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A SURVEY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GREEN RIVER
COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND THE NEED FOR A HANDBOOK
IN THE ADULT EVENING SCHOOL PROGRAM

A Thesis
Presented to
the Graduate Faculty of
Central Washington State College

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education

by
Roger E. Rosin
August 1967

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APPROVED FOR THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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R.E.R.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. For the past two years Green River Community College has operated an evening school program for adults. Previous to that time it was under the jurisdiction of the Auburn Public Schools. Under such changing conditions there has been little orientation or inservice training with a lack of understanding concerning the methods, techniques and devices that are appropriate to teaching adults.

Purpose of the study. It was the purpose of this study to trace the history of the Green River Community College and to show the need for the development of a handbook concerned with appropriate method for the adult student.

Importance of the study. This report has traced the historical development of the adult education movement in the United States and more specifically in Auburn with the intention of focusing upon the need to develop a handbook for instructors. This would serve to help them realize the importance of their role now and in the future.

Limitations of the study. The historical development of the adult education movement will be limited to a brief review from preliterate man's basic beginnings in the realm of adult learnings down through the ages to the highly sophisticated technological training and university extension of today.

In further delimiting this study, none of the administrative details will be included. Attention will be given to appropriate methods to assist instructors in becoming aware of many kinds and ways to present subject matter to their adult charges.

Method of investigation and sources of data. In this study intensive library research was employed to gather pertinent data. Then the descriptive analysis technique was used in the analysis of the data gathered.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Adult education. Adult education as used in this study means the orderly and assigned learnings of those mature persons no longer enrolled in formal day classes, but rather, are attending classes with other adults in an organized program of a public, tax-supported nature as opposed to private agencies. These classes are held on a

regular or part-time basis after the student's ordinary work day is over.

Agricultural extension. Agricultural extension is that program aimed at the education and enlightenment of those American adults and children (4H Clubs) living on farms and ranches in rural areas.

Chautauquas. The Chautauquas are uniquely and classically the American example of mass education of adults from the 1870's to the middle of the 1930's. It has been called the cultural striving of small towns and cities of America.

Methods. In this study method implies the organizational and administrative procedures required to bring the learner and the instructional agent together in a direct relationship to the end that the learning process may take place. It would include such items as arrangement of facilities, selection of staff, curricular planning, or anything that applies to the total instructional program, methods employed are administrative decisions.

Techniques. The processes by which diffusion of learning takes place are called techniques. The instructor chooses the teaching techniques that best serves his student's needs and furthers the diffusion of information and knowledge.

University extension. University extension is that program developed for the "continuing education" of adults by the colleges and universities sometimes held in the afternoon but more generally in the evening for college or non-college credit.

Workers' education. Workers' education is an important and growing phase of adult education supplied to the workers through their unions. Originally designed to supply "basic education" but now includes classes held in conjunction with colleges and universities to supply leadership and training in such topics as, collective bargaining practices, labor and management relations, and business economics.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The second chapter presents a brief history of adult education movement from its beginnings in the Old World to its fullest extent in the British Isles. A second part is concerned with the movement in the United States, a third section reveals the struggle for an adult education program in Auburn, Washington.

The third chapter presents a review of the literature dealing with methods and techniques employed in the education of adults.

Chapter four is concerned with the analysis of the data gathered. In this chapter emphasis was placed on the

compilation of many and varied methods and teaching techniques applicable to the instruction of adults.

The last chapter contains a summary of the data analyzed in the preceding chapters. The remaining portion of this chapter gives attention to the recommendations for improvements and future studies.

CHAPTER II

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION

Much has been written in the field of adult education. This study, however, is concerned with two phases. The first of these deals briefly with the evolution of this movement, the second traces in a cursory manner the struggle for an adult education program in Auburn, Washington, which culminated in the establishment of a community college.

I. LITERATURE ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

Man has spent more time on this planet as an illiterate than as a literate, however, the accomplishments of preliterate man are often overlooked.

In early civilizations, literacy reached neither the craftsmen or the peasantry. Crafts could be transmitted only by direct instruction or under an apprenticeship system spelled out and included in the Code of Hammurabi. The spread of crafts was by migration of workmen themselves, either voluntarily or as prisoners of war. This failure to educate these artisans accounts in large part for the failure and unprogressiveness of these societies.

The Greeks believed that of all the wonders of world none is more wonderful than man. Their central concern was

the full realization of the potentialities of man. They also believed the universe was a moral universe and that the great questions of life were in essence moral. These lofty ideals were not to be obtained through changes and adjustment to a material environment, but rather, through self-education or knowledge and understanding of the individual.

Although there was a marked difference in the Greek city-states, one thing was common - classical Greek culture was not for everyone. Only a small leisure class of middle or upper class could indulge in this luxury. Craftsmen, though usually literate in Athens, did not share in higher learning. The slave had no chance at all. Elementary education, though made compulsory since the laws of Solon, were not tax-supported from the general coffers but were state-regulated.

Grattan remarked:

The mild climate allowed the Greeks to spend most of their time out of doors. As a notably sociable people, they thoroughly enjoyed conversation; in the hands of a genius like Socrates talk became a fine art (7:30).

The Romans built up a society in which literacy was wide-spread but not quite universal. Most farmers, most of the tradesmen and merchants were literate, as well as the upper classes. For a long time illiteracy had been identified with barbarism in Rome and the Italian cities, and those who

could not read or write were an insignificant minority.

However, in the beginning of recorded history there settled on the Italian peninsula a number of tribes of the Aryan race. The Latins were the smallest group but over the years they slowly gained control of the others. They extended their dominance over the Greek colonies in the south and the Gauls to the north, so that by 201 B.C. the entire peninsula had become subject to the City-State government at Rome.

The Romans were shrewd in their relations with their subjugated peoples, leaving the local affairs up to them but at the same time granting them full citizenship as Romans too.

Cubberley stated this aspect as follows:

By a most wonderful understanding of the psychology of other peoples, Rome gradually assimilated the peoples of the Italian peninsula and in time amalgamated them into a single Roman race. In speech, manners, customs, and finally in blood she Romanized the different tribes and brought them under her leadership. Later this same process was extended to Spain, Gaul, and even far-off Britain (5:54).

Only a great, creative people, working along very practical lines could have used the opportunity as did Rome to create a great world empire.

The educational system of Rome was modeled after that of the Greeks with a few innovations such as the exclusion of physical gymnastics and less emphasis on rhetoric and more work on legal training, engineering, and the fore-runner of political science.

The divergence between the two peoples was apparent in temperament. The Greeks were artistic and aesthetic, philosophers and dreamers, physical culturists and idealists. The Romans, on the other hand, were unimaginative, concrete, practical and constructive people. They were the builders of roads, bridges, aqueducts and colossal buildings but more important they were the organizers of a strong central government and the originators of a code of laws and justice that have been emulated ever since in the western world.

The question of why this great civilization failed is a poignant one and a very popular topic of speculation on the part of many writers. Edward Gibbon wrote a masterful six volume treatise entitled The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. This study of Gibbon's discusses and proposes many, varied reasons but does not list but only hints at the possibility that it might have been due in part to the lack of adult education as one of the causitive factors.

Grattan explores this possibility and insists:

It is obvious that a contribution toward the disintegration was made by the weakness in the processes which Romanized the people of the empire. The fatal blow seems to have been the failure to carry the Roman culture deep enough into the society. It has been pointed out that the urbanized masses were probably not fully within the cultural orbit. The rural people were definitely not within it.

All evidence points to the conclusion that a crucial failure of the Romans was in adult education. They could not carry Roman culture at its best even to those

people they were prepared to admit to a share of their government (7:52-53).

The failure to assimilate the masses by an elite class may have been the major causative factor in the failure of both the Greek and Roman civilizations. The Romans attempted placation of the masses through amusement and entertainment that was violent, bloody, often bawdy and always vulgar. The emphasis for the wise use of leisure time should have been away from amusement and entertainment and toward the regimen of self-improvement.

Of all the many influences that have helped mold modern educational thought, undoubtedly the greatest has been Christianity. The birth of Jesus Christ came during the reign of Emperor Octavius Augustus (63 B.C. to 14 A.D.) and at the height of Roman military and political power.

The monasteries were also instrumental in founding schools - primarily for the instruction of monks and youth who aspired to become monks and needed to be taught how to read if they were to use the sacred books. Due to the seclusion and security the monastic schools became the leading educational centers of the Middle Ages.

Cubberley stated:

The development of monastic schools was largely voluntary, though from an early date bishops and rulers began urging the monasteries to open schools for boys in connection with their houses, and schools became in time a regular feature of the monastic organization. From schools only for those

intending to take vows (obleti), the instruction was gradually opened, after the ninth century, to others (externi) not intending to take vows, and what in time came to be known as "outer" monastic schools (5:129).

The education of young ladies was not overlooked either. Convents were established for the instruction of noviciates intending to take their vows, but later were opened to those desiring an education without becoming a nun. The girls took regular studies of reading, writing and copying Latin. However they were also taught music, spinning, weaving, and needlework.

Out of the feudalistic society grew another educational system that was labelled chivalry. Chivalry was a system of training of the nobility and lasted from the ninth through the sixteenth century. The aim was to teach high morals and social ideals, and proved to be an effective way of putting Christian principles across to the converted Teutonic tribes.

Training began at the age of seven when a boy became a page to some noble lady who taught him manners, music, and the ideals of chivalry. At age fourteen he became a squire to some knight, attending to the horses and armor, and sometimes assisting in battle. At twenty-one he became a full-fledged knight, his lessons in jousting, swimming, boxing, horsemanship, singing and chess plus his education in the seven free arts, were now over and he could go on quests.

