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STEPS TOWARD INCREASED AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN A MICHIGAN COMMUNITY

Ву

Stephen T. Hoke

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to

Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Secondary Education and Curriculum

ABSTRACT

STEPS TOWARDS INCREASED AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN A MICHIGAN COMMUNITY

By

Stephen Turner Hoke

The research was a descriptive study of 30 participants in the "Family and Community" travel/study seminar sponsored by the Cooperative Extension Service in the tri-county area of Michigan known as the Thumb.

The study had three main purposes:

- To examine the way in which people see themselves as learners,
 and to analyze the sources of these self-views;
- 2. To examine the way in which people see themselves as teachers, and to analyze the source of these self-views:
 - 3. To examine the relationships between the following sets of variables:
 - a. Past learning experiences and peoples' views of themselves;
 - Peoples' view of themselves and their expectations regarding a learning experience;
 - c. Peoples' expectations of future learning experiences.

A total of 30 interviews, pretests and post-tests of a set of three written measures, and five different observations of verbal interaction within the group were conducted. The results are presented in the form of both a descriptive analysis and correlational analyses.

The participant observer methodology was adopted by the researcher.

In that role, a triangulated data-gathering and analysis procedure

employing three types of instruments was used. A semi-structured

verbal interaction within the group were conducted. The results are presented in the form of a both a descriptive analysis and correlational analyses.

The participant observer methodology was adopted by the researcher. In that role, a triangulated data-gathering and analysis procedure employing three types of instruments was used. A semi-structured interview gathered descriptive data from the participants about their self-views and the sources of those views. A set of three written instruments assessed whether the participants saw themselves more in the role of a learner or a teacher. Direct observation of the group process recorded the frequency of participants' verbal interactions.

The descriptive analysis identified the 30 participants as a homogeneous group, well-educated, slightly older than the average area residents, highly active in community activities, and from stable homes averaging over 19 years of marriage. Over 90 per cent of the participants attended church regularly.

The majority (93 per cent) indicated a good-to-strong attitude toward learning; 28 participants indicated good-to-high expectations for the seminar, paralleling their overall positive self-views. The majority expressed preference for the Learner role from the outset.

A significant change in self-view was seen in the shift of 67 per cent during the seminar from the learner role toward the teacher role.

The study concluded that self-views may change over time depending on the interaction between various inter-personal factors and the learning experiences. The data gathered indicated that the participants' self-views contributed positively to the level of participationin the seminar.

Past learning experiences as well as numerous background variables, expectations, and attitudes towards learning, tended to influence their attitudes toward learning and their involvement in the seminar. A participant's self-view was also seen to relate to the level of his verbal interaction in the group. Participants who saw themselves as teachers tended to engage in more verbal interaction.

The study was descriptive, identifying basic relationships and testable hypotheses concerning learner and teacher self-views, expectations, and involvement in learning activities. The participant observer methodology proved an effective research strategy, along with the written instruments which identified participants' self-views in the learner and teacher role.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study and my graduate education were both possible thanks to the cooperation of many persons and institutions. It is difficult to enumerate all those who have contributed in one way or another and to describe how I feel about them. But I must say that many of them were important and I want to thank them personally.

Most influential in my doctoral program were my academic committee advisory members, Professors Sam Corl, Cas Heilman, Marvin Grandstaff, John Useem and Ted Ward.

One person should be mentioned first. Dr. Ted Ward was my educational advisor for five years before I came to Michigan State University to study with him. During the course of my study at MSU it was my privilege to learn first-hand from his broad range of unique abilities and experiences. He was constantly flexible and available to help me in time of need. To him I owe my greater appreciation of the human development process, the inquiry process, and the importance of educational evaluation. I extend a very special thank you to him and his very patient and kind family.

Dr. Corl gave me my first encouragement to inquire into the nature of teachers' self-views and to explore alternate models for teacher training.

Dr. Heilman suggested alternative approaches to needs assessment in the community development process in an Indonesia seminar. His

thoughts in that area sparked my independent study into alternative assessment procedures which culminated in my use in the study of a tri-angulated data gathering method.

Dr. Marvin Grandstaff's writings in the theory and background of Non-formal education were foundational in building my knowledge and understanding of alternate, out-of-school educational programs. This interest in non-formal education led to my desire to do my dissertation research describing a non-formal adult learning experience.

Dr. Useem's sensitivity to the problems and intricacies of sociological/anthropological relations caused me to investigate the participant observation strategy more closely. His guidance and suggestions in the area of survey research and interviewing were most helpful.

The study was made possible through the informal cooperation of the Cooperative Extension Service and USAID. The Extension Service covered the expenses involved in data gathering and USAID supported my Graduate Assistantship. I thank the numerous personnel in the Extension Service who facilitated my research and travel.

Ann Ross, Huron County Home Economist, was the person most influential in my successfully completing the project. Ann served as director of the "Family and Community" seminar, and ably advised me in protocol and procedures during the seminar. I thank Ann and her husband for their gracious hospitality and fellowship during the cold winter of 1977.

I would also like to thank the 30 participants of the seminar who were gracious enough to invite me into their homes to interview and patient enough to sit through three different kinds of data gathering

procedures. It was for adult learners like these that this research was undertaken.

I thank my colleagues at Michigan State who encouraged me during the time of the planning, implementing and analysis of the research.

Kathy Graham gave invaluable assistance in the writing, editing and conceptualizing of the study; Rod McKean sharpened my thinking in statistical procedures and analysis; Tom Mace was a friend and encouragement.

Len Bianchi, research consultant, provided inestimable assistance and guidance in the analysis of data. His flexibility and cooperation are greatly appreciated.

Four other women played a significant role in the day-to-day nurturance and support of the project. Geneva Speas, Pat Cairo, and Fran Fowler provided emotional support and critical advice and typing assistance. Marilyn Renegar completed the major portion of typing in a very short amount of time at very short notice. I would like to thank her too.

My father, Donald Hoke, was another source of encouragement and editorial assistance, and I give him my warm appreciation. I would also like to thank all of my family for their patience and hospitality during our two years in Michigan.

My entire graduate education has been completed under the gracious and loving care of my wife, Eloise Ann. To her I owe my life and my love. Without her four years of difficult and strenuous work, we would not have finished the program and built the competencies and skills we both felt were so vital for our future lives. It is to her that I humbly and gratefully dedicate the work that this study represents. She has already accepted its cost; may she now accept and receive its benefits as my co-worker.

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CHAPTER I

IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM

As Cooperative Extension agents and community program planners seek to develop effective educational systems for use with adult learning groups in community development, one of the difficulties is the complexity of community development as a non-formal education enterprise. Every situation is unique; the learners are often cohesive, intact groups with distinctive background experiences. The goals and objectives of the learning processes depend to a great extent on the learners' own views of their needs and capabilities. This demands that the procedures for working with a particular community must be largely created and adapted anew for each situation. The assessment of change must rely on vague and often unreliable indicators (from FASE report, quoted in Ward and Dettoni, p. 232).

Into this somewhat nebulous informal and non-formal social and educational system, extension workers and community program planners must proceed with caution and care. There are no established procedures for improvement or change, no proven indicators, no reliable pretested methods or instructional materials. Discovery is as important as programming, and when program planning competes with discovery, or when programming interferes with and inhibits discovery, such change is not helpful, but becomes counter-productive.

Problem Statement

A major concern in non-formal community education is dealing with people's expectations of what an instructional system should consist of and look like (in order to determine what types of programs will be most meaningful and relevant for the people involved). Based on past experiences, people have learned to expect (and to project) what education for them should look like in the future. Non-formal education systems within Cooperative Extension in Michigan are revealing people's expectations to be a potential roadblock to the effective adoption and implementation of alternative approaches to education for adults, whether they be in the area of extension services or community development.

A necessary next step in the planning and overall evaluation of community programs is to ascertain how people's self-views affect their participation, interaction and learning in a community education program. When a more adequate understanding of the influence of self-views on a learning experience is gained, learning experiences and activities can be designed that will increase awareness and discovery as well as stimulate creativity in participation.

Typically, adult learners have a view of one's self as a <u>learner</u> in terms of a receiver of information and knowledge. Many non-formal educators are concerned with expanding this self-view as a learner to a view of self which takes in a desire to share with other people in the learning process. They want to know if one's desire to share with others will increase as one's self view as a learner expands. The question is, will one's self-view as receiver change

over a short time-frame learning experience to include the capacity to help others learn? If this change in self-view is possible, program planners will have more useful data with which to design adult learning programs. But in order to be able to place persons in educational experiences that are most appropriate and beneficial for them, it is necessary to know just what that person's view of self as a learner and as a teacher is.

A person with a low view of self as a learner would need to experience success in learning to be confident of his capability to learn new information and profit from a group learning program.

A person with a high strong view of self as a learner may be ready to move into programs that equip and train him as a leader and teacher of others. To fill this role, it is important to know what that person's view of self as a teacher is. A person with a low view of self as a teacher may need some confidence building experiences that confirm his ability and skill in helping other people learn.

A person with a high view of self as a teacher will be ready to participate in a training program for potential teachers.

A voluntary community group has certain characteristics that distinguish it from other adult groups. The voluntary nature of the group is a positive attribute to a learning group, for it is believed that people will profit from having participated in such a learning experience.

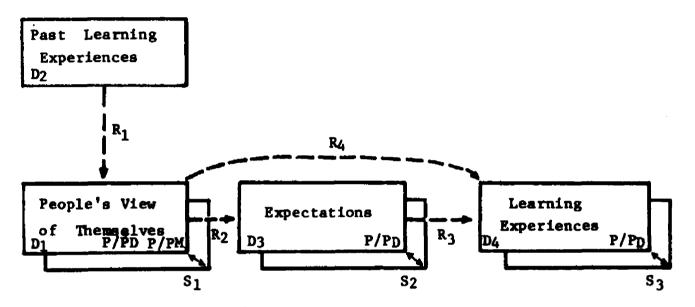
There are other dynamics of involvement in a voluntary group that need to be explored as well. It is necessary, however, to capture these dynamics of interacting forces and elements during the course of the process as it occurs. After the learning experience or activity is completed, the forces are no longer dynamic. They are now history. Therefore, an intense case study of a voluntary community group attempted to record an "existential" picture of voluntary participation as it took place at one particular time.

Purposes

The intention of the study was to use a variety of assessment procedures to describe the expectations and perceptions of a community learning group through their voluntary participation in a particular non-formal community education program. The purposes of the research project were the following:

- (1) To examine the way in which people see themselves as (potential) learners, and to analyze the sources of these self-views;
- (2) To examine the way in which people see themselves as (potential) teachers, and to analyze the sources of these self-views;
- (3) To examine the relationships between the following sets of variables:
 - a. Past learning experiences and people's views of themselves;
 - People's views of themselves and their expectations regarding a learning experience;
 - c. People's expectations of future learning experiences.

From the study of people's perceptions in a particular community learning activity, a set of propositions and/or hypotheses were identified. When developed, the propositions and hypotheses may be tested on a larger scale at a later time. Figure 1 illustrates the relationships that were investigated.



Modes of Data Gathering: Code letters in lower corners of each box represent: D=Description(full verbal description); R=Relationship; S=Summative Data; P/P=pretest and post-test with reference to either description or measurement data; M=Measurements--quantitative data on interaction and self-views;

Figure 1. The Relationships Investigated.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following exploratory questions:

1. Questions of Description (D)

D1. How do these people see themselves as (potential) learners and (potential) teachers?

- D2. What factors relate to the participants' self-views? (What is the source of these self-views?)
- D3. What are the participants' expectations for the learning experience?
- D4. What are the participant's expectations of his/her involvement in the learning experience?

2. Questions of Relationship (R)

- R1. How does a participant's past experience in various learning experiences relate to his/her self-perceptions?
- R2. How does a participant's self-view relate to his/her attitude toward learning in general? . . . a group? . . . and teaching?
- R3. How do these self-views (and expectations) relate to a participant's learning experience?
- R4. How does a participant's self-view relate to the degree of his/ her participation and interaction in a group learning experience?

