (1984) cycle. Abstract conceptualization in the form of storytelling and lectures was used to provide an overview of the skills students would need for the workshop. Necessarily, during the workshop, students were fully immersed in the local context and were learning through concrete experience.

Much of the course design incorporated active experimentation to prepare students to apply their learning to concrete experiences. A design-process model, designed by the MIT D-Lab faculty, was used to ground students in a design thinking. The workshop culminated in presentations of the small group prototypes to the rest of the workshop participants. The presentations moved students beyond active experimentation, applying solutions to artificial situations, to a concrete experience, applying concepts to a problem existing outside the classroom (Ferguson, Makarem, & Jones, 2016). The reflection activities gave the students the opportunity to move through reflective observation, which is an experiential learning component missing from most science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) programs (Zarestky, 2013). The reflective activities also provided the bulk of the study data, as described in the following section.

Participants and Data Collection

All 13 students participating in the workshop were eligible for participation and all 13 students elected to participate in the study, although not all students participated in all parts of the data collection. All study participants were university students: four from Texas A&M University (TAMU), College Station; two from Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Cambridge, MA; six from the University of Botswana (UB) in Gaborone; and one student from Stellenbosch University (SU), South Africa. Students' ages ranged from 19 to 26 years and four of the 13 students identified as female. Nine students were enrolled in bachelor's degree programs, or equivalent, two were masters' students and two were doctoral students. Among the 13 participants, five different nationalities were represented, including the U.S., Botswana, South Africa, Lesotho, and Costa Rica; two of the U.S. citizens were naturalized. Students' majors were primarily engineering or computer science (11 of 13) with one public policy major and one biology major. The researchers assigned pseudonyms to participants for the purposes of the study.

Data consisted of four components: a pre-workshop survey, reflection journals, a brief, individual interview, and observations conducted by the researchers during and throughout the workshop. All study participants completed a survey prior to the start of the workshop and participated in an individual, in-person, semi-structured interview at the end of the workshop. Interviews lasted between 15 and 45 minutes and were transcribed verbatim by either a graduate research assistant or a professional transcription service. One researcher verified the accuracy of the transcriptions by spot-checking the

transcriptions against the recordings. The pre-workshop survey and the interview protocol are included as an Appendix.

Additionally, students were asked to keep daily journals documenting their experiences during the workshop and respond to daily writing prompts given to them by the researchers. Journals included students' emotional and cognitive reactions to what they were experiencing in the workshop as well as reflections on the cultural experience and the differences between themselves and the local Botswanans. One student, after keeping a journal during the week, declined to share the journal with the research team. Several students contributed to the journal only superficially. The daily reflective writing prompts were as follows:

1. What have you learned today from a [local]? How did that affect your design process thinking?
2. Describe how someone else was thinking about a concept/issue/idea in a way different than you.
3. What did you find interesting/surprising/intimidating/confusing today?
4. How did you apply your problem-solving skills today?

Limitations of this study included the constrained timeframe and student engagement with the reflective journals. Since the workshop was conducted for a single week, data collection was necessarily restricted to that same week. Regarding the journals and student reflection, commitment to that task varied widely by university and the examples set by the students' faculty mentors.

Data Analysis

A thematic qualitative analysis method was used to analyze the data (Merriam, 2009) and examine the reflections and perceptions of the university students, as presented in their journals and interviews. Students were asked to reflect regarding their challenges, successes, and intellectual or personal growth and achievement throughout the workshop. Using thematic analysis, one researcher unitized the data by dividing textual data into units, meaning any phrase or idea with independent meaning (Merriam, 2009). The researchers then used open coding to generate a code for each unit and grouped the initial codes into common themes or categories using axial coding, consistent with the constant comparative method for identifying themes within the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the following sections, we present preliminary findings, consisting of the thematic analysis of surveys and journals only, supported by researcher observations.

Findings

The preliminary findings presented here highlight the perceptions of the university students engaged in the workshop. Findings pertain to the expectations and experiences prior to the workshop, including their prior knowledge regarding the rural setting of the workshop and the local community members. We then share the ways in which those

expectations were or were not met during the workshop, and the experiences and perceptions of students during the week.

Expectations and Prior Knowledge and Experience

Before the workshop, students shared their expectations of the experience. Many expectations were closely tied to their prior travel experience; all of the students except one had traveled internationally before, although most had only visited tourist destinations. None of the students had prior knowledge of the people, culture, and context of the Okavango region of Botswana. One MIT student, Jason, had visited the region before on a similar trip but acknowledged he "did not have too much interaction with the local people." Beyond the conflict with elephants, students expressed that they either knew nothing of the local context prior to the workshop, or only what they had read online or what their faculty mentors had shared as part of a pre-trip briefing. All of the students expected to have positive interactions, despite some language differences, with locals at the workshop. Boitumelo expected "a good positive relationship that will encourage knowledge sharing between us and them."