The guild system is the next educational system that grew out of the twelfth century and was a by-product of the Crusades. The Crusaders returning to western Europe from their battles with the Saracen horde in the Holy Land brought home many products and goods never seen before and immediately established a ready market. Consequently, to supply these needs the Crusades accidentally created an impetus to increased trade and commerce, rapid growth of free and prosperous cities, and the emergence of a new middle class called the bourgeoisie.

It was natural that an education suitable for the needs of these workers in this expanding industrial society was a necessity. The demand for a vocational or trade training was satisfied. However, the city fathers saw that a rudimentary ability to read and write and of course simple arithmetic was mandatory.

Thus, the apprenticeship program was born with young boys bound or indentured to a master who was charged with the responsibility of training the young man in the trade, seeing to his elementary schooling, but not at the neglect of his religious education. In discipline the masters were harsh and continued the monastic idea that the rod is the best teacher.

The Reformation movement grew out of the abuses of the Church which were culminated by a complete break and the

eventual founding of several Protestant churches in western Europe. John Wycliffe and John Huss were early names in this movement and each paid with his life for his breach of religious conduct. The widespread use of printed material at a fraction of its former cost set the stage in Germany for a disgruntled Catholic priest and theologian to set the machinery in motion.

What were the immediate effects of the Reformation and what effect did this have on adult education is a paramount question. An answer appropriate for this study was that the people saw a need for universal education for the young and a remedial effort for those now in adult status.

Cubberley commented:

Under the new theory of individual judgment and individual responsibility promulgated by the Protestants it became important, in theory at least, that everyone should be able to read the word of God, participate intelligently in the church services, and shape his life as he understood was in accordance with the commandments of the Heavenly Father. This undoubtedly called for the education of all (5:307).

The Reformation brought on two other educational aspects, one was the rapid growth and expansion of schools for all, and secondly, in schools and in the practice of religion the language was no longer Latin but in the vernacular.

Within this same period the first actual reference to adult education in Britain was found in the minutes of the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge (SPCK), founded in 1698 to combat "vice and immorality owing to the

ignorance of the principles of Christian religion. The SPCK established catechetical schools, founded libraries, and distributed free books and tracts around the world (7:62).

The Welsh schools were housed in nothing elaborate or pretentious; public notice was given, and all were taught for at least three months. Adults and children were taught alike, sometimes separately and others together with adults often instructed in night classes. Between 1731 and 1761, when Jones died, a total of 3,495 schools were held and 158,237 individuals attended them, not counting an unknown number that attended night classes, but for some reason were not counted. This movement continued until 1779 when Madam Bridget Bevan died (she was Jones' chief financial backer) and no one was able to carry on further.

Another account of early adult education in Britain concerns John Wesley, father of Methodism. He took an interest in the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic in night schools, Sunday schools and reading schools. An effort was made to separate children from adults.

Wesley was tireless in writing and in selecting and editing work done by other writers. While his chief interest was religious a wide range of other material poured from the Wesleyan publications office. It included poetry, travel, biography, etiquette, school books, subjects of daily utility,

as well as religious works. In addition, from 1778, a magazine was published. Some criticism was engendered by those who thought the magazine was too secular.

The activity of Wesley in the field of publication illustrates a point valid even today: the popular press is or can be an educator of the highest power.

The first school to be established exclusively for adults was in Bala, Wales, in the summer of 1811. This school founded by the Rev. Thomas Charles is considered a landmark in the history of adult education and was an immediate success.

Throughout the history of adult education, the problem was not how to make a start of schools -- but how to keep them going.

Thomas Pole, a Philadelphia-born Quaker went to England to study medicine but became interested in adult education. At first he was concerned with some of the objections being raised about educating the poor. His contention was that the poor would become more efficient laborers, crime would be reduced, and they would possess a sense of personal worth and thus strengthen their morals and religious principles.

Another facet of adult education to consider is that of the utilitarian approach which was championed by James Mills, father of John Stuart Mills. He was a universal reformer believing in education for all. He was firmly

convinced that education, when properly managed, could cure the ills of the industrial revolution then sweeping Britain.

From 1826 to 1846 the Society for Diffusion of Useful Knowledge (SDUK) was extremely active, publishing encyclopedias, numerous small books, pamphlets and a magazine. At first the emphasis was on mathematics and natural science, but later included geography, history and other subjects. This program carefully avoided politics, controversial divinity and moral philosophy. All of these publications were extremely popular including the Penny Magazine, the Penny Encyclopedia, the Farmer's Series, and others. The SCUK was not the only publishers of popular literature but it proved that the public would absorb great quantities of good books if they are properly priced and are a source of self-education.

J. W. Hudson, Ph.D., an active worker in adult learnings, published in 1851 The History of Adult Education. This book was a gold mine of information and catalogued as of 1850 some 610 adult education enterprises in England, 55 in Scotland, 25 in Ireland and 12 in Wales. Total paid membership was 120,081. The libraries operated by these institutions owned 815,510 volumes providing the basis for 2,026,095 issues per year. They also managed 408 newspaper reading rooms, scheduled 5,840 lectures, and over 18,000 persons were enrolled in evening classes. Outstanding among these were

the Mechanics' or Workingmans' Institutes.

The Mechanics' Institutes originated in Scotland and were an attempt to educate the workingmen. Dr. John Anderson of the University of Glasgow left his fortune to be used in founding the Anderson University for the working man, that is, a mechanics' institute. The success of this school led to the opening of a second in Edinburgh and then spread quickly to England with Liverpool, Manchester and London inaugurating their programs. The apparent success prompted the establishment of institutes in the United States, Canada, Australia and India.

The Mechanics' Institutes were related to a need of the time, but were unable to fulfill the wants for those for whom they were intended. It soon abandoned those workers and became a school for the self-improvement of shopkeepers, law copyists and attorney's clerks. This loss of enrollment of the workers was due in large part to the failure to teach or delve into those areas or subjects that were deemed controversial.

During the 1840's a series of Blue Books drew attention to the need for a public-health system and better sanitary conditions in urban areas. This amounted to public and adult education and as a result many laws were passed providing not only for more healthy conditions but also laid the groundwork

for public use of tax funds to provide public responsibility for recreation in the form of public parks, playgrounds and baths. Public libraries and museums followed soon but then came the realization that in order to utilize these facilities there must be a shortening of the working day.

Verner and Booth remarked:

Schools and libraries are of small use without time to study. Parks are well for those who have time to perambulate in them, and baths of little use to such dirty people as do not leave work until eight o'clock at night. We protest that it is a mere burlesque upon philanthropy to make provision for these benefits with a continuance of twelve hours of labor and fifteen hours occupation for every manufacturing operative above thirteen years of age (18:93).

The last aspect of British adult education to consider is in the field of people's or workingmen's colleges. The basic idea was to provide the people with culture through the study of modern and ancient languages and literature, plus mathematics, logic, elocution, and drawing. This program was in contrast to scientific (or vocational) subjects.

The first of these colleges was opened in Sheffield in 1824 by the Rev. R. S. Bayley, a Congregational minister. Bayley's "people's college" started in a humble, white-washed garret and survived to become the present day University of Sheffield. Others were built at Nottingham, Manchester, Salford, Halifax, Ancoats, Wolverhampton, Liverpool, Oxford and Cambridge. Out of this movement that was later designated

as university extension have come some of the great leaders of British educational circles and would include John Ruskin, Arnold Toynbee, James Stuart, John Cassell, R. H. Tawney and Albert Mansbridge to name but a few of the more prominent ones.

In conjunction with university extension was founded the Workers Education Association (WEA) that has operated many schools and classes for trade union members at the university level. In a joint final report for the year 1919 came an appropriate statement of objectives that are as timely for now as when originally considered.

Grattan stated:

THE NECESSARY CONCLUSION IS THAT ADULT EDUCATION MUST NOT BE REGARDED AS A LUXURY FOR A FEW EXCEPTIONAL PERSONS HERE AND THERE, NOR AS A THING WHICH CONCERNS ONLY A SHORT SPAN OF EARLY MANHOOD, BUT THAT ADULT EDUCATION IS A PERMANENT NATIONAL NECESSITY, AN INSEPARABLE ASPECT OF CITIZENSHIP, AND THEREFORE SHOULD BE BOTH UNIVERSAL AND LIFELONG (7:119).

From Grattan:

The liberal treatment of university extension was designed to help maintain its special role in British adult education. It was considered a "core" institution of the "system". In 1950 seventeen universities or university colleges in England had extension organizations, four in Wales, four in Scotland, and one in Northern Ireland (7:121).

Adult education has grown again in Great Britain since the dark days of World War II. It has served to stem the post-war economic crisis, and through a resurgence of vocational and technical training along with a strong liberal

educational program, Britain again is a leading high-quality goods manufacturing and world trading nation.

This concludes the contributions of the Old World on adult education. The next section will focus upon the progress made in these United States.

II. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The powerful American belief in the educability of man and the cardinal virtue of education as a guarantee of success in life has in part made us a great nation. In our Constitution there is no mention made of education whatsoever, but that does not mean the founding fathers did not imply we should not strive for educational excellence.

Often one encounters the opinion that adult education had its beginnings in the town meetings of colonial New England. A much better case could be constructed for the theological and political sermons of the clergymen which were often printed and circulated after 1740. Along with Sunday sermons, there were often midweek "lectures" in the churches plus a growing number of religious and secular books that were circulated as soon as the presses were set up here. Newspapers became more widely read until by 1765 one out of every five families were regularly and directly being

educated by them. The ever popular almanacs served to educate and entertain the public. After the Revolution the Fourth of July oratory was actually a source of adult edification.