3. Questions of Change (Summative Evidence) (S)

- S1. To what extent do these self-views change (as a result of the particular learning experience)?
- S2. To what extent did the degree of involvement change during the course of the learning experience?
- S3. To what extent did the level of participation in learning (L) or teaching (T) activities change during the course of the learning experience?

Importance

The study is important for the following reasons: First, there is an expanding need for a knowledge base concerning how people's view of themselves as sharers of knowledge (learners and teachers) relates to their expectations and how these views are affected by particular (prior) learning experiences. The possible relationships that exist between people's prior learning experiences, their view of themselves, their expectations, and future learning experiences were investigated. Understanding the relationships leads to more effective planning for learning, and provides valuable data to planners for decision making in matching methods (means) to learners, as well as matching means to ends.

A second reason is that little emphasis has been placed on ascertaining the perceptions of the target population before community development planning begins, although almost all practitioners of program planning give lip-service to the concept of cooperative planning.

This has often resulted in the "cart before the horse" phenomenon-programs planned with little relation to people's real needs. Little stress has been placed on understanding the sensitivities and sensibilities of the community in deciding what needs are present, where and how to get the data, and for what outcomes to plan. To prevent "the cart before the horse" in program planning, it is essential to assess the needs of the intended audience before a program can be properly planned.

Otherwise, programs will be planned and implemented that neither meet a need nor solve a problem.

A third reason for the study's importance is that there is a need to develop more reliable and effective methods for discovering people's view of themselves, and their preconceptions of the teaching process.

Assessment procedures must be designed that will increase self-discovery and involve the target population in the process of articulating their own expectations for community development. Through the design and implementation of more effective educational delivery systems, further self-discovery will be facilitated and creativity will be encouraged.

Finally, through implementation of needs-related alternative approaches to education for adults, community program planners will be better able to match appropriate teaching-learning processes with people's expectations and experience. In addition, program planners will be better able to structure and adapt non-formal educational programs to local (particular) community needs and expectations.

Specifically, MSU is currently involved with USAID in providing assistance to several developing countries in the area of non-formal education and community development. This study is undertaken with the purpose of providing additional supportive information and data to be used in the "knowledge building" phase of the various projects.

Conceptual Framework

Specialized educational research and programs need to relate to the larger socio-political context in which they take place. It is also important to have a precise conceptual framework for the research in order to define exactly what information is needed and what other kinds of information are supplementary or extraneous to the objectives of the study.

Within an educational setting as complex as a non-formal community learning program, two perspectives are apparent. First, finding out what is going on in the community over time demands a macro view of this study. How is the community growing and developing towards its stated objectives? What are some of the factors at work in the larger community? The second perspective takes a micro view of the specific learning seminar in which this research study is focused. What is going on in the participants during the course of the seminar? What are the factors that relate to the participants' self-view and their involvement in the program?

It will be apparent that both points of view inform the other. Seeing the big picture of the community as a whole establishes a view within which the narrower, more precise research study can fit. Similarly, the focused study needs to be tied to the larger concerns of the community at large. How do people involved in a voluntary community learning program relate to and participate in community life? How does a non-formal learning program play a part in community development? Both views are important in planning a research study that will be realistic and alive. It will be realistic in that it will relate a specific concern to the on-going programs of the larger community and not remain isolated and separated from reality. It will be alive in that it will document a current, in vivo experience as it takes place.

The Socio-Political Setting--The Macro View

Por the Case Study to be relevant and helpful to community program planners in other locations, it must relate the concern of the Cooperative Extension Service (CES) for individual participation in the community political process (as well as involvement in a community learning program) to the social setting in which that participation will take place. A useful method of describing the socio-political context is to take into consideration some of the important general historical and social factors in the Thumb Area. Goldhammer and Farner (1964) list seven factors to be described.

Individual participation in any one of saveral community activities (political, social, or educational) is a result of several interacting factors. Factors such as person's socioeconomic status, his past involvement in the community structures, the political structure of the local government and past programs and procedures may all influence a person's participation in the political processes within the community. Thus, the question must be asked: What are the structural factors within the community which relate to a person's involvement in the political processes in the tri-county area? Chapter Three sketches this background information.

The Educational Research Project -- The Micro View

The specific inquiry of the study must be understood in relation to the evaluation concerns of the CES for the program itself. The major evaluative concern of the CES for this program is: How well is this seminar achieving its stated objectives? What are its consequences in comparison to its intentions and its promises?

Another evaluative concern is determining a criterion or measurement concept to apply to the product or outcomes of the seminar. How does one quantify changes in behavior and actual participation in governmental

These concerns are those felt primarily by the CES, but are not the foremost interest of the study. However, it was possible for the study to design and use several measures which were useful in establishing "benchmark" data. Further, it may be helpful for future researchers as well as for the CES to see the relationship of the evaluative concerns of the CES and the research questions of the study.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are vital to an understanding of the concepts and approaches to be developed in the research proposal. It may be helpful to explain each one within the expanded educational context this report has selected as its area of concentration.

Learner--anyone who is interested in and desires to learn any new concept, principle, or skill. He does not have to be a student in the schooling sense, but can be any person desiring new understanding or skill by study, interaction, or experience.

Teacher—any person interested in helping and facilitating other people in the learning process; one who is involved in showing, guiding, and directing people who are seeking to learn in the broadest sense of the word. A teacher does not have to be certified or especially trained to be able to facilitate learning.

Community——any group of persons organized into a unit or manifesting awareness of some unifying trait; an interacting group of individuals; people living in a particular region and usually linked by common interests. A rural community, for example, is a group of persons living within a particular village having frequent interaction by reason of their proximity to one another, usually sharing common interests, activities and facilities.

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Self-view-- a term used to refer to a person's thoughts, ideas and notions regarding himself as a person; the person's organization of his self-attitudes; the sum total of what a person sees himself to be; the image one has of oneself; this word will be used throughout the study interchangeably with such words as self-concept and self-perception (Videbeck, 1960, p.351).

Expectations— those assumptions or suppositions one holds concerning what will occur in the future; the anticipation or hope in one's mind of a thing or event more or less likely to take place.

Specifically, self-expectations have to do with those hopes that a person holds for himself in the performance of some role.

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Overview

The background and problem statement, the purposes and importance of the study, the research questions to be analyzed, and the general setting in which the study took place have all been described in the first chapter. In the remaining chapters the related literature, an ethnographic description, research procedures, results, and conclusions are presented.

In Chapter II a review of related literature is reported. The review is intended to present findings in four significant areas: perception, community action and development, sociological/anthropological methods, and specific data-gathering techniques including interviewing, participant observation, and written self-reports.

The ethnographic description of the seminar proceedings are presented in Chapter III. A narrative of the data-gathering procedure is recorded

and the interaction of the researcher with participants is summarized to give a representative picture of the entire seminar.

The research design is outlined in Chapter IV. A detailed description of the methodology os the study is presented, including the triangulation of methods, the development of the three data-gathering procedures and the gathering and processing of the data.

The findings of the analysis of the data are discussed in Chapter V.

A summary of the study, the conclusions, and the implications for further research are presented in the final chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

The first purpose served by a review of the literature was to more firmly establish the possible need of the study for non-formal educators working in community development programs.

Second, such a review summarized the existing studies relative to people's perceptions of learning and teaching, who has done the work, when and where the latest research studies were completed, and what approaches involving research methodology, instrumentation, and statistical analyses were followed. For each topic, the range of literature was assessed beginning in the initial studies in the field and moving forward in time to the most recent studies.

In conclusion, a review of the literature served to delineate from several theoretical positions a conceptual framework affording bases for generation of hypotheses and statements of their rationale.

Topics

The review of related literature is organized under four major headings. These are the following: (1) Perception; (2) Community Action; (3) Basic Sociological/Anthropological Methods; and (4) Specific data gathering techniques in participant observation.

Research findings in these areas provide the basis for the research questions of this study.

Perception

Psychologists and educational planners are rapidly learning that the descriptive accounts of each person's world are best arrived at by an analysis of the central character, the principal actor; namely, the self.

Carl Rogers (1951) has probably been the individual most responsible for systematically formulating a self-concept theory of behavior. Hamachek (1973) reviewed this literature and suggested that Rogers' theory is an outgrowth of his clinical experiences as a counselor and represents a synthesis of phenomenology as developed by Combs and Snygg (1959); social interaction theory as represented by Mead (1934) and Cooley (1902); organismic theory as developed in the writings of Goldstein (1939). Angyal (1941), and Maslow (1970); and interpersonal theory as expanded by Sullivan (1953). Raimy (1943) and Lecky (1945) were also influential in the development of Rogers' theoretical system. Videbeck (1960) reviewed the findings of Helper (1955), Manis (1955), and Miyamoto and Dornbusch (1956), which show that an individual's self-ratings are significantly correlated with the ratings of him made by his associates. Their work on the social origins of the self was lodged in Cooley's formulation of the "looking glass self." and in Mead's conception of the self as an organization of socially derived and symbolically represented self-identification.

Self-concept theory, dissonance theory, and research suggested that an individual behaves in a manner which is consistent with how he perceives himself. Evidence showed that some individuals develop "success-type" personalities and look for ways to succeed, and there are others who develop "failure-type" personalities and look for ways to fail, both in order to be consistent with their respective images (Maltz, 1960;

Lowin and Epstein, 1965; Aronson and Carlsmith, 1962). Persons who view themselves as failure types will tend to reject their successes because success experiences "just don't fit" how they see themselves. In a similar way, persons who view themselves as success types will tend to reject their failures because, as in the case above, failure experiences "just don't fit" how they see themselves. There are, however, some instances when the positive effects of an unexpected success (a smile of approval, a word of encouragement, a pat on the back) can make even a failure-type person feel good. There are other instances, however, when no matter how good or unexpected the success, some failure-expectancy persons still reject outcomes which are inconsistent with their negative self-pictures or self-views.

Several further questions arise from this evidence. The first is, what determines which of these experiences—success or failure—will be dominant over the other? In an effort to answer this question, psychologists have begun looking at the role an individual's feelings about himself play in influencing his readiness to incorporate or "believe" his successes or failures. The work of Pepitone et al. (1969) and Coopersmith (1967) showed that self-esteem appears to be related to the extent to which a person "believes" a success or failure experience. Marecek and Mettee (1972) hypothesized that low self-esteem persons may differ as to the certainty of their self-appraisal. A person who is certain about his self-esteem would be more likely to maintain the status quo. On the other hand, the individual who is uncertain and unconvinced of the validity of his low self-appraisal may be more open to success because it provides a means of reducing the uncertainty in a favorable direction. This state of uncertain self-appraisal may leave the success-

deprived low self-esteem individual "hungry" for success experiences that will help validate his refusal to fully internalize or "believe" his past failure experiences.

The conclusions of this research were clear. Not only does a person behave in a manner consistent with his self-image, but the extent to which he either accepts or rejects success or failure experiences depends to some extent on the certainty of his self-image. The implication for further research was also clear. It is important to develop ways in which the certainty of a person's self-esteem can be assessed or diagnosed. Diagnosis methods would provide needed information to program planners and would help determine what type of learning experiences could help learners with low certainty.

This research established a foundation on which the inquiry of the present study will build. Both self-concept theory and dissonance theory provided evidence that most people behave in a way which is consistent with their private self-perceptions or self-views.

If a person's self-view was known, it might serve as a reliable indicator (predictor) of success or failure, as well as a predictor of that person's involvement or non-involvement in potential learning activities.

The question now is, what are the ways in which people in a community see themselves as learners and (potential) teachers, and what are the sources of these self-views?

The literature was reviewed for previous studies dealing with two topics:

- 1. the sources relating to one's view of self;
- 2. a person's view of self in a particular role (learner or teacher).

Studies of the sources of a person's self-view were widespread.

Coopersmith's work on The Antecedents of Self Esteem (1967) served as a representative study of the kind of research done on children with high self-esteem. The factors he discussed as important determinants (e.g., parents' expectations) of a child's self-esteem were listed and compared with the kinds of items that emerged from interviews regarding the sources of their self-views.