Beyond the interactions with locals, most students expected to have positive interactions with the students from the other universities, although UB students did express some apprehension. For example, Baruti was simultaneously excited and concerned:

> I am a bit nervous about meeting with other university students because they come from good universities and I feel the pressure to step up, but at the same time excited to interact with them, so I anticipate a fun yet scary experience with other university students…. I expect to learn a lot from them. I expect to also learn to interact with overseas students and get to side how life is on the other side of the globe --> to learn if its (sic) as we see in TV.

Other UB students echoed his sentiments, sharing that they were feeling positive and negative forms of anticipation.

Ultimately, the goals of the workshop were most important to the students; they were excited to learn about elephants and animal behaviors in the region, work with members of the local community, and learn about building international partnerships and cooperation. In general, students had realistic expectations of the experience and were open-minded about what they would encounter. Of the 13 students, five included benefits or relationships with the community or locals in their descriptions of what they hoped to accomplish during the week. Selena, from MIT, shared "I hope to come out of this with a new perspective (on what I'm not sure)." Appu, from TAMU, tried to manage his own expectations:

> I planned to accomplish a lot during this trip, but I have been told by those who have participated before on similar events that it is a longer process than anticipated and not to hope for such an expedited solution. The most I can hope

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for right now is maybe provide a new innovation from which a sustainable and lasting solution can be derived in the future.

Students from UB were more ambitious and had higher expectations. For example, Jermaine hoped to "come up with the solution that can later change the lives of the community people" and Kopano wanted "to have produced, with the help of other students, a solution to solve the elephant human conflict." These expectations certainly went unrealized.

Reflections During the Workshop

From the analysis of student reflective journals, three themes emerged. Students were surprised by the extent of their own ignorance regarding the local context, surprised and impressed with the local participants in the workshop, and expressed their appreciation of the benefits of the workshop experience.

While most students were aware they did not have a complete understanding of the local context prior to the workshop, they were still surprised by how different the lives and experiences of the farmers and ECOs were from their own lives. In reference to trying to understand problems the farmers face, Jason lamented, "the locals don't quite understand just how ignorant we are about many of the basic aspects of their lives."

Boitumelo described a conversation with a local farmer during a team-building exercise in which groups were asked to build a stand for dried maize using only two sheets of paper; the farmer "raised problem that if the maize is stacked like that, it exposes the corn to cows, chickens, and other small animals in a yard. Hence she suggest[sic] cone like structure that can be closed at the top, which was really amazing to me to get such feedback, as I could not have anticipated [the problem] on my own without her assistance." Similarly, Modise shared the difference between his thinking and that of the group, "even the way I understand the situation was different from the way the farmers…understood the problems. Towards hearing the ideas and thoughts of others, I suddenly realized that my thoughts were out of line with what the actual problem is." Kopano had been very focused on the issue of human-elephant conflict and neglected other important issues. He explained, "we were discussing about how we could solve the elephant problems and while we were working on the most important problems, [we] thought of using chili on the ground such that it will not be carried away. But I did not think about animals like monkeys, which use all their limbs as hands and feed at the same time. They kept reassuring us that even though we are solving the elephant-human conflict we still had to consider other animals, which may become collateral damage." The students were unfamiliar with the local context and relied on the farmers and ECOs for guidance and context.

As a natural extension of their own knowledge deficit, the students were impressed with locals and their knowledge, abilities, and thought processes. Selena elaborated,

I learned that the locals are much more capable of being creative than I expected. In my psychology classes, I learned about learned helplessness. Although slightly different than this situation, learned helplessness describes the situation in which one gives up trying to escape some form of harm after trying for a certain amount of time. I expected the local people to exhibit similar characteristics due to the fact that they have never had the resources to help themselves. In fact, due to the fact that people often come into their communities with premade technologies, I would have expected them to have learned to become dependent. This was not the case, however. When we were doing the maize lifter activity, I was very impressed with the creativity and effectiveness of the locals' ideas. They were often the architects of the final prototypes.

Caroline shared one instance of the way a farmer was thinking broadly, "when [the farmer] was sawing, I was thinking of how we could build the next part of the project, but she was thinking about how she could use those skills at her farm and in other contexts." Similarly, Kopano noticed that "the farmers are eager to learn new things and would always add more information when you ask any question."