In regards to the Revolution Grattan said:

In a society like that of early New England, in which intellectual leadership was in the hands of the clergy, the literacy gained was chiefly employed to the ends the clergy approved; but literacy could be used to explore other avenues. In due course they were explored: trade knowledge, citizenship training, science. After the Revolution, indeed, citizenship training began to replace religion as the integrating idea in education. The Revolution itself dealt a heavy blow to educational institutions, teachers, and funds for education, but the idea that popular literacy was vital survived intact (7:139).

Of all the founding fathers of the United States that had ideas about education, Benjamin Franklin could be called "the father of adult education in America." His first attempt was in the form of an adult discussion group called the Junto. The twelve members (limited because discussion could get out of hand) met weekly on Friday evenings, in the summer occasionally out-of-doors and there was an annual "jollification", for the social side was never neglected nor was the intellectual side everplayed.

It has often been asserted that America seldom adopts anything from the old World that she does not improve upon or ameliorate. In the field of adult education this is especially true, for in establishing a system of public libraries,

colleges, lyceums, mechanics' institutes, and university extension work, the United States has far excelled Great Britain.

In some aspects we have invented or forged far ahead of Europe, particularly in free, public education. Massachusetts had a compulsory school law in 1820 just exactly fifty years ahead of Great Britain. In the area of lyceums which were a British innovation that we borrowed, they found here their greatest and most lingering expression.

Atkinson and Maleska reported:

Lyceums were founded in several localities before 1820. As scientific societies they collected natural history specimens, studied the natural resources of the country, and provided lectures on serious subjects. Considered the founder of the lyceum movement was Josiah Holbrook (1788-1854) who, in 1826, made the important suggestion that the local groups be organized into county, and the county into state, organizations. For several years he devoted all his time to the extension of this movement. His success is shown by the fact that in the late 1830's more than 3000 communities had lyceums (1:142).

In 1831, a national organization of lyceums held a few annual conventions before disbanding. Local lyceums established libraries and scheduled meetings featuring lectures on educational topics and scientific demonstrations. One of the most enthusiastic promoters was Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882) who often lectured for a five dollar fee plus oats for his horse. It is said that most of his celebrated essays were first written for oral declamation from the lecture stage.

Other organized efforts for the education of youth and adult populations outside of established school and university systems made rapid progress in nineteenth century America. Many humanitarian and philanthropic agencies championed this idea of spreading knowledge to all classes of people. The Boston Mechanics' Institute was founded in 1826 and the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge in 1829, these were the American counterpart of the already described British SDUK.

The Chautauqua Movement is the next experiment in adult education that has been also called "the cultural striving of small towns" and was an exclusively American innovation begun by accident in 1874. The Chautauqua movement is a classic example of mass education of adults that started on the lake of the same name in western New York State. It was to have been a two week seminar for Sunday School teachers of Methodist Episcopal Church in 1871 but proved so successful that the following year public school teachers from Western New York held a similar institute along the same lines as their religious counterparts.

Records show that between 1874 and 1894 there were as many as 10,000 home study circles, 75 per cent of them located in towns of less than 3,500 population. The movement lasted until about 1918 with some 300,000 bonafide enrollees and the

State of New York granted degrees for a short time to those who mastered the entire program.

Another uniquely American facet of adult education was that movement referred to as agricultural extension. This grew out of a need for enlightenment in the rural areas of our vast nation, it was a slow and painful phase of the adult education picture but was finally aided by Congress through legislation which aimed at this need. The first of these bills was the Homestead Act signed into law by President Lincoln in 1862. This provided for free or cheap land in the public domain of the West and the rapid settlement after the Civil War.

The second was the Morrill Act of the same year that provided for the endowment and establishment of agricultural and mechanic arts colleges. This was accomplished through liberal gifts of land in the states where applicable with funds appropriated to those more settled east of the Appalachians. The last of these bills of 1862 provided for the establishment of a Department of Agriculture but it wasn't raised to the Cabinet rank until 1889.

The next great step forward came in 1887 when President Cleveland signed the Hatch Act into law which provided for the establishment of agricultural-experiment stations throughout the country. These aided in the systematic research along agricultural lines and helped in the scientific aspect of

farming by supplying literature published freely and aided in the dissemination of knowledge to farmers who were no longer willing to blindly "do as my daddy always done it".

With the signing of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914 agriculture extension was placed on the books. The key man in this operation was the county agent located in each courthouse throughout the land, who with his staff handled such duties as demonstration, organizing county and junior fairs, 4H Club work, lecturing to farmer's groups, and answering in general all questions pertaining to agriculture addressed to him each year.

The last important bill to pertain to this phase of the adult education movement was the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 which added home economics to extension and to the public high schools. This was expanded in 1920 to include vocational training as well. This bill made funds available to assist in paying teacher's salaries, the erection of vo-ag shops, and in "continuing" of adult education.

The public school serves adult education and it is through this phase that most people have become acquainted with the program. It was during the 1920's when adult education was so named and came into its own in the Americanization of the large numbers of immigrants who flocked to this country after World War I. Public schools were used night and day for

classes in English and citizenship, and this practice has continued to this present day. New York City is an excellent example of this program. In September of 1960 there were 900 classes with an enrollment of a little over 11,000 students mainly Puerto Ricans and other Spanish-speaking people who have flocked to this metropolis in the last decade.

One of the most profound influences on adult education came during the great Depression of the 1930's. People turned to evening classes either because they wanted to improve their chances for employment, or because their jobless state left them with a great amount of time on their hands.

The Works Progress Administration (WPA) endeavored on three levels to alleviate some conditions. The first was to help educate the four per cent of the adult population who were illiterate. Advanced vocational courses and university courses were offered to high school and college graduates on a post graduate basis. In addition public libraries and municipal museums instituted new educational services and classes for adults. The last aspect of the W.P.A. program was in the aid to teachers who were left jobless due to the economy moves by the various school districts as their funds shrank.

Probably the most popular aspect of modern adult education suburban programs was started in central New Jersey in 1935. It started a trend and continued throughout the

nation. Courses in everything from golf and dog training to political science and abstract art are offered, usually at night, under a group of private citizens. In most cases school buildings are used and the program is administered by school personnel.

Atkinson and Maleska report:

Recently the interest in such courses have grown so much that school and municipal authorities have stepped in and arranged programs. Sometimes special coordinators or directors are employed for the sole purpose of administering and supervising the courses. State aid, usually on the basis of attendance, is a widespread practice (1:145).

One last aspect of the adult education movement in the United States is in actuality two closely related phases - university extension and worker's education. These two go practically hand in glove for one is an outgrowth of the other.

Trade and labor unions in the United States were slow in seeing the values of education until lack of union leadership lead them to look beyond the immediate. The first union to send people to university classes was the Women's Trade Union League of Chicago. This union was founded in 1903 and was one of the more progressive ones. In 1914, the WTUL sent three shop girls to the University of Chicago and Northwestern.

Grattan comments:

Actually the pioneer workers' education effort which has had a continuous history down to present day is that of the International Ladies Garment Workers Union

in New York City. The educational activities were started in 1916 under the leadership of Fannia M. Cohn and since 1935 have been directed by Mark Starr (7:247).

Since 1921 the American Federation of Labor (AFL) has become interested in workers' education. When the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) broke away from the AF of L in 1938, one of their prime reasons listed for bolting the A F of L was the lack of union leadership in adult education.

In 1931 Rutgers University pioneered the first on-campus resident institute for workers. The depression and World War II put a crimp in this program but by 1951 the following universities undertook workers' education as a phase of their program: Alabama, California (both at Berkeley and Los Angeles), Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, Indiana, Cornell, Penn State, Rhode Island, Roosevelt, Rutgers, and Wisconsin.

World War II and its aftermath had a stimulating effect on adult education and by the school year 1947-48 the top ten states by percentage of population enrolled in adult education courses were (in descending order) California, Wisconsin, New York, Iowa, Utah, Colorado, Washington, Delaware, Michigan, and Arizona. Others are joining this group as state after state having seen the values of adult education pressure their legislatures into larger appropriations for work with adults.

The federal government has become increasingly more active in all phases of adult education too. Some of the

programs on the national level would include the Job Corps for young adults, VISTA or the domestic Peace Corps, and perhaps the most significant program of all, Basic Education of the Functionally Illiterate. This program deals with about fifty-five million Americans who have a fifth grade reading level or lower, currently it is working on the lowest end and with those not presently gainfully employed and who are in the relief rolls.

In the last survey of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare compiled in 1958-59 (a new report will be published June 1968) it showed over nine and one half million Americans enrolled in some adult education activity not including church oriented quasi-educational activities. No small wonder that this is truly an emerging field.

This section has reviewed the adult education movement in the United States. The last phase of this chapter will relate to the evolution of the adult education movement in Auburn, Washington.

III. THE HISTORY OF ADULT EDUCATION IN AUBURN, WASHINGTON

Auburn Public School Board attendance records show that during World War II there were defense classes conducted

in Auburn High School. These must have been based on a semi-official basis for the records appear to be inadequate. These were primarily classes designed to aid the war effort and included welding, woodworking, drafting and blueprint reading and home economics.

The first organized adult evening school classes in Auburn began in November of 1945. These were in citizenship, homemaking, mathematics, creative arts, mechanical drawing, commercial subjects and recreation. Evening school records of 1945 showed the enrollment at the first session of classes was 114 adults and it increased to 195 adults before the end of the year.

In an interview with Claud Hostetter, the first director, revealed:

Whenever a sufficient number of persons requested a class, an instructor was obtained and a room was assigned in which to meet. The position of scheduling classes, arranging for instructors, obtaining supplies, writing publicity for the program, and taking care of the multitude of arrangements necessary to carry on adult classes was delegated to Claud Hostetter, as director of adult education in Auburn in September of 1945 (9:-).

Adult classes increased in the school year 1946-47, with new class offerings and increased enrollment.