Biddle and Thomas (1966) suggested that the field of role theory is still characterized by some definitional misunderstandings and conceptual confusion. This was particularly evident in the research published on teacher role expectations, where, as Biddle pointed out in the Encyclopedia of Research on Teaching (1969, p. 1437), "a wide variety of terms are often used to describe common methods and the same terms may be applied to quite different techniques." In general, for purposes of this review, terms similar to those proposed by Biddle and Thomas have been used.

One of the newer and seemingly most fruitful approaches to the understanding of personality was the observation of the human being from the point of view of the behaver himself (Hatfield, 1961). According to the self-concept theory of personality, an individual's behavior is determined by the perceptions he has of himself as an individual and of the world around him.

Adequately functioning personalities see themselves in essentially postive ways. They assume that they are persons that are liked, wanted, and valued for their own sakes. They become self-confident, self-assured, self-reliant members of society. Self-depreciation results in a falling off of effective functioning. Seeing themselves as inadequate, they perform inadequately.

That self-acceptance is a necessary characteristic for good mental health has also been supported by a number of therapists. Carl Rogers (1947) reported an observation made repeatedly in client-centered therapeutic situations. He found that whenever changes occur in the perception of the self and in the perception of reality, changes occur in behavior.

In education, a teacher's attitude towards himself is an important factor in the growth of a healthy personality. Teachers must learn to accept themselves if they are to understand children and help children to learn desirable attitudes of self-acceptance (Hatfield, p. 87).

The present study was designed to describe the self-views of participants in a learning seminar and to determine the relationship of those self-concepts to their participation in that learning experience.

Studies of Teacher-role Expectations. On the topic of the perception of self in a particular role, such as that of a learner or teacher, Biddle (1969) reviewed 74 studies dealing with teacher-role expectations subdivided into the following categories:

Subject Persons. Teacher expectations may be held by a variety of persons who are usually identified by the social position which they hold. Thus, expectations held by parents may be contrasted with those held by teachers themselves, principals, school-board members, and so on.

Among the criteria used by investigators to differentiate groups of subjects were such things as the subject's ethnic, religious, or racial background, the school level, socioeconomic level of the subject, and more.

Object Persons. A wide variety of investigations were also conducted into role expectations held by subjects for teachers in general and for subgroups of teachers such as primary teachers, male teachers, coaches, and experienced teachers.

Instruments Used. In 1933 Robert Bernreuter explained his construction of the "personality inventory" (P-I). Borrowing from the psychiatrist and counselor the method of using as data answers given by the subjects to questions concerning themselves, Bernreuter developed more adequate means for evaluating the reports which subjects gave concerning themselves. He designed tests or "inventories" which were used in the simultaneous estimation of several traits. His items were adapted from numerous other authors and then edited to fit the make-up of the P-I test.

Powell (1948) discussed an observation measure as a method of evaluating a person's insight into his own personality. Her study, first, determined the relationship between self-insight into adjustment and the "real" nature of the person as shown from ratings of peers and of an expert, and, second, determined the relationship between three different approaches to the measurement of adjustment, i.e., a self-rating, a peer-rating, and an expert's rating. The Bernreuter Personality Inventory was used to gain a self-rating score from each subject.

The field of personality testing has also attracted many investigations. Ellis (1946) reviewed many studies which attempted to validate self-rating questionnaires. Most of these studies investigated only the amount of self-insight individuals have into their adjustment as compared to ratings by other judges. Ratings by more than one class or type of judge were not included in these studies. Given the general lack of agreement concerning either the functions presumed to integrate

or influence the teacher's role, "it comes as no surprise to discover that a wide range of instruments has been used for the measurement of teacher-role expectations" (Biddle, 1969, p. 1939).

Biddle reported that most studies asking for direct self-reports made use of Likert scaling techniques, which call for subjects to choose from a range of ranked alternatives that response which most clearly corresponds to their norm, anticipation, or value. For example, respondents might be asked whether they "highly agreed," "moderately agreed," "felt neutral about," "moderately disagreed," or "highly disagreed" with specific teacher performance, such as using letter grades with pupils.

The list of instruments included the Teacher Practices Questionnaire (Sorenson and others, 1963), Medley and Mitzel's LScAR (Lantz, 1965), and a range of self-developed instruments. Most studies made use of Likert scaling techniques, although Biddle showed that there is also precedent for using several other methods including a Q-sort technique, Osgood semantic differential, and open-ended questions (1969, p. 1439).

An adaptation of a Likert scale instrument, such as Ward's (1961)
"Teacher Self Describer" (TSD) was used in the present study to measure
a subject's self-views or perceptions of himself as a learner and as a
(potential) teacher. The TSD was designed for maximum sensitivity to
the sometimes subtle developments in a teacher's role perception. As
a "pre-post change" study instrument, it has been used to "examine the
impact of such experiences as student teaching . . . or effects of age
and experience upon the teacher's perception of role" (Ward, 1961, p. 2).

Studies of Teacher-role Performance. Biddle reported fewer studies of teacher performance than expectational studies. Presumably this reflects the greater cost of investigations of overt behavior. The investigations of teacher performance examined a small range of classroom behavior along such criteria as grade level, subject matter, age and sex of teacher, and so on.

Methods of Data Collection. Research on teacher performance also exhibited a wide variety of methodological approaches. These can be classified under the headings of non-participant observation, observer rating, and behavioral recording. Of these three strategies, observer ratings seem to offer the greatest reliability, flexibility and opportunity for systematic recording of behavioral events.

The studies of teacher-role expectations and performance discussed above used Likert scales for gathering written information directly from the respondent. However, no studies suggested specific formats for direct self-reports of one's self-perception in the role of either teacher or learner.

The interview setting permitted the direct questioning of the participant regarding his or her self-perception in the roles of teacher or learner. However, it became more difficult to measure self-perception when a written measure was used. For the purposes of the study, it was necessary to construct a written measure that participants could fill out themselves. A procedure similar to the one followed by Bernreuter (1933, 1935), Ward (1961) and Hatfield (1961) was used to design the instruments to record the self-views of participants. The degree of participation of the participants in either Teaching (T) or Learning (L) activities was the dimension selected for self-report.

Summary. The studies of teacher-role expectations and performance were most helpful in their discussion of instrumentation and methods for the analysis of data. Likert scales were adapted to fit a variety of settings and were the most common method for gathering data.

Community Action

A wealth of literature has grown up in recent years around the activities of the cooperative extension agent in community development. The writings of experienced consultants and field personnel established a philosophical base for planning and implementing a participatory research activity that viewed the needs and expectations of the participants in a voluntary community action program as being key to its relevance and success. Practitioners have also written useful manuals and handbooks for planning successful programs in other areas (Sanders, 1972; Savile, 1965; Kelsey and Hearne, 1949). Several of these books offered a sound basis for understanding the dynamics of a voluntary community educational program.

Schindler-Raimman and Lippitt (1971) characterized the development and functioning of voluntarism in community development as a key aspect of a democratic society and articulated several basic assumptions about the relationship between democracy, voluntarism, and personal growth and development. They summarized social trends influencing the development of voluntarism, analyzed the needs and opportunities for voluntaers in every community, and explored the bases of motivation of those who volunteer. A complete analysis was given of present recruitment and training programs, and a variety of resources and methods were suggested for implementing ideas for experimentation and innovation.

Biddle and Biddle (1965) and Mezirow (1963) alone, of all the producers of extension literature, focused on the dynamics involved in the revitalization of local initiative and participation for community development. Theirs was a process emphasis rather than a focus on packaged programs, and guidelines were given for capitalizing on voluntary involvement within the community.

Meta-Purposes. In any goal-orented activity there may exist "meta-purposes" which are more comprehensive and thus above or behind the stated purposes. There exists in program planning and community development a taxonomy of purposes and motivations for involvement in such programs, ranging from external, authoritative control to an almost laissez-faire position.

A first level of purpose or motivation is often highly visible and heavy-handed authoritarianism such as, "You need to do this the way I tell you...." This approach has characterized many aid and development program planning efforts in the past.

A second level of purpose is expressed in the phrase, "We want you (the local participant) to do as much as possible, but we are here to help whenever necessary." This supportive stance is more characteristic of the current trend in development relationships between program planners and communities.

A third level of purpose is further removed and external. The community is expected to do it all alone, and outside help is only given to facilitate what the local community has already initiated.

It will become evident that there may be motivations or purposes at all of these levels operative in the study. At the outset, for example,

it will be obvious (and therefore left unsaid) that there exist certain philosophical assumptions regarding the desirability of human resource development, increasing self determination, and participatory decision—making that are consistant with a Developmental Psychological position.

These assumptions will not be further labeled or made any more specific than necessary preconceptions on the part of the sponsoring organization. If this were not the case (i.e., that the Extension Service felt communities should not be involved in these sorts of educational programs), the project would never have been initiated.

The role in which the sponsoring organization is most comfortable and the one with which this research report aligns itself is the second. This posture brings the facilitating organization and its resource people into close interaction with the community participants. While the motivation comes from the participant, both participant and facilitator are actively involved in co-exploring and investigating.

The report does not depict the program planner in a role at the third level. Accepting the role of facilitator in this learning experience did not allow the program planner to retreat to a distant observer role entirely. It was hoped that the planners of a project of this sort could straddle the two extreme positions to maintain a balanced participant-observer role that would be mutually beneficial.

Background Information on the Cooperative Extension Service. The Cooperative Extension Service is an arm of Michigan State University's total educational program. It was created in 1914 with the passage of the federal Smith-Lever Act. The role of the Extension Service

is to further the basic, democratic philosophy of the land-grant college system--education to meet the needs of the people. Programs of the CES are informal and based on local needs, conducted in out-of-school (non-formal) situations, and seek to solve the problems of individuals, groups, and committees.

County extension staff, or agents as they are commonly known, are located in each of Michigan's 80 county Extension Service offices. District and area agents are strategically located to provide additional services. In areas where population is less dense, as in the Thumb Area, agents may be shared by more than one county. Cooperative programs are also planned to involve persons from two or three counties.

The overall objective of the Michigan CES is to provide educational programs to help individuals make sound decisions to maximize their potential for personal development and growth. This may include decisions to earn more income and use it wisely; to develop talents and capacities; to provide youth with creative opportunities for character development and leadership training; to foster an atmosphere for healthy, satisfying family life and individual growth; and to plan for better communities in which to live and work.

Traditionally, Extension programs have been guided by local citizens who serve in an advisory capacity and direct the efforts in areas of greatest need. Such groups work closely with county commissioners. This has enabled Extension's work to be focused upon and responsive to the common concerns and needs of people, their families, and their communities.

Early in the history of the Extension Service, staff members found that efforts could be expanded many-fold by the help of volunteer leaders. Today, more than 35,000 persons provide such assistance in the educational

programs of the CES, producing a "multiplier" effect. This educational method has been widely copied by other organizations and has become a model for informal and non-formal adult education throughout the world.

The County Extension Director works closely with county boards of commissioners. In many counties this is done through a committee of the board. In other cases, the agent works directly with the entire board. Often, individual agents may organize and work with separate special interest committees composed of residents and area specialists. All of these methods have been successful. Committees provide liaison between the entire board of commissioners and the county staff and administrative units of the Extension Service at MSU. Local committees encourage the development of educational programs and recommend adequate county appropriations for extension work. They also work with boards and committees across county lines to finance area programs. In turn, Extension Service staff in the counties look to MSU for supervision, in-service training, specialist assistance, educational materials, and guidance in program development (CES, 1976).

Background of "Family and Community" Seminar. In August of 1975,

Ann Ross, Huron County Home Economist, submitted a "Project Proposal for

Special Extension Funds" to the MSU Cooperative Extension Service (CES).

The project was originally intended to be a 10-week study seminar for women on "Family Support Systems." The proposal was revised slightly and approved in the Spring of 1976 as the "Family and Community" study/travel seminar for persons in the tri-county area of Michigan commonly known as the Thumb Area.

The operating agency responsible for sponsoring the project is the CES in the Thumb Area in cooperation with MSU Family Life and Human Ecology

Specialists, Resource Development Specialists, as well as local government leaders, school, health, and other agency representatives. Local business and industry representatives will also be invited to serve in a sponsoring capacity.