The farmer's interests also stood out for students. Letsego explained, the farmers "wanna[sic] be taught how to make a technologies[sic], not given a technology which they do not understand." Baruti, concurred: "the farmers are able to postpone their daily activities to attend workshops, suggesting that they are willing to learn and grow. This interest in learning manifested itself for Junhee in the presentation of final projects. He explained "my most significant recollection today is the witnessing of the Botswanian villagers sheer enthusiasm when presenting their solutions; I saw in their eyes the reflection of satisfaction, pride, and happiness - the kind of countenance that assures the longevity of the workshop lessons. Whilst it is not enough to know whether the workshop had a long lasting impact, it's satisfying to know they were pleased with the fruits of their physical and intellectual labor."

Appu found the benefit of the experience was a reframing of his perspectives on what it means to help. He gave the example of the group facilitator asking him to "let the [farmers] do most of the work. But that directly goes against everything that I usually do, help out to make the people's life just easier, so a 'not helping is helping' ideology is as foreign as can be." Emily took a more holistic perspective: "the design process workshop has influenced my approach to 'village' problem solving. I feel like the design process perspective is making me think so much harder about how I approach conservation problem solving - finding alternatives to natural resource exploitation in particular."

To summarize the week, Eugenio described his view this way:

> At the conclusion of the event, it was interesting to distinguish the attitudes of the workshop participants comparing between the first day and the last. At first there seemed to be some skepticism and general cluelessness as to what needed to happen, over the days the farmers warmed up and were a lot more active in participation. The last day I could see the excitement in the participants.

In referring to the participants, he included not just the locals but also the students. At the beginning of the week, people were strangers to one another and unsure of how to proceed, how to interact, and what to expect. By the end, friendships were formed, designs were constructed into physical reality, and the foundations of cross-cultural respect and collaboration were laid.

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Key successes of the workshop included: (a) students from universities interacting with rural, local populations, including the constraints that such contexts apply to problem-solving, (b) rural populations being exposed to the kinds of design and thought processes that are usually limited to university or corporate settings, (c) adult education principles and practices at work with the empowerment of communities and individuals at the core of the initiative.

Perhaps surprisingly so, the students from TAMU, MIT, and SU seemed to be more pragmatic about what could be accomplished as a result of the weeklong workshop. Students from UB had higher expectations of the work for the week, solving the conflict rather than mitigating or diminishing it, and seemed less interested in engaging with the local participants than with the other university students. This could be related to their shared national origins or class difference between rural populations and those groups with access to university education.

Positive results of the workshop experience for students include their revised view of local farmers as knowledgeable and capable, despite some small language barriers. Challenges that remain to be resolved include the balance of power among the various stakeholders organizing the workshop and the balance of quality experience between local participants and university student participants.

As we evolve and further improve the preliminary results of the study presented here, we wish to better inform community and non-formal education for adults in developing regions. Programs designed to target sustainable development and conservation, and mitigate conflict of all types, would be well-served to consider the ways in which local knowledge and solutions are incorporated into the problem-solving process. For those seeking innovative practices and approaches to create more inclusive and participatory community development programs, particularly in underserved or rural areas, the partnership of students with members of the local community and other stakeholders was particularly successful. Future research certainly needs to include the community

members as study participants. Follow up should occur not only with the 13 university students but also with the community members to discern what, if any, outcomes or changes to farming or elephant interactions were the result of this workshop.

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Appendix

Pre-Workshop Survey

1. Name:

2. What university do you attend?
   TAMU   MIT   UB   SU

3. In what type of degree program are you enrolled?
   BS   MS   PhD

4. What is your gender?
   Male   Female

5. What is your age?

6. What is your nationality?

7. Describe your prior experience with international travel.

8. What do you know about the local context of the workshop or the local people?

9. What kind of relationship do you anticipate having with locals?

10. What kind of relationship do you anticipate having with the other university students?

11. What do you expect to learn as a result of this trip?

12. What do you expect to accomplish as a result of this trip?

Post-Workshop Interview Protocol

1. How would you describe the workshop experience to someone not here?

2. What have you learned this week?

3. What cultural issues influenced your thinking or problem solving?

4. In what ways did your prior experience (travel or lack of) influence your ability to participate this week?

5. What role did you play in your group? In what way did that help the group be successful?

6. What have you accomplished this week?

7. What impact have you made?

8. What difference do you think this week made?

9. What are you most proud of this week?

10. What else would you like to add?