Howard Willis reported:

During the school year 1946 to 1947, the program consisted of many new and varied courses: agriculture, business, algebra, chemistry, Spanish, English comp-

osition, public speaking, English for the foreign born, current world problems, physical education, and home-making. Classes met two evenings a week from 7:30 to 9:30 p.m. The enrollment fee was \$8 for twenty lessons with a \$4 refund if the student maintained an 80 per cent attendance (20:17).

There were 306 adults enrolled for instruction that year. Other interesting facts gleaned were in the area of finance of the program which was financed by: (1) fees, (2) Veteran's Administration, (3) state apportionment, (4) county apportionment, and (5) sale of books and supplies.

Instructors were paid \$2.25 to \$2.50 per hour, the overhead expense of operating the evening school was estimated at \$6 per session. All costs of the 1946-47 evening school amounted to \$1,707, income from the above sources amounted to about \$1,600, with one undetermined, that of educational units.

Under the guidance of Dr. Rolland Upton, who assumed the superintendency of Auburn Public Schools in 1948, the program was further expanded. Upton listed five reasons for the enlargement of the program at this time.

From Willis who reported:

1. Emerging from the post war years, the people were beginning to get back to some degree of normal living. Part of this normalcy included a desire to improve themselves and acquire new skills. The administration wanted to respond to that desire on the part of adults.

2. The state program of public school support provided for this service. Many other communities were taking advantage of this program.

3. The school faculty represented a resource upon which to draw. There were a number of talented teachers in the secondary schools who were capable of teaching subjects which were in demand by the adult population.

4. In the community there were a number of fine teaching resources in several special areas; such as, art, vocational and cultural fields.

5. Financing was rather simple. Tuition was non-existent in some areas, and at a very minimum in others, but the interest in the program was great enough so that class size could be maintained on a self-sustaining basis with state aid (20:20).

During the winter quarter of 1948, the evening school records disclosed the enrollment was 540 adults at the beginning of the quarter and 611 at the end of the quarter. This was due in part to the addition of three classes in drivers' training and two specialized courses in banking (one in consumer credit and the other in negotiable securities). Forty of the enrollees of the banking classes came from outside the Auburn area, mainly from Kent, Sumner and Puyallup.

In the following year, 1949-50, the end-of-the-year reports showed a grand total of 1,306 people had registered for adult classes. From the total, the women out-numbered the men 970 to 336.

This same year the "Auburn Globe News" featured an article on the Home Gardening course. It met with immediate enthusiasm when Cecil Solly, a nationally known horticulture expert and radio personality, gave a series of talks to these gardening hopefuls (2:1).

The same article revealed that sewing classes were extended to the Algona-Pacific area (five miles south of Auburn) to meet the demand in that area. In the same vein, a class in home nursing was organized to meet the need for trained personnel on the West Coast that was acute due to the gravity of the Korean conflict which broke out that summer of 1950.

In 1949, the evening program was expanded to include day classes that operated as the Green River Community College and were housed in several units of the Terrace Administration Building at 909 Ninth Street Southeast in Auburn, Washington.

The greatest enrollment reached by the community college was 150 students from Auburn, Kent, Maple Valley, Black Diamond, Enumclaw, Sumner and Buckley. This program lasted until 1952 because the Korean War, the lack of male students, and the cutting back of state funds necessitated the closing of the day program thereby returning to the extended secondary school the evening school program.

The evening school moved out of the old high school and into the new one on Fourth Street Northeast where it remained until the opening of the revitalized Green River Community College in 1965-66.

From 1951 to 1957 the program remained fairly constant but there were a number of administrative changes. Claud

Hostetter took the vice principal's job in 1954 turning the night school over to Robert Heaton, who remained in that capacity until the spring of 1957. The leadership of the program passed to John Blake, the head of the vocational agriculture department. Also in the same year Claud Hostetter assumed the duties of high school principal.

This same memorable year saw Dr. Upton move to the superintendency of the Olympia schools but Auburn was most fortunate in securing the services of Hayes Holman, who had been Superintendent of Centralia Junior College and Superintendent of Centralia Public Schools. His background and experience in working with adult education was an asset to the expanding Auburn program.

The minutes of the June 3, 1959, meeting of the Vocational and Technical Advisory Committee showed a request from John Friors, of the Boeing Company, to the Auburn Adult Education Center to provide a curriculum in electronics. This was and still is, a growing field with industry working to eliminate as much manual labor as possible; today workers must retrain or perish.

Figures released in a table of the State Board for Vocational Education for the State of Washington in June of 1960, showed Auburn in third place in vocational and industrial classes in King County (Seattle and Renton were one and two respectively). This same table showed Auburn's program to

be sixteenth in the state with a vocational enrollment of 453 students in that year.

Along with this vocational program, there were 2,500 students attending evening school classes during the 1961-62 school year as compared to the 195 students in 1945. This tremendous growth would be highly influential in three years time.

In the fall of 1962 John Blake, who had guided the program from 1957 to this year, resigned to take a similar post in the Edison Technical School program of the Seattle Public Schools. Ray Needham was named to succeed Blake, and he directed the program until 1965 when he was named Dean of Instruction for the Green River Community College. Harold W. Taylor took over the duties of the Director of the Adult Evening School Program and holds that position today.

Due to much agitation throughout the State of Washington in 1963 for the apparent need for higher learning for the tremendous crop of "war babies" who were now graduating from high school, it was almost a certainty that the next legislature would have to act to relieve the situation that was building. Previous legislatures had set a limit of nine junior colleges, three state colleges, and two universities. The situation had become intolerable.

In the fall of 1960 a citizens' advisory committee for a community college was formed in Auburn. They set to

work to secure a site and the necessary legislative approval. When the legislature met in January of 1963, the Auburn School Board presented its application for a community college to the State Board of Education on June 18, 1963. Other communities throughout the state were ready too. The legislature approved a bill providing for four new community colleges; two to open immediately that fall with an enrollment of at least 850 students each and two more to open the following year. At the legislative hearings held before awarding these sites, the infighting between the many communities seeking these educational facilities became exceedingly bitter. When the hearings ended all they could do was wait for the decision.

One cannot imagine the joy in town when the announcement was made July 8, 1963, that Spokane and Auburn were successful in securing these first two spots; Seattle and Shoreline the other two. There were many reasons why Auburn, the smallest community in the race, was awarded this adult education bonanza. Some of these reasons are:

1. A large, well-functioning adult evening school program with 2,300 people enrolled as of 1962-63.

2. A strong vocational and technical program that had experience in providing classes and instruction for industry in the area. Some of these industries would include the Boeing Company, Pacific Car and Foundary Company, Rohr Aircraft Company, and Heath-Tecna Plastics

to name a few.

3. An excellent site - 160 wooded acres of state school land three miles east of Auburn that is centrally located to Auburn, Kent, Renton, Issaquah, Maple Valley, Black Diamond, Enumclaw, Buckley, Sumner, Puyallup and Federal Way.

4. A responsive and educationally-minded community coupled with capable leadership in administration of the program and a highly competent staff.

Dr. Melvin Lindbloom, a highly capable administrator, was named President of Green River Community College. Ray Needham was appointed Dean of Instruction, and Earl Norman was elected to the Dean of Students position, and Orvill Hansen as librarian.

The first building was not quite finished at the end of September, 1965, when the doors were opened for students. The Auburn Adult Education Center moved up and were incorporated into the program too. Some classes were located in the nearby Lea Hill Elementary School until the end of winter quarter when the second building in the college complex were ready for occupancy.

Today Auburn, as well as all of southern King and eastern Pierce counties, have an educational center for which they can be truly proud. This facility is beautifully situated in a wooded setting, with tastefully designed build-

ings, and offering a first class education for the youth and adults in this area.

This rapidly expanding field of education of adults has often neglected certain aspects of the total educational program in its haste to get underway. Such items as handbooks, workshops, in-service training and evaluation are understandably forgotten or postponed in the headlong rush to open its doors, establish a curriculum, and select a staff. This third chapter endeavors to merge the needs of a handbook containing a history of adult education, administrative details, classroom procedures, with the methods, techniques and devices that are appropriate in the instruction of adult learners.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A great deal has been written in the general area of adult education but in the specific field of methods and methodology applicable to the teaching of adults, there is a decided scarcity. True, there is a wealth of material on methods and techniques designed for use with children and youth and, in so far as is practicable, many of these can be used in the education of adults. In this paper the author has tried to differentiate between methods and teaching techniques, although some writers in the field make no such distinction and use the two terms synonymously.

I. METHODS APPLICABLE IN ADULT EDUCATION

"Every man who rises above the common level has received two educations, the first from his teachers; the second, more personal and important, from himself." Cyril Houle (10:2).

One of the chief means of attaining this education in the second phase mentioned above, is through the medium of adult education.

Many people equate education with traditional schooling, and therefore are unable to recognize the fact that in

adult education the process can operate outside, as well as, within a school setting. Adult education is not bound by any traditional methodological concept, and it does not attach any value to processes beyond its utility in achieving a learning objective efficiently, effectively and appropriately for the group being educated.

Brunner amplified this idea:

Adult education is concerned with the diffusion of knowledge as a means of inducing changes in attitude and behavior. An adult educator, therefore, is an agent for change operating within the control of an institutional program. This program must have organization and be a planned effort to achieve learning through a direct relationship with the learner, rather than by chance as is true in the case of general diffusion through advertising, propaganda, or mass media. This is the method of adult education (4:143).

In responding to the second aspect of techniques used in adult learning, Brunner further expanded along these lines:

Once the method has been determined by administrative decision a second stage in the diffusion process comes into play. With the concept of method, the agent (I.E. adult educator, teacher, etc.) seeks to facilitate the learning process by establishing a relationship between the material being diffused and the learner. To this end, the agent may employ a wide variety of established processes or invent new ones, that in one circumstance or another, prove useful in furthering learning. These processes are the techniques of adult education (4:143-44).