The need for the program developed out of several contemporary phenomena. First, many of the problems in the school (e.g. poor nutrition, truancy, drop-outs, discipline problems) stem from inadequate family life. Second, the break-down of the family in society has affected parenting patterns and child-care, which are affected in turn by governmental legislation. Third, many women and mothers in the Thumb Area have voiced a need for additional training in parenting and home management skills. Governor Milliken recently underlined the importance and central place the family holds as the essential unit of our society when he said, "It is the family unit that holds the state and nation together and I believe that every action state government takes should be evaluated according to its effect upon Michigan families" (from a speech given at College Week for Women, Michigan State University, June, 1976).

The Thumb seminar on the Family and Community" looked at the building blocks of the community—the family, government, business and industry, and social institutions—to discover how they can more effectively relate to each other. The meetings are scheduled each Wednesday in January and February, 1977, from 9:30 a.m until 2:30 p.m. In addition, a legislative tour to the State Capitol in Lansing is planned for March, 1977. The sessions met at various locations within the tricounty area centering around Cass City, and including Sandusky and Flint. The thirty participants included men and women volunteers with an interest in the goals of "The Family and Community" study/travel seminar.

Applicants were screened and selected by the Extension Staff in Bad Axe. Michigan.

The overall goal of "The Family and Community" study/travel seminar is to help community members be better able to participate meaningfully in community decisions on issues that affect the family--future decisions shaping Michigan's families and communities.

The project was a non-formal learning experience (out-of-school) and in no way related directly to one's formal education experience.

The specific learning objectives of the program include the following:

- To provide the learner with a series of integrated learning experiences that will add to his knowledge about the processes of community change;
- To facilitate the learner's understanding of how the community and society influence the family;
- 3. To increase the participant's knowledge of the sources of information and assistance related to community affairs and family well-being; and
- 4. To involve the participants in a series of experiences that will build the learner's confidence and willingness to become involved in community affairs.

Sociological/Anthropological Methods

The works of Lewin (1951), Whyte (1951), and Festinger and Katz (1953) established an ample background and foundational literature regarding research methods in social settings. The rationale and philosophy of field work in the social sciences was outlined, and principles for conducting behavioral science research were highlighted.

Sociological studies which aided in understanding the methodology included Howard Becker's "Role and Career Problems of the Chicago Public School Teacher" and Dan C. Lortie's School Teacher (1975). Both studies offered examples of intense interview of subjects. In Lortie's case, observations were also important. Both Becker and Lortie provided helpful models for data analysis.

Denzin (1970) and Geer (1964) presented updated and expanded surveys to the field, its theory and its method. The traditional methods of surveying and questionnaires were discussed in length. Geer's chronicle of research in progress furnished a helpful example to observe and follow.

Another significant methodological work was Pelto's (1970)

Anthropological Research: The Structure of Inquiry. Pelto identified strengths and weaknesses of the anthropological approach, developed an explanation of many techniques such as interviewing, and built a case for multi-instrument research. He pinpointed strategies in the art of field

work and offered in general many helpful examples on research design within an inquiry orientation.

The common element of these works was the author's commitment to doing research while working as closely as possible to the social unit under study.

The term "ethnomethodology" was coined by Harold Garfinkel (1967) to index the study of everyday practical reasoning as basic to all human activities. A basic consideration in the study of practical reasoning is members' use of everyday talk to describe their experiences and activities. As Meltzer (1975) pointed out, ethnomethodology relies upon self reports, introspection and participant observation.

More recently Hall (1975) and Swantz (1975) provided case studies as well as guiding principles for "participatory research." Both were involved in community level, social research and both argued against the ordinary methods for techniques that are more ethnically responsive and relevant to the participants themselves. The task of the community educational planner, as seen by Hall and Swantz is to assist the non-professional participants to see the context and concomitants of their own situation, problems, and direction from which the solutions can be sought. Participatory research can become a basic tool in the transformation process of a community when it is seen as a vital interaction with the people rather than an external manipulation that is done to the community. People must become participants in, not only objects of the inquiry process.

The new trend toward participatory research provided a divergent path from the traditional social science survey and questionnaire methodologies. It has been shown that involving community members in

the process of defining their own needs, planning programs, and implementing those programs, are necessary steps towards increased awareness and participation in the community. The advantages of this approach were also set forth. The present study will be built on the assumption of the desirability of increased community awareness and participation.

Evaluation of Educational Experiences

Robert Stake (1967) provided a conceptual model by which the separate elements involved in the research function could be related to one another (Figure 1). The model identified six major cells of information needed in a comprehensive descriptive study.

INTENTIONS

ACTUALITY (Empirical Reality)

Preconditions

Antecedents (what we think 1 things and target people and their situations are like) (our view of the need and the potentialities).

Antecedents: (what the target people and their situations are really like.

Delivery of Treatment

interventions (what we intend to do to affect the situations and the target people) (our design).

Interventions (what we actually do that affects the situation or the target people.

Consequences

Outcomes (which we intend 3 to have happen because of our interventions) (our view of the desirable product).

<u>Outcomes</u> (what really happens because of our interventions).

Figure 1. The Six Major Cells of Information Needed for Comprehensive Evaluation (Adapted from Stake, 1967).

The actual antecedents are to be compared with the intended antecedents; the actual interventions compared with the intended or planned treatments; the actual outcomes compared with the intended outcomes. Evaluative statements can be made on the worth of the program or how well the actual program meets the objectives only after thorough descriptive data has been gathered.

It was the purpose of the research study to gather the data regarding the actual antecedents of the Thumb Area learning seminar (see box #4)

--what the participants were really like and what the socio-political context was like. Empirical data on the interventions or treatments used (box #5) and on the final outcomes of the experience (box #6) are not the direct concern of this study.

Specific Data Gathering Techniques

An intensive review was made on the vast range of techniques and methods that are now available to the social researcher desiring to investigate human behavior in the role of participant observer.

Webb et al. (1966) suggested a combined or triangulated measurement perspective be adapted if social research is to become better suited for the analysis of social events, as no single measurement is likely to yield all the relevant data for a theory. Denzin (1970) carried this idea further in recommending that measurement instruments be constructed with an eye to their combination with other techniques. The following types of measures have been selected from an almost unlimited number of methods for triangulation because of their immediate applicability to a community group setting: (1) the personal interview; (2) participant observation strategies using unobtrusive measure of verbal interaction; and (3) written instruments.

Participant Observation Methodology

The findings of any study are intrinsically related to the methods used to develop them. Based on the experience of Kluckholn (1940) and Lewin (1951), participant observation is a technique whereby the researcher becomes a participant in the social setting he intends to observe and record. It is a dynamic approach which allows the researcher to do several things simultaneously. First, he can "get a feel for" and analyze the whole situation subjectively, as it is occurring. Second, he can be at work making written observations. Vidich (1955) suggested the information secured by participant observation is conditioned by his marginal role in the group he is observing-Schwartz and Schwartz (1955) warned of the problems that arise in participant observation.

William Whyte's (1967) Street Corner Society is a study of group interactions. Whyte's major reason for making the study was to analyze and describe the social structure and leadership of informal groups of "corner boys." He successfully used the methodology of participant observation to accomplish this while living in the Italian section of Boston's north end for three and one half years to study the community's social structure. Whyte's study became the prototype on small group participant observation studies because of his analysis and detailed description of his method of study.

A somewhat similar study, patterned very much like Whyte's Street

Corner Society, is Gans' (1962) Urban Villagers. It is a study of an
inner city Boston neighborhood. Gans, the author, used the participant
observation methodology to carry out the study, and lived in the

West End of Boston for eight months. He desired to study and understand
neighborhoods known as slums and learn first hand what

differentiates working and lower-class people from the middle-class.

Gans believed strongly in the value of participant observation as a method of social research, as it allows the research to get as close as possible to the social reality of the residents under study.

Harold Becker (1957) devoted much of his attention to the understanding of participant observation and discussed its advantages over interviewing as well as the problems of inference and proof from data gathered in participant observation (1958).

The sociological theory used to guide the study was symbolic interaction. According to Blumer the symbolic interactionists believe the process most suitable for studying a social situation is a process whereby the researcher participates in and observes the dynamics of the given social situation through the experience and eyes of the acting unit. He brings this point into sharp focus by stating:

To catch the process, the researcher must take the role of the acting unit whose behavior he is studying. Since the interpretation is being made by the acting unit in terms of objects designated and appraised, meanings acquired, and decisions made, the process has to be seen from the standpoint of the acting unit... To try to catch the interpretive process by remaining aloof as a so-called 'objective' observer and refusing to take the role of the acting unit is to risk the worst kind of subjectivism—the objective observer is likely to fill in the process of interpretation with his own surmises in place of catching the process as it occurs in the experience of the acting unit which uses it (Blumer, 1962, p. 188).

Cusick supports the symbolic interactionists' theory by stating that the first and foremost task of the participant observer is to establish himself as a legitimate member of the group so that he may actively pursue and participate in the realities created by the subjects under study and share in their meanings. Participants in a social

setting will actually create their own social reality, according to Cusick, and must take part in that creation to understand it.

The information gathering procedure is based on the assumption that any group of individuals will develop a reasonable way of behaving in their environment, and if one wishes to understand that behavior, he can do so by joining them, submitting himself to the routine, rules, and regulations that structure their world, and recording everything that goes on (Cusick, 1973, p. v).

One of the crucial issues in participant observation is the role the participant will play in the social setting without disrupting its normal interactions. Olesen and Whittaker (1967) discussed this researcheractor relationship and offered remediating suggestions.

Bruyn (1963) and McCail (1969) provided updated guidelines for the researcher, while Claster and Schwartz (1972) gave a step-by-step approach to participation to be used as a checklist in the planning and design of the research.

The research can employ a variety of unobtrusive measures to gather data in the role of a participant observer.

Webb et al. (1966) outlined procedures for the use of these "unobtrusive measures" without interrupting the natural interactions in a social setting and often without the participant's knowledge.

Unobtrusive measures included such things as measuring group communication and interaction processes (Fine and Zimet, 1956; Lewis, Newell, and Withall, 1961; Powell and Jackson, 1964; and Borgatta, 1965), techniques for measuring classroom behavior (Medley and Mitzel, 1958), and the measurement of group activity (Crawford and Nicora, 1964).

The recording method of Ned Flanders is best known in this area for his system of verbal interaction observation whereby he classified all behavior by different levels of constructs (1965). Medley and Mitzel

developed a simplified form for recording observations known as OSCAR (1958, 1963). These same methods have already been discussed in the teacher-role perception literature. Numerous other examples of sociometric measures and recording forms were also available (Gronland, 1959; Biddle, 1967; Borgatta, 1963).

Systematic observational techniques differ in the level of description which is intended for the resulting variables. Bales' (1950) interaction process analysis categories were designed to observe the smallest units of interaction as they occur. The simplest type of scores recorded were the amount of interaction in a given category for a given period of time (Borgatta, 1965b, p. 24).

Arrington (1943) appraised the contribution of the technique of controlled observation known as time sampling. Time sampling is a method of observing the behavior of individuals or groups under the ordinary conditions of everyday life in which observations are made in a series of short time periods. These short time periods are distributed to afford a representative sampling of the behavior under observation. The length of time sample has varied from three seconds to three hours in different investigations. The length of time sample depends on the following: the type of behavior sampled, the purpose of the sampling, and the number of samples on which individual and group measures have been based in equal variation.

Flanders (1960) and Medley and Mitzel (1973) made use of arbitrary units of time for recording observations on group interaction—for example, a three-second interval at the end of which a rating or code was given. This unit of analysis has as an advantage its mechanical character.

Personal Interview

Hyman et al. (1954), Benney and Hughes (1956), and Kahn and Cannel (1957) helped establish the dynamics of interviewing as a scientific technique for social research. Since that time numerous refinements and sophistications have been made to the basic theory and techniques used. Wax (1971) offered warnings and advice to the field worker doing interviewing, and Mayer, Borgatta and Fanshel (1964) discussed the importance of the interviewer-respondent relationship as the crucial factor in the interview process. Richardson et al. (1965) provided the most recent comprehensive coverage of the various aspects of the interview relationship, techniques, and concerns.