Through the study of adult education, it is possible to identify and classify the numerous forms and processes used to achieve various educational objectives without being hampered by traditional conceptions of education.

Verner and Booth identify three processes as follows:

Three separate elements are included in the notion of processes for adult education, and each of these describes a discrete function. The first element is the method: the organization of the prospective participants for purposes of education. The second element involves techniques: the variety of ways in which the learning task is managed so as to facilitate learning. The third and final element involves devices: all those particular things or conditions which are utilized to augment the techniques and make learning more certain (18:68).

A slight amount of confusion seems to exist in the realm of semantics in regard to the terms, methods and teaching techniques. In this vein Brunner has attempted to clear the air:

Because of the way in which the field has developed there are numerous instances of confusion and conflict in terminology, so that the same term is used to denote the method and the technique. Research in adult education, however, has concentrated in the efficiency of techniques in facilitating learning (4:144).

Brunner concluded this facet as follows:

In summation of this part of the discussion, it must be pointed out that the methods, techniques, and materials of adult education should be developed especially with their use with adults in mind. High school procedures and materials were found inappropriate again and again by both the Army and Navy.

To teach adults successfully methods and techniques understandingly adapted to their needs and maturity must be employed (4:148).

In a more specific aspect, the term method can be broken down in detail for closer examination.

Verner and Booth elaborated:

The method of education identifies the ways in which people are organized in order to conduct an educational activity. A method establishes a relationship between the learner and the institution or agency through which the educational task is accomplished. Formal educational institutions establish such a relationship for learning by having the participants come to the institution and organizing them into groups according to age, ability, subject matter, or some other criterion. These groups are referred to as classes. Since pre-adult education is almost exclusively institutionalized through the school, the principal method employed is the class. Adult education, on the other hand, is not exclusively institutionalized; therefore, it employs the class method as only one in a variety of other methods (18:68-69).

Because method describes a means of organized learners, the methods of adult education fall into a scheme determined by the way people are organized in society. People because of their nature can be found as individuals, groups or living in communities. Conversely, methods of adult education can be classified as individual, group, or community methods.

Individual methods. There are many individuals seeking learning who cannot attend an institutional setting, therefore the institution must adopt methods to accommodate them. Isolation of the individual may stem from living in rural areas or in isolated outposts, or through immobilization due to physical disabilities.

Verner and Booth explained:

Whatever the causitive factors, the design and management of the learning experience is accomplished through the use of methods that serve one individual at a time. Such methods include correspondence study, directed individual study, apprenticeship, and internship. Each of these methods has come into existence in an effort to provide educational opportunities for a particular clientele or to meet a specific instructional problem (18:69).

Correspondence study consists of organized lessons or assignments developed sequentially and carried out through a student-teacher relationship that is carried on through the mails.

According to Grattan (7:390) the first mention of the idea of corresponding lessons through the mails came in 1856 when a German and French teacher exchanged grammar lessons once a month through the mails. Closer to home the idea came about through the Chautauqua Movement in 1879, when Dr. William Rainey Harper, later president of the University of Chicago, inaugerated this type of study for the Chautauquans. Later, in 1890 he provided the first university extension correspondence study through his university. Private correspondence study started the following year when Thomas J. Foster, editor of the "Mining Herald" at Shenandoah, Pennsylvania, first offered this service.

Commenting on the comparative success of students engaged in correspondence study pitted against those in

regular classes, were Verner and Booth who stated:

Numerous studies comparing the achievement of correspondence students with that of students in regular classes indicate that correspondence students achieve as well or better than resident students, in terms of the factual information acquired. In spite of this, correspondence study tends to be considered inferior and limitations are imposed on the number of correspondence courses that can be applied toward certificates or degrees (16:70).

According to Grattan (7:243) there are two drawbacks to correspondence study, the first in the fact that not all subjects lend themselves to treatment in this manner. The second lies in the field of high self motivation and intense application needed for independent study that gives this method the highest dropout or noncompletion rate of any others devised.

The next phase of individual study would be that of apprenticeship and internship, of which Verner and Booth stated:

Apprenticeship and internship are individual methods employed when the nature of the learning task is such that skills and knowledge can be acquired best through practice under instructional supervision. These methods are used extensively in vocational areas and in certain professions. They constitute the earliest forms of education, and although they have never been fully replaced by later methods, it is only recently that they have been employed systematically by educational institutions (18:71).

Directed individual study is a method preferred for adult education in the field of library studies. The Readers'

Advisor in a library operates on a basis of individual contacts, helping the student find materials for his private studies in cultural and self improvement. This method is a form of adult counseling with an instructional rather than remedial nature commented Grattan (7:236).

Alvin Johnson, a noted librarian undertook a survey of public libraries and adult education in 1938. His eventual recommendations issued at the conclusion of his evaluation are as poignant today as when they were first stated. He eluded to the fact that though there were great beginnings in this area, no library has come anywhere near developing the possibilities within its easy reach (7:236).

Group methods. Group methods for adult education involves a number of individuals in the educational activity simultaneously. The methods employed can be with existing groups or in forming groups for instruction.

Verner and Booth stated:

The learning achieved in groups may be essentially individual learning, or it may be group learning, depending upon the psychic nature of the group. Size appears to be a major influence on the nature of the learning accomplished. The larger the group, the more apt it is to achieve individual rather than group learning, because numbers appear to influence the inter-relationships among group members (18:71).

Verner and Booth (18:71) remarked that along this same line of thinking it appears that certain kinds of learning

objectives can be achieved successfully in large groups while others can be attained only in smaller more intimate groups. Certain group methods require the size of the group be limited.

The class is the most familiar group method as it is used traditionally by formal educational institutions. It is a group pattern in which individuals are gathered together, for the purposes of efficiency and economy, into an institutional group. By way of definition Verner stated:

A class is a sequence of learning experiences arranged in a systematic order of a predetermined duration generally structured around a limited segment of knowledge in which the agent is charged specifically with the general direction, organization, and control of the learning experience (17:5).

Though there are many variations in class, but these in no way alter its fundamental nature. In England the tutorial class is widely used though it is giving way to the sessional class more generally used in this country.

The class method dominates adult public night school programs and university evening extension programs. By using a variety of techniques within the class structure one may extend its utility but the lecture and question-and-answer techniques remain the most popular devices.

Discussion groups are a newer concept in instructional methodology and have assumed the position of a panacea. Simply defined, discussion groups share the responsibility for learning between the group members and the instructor.

The discussion is the major technique but others may be used to enhance the interest. These could be the lecture, role playing or panel discussion but they will be explained more fully in the next section of this chapter.

Verner and Booth (18:73) discussed this aspect by stating that discussion groups are promoted avidly by a number of foundations; among these would be the "Great Books Foundation" or "The Foundation for Continuing Education". The group is limited to about twelve in number and with a limited number they can convene in any convenient place and are not restricted to institutional facilities. Out of these meetings comes a special type of conceptual learning not gained as readily in other methods.

Verner and Booth commented on this facet:

Comparative research studies show that the discussion group is equal or superior to other methods when the educational objective involves alterations in socially based behavior, attitude changes, or group decision-making. It is effective for developing depth in understanding concepts, for recognizing relationships, and for integrating learning with experience. It is not useful in teaching manipulative skills or content acquisition. Discussion is a sophisticated method requiring a particular kind of participant (18:73).

The typical participant attracted to discussion groups usually has a higher educational background and is in a higher socio-economic status.

Morgan, et al (12:62) gave their opinions on the

workshop and the institute. This is a relatively newer method popular with adult educators, and consists of a learning situation in which activity is concentrated in a limited period of time, from a few successive days up to two weeks for the workshop and even longer for the institute. The institute especially is currently popular in higher learning institutions and in many cases represents a cooperation between the sponsoring institution and various agencies of the federal government, such as, the National Defense Education Act or the National Science Foundation to name but two. Workshops and institutes are frequently residential in nature.

Meetings. The meeting vies with the class in popularity, particularly among the less formal institutionalized programs of adult education. The meeting is generally a single instructional session, although it may be composed of a series of single or related sessions. This method is particularly effective in adult library education and in agricultural extension work but is applicable to almost any group desiring quick conveyance of information. Like the class the technique most often utilized is the lecture or speech though many illustrative devices and visual aids are used in adult education.

II. TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING ADULTS

The techniques or procedures of adult education identify the ways in which the instructor establishes a relationship between the learner and the learning task. The utility of a given technique depends on its appropriateness for the particular learning task. Usually techniques are classified in terms of the kinds of learning tasks for which each is most useful. Like methods, techniques can be broken into three broad areas; the acquisition of information, acquiring a skill, and the application of knowledge.

Bailey comments on this aspect:

There are many methods and techniques of instruction that you can use and these should grow out of the situation, changing as the situation changes. Select your methods to meet the situation that grows out of the relationships which you develop with your group. Choose those methods that hold the greatest promise of meeting the needs of your students (3:13).

To return to the first of the three areas alluded to in the introductory paragraph, the first of these listed was the acquisition of information. This seems to be an excellent means of classifying the various techniques on such a framework of reference.

The acquisition of information. The search for information and knowledge is one of the major motivating forces that prompt people to participate in adult education.

Verner and Booth remarked:

Those techniques which provide facts or data with the greatest facility and least effort on the part of the learner are preferred by most adults. Thus, information giving techniques are used more extensively than any others. They are particularly suited to large groups and are used in meetings, forums and workshops (18:75).

The lecture or speech is the most familiar and most widely used of the information-giving techniques. Morgan, Holmes and Bundy stated:

The lecture is an oral presentation by a speaker having to do with organized thoughts and ideas . . . The lecture is a quick way to present material because, by the use of notes, the lecturer may move from one thought to the next in a logical fashion. The lecture appeals to people since it is easier to listen than to read (12:64-65).

In a slightly different definition of the lecture technique given by Verner and Booth they said:

A lecture is a discourse on a particular subject organized logically so as to present the maximum information with a minimum of complexity. The lecture is among the oldest educational techniques; it came into being because the scholars who had the information were the only source of it. Now that printing and other media of mass communication have facilitated access to desired information, there is no longer a need for scholars to lecture in order to diffuse information (18:78).

In view of this new role of the lecture, its function and purpose have changed. At present its primary purpose is to set a common frame of reference for learning.

An interesting sidelight at this point is in a statement made by President Charles Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin at the first National University Extension Conference

in 1915. He said in part, "The speed of accumulation of knowledge seems to be racing ever faster; but the speed of distribution seems slow in comparison." This is as true today as it was fifty-two years ago. President Van Hise went on to say, "New instructional methods and techniques are continually being developed, but such development does not always result in widespread use" (15:27).

This appears to be the critical factor in that there is usually a lag between research and its application.

In regard to research that applies to adult education, Verner and Booth stated:

Research studies indicate that shorter, well-prepared lectures are better than longer lectures (thirty minutes appear to be the optimum length). When compared with group discussion, the lecture appears to be better for immediate recall but less effective for delayed recall. Lectures alone seem to bring about little change in behavior and are not as effective for learning as when they are combined with other techniques, such as discussion or demonstration . . . Since most adults are pre-conditioned to the lecture, it is generally effective with any group (18:78).

In still another research study in the same spirit as stated above, Kurt Lewin's experiment performed during World War II, stands as a classic. Lewin used 33 lecture groups and 44 discussion groups, giving the lecture group a half hour lecture followed by 15 minutes of question-and-answer period. The discussion groups worked the entire 45 minutes in their discussion fashion. The results were outstanding in

the field of recall of information. The lecture group retained information ten to one over the discussion group but the second group did far better in the problem solving part of the test and though given less information they retained what they got longer (4:164).

Lewin's study prompted the United States Air Force to experiment with two groups enrolled in Primary Pilot Training course near San Antonio, Texas, in 1948. The problem here was the value of the lecture technique versus lecture-discussion technique. The startling discovery uncovered was that the straight lecture was more effective in straight recall than their counterparts who listened to the lecture and discussed it afterward. However, there are some variables that should be noted here; first, in both cases this was a select group of better than average intelligence; secondly, these subjects were under military authoritarianism, thus were highly motivated in that they would "wash out" of pilot training for any breach of conduct or shoddiness; and lastly, these select students were well oriented to the lecture method (4:170).

Another interesting item concerning the lecture technique was that of Professor Bloom of the University of Chicago in an article in the Journal of Developmental Education for April of 1953 who concluded, " . . . more actual

thinking takes place under the lecture method than in discussion" (19:247-51).

Now for a last look at the lecture technique in which two investigators, Verner and Dickinson, offered eight Do's to use in instances where the lecture technique is preferred.

Dickinson and Verner relate:

If the instructional objective clearly indicates the lecture to be the appropriate technique, it can be enhanced by insuring that:

1. The number of major points presented is not excessive,
2. Summaries are presented at the beginning and at the end,
3. The material presented is meaningful to the learner,
4. Verbal illustrations used to establish meaningfulness coincides with the learner's experience,
5. The length of presentation does not exceed thirty minutes,
6. The sentences are short and the language and style are simple,
7. The speed of delivery is adjusted to the complexity of the material and the experience of the learner and finally,
8. The lecture is augmented by instructional devices and/or techniques which provide for learner participation (19:89-90).

The next area to examine is in the field of acquiring information and deals with the technique of the panel which is a popular modification of the lecture.

The panel operates either as a series of small lectures by panel members or as orderly, well-organized conversation by a group with specialized knowledge of the topic under discussion. Like the lecture, the panel provides little learning for the participants unless it is used in conjunction with other techniques.

Verner and Booth stated:

Panels and other information-giving techniques are of limited utility, yet they are used more extensively than other adult education techniques. Too often, they are selected without reference to the fundamental objectives of the learning situation. They require the least involvement of the participant; therefore, the responsibility for the success of the venture lies almost wholly with the instructional agent. In some respects they are the easiest techniques to use and with certain groups they may prove to be the most effective (18:78).

Other procedures that fall into the category of the information-type techniques are the debate, which is to discuss argumentatively a question or problem; the symposium, which is a meeting where different authoritative opinions are presented to a large group; the dialogue, which is presentation of different views on a given subject that aims to reveal all aspects of the problem and perhaps arrive at a compromise. Another technique that is actually a combination designed to induce audience participation would include: the lecture-forum, the speech-forum, debate-forum, symposium-forum, dialogue-forum, and the panel-forum. Field trips are another technique

when the objective is to give knowledge of how a process is accomplished in the actual situation.

In regards to the dearth of research on methods, techniques, and devices in the field of adult education, Sheats and McLaughlin remarked, "The methods and techniques of adult education do not lend themselves very readily to controlled research" (14:207).

In the same line of thinking, Kulich and Verner (11:181) commented that research studies related to instructional techniques for adult education are few, often poorly conceived, and generally inconclusive. They elaborated further, that though it is generally assumed that there are no significant differences in the use and effectiveness of methods between adults and pre-adult levels, this assumption itself has not been tested and discounts any independent psychosocial differences that may exist.

Acquiring a skill. Skill-learning, whether cognitive, verbal, or manipulative, requires far different management than does the acquisition of information.

Verner and Booth specified:

The process demonstration is a useful technique for instructing in manipulative operations that must be acquired in order to develop skill and proficiency in performing specific tasks. In the process demonstration the component steps in the performance of a selected task are isolated and taught in sequential order. Mastery of each step is a prerequisite to

proceeding to the next step. The technique is used by the instructional agent to show the operations involved in the task, and these are then reproduced by the learner to reinforce learning (18:79).

Another technique of the skill-learning type is relatively new and useful in certain kinds of verbal and cognitive skills. It is that of role-playing.

Verner and Booth elaborated:

By assuming or acting out a "role", the learner has an opportunity to understand the attitude, perspective, and behavior of the individual whose role he is playing (18:79).

In order for the technique to be useful, the issue being acted out must evoke strong feelings in the participants. It is ineffective when the participants are neutral about the subject. Also it is not a good technique to use with rigid personalities nor will it change those who hold strongly to opinions or have fixed attitudes (4:146).

Brunner commented:

". . . that the technique of role-playing should not be uncritically accepted by adult educators. Research is needed to determine what sort of people, kinds of topics, purposes and situations lend themselves to its effective use, and to determine more precisely just what are the significant effective factors in the role-playing (4:147).

According to Symonds (16:141) role-playing can often be used as a diagnostic tool for the determination and selection of natural leaders in an indiscriminate group.

Drill or practice is a technique that is particularly useful in reinforcing learning.

Verner and Booth commented:

Drill enables the learner to repeat, at his own speed, step-by-step procedures involved in a given learning task. Thus, variable rates of learning ability can be accommodated. In learning manipulative skills, more instructional time must be devoted to practice than to anything else. In the initial stages of learning, practice sessions should receive close supervision to insure that incorrect responses are corrected before they become set. Once correct are learned, the learner can then proceed to drill himself (18:79).

Teaching machines can be used effectively by adults with drill in certain situations. In this regard, Thurston Reeves in an article in the Adult Education Journal observed:

Programmed instruction, whether undertaken by means of "teaching machines", scrambled books", or other instruments, is a tutorial method which assumes that successful and complete learning of a body of knowledge or of a skill can result if the information is presented in appropriately small bits, if the student is involved constantly in responding to this information, and the correct behavior is reinforced (13:59).

In this same article Reeves proceeded to state some of the pro's and con's of programmed instruction, especially those appropriate for use with adults. One of these ideas about programmed instruction is in regards to the shy student who doesn't like to compete with classmates and appreciates the privacy afforded through these means. Another notion was in the area of the slower learner who can go at his own speed

and not feel the frustration of being left far behind as is often the case in a regular classroom. Still another reason for programmed instruction is that it can partially answer the teacher shortage or lack of classroom space. From the administrative standpoint, it can eliminate administrative and clerical demands by its "start anytime" basis (13:59-61).

The application of knowledge. Most adults seek further learning to satisfy some pressing personal need. In this last phase of techniques, Verner and Booth remarked:

Information alone is not enough; it is also necessary to learn how to apply information to the solution of a problem Since this is a different kind of learning task from either the acquisition of information or the development of skills, it necessitates the use of techniques which encourage thinking, evaluation and trial; therefore, these techniques must provide for a high degree of involvement by the learner (18:82).

The problem-solving method involves several steps:

(1) identification of the problem; (2) collection of needed information; (3) selection of trial solutions; (4) evaluation of possible solutions; and (5) choice of the best solution. Any techniques employed must emphasize this problem-solving process rather than an approved solution (18:82).

According to Verner and Booth, group discussion is one of the best techniques for problem-solving. In their book, Adult Education, they elaborate on group discussion and its ramifications. Group discussion provides techniques for

problem-solving as it provides opportunity for extensive participation in the process of helping a group identify, examine, and solve a problem (18:82).

Verner defined discussion in another article:

Discussion implies a face-to-face interacting group of persons engaged in a directed conversation about a topic of mutual interest in which they share both information and opinions or raise questions with respect to the subject under consideration (17:164).

Morgan, Holmes and Bundy (12:73) commented on group discussion with some excellent thoughts on the topic. First, because we learn by doing, discussion provides for participation. The participants learn according to the degree of their participation; those active physically and mentally in the discussion learn more than those who just sit and listen. Secondly, discussion tends to make the participants more tolerant and broad-minded; they see there are two or more sides to the question. Third and lastly, discussion encourages good listening; casual listening is usually unproductive but those engaged in discussion must listen to the remarks of others in order to frame their own remarks.