Naroll (1960) represented a large number of authors who have written regarding the control of data quality in social research. Jackson (1957) warned against the "ethnocentrism" of the interviewer and suggested precautions to be taken. Kane (1962) discussed such details as the importance of clothing to the interaction, and Benney, Riesman, and Star (1956) documented the influence of age and sex in the interview. These and other authors offered a substantial body of research to suggest the most effective interviewer techniques and nuances.

Because of the complexity of the interviewing process, numerous authors were consulted regarding specific aspects of the construction and design of the interview, and guidelines for gathering the data. Methods of objective validation of factual interview data were discussed by Weiss and Davis (1960), and the interviewer's influence on the duration of the respondent's speech was reported by Matarazzo, Weitman, and Wiens (1962). The latest suggestions regarding item construction, timing, wording, pacing, dress, and location were taken from Richardson et al. (1965).

Limitations

Three limitations of the study were the following:

- 1. There was no background of data to support the questions asked on the teacher (MSU T) and learner (MSU L) instruments as being valid questions to get at a person's self-perception in the role of a teacher or learner. The forms developed for use in the study remain exploratory in nature until further research can validate their accuracy.
- 2. The study was an intensive examination of the self-perceptions of participants in one learning seminar. Since their self-views were explored in two roles, the collection of a substantial amount of data was involved, which limited the number of subjects used in the study.
- 3. It was an exploratory study into the nature of things as they presently exist at a particular moment in a particular setting. It was not an experimental design with randomly drawn samples from which generalizations can be made to the general population. On the contrary, the participants were purposively selected by the Extension staff. They were representative to some extent of the population of the Thumb Area, but it was not an accurate cross-sectional group.

Since the study was not a strict experimental design, the concerns for internal and external validity were not the same as for a rigidly controlled multiple-treatment research design. However, there are two standard objections to participant observations studies relating to questions of validity and reliability. The response depends on an acceptance by the researcher, and those who examine the results of the research, of the principles of interaction. The description and explanation exhibit an intimacy seldom available from other methods of research as the researcher lives close to the situation. As the researcher

validity unapproachable by any standardized method. Bruyn (1966, p. 180) stated that the participant observation approach to empirical research is more reliable than other methods, in that, while in the subject's natural setting, the participant observer is in a unique position to evaluate any rationalizations which the subject may make in response to a questionnaire or formal interview.

Cusick supported the reliability of the participant observation methodology when he stated (1973, p. 232):

As one lives close to a situation, his description and explanation of it have a first-person quality which other methodologies lack, and as he continues to live close to and moves deeper into that situation, his perceptions have a validity that is simply unapproachable by any so-called standardized method.

By constant appraisal of observations and inferences in light of the interactions and by reformulating questions, the researcher is able to check the validity of his insight.

Every attempt was made to control for the relevant sources of invalidity in the study even though it was a descriptive study.

Internal Validity

History. Since the project spanned nine weeks time, the participants were involved in a variety of other events besides the seminar. None of the subjects were involved in any other structured learning activities such as a class or other seminar during that time, however.

Testing. The before and after use of two measures is sometimes considered a threat to internal validity. The time intervening between the measures (eight weeks plus) was thought to be sufficiently long to allow forgetting of the first measure. Completing the measure did not

aid "learning," since the measure was of self-concept, not of cognitive concepts or principles taught in the seminar.

Selection. Another concern for internal validity arises from the selection of the subjects. No attempt was made to generalize from the group to the community since this was not an experimental design and subjects were not assigned randomly from the community. The study, rather, documented in case study format the dynamics of the learning situation.

External Validity

Concern for external validity arises from what is called multiple treatment interference. This occurs when the effects of an earlier treatment are still present as the subject encounters a subsequent treatment. The researcher design was not attempting to measure the effects of any "treatment" as such, but was merely measuring attitudinal change over time. Further, no attempt was made to compare the amount of change between subjects. Any such "carry-over" effects were controlled by having all participants receive similar written measures, and by taking observational measures at the same time.

The second objection to participant observation studies is that they deal with limited samples and may not be generalizable. The social phenomena may be unique, but that need not prevent learning through intelligent study. A good description of a social phenomenon, however unique, may be quite unintelligible to one who has never participated in it. It was not the purpose of the study to make generalizations to other areas of Michigan, or even the Thumb Area. The study was merely a descriptive study of some of the dynamics at work in a community learning system. It served as a case study for the further investigation and consideration of non-formal educators.

Summary

There has been a considerable amount written about various influences and factors of one's self concept. There was, however, less research studying the individual's self-view and its influence on his learning and sharing with others, and its influence on possible future involvement in educational programs as a teacher. Critical factors and influences of one's self-view and self-concept were known, but these often relied on sophisticated and complicated clinical tests administered by professionals. The task is to adapt or develop relatively simple and straight-forward measures for self-assessment of this self-view which can be used by community educators in planning and involving community participants.

Community development literature set a background context for the study and offered guidelines for planning and implementing successful voluntary community learning programs. Non-formal educational programs should be locally initiated and implemented with the aid of volunteers from the community. These programs were highly motivating and featured high interaction when related to the needs and interests of the participants.

Social science research is presently moving away from dependence on survey and questionnaires to methods that are more responsive and participatory. The guidelines offered for participatory research were foundational to the design of instruments and procedures used in this study.

A triangulated measurement perspective was suggested to gather data which can be compared and related to alternative measures to cross-validate the data.

The interview remains one of the most powerful means to gather a variety of personal information which is difficult to gather in any other

fashion. The construction of the interview schedule and the questions followed the principles and suggestions from the latest research.

There were two important, common elements in the participant-observer literature which guided each of the authors. The first of the elements was the author's belief and commitment to the concept of living as lose as possible to the social unit under study. The second was the strong commitment by the authors to involve themselves as intimately as possible in the experiences of those subjects under study. The use of this type of field methodology gave the researcher several advantages: (1) it allowed the researcher to study and record the processes as well as the product of group and individual action and interaction over a long period of time; (2) the researcher shared the advantage of interpreting the environment of the social unit under study from the perspective of that unit; and (3) it permitted the researcher to accurately describe the social unit under study from the actors.

The interview used in combination with one or more participant observation strategies (e.g., written measures, analysis by observation of verbal interaction) appeared to be the most effective mode of inquiry within the community context. A variety of verbal interaction analysis techniques were available and were adapted for this process.

CHAPTER III

ETHNOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the researcher's personal adaptation to the field experience in the Thumb Area. This first person account is divided into five major sections. The first section introduces the Thumb Area and provides a geographic overview of the region. The second section describes the way of life in the Thumb Area, and the third section includes a discussion of the approaches used by the researcher in entering the seminar and relating to the participants. The fourth section explains the goals and proceedings of the seminar itself, and the last section concludes with the researcher's reflections on the seminar experience.

Introduction

The Thumb Area is a countryside dotted with barns and silos, small industry, criss-crossed by county roads, and rich farm land. It is a combination of modern rural communities in one of the state's most sparsely populated areas. It boasts modern schools and hospitals, as well as country schools and outdoor plumbing.

The Thumb Area is an area rich in natural resources which has been unable to keep its young people from migrating to the urban centers of the state. It has over 150 miles of lake shore which lies largely undeveloped for the weekend vacationer. The streets of the cities are

busy by day and stone-quiet at night. It is a rural region devoted to the pursuit of happiness and one that holds democracy as an ideal. It is a region where life is tinged with the religious; where most of the citisens claim faith in Catholicism or Protestantism.

The Thumb Area people are proud of their schools and the accomplishments of their athletic teams, 4-H group, the Future Farmers club and the school band. It is an area of animal auctions, the Alabama Jubilee, traditional polks parties, and ethnic weddings.

These words are meant to express the familiar saying that the Thumb Area is a land of contrasts. The contrasts have grown rather than diminished as the years have passed. It is both impossible and inappropriate to give more than a partial account of increasing awareness and participation in the Thumb Area. In a case study depicting the life and self-views of a small number of people, a short account must also omit much that is important and useful in gaining an understanding of ways of life. For these reasons it is useful, first, to discuss certain aspects of life in the Thumb Area that cannot otherwise be dealt with explicitly.

The Thumb Area: A Rural Community

The first section provides background information about the Thumb
Area and its residents.

Geographic and Ecological Overview

To the average Michigander, the tri-county (Huron, Sanilac, Tuscola) area of Michigan is known as the "Thumb", and is considered to be a rather rural, agricultural region. Most people in the state know very little about the Thumb Area and most have never visited the region.

Michigan's Thumb Area is a well-defined geographical region bounded on the north and east by Lake Huron and on the west by Saginaw Bay.

The peninsula thus created encompasses some of the state's richest agricultural lands. In addition to agriculture, tourism and light manufacturing are major sources of annual income to area residents.

Portions of the area have experienced economic decline in the last several years, in spite of the recreational activities associated with the 150 miles of Great Lakes shoreline and the agricultural productivity of its interior region. Reasons for this decline include: increased farm sizes and reduction of farm labor due to mechanization; industrial growth inadequate to provide employment for increases in population; a corresponding out-migration of young people; and inadequate transportation networks feeding the area. All but the western and southern portion of the Thumb Area are too far for many people to commute to outlying industrial centers.

Demographic Characteristics

The 1974 population of the Thumb Area was 127,975 (Michigan Health Statistics, 1974, p. 77). The median age of the Thumb Area residents is 27 years, with 21 percent of the population unemployed or retired. The median number of years of education is 11.3. Fifty-two percent of the residents favor land-use planning and 72 percent desire zoning to keep farm land in agricultural production. Sixty percent of the population are involved in agriculture related work. Of the total land area, 62 percent is in harvested cropland, 14 percent in other crops, eight percent in pasture, eight percent in woodlots, and the remaining eight percent in various other uses (CES, 1975).

On my first trip to the Thumb Area, I noted the level farmland which stretched for miles on end with only an occasional rolling hill. The ubiquitous farm silo dotted the countryside, and pre-fabricated barns and storage buildings were frequent. Many of the county roads were unpaved gravel, and much of the county was snowed in for several days during January of 1977.

Michigan had a moderate growth rate in the last decade (1960-1970) with 13.4 percent gain over the 1960 population. During this same period of time, the overall rate of increase in the Thumb area was only 6.8 percent (Huron County - .2%, Sanilac County - 8.0%, Tuscola County - 12.2%). Huron County experienced the highest rate of net out-migration during that time, losing over 2,925 persons. Metropolitan areas grew much faster than non-metropolitan areas (Population Growth and Redistribution, 1971).

The Thumb Area is a rich mixture of ethnic groups. Ubly, for example, is a Polish community, while Sebewaing is largely German.

Other communities like Frankenmuth are also known as German settlements.

Small groups of Chicano settlers are in certain scattered sections, such as Gilford and Reese. Some of these settlers provide seasonal migratory farm labor. There are few blacks living in the Thumb Area.

The Research

The study is a report of a participant-observation study of a middleclass adult learning seminar held in the Thumb Area of Michigan. The area studied was comprised of the tri-counties of Huron, Sanilac and Tuscola counties known as the Thumb Area of Michigan.

I participated in the learning seminar sponsored by the CES during the winter months of January through April, 1977. The main research interests were two: to study and document the activities and processes of a CES seminar with volunteer adult learners, and to study the self-views of the participants in two roles—that of a learner and a teacher.

Approaches Used

Gans (1962) pointed out that the findings of any study are intrinsically related to the methods used to develop them and are often affected by the research purposes. The opportunity to participate in an adult learning seminar provided the needed setting for studying the self-view of adult learners in a volunteer learning experience. The Thumb Area was a particularly suitable setting. Not only was it a rural community, but it was also a predominantly white area, and thus somewhat easier for a white participant-observer to enter.

The actual field work employed six major approaches, roughly parallel to those employed by Gans (1962, pp. 337-338):

1. Use of facilities in the Thumb Area. I visited the Thumb Area and stayed overnight once a week. I used its stores, services and other facilities as much as possible. This enabled me to observe my and other people's behavior as residents of the area.