Numerous research studies have compared the effectiveness of discussion with that of other techniques, such as the lecture. Some conflicting results and conclusions have been reported from these studies but the consensus was stated by

Verner and Booth, who reflected:

Although the results are not conclusive, it would appear that discussion is definitely preferred in situations where the learning objective involves group behavioral or attitudinal change. Furthermore, when group decisions are involved, more "good" decisions arise out of discussion than from the use of any other technique. In terms of the quantitative learning of measurable facts, the lecture is superior to discussion with respect to immediate recall, but discussion is superior in delayed recall (18:83).

Sometimes the term group discussion is too loosely employed to any exchange between the teacher and the adult student, such as that which occurs in a question-and-answer situation.

Verner and Booth (18:83) reflected on this aspect of group discussion in the following manner. True discussion is differentiated from other exchanges among group members by the role and status of the instructional agent. Though good discussion leadership is necessary, the leader must be acceptable to the group in the same status relationship as all members have to each other. The instructor's position or role in the discussion group differs from his position in other techniques. Although discussion is not always the appropriate technique for every specific learning task, there are other values derived from its use which are not associated with the content under discussion.

According to Morgan (12:91) the buzz group or Phillip's

66 discussion are a modification of the group discussion technique that deal with a specific utility in certain learning situations. The first of these, the buzz group, uses small groups of four to ten members to discuss a single topic for a brief period of time (six to ten minutes). It is used in conjunction with a large meeting method to encourage learner or audience participation. It insures and controls the questions raised by the audience. A variation of the buzz group is the huddle. The major difference between the two techniques is that the huddle allows for ten to twelve members and the additional clatter of more chairs being moved to make the characteristic huddle.

Morgan, et al (12:92) commented on the "Discussion 66", or more commonly Phillip's 66, saying it is a combination of the buzz and huddle groups with slight innovations. He noted that J. Donald Phillips developed this technique which is highly adaptable to many large group situations. After a lecture or a panel, the chairman or speaker will count off each six people or if in a facility with fixed chairs will count off three and have them turn around in their seats to face the three behind them.

Then each group has one minute to introduce themselves and elect a chairman or spokesman and a recorder. Now a

clear and concise statement of the problem or issue of discussion is posed for all. It is so worded to encourage single-statement answers or responses. Then these six people have just six minutes to come up with their statement. The chairman of each committee attempts to get the viewpoint of each member and finalize a statement. The overall chairman or speaker will usually announce when they have but one minute left as a warning. The recorder or secretary can give the consensus or give the group's statement to their spokesman.

The Phillip's 66 technique is designed to obtain a quick mass of ideas, suggestions, attitudes or recommendations in an interesting manner. It is definitely not intended to be the meeting in its entirety but rather to supplement other discussion techniques.

There are several other application-type techniques that deserve mention. These will be grouped with a brief explanation of size, function, and application to adults.

From Table 6 in Verner and Booth's (18:80-81) study, they list several of these other techniques appropriate for the teaching of adults. One of these is the Round Table designed for use with small groups who are working toward intensive analysis of a specific problem with a solution desired at the conclusion.

The Seminar is another small group technique which is

used with a group of advanced students who are directed in their specific projects and share through discussion their problems and findings.

The Colloquium works with small advanced groups in which research projects are planned and evaluated as they progress. Case studies are also for small groups through which participants see the application of previously learned principles and knowledge to a specific case and, thereby gain some understanding of the application of principle to practice.

The last of these is the listening team. It can be any size group and used when it is desired to develop critical listening skills and to concentrate attention of the subject at hand. This is often used to secure audience participation in a lecture or panel situation.

This concludes a brief rundown of common techniques but understandingly there are many others that can be fabricated for use in adult education.

Verner and Booth conclude:

The range of potentially useful techniques is limited only by the creative imagination of the instructional agent who must devise ways of helping the learner achieve his educational goal (18:84).

Houle summed the whole notion about techniques, though he used the word "method" interchangeable with the

preferred techniques or teaching techniques, when he stated, "The use of a variety of methods is better than reliance on a single method" (10:239).

III. DEVICES

The term "devices" is a convenient way of identifying the many instructional aids that extend or increase the effectiveness of methods and techniques but cannot in themselves instruct.

Verner and Booth (18:84-5) defined devices as everything from films to furniture arrangement. Each has its purpose with different learning situations. Devices are classified in terms of their inherent nature and the function they perform in the instructional setting.

Illustrative devices. These were explained by Verner and Booth as:

Nearly every learning test is strengthened by the use of illustrations of one kind or another. These may include a verbal illustration such as a lecture; or visual illustration, such as still pictures or slides; audio-visual illustrations, such as motion pictures; or result demonstrations to list but a few (18:84).

The result demonstration is used extensively in agriculture and armed forces education. This device is effective in showing the result to be achieved through application of

information and skill. Examples could be a field of wheat or corn demonstrating the value of fertilizer or special plowing, or a finished garment, or even a plate of a new kind of pastry (18:85).

Films and similar audio-visual devices (film strips, pictures, etc.) are used extensively in a variety of ways for adult education.

Brunner states:

Research indicates that films are an effective media for conveying information, but that the learning achieved through films is closely related to the educational level of the participant. Films achieve their maximum effectiveness when they are used as an adjunct to a technique; therefore, they should not be the sole educational procedure (4:193).

Extension devices. These extend the reach of an educational method to individuals beyond the range normally expected in an instructional setting. Radio and television are used for this purpose. Radio was an extremely important tool in its early days but has been superceded by television.

Again from Verner and Booth:

Television is being used with increasing frequency as a means of extending the reach of a method to large audiences. Television has some obvious advantages over radio since it combines sight and sound. It has been found to be more effective than radio for a great variety of educational tasks, including the learning of a skill such as dressmaking. The effective use of both radio and television is increased by the establishment of some sort of two-way communication between the

agent and the learner. Even the most minimal contact is valuable and a combination of radio or television with correspondence study appears to increase the effectiveness of that method (18:85-86).

Environmental devices. This is a wide open field, for there has been little study of the influence of environmental conditions on learning.

According to Verner and Booth (18:86) the very arrangement of the furniture in the room will serve to shape the learning techniques taking place. Fixed, rigid rows of chairs will not facilitate group discussion no matter how skillful the discussion leader. Also the size of the room will effect discussion greatly. A large room or hall tends to stifle this activity, rather a smaller room with chairs and table arranged in a circular manner is far more conducive to the desired give-and-take of this process. Heating and lighting, especially the latter, is vastly important in an evening school situation for these adult participants.

Manipulative devices. The last device that deserves at least brief enumeration is that of manipulative devices. The same authors above state that training in manipulative skills depends heavily upon the availability of manipulative devices. Included in this category would be the vast range of equipment involved in the skill being learned, since the proper use of

tools and equipment is an essential part of the mastery of any skill. Working models fall into this category because they illustrate the function and relationship of component parts in motion. Some research by the military services and vocational educators has been undertaken in this area of manipulative devices which has proven the utility as to when they should be employed correctly at the appropriate stage in the learning activity. More detailed and specific research is needed in respect to all classes of devices (18:86).

This terminates the review of the literature on methods and techniques for adult educators. In the following chapter the information gathered will be welded into a functional guide for use in the adult evening school program at Green River Community College, Auburn, Washington.

CHAPTER IV

THE APPLICATION OF INFORMATION GATHERED

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of Chapter IV was to relate the information gathered in Chapter III into a functional and practical instrument for use by adult educators in the evening school program at Green River Community College in Auburn, Washington.

In the design and management of adult education programs, the most crucial task facing the adult educator is the selection of the right process. A competent choice requires extensive knowledge of the learning process, of the nature and interaction of groups, and of the efficiency and appropriateness of the various methods, techniques, and devices.

Since method is a matter of organization for learning, the selection of method is determined by the administration or director in light of the type of group, the desired aims and objectives, and the physical setting available.

Because method influences the organization of the educational program, it imposes limitations on the techniques and devices which can be employed.

For example, correspondence study obviously precludes the use of any techniques involving face-to-face interaction among learners because of its individual method nature. Not

all methods impose such conspicuous limitations, but each method tends to restrict the range of choice regarding the use of techniques and devices.

Some learning objectives and their component learning tasks predetermine the range and variety of appropriate techniques. Objectives and tasks within the area of manipulative skills cannot be accomplished effectively through the use of information-type techniques. Although a person could possibly learn to drive a car through the use of the lecture technique, it would be far better to use more appropriate techniques as the manipulative skill type.

Sheats remarked:

Too little research of a definitive nature has been undertaken to allow any prescription of techniques to tasks, what little that has been done indicates that any learning objective is achieved more successfully when a variety of techniques and devices is utilized. No single technique is adequate for any single objective; therefore, a variety of techniques must be selected to fit the various tasks which lead to the objective (14:207).

Adult students bring to each learning task a wide range of knowledge, experience, and attitudes which influence their responses. These factors can facilitate or hinder the effective use of a given technique in a particular situation. For example, few individuals can handle their responsibilities as productive members in a group discussion because of a lack of previous experience with this form. Then too, because of the demand for "practical" learning in the shortest possible time, the adult student will resist those techniques he may

consider to be time-wasting.

The number of participants engaged in any single activity affects the selection and use of techniques. Obviously, group discussion cannot be used in a large group meeting managed by a single instructor, nor can a panel be used in a small discussion group.

The demand for adult education is so great and the supply of adult educators so small that many people are utilized as instructors who are unfamiliar with the learning process and with the variety and suitability of techniques and devices. Such teachers tend to manage the learning situation intuitively by selecting and using the instructional techniques with which they are familiar.