- 2. Attendance at meetings and public places. I attended each meeting of the seminar as a participant observer, and participated in the field trips as an observant spectator. I also visited shops and restaurants in this role.
- 3. Informal and structured visiting with participants, neighbors and families. I was able to spend time visiting with participants before and after the weekly sessions, before and after the interview in the home, as well as over visits to the homes and meals as the participant's guest.
- 4. Formal and informal interviewing of community residents. I interviewed each of the 30 participants as well as persons in different institutions and organizations—talking with staff members and active people in offices and stores and other staff in the Extension Service.
- 5. Use of CES staff as additional sources of information. Some of the CES staff were useful in providing background and supplemental information on phases of life in the Thumb with which they were familiar.
- 6. Observation. I kept my eyes and ears open at all times trying to learn something about as many phases of Thumb Area life as possible. I also looked for unexpected leads and ideas on subjects in which I was especially interested.

Variations in the actual participant-observation method can be described in different ways. Gans (1962) identified the approaches in terms of differences in the actual behavior of the researcher. This produced the following three types of behavior:

1. Researcher acts as observer. In this approach, the researcher is actually present at the event which he observes, but does not really participate in it. At each weekly session of the seminar, I sat with the participants and interacted with them, but refrained from participating

in the group discussion, individualized learning activities, and group simulations. My main function was to observe so as not to affect the phenomenon being studied—or at least, to affect it no more than was absolutely unavoidable. Much of my participation was of this sort, when attending the meetings, or watching the goings—on at area stores and restaurants.

The researcher found, like William F. Whyte in Street Corner Society and Philip A. Cusick in Inside High School, that acceptance by the group under study "depended more on the personal relationship I developed far more than upon any explanation I might give" (Whyte, 1943, p. 300; Cusick, 1973, p. 7). The group and the individuals within that group developed an explanation for the researcher's presence and his actions as he was trying to develop explanations for their actions. Thus, the researcher assumed a role which not only explained his presence, but also one he could perform.

2. Researcher participates, but as a researcher. In this case, I became an actual participant in an event or gathering, but my participation was determined by my research interests. For example, in social gatherings over a meal in a home, I sometimes tried to steer the conversation to topics about the family and the Thumb Area—topics in which I was especially interested. In such instances, I might be described as a "research-participant" (Gans, 1962, p. 339).

I acted as a researcher to gather three different kinds of data.

The first method employed an interview with each participant. The interview procedure consisted of three phases. First, I attempted to establish a good personal relationship with each person being interviewed, using an informal, individualized approach. Conversation began about

the participant's home, the family, the weather, spouse's occupation, age of the children, and other matters of interest to both persons. Time was also spent prior to and during the seminar to develop and maintain rapport with the participants. During the second phase, I stated the purpose for the interview and described how the conversations would be recorded by written notes. None of the participants objected to this procedure, no participant seemed to be uneasy during the interview process. In the final phase, I asked questions that would provide the necessary data as outlined on the interview schedule (see Appendix A). The questions for each participant were the same, even though I re-worded and repeated questions when necessary. There were 30 interviews in all, conducted between January 12 and March 8, 1977. The interviews averaged a little over one hour in length.

The second method employed an unobtrusive observation of the verbal interaction among participants when they were divided into small discussion groups. For this purpose, I walked among the groups in discussion as if observing and listening to the discussion of the group. Slash marks were recorded on a tally sheet for each verbal interaction engaged in by each participant.

The third method employed the administration of pretests and posttests of a set of three written instruments to the participants. Use of this method raised the most questions from the participants as to the purpose and the results of the "test." I was able to explain that the instruments would help me gain a more accurate picture of the group for documenting the learning experience. This reply seemed to satisfy the participants. 3. Researcher participates. In some few cases, I temporarily left my study role and became a "real" participant. After the event, my role reverted back to that of an observer and an analyst of my own actions. For example, at times I went to social gatherings as an invited guest and participated freely in the conversation without trying to direct it to my own research interests. Afterwards, however, I made notes on what had happened.

With less than three months to collect the data, the researcher participation role turned out to be the most productive. The real participation was most enjoyable, but it was the most time-consuming approach.

Entering the Seminar

In late October of 1976, Dr. Ted Ward of the College of Education, M.S.U., was asked to help in the planning and development of one of several sessions of the "Family and Community" travel/study seminar sponsored by the CES. It was the intention of the M.S.U. Specialist and the seminar director, Ms. Ann Ross, to utilize Dr. Ward's expertise in the design and implementation of instructional experiences, especially highly interactive games and instructional simulations.

Before the first meeting took place, Dr. Ward invited me to sit in with the group and to assist in the planning and design of the needed instructional experiences.

On October 19, 1976, the M.S.U. Family Living Specialist, seminar director Ann Ross, Dr. Ward, his administrative assistant, and myself met to discuss the feasibility of Dr. Ward and I providing input into the study program. Dr. Ward offered the following services to the CES for the seminar: (1) materials, (2) participation by someone from his staff in using the materials, and (3) a case study documentation that

would include the above mentioned materials in addition to my involvement to gather information about the dynamics of the group's experience. Dr. Ward's interest in documenting the project stemmed from a desire to develop a case study of a volunteer adult learning program for efforts in non-formal education in several developing countries where M.S.U. is cooperating with other donor agencies.

At this meeting it was agreed that I would serve as a project "Historian" to document the seminar for the purposes listed above. In that role, I would want to visit with the participants in their homes to discuss what they were learning and how they felt about the seminar. The M.S.U. Specialist indicated she would be able to cover the expense of transportation for my travel to the eight planned meetings in the Thumb Area. Ms. Ross agreed to provide my meals during the day-long seminars and kindly invited me to spend the nights in her home with her family.

These important details were taken care of with a minimum of discussion and paperwork. The CES staff graciously handled all the necessary forms for travel reimbursements, and all arrangements for lodging and meals in the Thumb Area were handled by the seminar director.

I visited the Thumb Area for the first time in December of 1976, one month before the seminar was to begin. Snow covered the ground. The weather was cold, and the narrow roads seemed to stretch endlessly across frozen farmland as I drove north towards Bad Axe, the county seat of Huron County. Ann Ross served the tri-county area as Home Economist but kept an office in Bad Axe. The population of the city was 3,400. A two-lane road runs through the middle of town, and a traffic light is the only indication that one has even left the central city. It is an attractive rural town with its own churches, lodge halls, a new county

building, coffee shops, several new shopping plazas, a new school, and a few small industrial plants.

Ann gave me a leisurely tour of the city and the outlying woodlots. She explained the leisurely pace of life and pointed out the local industry on the edge of town. She tried to fill me in on the way of life in the Thumb, and it was evident she was quite proud of the town and its accomplishments. "We have lived here 11 years, and we just love it," she said. "It's a friendly town and very active."

When we arrived back in her office, Ann explained the background of the project, her expectations for the program, and a little of her excitement about the whole seminar. "It is just amazing," she shared enthusiastically, "how everything has fit together . . . We have the funding, the facility, the resource people, and the applications are still coming in . . . I'm really excited about the whole thing. I think it will be a great experience!" She went on to give me a thumbnail sketch of some of the participants already registered and to comment on the quality and variety of the persons registering.

I was introduced to the rest of the Huron County Extension Staff and was able to talk briefly with several of the program assistants. Each of them shared their enthusiasm and enjoyment in working for the Extension Service, and I was able to detect a genuineness that would have been hard to fake. They seemed deeply committed to serving the residents of the Thumb Area and to helping in any way they could to meet the needs of the people. The three program personnel I met were quite young.

As I drove home to M.S.U. I reflected on the strong loyalty the residents of the Thumb Area felt for their community and their way of

life. They lived in a rural area and were proud of it. It was not an overbearing patriotism, but a quiet confidence and pride in their accomplishments and character. They were willing to share their feelings and their values and were not ashamed that their values included patriotism, hard work, neighborliness, honesty, and a commitment to the family and to the church. I got the distinct impression that this was indeed the rural America I had read about all my life growing up in school.

Relating to Participants

The problem of entry into the Thumb Area was particularly tentative at first. The Thumb Area residents were a rural community in the lower-middle class group. They had neither been interviewed by researchers nor exposed to the popular sociology of slick magazines. Consequently, they were unfamiliar with the methods and goals of educational research. Also, they were possibly suspicious at first of a middle-class outsider, especially one who appeared to be so young. To facilitate this apparent problem, I presented myself to the participants as an interested observer, one who was interested in documenting the learning process as "Historian" or "Documentarian" for the seminar. The title of "Researcher" was not used, and the educational research purposes for my participation were not fully elaborated at first. The title of "Historian" was a key element which permitted an "under-thirty" to infiltrate an older peer group as well as move around within the group.

At the suggestion of the advisory committee, I assumed the role of an interested observer, comfortable in the participant-observer role, and allowed the Extension staff and participants to "Parent" me during the duration of the project. This allowed the staff and participants to provide information, encouragement, and hospitality to me as a friend and fellow-participant whom they saw to be in need of assistance and consultation. Undoubtedly this role influenced the kind of information given by the participants. But, given the highly specific nature of the questions about the self-view of participants in the teacher and learner role, I felt this role was ideally suited for meaningful interaction and open communication.

I was soon able to enter into a cordial friendship with almost every participant because of the friendliness of the residents and my attempt to be casual and polite. After the first two weeks, I became a familiar face and was able to carry on longer conversations with participants and residents. As time went on, I was considered to be a welcome guest in their homes, and was introduced to spouses and children. Finally, the entry problem disappeared altogether. In fact, another problem arose—having more data than I could ever hope to analyze.

My initial desire to be only an observer and a participant-observer was complicated by the short duration of the seminar and the data gathering period. Given the short time in which to do the research, I could not wait for specific questions to come up spontaneously in the conversation. Consequently, I gradually had to explain more about my role in doing a study of the seminar and its participants. I sensed that they were naturally wary of educational studies, and therefore, I described my research as exploratory and descriptive in nature. The revelation of the research role did not end any relationships, but on the whole, it helped the study and made it easier for me to approach the people with unusual questions.

I realized that I could not be exactly like the participants and did not try to be. I maintained a low profile by wearing clothes a

little less formal than the seminar leaders (suit, shirt and tie), but in keeping with the neatness and formality of the participants themselves. I did not dress exactly like the Thumb residents, but chose neat, casual clothes that fit in with their casual style of dress (sport coat, slacks, turtleneck sweater or casual shirts).

Analysis of the Data

The actual analysis of the data was quite simple. I took careful notes on the daily proceedings and minutes of the meetings. Notes were also taken during the interviews and from informal conversations with the participants. Observations were recorded as soon as possible after they had been completed, together with the generalizations they stimulated. In writing narrative summaries of the interviews, supporting observations and quotes were included along with the verbatim notes that had been taken long-hand during the interview. Other anacdotal material was included in the running diary of the meetings of the seminar. The content of the interviews and minutes of the meetings were digested into pages of notes listing the major generalizations and other ideas.

Many of the conclusions or generalizations of the study fall into the category of what Merton has called "post factum sociological interpretation" (Merton, 1957, pp. 93-94), in that they have been developed after the observations.

I did try to guard against overly facile interpretations by analyzing the data immediately after collecting them, and by putting both data and analysis into the field notes. Thus, interpretations were developed at once, rather than at the end of the study. Since I did not begin the study with a set of explicit notions that I wanted to prove, most of the

generalizations reported in this chapter were developed during the field work.

The study sought to report on the participants in the CES "Family and Community" travel/study seminar. Each participant was interviewed once and I talked with participants repeatedly during the course of the seminar. The small size of the group permitted rather intensive contact with each participant, and most of the conclusions are based on the researcher's observations of their ways. The statistical analyses used were limited.

Way of Life in the Thumb Area

I could not adequately capture on paper the unique combination of qualities that characterize the Thumb Area of Michigan. Typical aspects of Thumb Area life can best be described by an informal sketch of some of the events, places and persons that impressed me as an observer in the rural community.

Participants

The group of 30 participants were white, middle class residents of the Thumb. The participants were volunteers in a community learning project sponsored by the Michigan State University Cooperation Extension Service (CES). All were adult learners between the ages of 22 and 55, married (except two) and employed in the Thumb Area. There were four men and 26 women. No attempt was made to enroll a random sample of the Thumb's population, although some attempt was made to involve a cross-section of people from the three countries as to age, with a special emphasis placed on involving women.

Family

The participants came from families that were stable (mean number

of years marriage was 19.9) and in which the family members were successfully coping with the pressures of life confronting them in the Thumb. The participants' experience of stability (in the home and in the community) made that a high priority with them. They valued the family and their commitment to it. This was substantiated by their participation in this study seminar focused on a closer examination of the family unit.

I was in contact with over ten of the families and observed the family units to be close-knit and cohesive. I heard pleasant conversations and joking, and observed children completing a variety of chores around the home. The family group was the center of activity among the participants. Most parents with children at home were active in one or more of the children's school activities such as Band Boosters, 4-H, FFA, or PTO (see Table 5.8, p. 106).

Most of the families were not transient and had been settled in one location over 15 years. This contributed to a strong feeling of belonging and ownership. The participants voiced their desire to maintain the Thumb as a rural, agricultural area. Thus, in-migration from the urban center was disapproved and resented. When asked how he felt about "urban sprawl," Bill Hall* responded:

Pseudonyms are used to identify participants in order to maintain their anonymity.

"The Thumb is being infiltrated by city people."

Further fear was expressed about the loss of agricultural land to housing and small business, as well as the detrimental effects of such movement from the cities (e.g., crime, vandalism, violence, drugs).

Many of the participants said they were motivated to become more involved in their community to maintain the stable environment in which their family life thrived.

The families I observed evidenced a joint relationship between husband and wife that is characteristic of the middle-class family. There was little segregation of roles. In most of the farm homes, the wife was heavily involved with the husband in the management and planning of the farm work schedule, and several wives were accountants or bookkeepers for the family business. In several cases the wife worked alongside the husband in feeding the animals, mowing hay, and harvesting the crops.

None of the participants lived in the same home with their parents, but at least three families had parents living nearby or next door.

Child-Rearing

In the Thumb, children come because marriage and God brings them.

Many of the participants were members of Catholic churches and believe having children is consistent with God's wish. There was some planning

of conception, as indicated in the smaller family size of the participants at present compared with the size of the family the participants were raised in.

The participants who were parents spoke of their family in warm and affectionate terms. The children I observed first-hand were well cared for and loved. The homes evidenced careful housecleaning and upkeep. The active involvement of the parents in their children's school activities supported the positive relationship the participants had with their children. Child-rearing or parenting was seen as a responsibility of great importance. One mother said, "I feel my first responsibility as a teacher is to my children...to help them grow up and hold certain values, and to respect authority." Another added, "I'm involved with my children in sharing and helping them learn all the time. We do projects and crafts together."

Work

There was an unspoken pride in the amount of work one could do.

Work was seen as a life-calling or vocation; hence, meaningful,
respected and expected. Complaints about the weather, the difficulty
of work, or work schedules were not heard. The participants seemed
content and happy in their work. Most of the participants (50 percent)
were in agriculture related work, 30 percent in skilled or professional
work, seven percent in labor, and six percent were heads of household.

Thumb residents expect to work hard and they derive satisfaction from doing a good job. A typical day for a farmer begins before 6 a.m. and is not over until after six or seven in the evening. The amount of work necessary to keep a farm solvent financially is substantial, and

may explain the strong sense of individualism expressed by the participants. Having succeeded in a difficult area of work undoubtedly contributed to the participants' overall sense of self-confidence and strong self-concept or self-view.

Relationship to Neighbors and the Community

The participants lived in small rural communities and prized the building of strong relationships with their neighbors and other people in the community. They spoke highly of their neighbors and community. One farmer told how his neighbors had pitched in and provided meals for his family when he had been sick. Another wife told how her neighbors had helped a farmer whose barn had burned. Another bragged on how close he was with his neighbors.

Neighbors were seen as a vital part of community life. There was a strong bond of dependency, trust and cooperation among neighbors within the communities I visited. Reciprocity and dependence grew as trust and cooperation were built through mutual effort and friendship. The participants were proud of their communities, despite their faults. They were easer to take part and responsibility to help improve the quality of life for their families and children. This was indicated by the high level of participation in community activities (Figure 4.8).

Almost every participant made at least one positive comment during the interview about their community. These comments ranged from "peaceful," to "family-oriented," to "stable and not much change," to "a fine community to live in." Walter Wilson felt that "the community is friendly...the wholesomeness for family living speaks for itself."

Others remarked that their area was "so helpful" and "cooperative in nature."

Most of the participants had a fairly accurate and informed understanding of their community and its activities. Their attendance at the seminar was indicative of their concern about the governing process in the counties affecting their families.

The participants did not identify any strong peer group of which they were a part. Many alluded to social gatherings they were involved in on a periodic basis. Because there were not many people moving into the Thumb Area, meeting new people was a welcome experience for many of them. Their associations in social groups seemed to revolve around their work roles. For example, the farmers were more likely to get together with other farmers in the Farm Bureau or at the Hog meetings, while the professional families tended to socialize with other couples who were in professional work or the skilled trades.

The participants all shared certain common interests and concerns within the context of the seminar and this contributed to a high level of interaction and sharing. They all expressed their enjoyment of the seminar and the learning they were doing in talking with other participants. The participants considered themselves to be a homogeneous group with shared interests and needs.

The Church

The most important formal institution in the Thumb Area appeared to be the church. All except one participant were active church attenders, and many indicated their involvement in the church organization in positions of responsibility and leadership. Table 5.8 (p. 106) shows 74 percent of the participants to be involved in such things as Sunday School teacher, serving on the church board, and so on. Membership was split almost equally between the Catholic and Protestant churches in

the area. The participants were a religious group, and were willing to identify with the church and its activities. Many expressed an identification with the ministry of the parish and several mentioned a close relationship with the Minister or Clergyman. Several participants expressed the idea that their involvement in church and religious fellowship provided them with a perspective on current events in the world and in their state (e.g., in relation to drugs, polution, land use) which prompted them to respond with caution and careful planning.

I was impressed with the seriousness of the participants' faith and their belief in the spiritual aspect of life. Several participants mentioned "the Lord's help" as a significant factor in their upbringing and development.

Formal Organizations and Associations

The participants listed over twenty different community groups and activities in which they were involved. The usual community clubs such as Lions and Masons were listed, along with the Jaycees, Community Chest and the Women's Club. There was not one activity that all participants listed. The variety of organizations they were involved in depended on their individual interests and work. No exclusive or ethnic clubs were mentioned.

Education

Most Thumb Area communities support both parochial and public elementary schools, but most students go to public schools. Most of the participants expressed a positive opinion of the public schools in their community, although one participant did not think her community valued quality education enough. Ann Ames

wanted to see more emphasis on youth in her community and said, "There is a low level of acceptance of teachers and helpers in this community since there is not much emphasis on education." Another felt "there needs to be a change in students' attitudes toward education. Education should be for personal growth and as a personal asset not just for vocational gain." She felt hindered in what she could do about the situation since her husband was a teacher at the school.

On the one hand, Thumb residents recognized that education is important and necessary to obtain employment, and urged their children to get as much schooling as required for a good job. On the other hand, the parents were aware of the fact that further education would estrange the children from them and take them from the Thumb Area. Most of the parents, however, were confident of the state colleges and universities and said they would encourage their children to go to college. Several of the participants said that if they were to do it over again, they would have finished college instead of marrying immediately out of high school.

Government

The participants expressed an ambivalent attitude toward government and politics. On the one hand, they were easer to become more knowledgeable of the local governing procedures and the legislative process at the local and county level. On the other hand, they expressed some doubt as to the impact they could have at the state and/or federal level. The interest in determining what they could do prompted their attendance in the seminar.

As the seminar progressed, and as the participants became more aware of the legislative process through lectures, visitations to the

county board of commissioners meeting, and to the state capital, their confidence in being able to make an impact at the local level increased. At the conclusion of the seminar many of the participants were eager to return home and begin work in their community on an issue of concern to them. Many expressed a new confidence gained through understanding the political process more thoroughly and a new desire to become involved in making things happen.

Reflections

The entire mood and setting of the seminar in the Thumb Area was much more relaxed and unhurried than in a typical urban or university-city setting. There was concern over the weather and the usual press of farming responsibilities, but participants lacked the hurried and rushed behavior indicative of much of the rest of society. They were calm, collected, and comfortable people to be with. They conversed easily, and were eager to listen to other people's problems and needs. The participants were also willing to share and help others in need. More than once I saw Walter Wilson hunched up in the corner with two or three other participants, listening to them and offering advice.

The residents of the Thumb Area lived in a cultural and social setting distinctly different from an urban setting in the United States. The participants' outlook on life was very rural and tended, at times, to be provincial and status quo.

The fact that most of the women participants were full-time homemakers in addition to helping manage the farm and/or family business influenced the participants towards making the investment of their time in the seminar a valuable one with maximum payoff for themselves. One participant indicated: "I have had broader experiences than many in

the community and I feel I can bring experiences to them that stretch their imagination." Several of the women shared that the seminar was the first out-of-the-home learning experience they had participated in for years. They had become so busy with children and work, they had neglected themselves and their own development. The seminar was their first step out of the old rut.

The Seminar

In this section the proceedings of the seminar sessions are outlined to set the contextual scene for the research study.

Goals

The overall objective of the "Family and Community" travel/study seminar was to help community members become better able to participate meaningfully in community decisions on issues that affect the family. The specific learning objectives were the following:

- To provide the participants with a series of integrated learning experiences that would add to his knowledge about the processes of community change;
- 2. To facilitate the participants' understanding of how the community and society influence the family;
- 3. To increase the participants' knowledge of the sources of information and assistance related to family well-being and community affairs;
- 4. To involve the participants in a series of experiences that would build their confidence and willingness to become involved in community affairs:
- 5. To increase the participation of rural homemakers in government by increased awareness and interaction; and
- 6. To increase the leadership potential within the communities.

Selection of Participants

Enrollment was open to interested residents of the Thumb Area on a voluntary basis. Participants were expected to pay \$20 to attend the eight weekly sessions, lasting five hours each. A variety of mass media were used to establish initial awareness in the Thumb Area; 3500

brochures were sent from the various county offices to diverse audiences; 2000 newsletters described the program to different residents; radio spots were aired on several local stations; and personal letters were sent to public officials asking their cooperation and urging their support. Opening enrollment to all residents of the Thumb Area increased the opportunity for participation among all levels of residents. The Extension staff followed up leads and suggestions for participants with over 75 personal phone calls. In all, 33 applications were received; two men had to drop out, and one woman was too late to attend the seminar.

Materials

Few materials were needed for a non-formal program such as this. Handouts and supplemental learning aids (e.g., copies of periodical articles) were produced by the county staff. Learning experiences with a specific focus were designed by the staff and M.S.U. specialists. The simpliest facilities were used. A large, comfortable meeting room was rented in the basement of a centrally located restaurant in the Thumb Area.

Administration and Planning

Huron County Home Economist Ann Ross administered the planning, design and implementation of the entire program, with the aid of her assistant and other state and county Extension staff. Ann was responsible for all communications to the Planning Committee members and participants. A campus coordinator at M.S.U. contacted guest speakers and additional resource personnel there. The Program Planning Committee was responsible for designing the first three sessions of the seminar

in January. The remaining sessions were planned and implemented under the direction of the participant planning subcommittees. Ann described her thoughts in planning the seminar in this way:

The M.S.U. Specialists and I tried to design a format that would weave together a basic understanding of the family and the community. We hoped to show that they are an integral part of each other and that answers to problems of the family are often in public policies and programs. We hoped to teach local leaders to define problems and locate sources of help and know how to influence change.

Guest speakers were chosen by suggestions from the participant subcommittees for their subject matter competency and understanding of Extension methods and purposes. The guest speaker's ability to communicate with a diverse audience was also considered.

Content

The content for the seminar was defined in terms of two broad categories, learning about the Family and learning about Community Government. The seminar sessions were divided into these two parts. The first three sessions introduced the participants to the issues of the family and community in today's society. The last five sessions investigated the role of government and its functioning processes. From the fourth session on, participants took part in planning the content and manner of presentation for the sessions.

Strategies and Methods

In planning the overall seminar, a variety of instructional media and learning activities to supplement the verbal instructions, lectures, and small group interaction were used. The media included the following different techniques: movies, slides and filmstrips, games and simulations, handouts, overhead projections, chalkboard, flip chart, posters, notebooks with note-taking guides, and various small group activities.