II. PRACTICAL APPLICATION

Now the task is to relate the techniques and devices to the method involved in relation to the course offerings of the Green River Community College Evening School Program.

Initially, it would be prudent to break this program down into its curricular offerings. These divisions would include: the academic high school completion program, the vocational and technical training program, the associate of arts or the associate of applied arts program, and the recreational or general interest programs. One note of

explanation, although the associate of arts program is designed primarily for college credit, these classes can be used for elective credit by those students in the high school completion program or by any general interest terminal student.

High school academic completion program. Roughly, a third of the evening school program students are enrolled in high school completion. Every instructor in this field is a regular teacher in a secondary school during the day. The majority of these are from Auburn and Kent school districts, the remainder from Federal Way, Buckley, Enumclaw, and Puyallup.

Class size varies between twelve and thirty students with an average of about sixteen participants. Age of students ranges between eighteen to sixty-five years.

A further breakdown of the curriculum subject matter areas listing the appropriate techniques and devices for each will now be shown. First to be considered in the high school program is the mathematics department; this includes general mathematics, algebra (beginning and advanced), geometry, trigonometry, and math analysis, the latter two only if the demand is great enough to warrant that particular class.

The techniques that can be used are the lecture,

question-and-answer, and drill or practice. The devices that would aid retention are films, film strips, overhead projectors; manipulative devices applicable to mathematics would include the large slide rule, abacus, x and y coordinate boards, and other counting devices. Programmed instruction is most appropriate for mathematical studies. In specialized classes such as geometry, models of geometric shapes (cubes, cones, pyramids, and others) can be utilized to good effect.

In the field of English composition the lecture, question-and-answer, drill (utilizing a workbook) and reports or projects are effective techniques that can be used. Literature opens the door to the utilization of a wide variety of possible techniques; some of these would include: lecture, group discussion, projects, buzz groups, panels, and Phillips' 66 to list a few.

Public speaking classes can employ a wide range of techniques too. Foremost among those that would be applicable would be speech, group discussion, listening teams, panels, reports, and the use of constructive criticism.

Classes in English for the foreign born requires a highly inventive and creative instructor who can improvise as well as use such suggested techniques as the demonstration process, question-and-answer, and laboratory.

Devices for use in the English division would include

the use of films, film strips, overhead projector, and records, for there are many phonograph records that are excellent for both literature and composition classes. Other visual aids for the English for the foreign born would include the wide use of pictures visually explaining various English words.

History lends itself nicely to the use of the lecture technique and the question-and-answer, panels, projects, forums, debate, and reports. Another technique that works for junior high and younger students is the history play-let or dramatization of a significant episode. Although adults are usually somewhat inhibited, with the right group this could be an effective means to reinforce history concepts.

The many excellent films available are a boon to the instruction of the various history courses. Other trenchant devices are the film strip, maps, overhead projectors, and slides to list but a few of the more applicable devices.

In the science field the key techniques that can be used are the demonstration process and laboratory techniques. Others could include the lecture, question-and-answer, projects, and reports.

Again, motion pictures are excellent illustrative devices for use in the transmission of science information and concepts. Other appropriate devices include: film strips, overhead projectors, and television plus the traditional employment of microscopes, microtomes, dissection

tables, anatomical models, specimen trays, and other manipulative devices.

Vocational and technical training program. The vocational and technical training program contains the greatest number of course offerings and covers a wide range of endeavors. The list of courses offered includes in part the following: auto shop, body and fender trade extension, drafting, basic electricity, basic and advanced electronics, transistors, introduction to digital computers, computer logic, data processing family, welding and burning, private pilot training ground school, blueprint reading, and institutional baking.

If there is a demand or need by a sufficient number of participants (usually a minimum of twelve students) other classes are offered providing a qualified instructor can be hired. Consequently, this formidable list will grow in number from time to time. Conversely, deletions can occur if the demand no longer exists.

It would be foolish to try to list the many teaching techniques and devices that can be used in this overwhelming list. For the most part, the very nature of these classes lends itself largely to the laboratory and demonstrative techniques, with lecture and question-and-answer for impart-

ing theory, general information and fundamentals. Many other techniques such as group discussion, projects, reports, forums, and panels can be employed where applicable to fit the needs of a particular class.

In the same vein, the devices that are utilized are just as varied as the list of class offerings. They can run the gamut of illustrative, extension, environmental, and manipulative devices with a heavier emphasis on the illustrative and manipulative. These include the use of films, film strips, slides, charts, pictures, and working models or mock-ups of an appropriate nature.

The associate of arts and associate of applied arts program.

The associate of arts and applied arts program is another broad and varied field and includes classes from each of the business, humanities, home economics, agriculture, and health occupations divisions.

As previously explained, most of these course offerings are designed for the associate degree student who can be either a transfer or terminal student. The transfer student takes courses of a 100 and 200 nature which can be used at most four year colleges in the state. Terminal students may take these offerings for self improvement and high school completion students may use these classes for electives with the approval of the instructor.

In the business department classes open to all include: introduction to business, legal factors, accounting, basic leadership, small business seminar, retail sales, real estate, supervisory problems, typing, shorthand, business machines, banking, and building materials. The techniques and devices peculiar to this area could run the gamut of those previously listed. In the commercial subjects the laboratory and demonstration techniques are particularly appropriate.

The humanities classes are beginning oil and water colors, history of art, oil painting, Spanish, and reading improvement. Again a wide variety of techniques and devices can be utilized; in the art classes the laboratory method or technique would find wide use. Other techniques that are appropriate are the lecture, group discussion, panel discussion, and projects. In the case of reading improvement the use of programmed instruction devices and the techistoscope are appropriate.

Home economics is slanted toward the sewing side of the spectrum with classes in general sewing, tailoring, dress-making using the Bishop Method. There are no evening classes in cooking or nutrition at present but these could be added if the demand increases.

The laboratory and demonstrative techniques are most applicable in these sewing classes but the question-and-answer,

lecture and project procedures are possible techniques that could be used as an important adjunct to the first two listed above.

Only one class in agriculture is currently being offered for evening school students. This is a class entitled Live-stock for the Small Rancher. The appropriate techniques again should include the lecture, demonstration, laboratory, small discussion groups, panels and projects. Field trips, some individual studies plus wide use of films, film strips and slides are particularly useful devices for this type of learning.

The last division included in this portion of the program is that of the health occupation classes. At this time only two classes are available for night school students. One is medications (for licensed practical nurses), the other is first aid. Both lend themselves to the lecture, demonstration, question-and-answer, and laboratory techniques.

The devices employable include films, film strips, slides, and most appropriately for the first aid, anatomical dummies.

General Interest and Recreational Classes. This last subdivision of the curriculum includes those classes not regularly taken for credit but rather for self-aggrandizement or improvement in the physical and social graces. These classes fluctuate greatly from year to year as the need or demand rises and abates.

Typical classes would include contract bridge (beginning and advanced), flower arrangement, knitting and crocheting, interior decorating, music appreciation, men's chorus, and physical education for women.

Techniques used in these courses generally would include the lecture, question-and-answer, group discussion, panels and projects plus those where the laboratory, demonstration and skill-building are more appropriate. Devices would include those of an illustrative nature, such as films, film strips, slides, pictures, displays, records, and projects plus any manipulative devices that might apply to the particular class offering.

Chapter IV included a discussion of the correlation of methods, techniques, and devices to curricular offerings. These listings are not construed to be absolutes but were merely offered as a possible means to enrich the learning experience of the adult students. The enterprising instructor may employ some of these techniques and devices listed; to the end that, they will amplify, strengthen, reinforce, and add zest to his presentation of subject matter.

Chapter V includes a summation of the entire study and suggests recommendations for the betterment of the evening school program at Green River Community College in Auburn, Washington.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMATION OF THE STUDY

This study was first formally proposed because of a demand for a handbook which grew out of the needs of the instructors engaged in the evening school program at Green River Community College.

In the first chapter the writer stated his premise and purpose, limited the scope, and dealt with the importance of the study.

There seemed a need to identify the historical development of the adult education movement through the years, consequently, a second chapter of a somewhat special adaptation was included. Commencing with that first adult learner, our Neolithic ancestor, the development of adult education was traced through the ages to the actual beginnings in the British Isles. From there, the focus changed to these United States and the long procession to present times was noted. At last attention was turned to the history of adult education in Auburn, Washington. From its humble start in 1945, it has grown into the Green River Community College with an excellent adult evening school

program.

The third chapter narrowed the scope to a review of the literature. This review was channeled to the study of methods, teaching techniques, and devices that are applicable to making subject matter material more meaningful for the adult student and at the same time providing the instructional agent with a more varied approach to his tasks and responsibilities.

In the fourth chapter the aim was to relate the various techniques and devices to specific subject matter areas. The desired end was a richer, more varied and meaningful learning experience for these adult participants.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS

The main objective of this study was to offer suggestions in the form of a handbook for the wider use of newer and more diverse techniques and devices for instructors engaged in adult instruction in the Green River Community College evening school program.

As a result of the study the following recommendations were made:

1. The possibility of establishing a workshop a few days before the school term begins should be examined. In this workshop many of the techniques and devices could be shown, especially to those

instructors having a limited background in educational instruction or little experience in working with adults.

2. The possibility should be investigated of **studying** teaching techniques utilized by instructors in the various curricular offerings. This could be carried out in regards to number of techniques used, frequency of use, length of time employed, and the apparent success of each. Also the number and kind of audio-visual and other illustrative, extension, and manipulative devices that are used could be examined.

3. The possibility of an evaluation of the evening school program at Green River Community College should be investigated. This would serve to inform the administrative and instructional personnel if the desired goals and objectives were being met. It would also offer a means of strengthening those found deficient and applauding those doing a good job.

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