Each guest speaker was asked to make his presentation as audience participative and responsive as possible. Almost every speaker involved the participants in discussion and interaction through the use of interactive exercises, questions and answers, group discussion and problem solving, and individual reflection exercises.

Travel was an important part of the seminar as well. Travel and on-the-spot tours provided enriched experiences for the participants and allowed them to broaden their perspective through interaction with other people. Tours were taken to the Sanilac and Genesee County Board of Commissioners meeting, the Flint Culture Center, and the state capital in Lansing. The trips introduced participants to the operations of family-oriented social service organizations as well as official governmental operations—from the county commissioners to the state representatives and senators in Lansing.

The seminar required a time commitment of over 75 "in-class" hours on the part of the participants, not including travel time. Eight six-hour sessions were held between January 6 and February 28, 1977. Two full days were spent in a visit to Lansing on March 22-23, 1977.

The non-formal nature of the learning experience meant that the participants were volunteer learners and no formal tests of cognitive learning were administered. Weekly evaluation forms were available for participants to complete if they wished. Subjective evaluations of this sort provided information to program planners as to how the participants were perceiving and valuing the experience. Numerous additional

opportunities were available for the participants to make suggestions, ask questions, and request further information.

Outline of the Seminar Sessions

The eight weekly sessions covered the following topics:

- I. How to Get Acquainted As A Group and How to Consider the Perspective of Others. Getting involved means expenditure of time, energy, skills and money.
- II. How to Look at the Family and Community Objectively: using a Family and Community survey/opinionnaire.
- III. How to Survey Diverse Family Members: using and tabulating the Family and Community survey by county. The Nominal Group Technique.
- IV. How to Interview Agencies and Governmental Units for Information;
 How to evaluate the significance of that information for families and
 communities. Travel to Sanilac County Board of Commissioners Meeting
 and interview various social service organizations.
- V. Communications: How to Communicate More Effectively (short presentations interspersed with small groups activities)
- VI. Decision Making: Family and Government. The Prince Political Accounting System: a model for understanding and analyzing political problems. The importance of citizen participation.
- VII. The Legislative Process: The Power Game--a learning simulation of personal and political power; Sharing what we have learned so far; An introduction to the Legislative Process: How bills originate and are acted upon.
- VIII. Flint Tour: Genesee County Board of Commissioners Meeting; Discussion of Social Services in Genesee County; Overview and tour of

Flint's Cultural Center; Views on Community Life with Jerry Taff at WJRT TV station.

IX. Lansing Tour: Participation in Farmers Week on M.S.U. campus;
Meet and tour capital building and meet legislators and governor.

Visit House of Representatives and Senate.

Reflections on the Seminar Experience

In concluding this section, it may be helpful to summarize my reflections on the seminar and my involvement in it. The following comments are subjective responses to what I saw, heard and felt. They are based on fact, although not entirely objective.

1. There was a high degree of participation and sense of involvement in the learning experience because the program was developed for, by, and with the participants themselves in response to expressed needs, interests, and concerns. Almost every participant commented positively on his/her involvement in the seminar. The majority of them expressed the desire to attend another CES seminar in the future. Jill Hall said: "I want to learn about others in the group and why we are all here. I would like to attend another seminar and feel it would be a good experience." Amy Abood felt that "meeting the other participants was the most enjoyable part of the seminar...The visitation tours were valuable as well." In evaluating the seminar, Donna Davis said: "Everything has been beautiful! The Flint trip and speakers were great." She said she would "definitely participate in another seminar, even if the cost were doubled."

2. Providing opportunity for feedback and participant evaluation encouraged adult learners to take an active part in the proceeding of the learning experience. Significant learning occurred in a non-threatening environment characterized by mutual respect, warmth, and acceptance of individual differences. A relaxed mood and atmosphere were important ingredients in a successful learning experience.

Tension and hurriedness inhibit effective learning.

The style of leadership afforded the group by the CES personnel had a positive influence on the overall learning effectiveness of the participants. Providing successful role models served to stimulate growth and development among the adult learners.

3. The combination of learning activities used in the "Family and Community" seminar proved to be an effective process for increasing the awareness and participation of the participants in their communities.

Self-awareness was increased through a combination of reflection exercises, interactions with other participants, feedback received from speakers, and increased information and ideas. After several of the lectures, one of the participants turned to me and said, "I really enjoyed that lecture presentation. That was really helpful to me." I asked why.

"Well," he responded, "I had the feeling he really knew what he was talking about, but he shared it in a manner that I understood all that he said, and I knew he was concerned that I profit from what he said.

It made me feel good."

All except two or three of the presentations by guest speakers were on-target, well-presented and well-timed. Only two speakers were unusually dry and lengthy. "That was a drag!" I overheard one

participant say to another after the first of the poor presentations.

The small group around her nodded their heads in agreement.

I also noticed that as the participants were given the opportunity to volunteer for committees and sign up to serve as "Chairman of the Day," that the leadership potential within the group emerged quite naturally. The Extension staff did not have to beg for participants or for help. In conversing with several of the participants about the high level of involvement and motivation I discerned that many of them were motivated and involved in the "Family and Community" seminar because it was structured around their mutually felt needs and concerns. The seminar drew residents from a three county area who were concerned about the family and their community. They paid \$20 and invested over 100 hours from their winter work schedule to learn more about the roles they could play in their communities to influence legislation concerning the family. For them, the motivation was intrinsic in the content of the program itself. They did not need to be urged to share, interact or learn. Undoubtedly, this high degree of participation and motivation was unique to this seminar and the cluster of participants it drew. The strong self-views and positive attitudes toward learning were related to their high, positive expectations for the seminar. I had the feeling at times that even if the seminar had failed to present any valuable information or provide opportunities for group discussion that the participants would still have felt positive about the seminar. They were just that "high" about the whole experience.

I think it is important to point out, however, that the overall quality of the speakers, travel tours, and group experiences was very high. Within the three-month period of the seminar, the participants

were privileged to go on three field trips, hear over 15 guest speakers, and interact over crucial issues relating to the family and the community. The teaching strategies and techniques were unusually effective and appropriately chosen for the group, and there was an abundance of supplemental resource material available for the participants desiring further study.

In discussing the quality of the seminar in relation to other programs sponsored by the CES, several of the staff admitted that this seminar was exceptionally good. "I don't think we've ever had a group that started out with so much," said the seminar director. "They are a super group. They are all experienced and knowledgeable, and really want to learn. This is going to be an exciting time." Another said, "This seminar doesn't even compare to another New Horizons program I'm leading in another town. These people are so far ahead that I just wish I was with this group every week. In fact, I wish all my groups were like this."

In evaluating the impact of the learning experience on the participants, I realized that the entire seminar and all of its component parts had fallen together into a beautiful "fit". I came away with the distinct impression and feeling that this had been an unusual group, and that the learning process had been very effective. As the director said afterwards, "I don't think I could've asked for anything else. It all worked out so perfectly...I'm still a little shocked myself that all the pieces fell together so well. I don't think I could've done that all by myself."

4. I observed many participants who were skilled and effective in helping other people learn, and were not hung-up with the formal

definition of a teacher as a classroom leader. When the stereotype of the formal classroom teacher was set aside, most participants were willing to share their knowledge and experience to help others grow and develop. Without using the word "teacher," I felt the seminar experience encouraged the participants to be more effective teachers in the non-formal sense of helping other people learn.

Very few of the participants had formal teaching experience, yet most of them were functioning in a variety of non-formal teaching-learning settings to help others learn. I was impressed that an abundance of potential teachers exists in communities among adults who are self-motivated learners with positive self-views. Many more effective non-formal learning experiences could be planned and implemented if program planners were willing to draw from the rich supply of teachers already available in the community. I found that many of these teachers are ready and even waiting to be called and asked to help.

Many of them, in fact, are willing to help, but are not bold enough to volunteer. As Carol Carter said: "I like to think of myself as helpful and supportive. But often I'm so hard on myself I become depressed...I'm so tired of looking for a teaching job, and not finding one. I do want to teach...anywhere, if only someone would give me the chance."

It may appear as a truism to add that if the elements of the learning package had not fit together as they did, the seminar would have been a very different experience for the participants. As I have tried to point out, the combination of the style of leadership, the positive attitudes and expectations of the participants, the quality of input and sharing, the variety of experiences and pleasant facilities

all contributed to the success of the "Family and Community" seminar. Had one element been different, for example the leadership style, I think the participants would have reacted differently. Or if the seminar had not included the participants in the planning and presentations I think the entire seminar would have been perceived very differently.

These impressions and reflections based on actual events and conversations provide the background and data on which the conclusions and implications in the last chapter are based.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research design and the procedures of instrumentation and data collection are described. The first section includes a discussion of the triangulation of methods. The second section explains the instrument construction process as well as the data collection and analysis procedure for each instrument.

Research Design

The research was an exploratory descriptive study with multiple measures. The purpose was to document the self-views of 30 adult participants in a community learning activity as they relate to two specific roles: that of a learner and as a teacher. While assessing their self-views, the study also examined the source of these self-views.

Triangulation of Methods

A triangulated measurement perspective was adapted to compare and correlate the results with one another from at least three different measures as no single measurement technique was certain to yield all the needed and relevant data. To triangulate measures as proposed by Webb et al. (1966) and Denzin (1970), it was necessary to compare data gathered by three different methods (Figure 1).

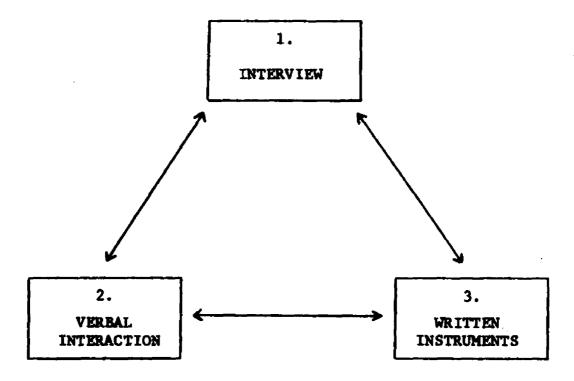


Figure 1. Triangulation Procedure for Data Gathering and Analysis.

The first method was a personal interview conducted with each participant in the project. Factual and accurate description was fundamental. The data gathered during the interviews were recorded and structured using a modified interview schedule. A combination of short-answer and open-ended questions was asked regarding the subject's background and perceptions of himself. The data collected was coded and analyzed using correlational measures.

The second method to gain supplemental data was through observation of the group process. This one unobtrusive measure was taken of the participants to analyze the interaction patterns between participants within the group. The primary technique used was an adaptation of Borgatta's (1965b) interaction analysis form. The method provided data which reflected the involvement and participation of each member within

the group. The measure was taken at five different times during the course of the seminar.

The third method for the triangulation procedure involved pretests and post-tests of a set of three written instruments. The first was a three-question questionnaire titled A Look At Myself measuring participants' self-views in two roles: that of a learner and that of a teacher. The second and third instruments (titled MSU T and MSU L) used a frequency scale to measure the degree of a person's participation in either of the two roles. Both of these measures were correlated with the interview and analysis of verbal interaction data to determine how a person's self-view influenced his awareness and participation in the learning seminar.

Each of the measures were administered in the time sequence shown below:

Eight Weekly Sessions

A. Written instruments.

- B. Analysis of Verbal Interaction.
- C. Interviews conducted throughout the seminar.

Figure 2. Time Sequence of Data-gathering Instruments.

The interaction analysis and written measures were taken during the first two weeks and the last two weeks of the seminar. Personal interviews were conducted at the home of the participants throughout the seminar.

Instrumentation and Data

The three separate measures used in the gathering of data are described in some detail. First, the interview is explained; second, the interaction analysis procedures; and third, the written measures are discussed.

Personal Interview

The individual interview is the most common instrument for data collection in social research. It is uniquely well-suited for descriptive research as it collects data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. Accordingly, detailed steps in constructing and administering interview schedules are presented in this section.

Interview items in this study may refer to past, present, or future phenomena. Some questions attempted to get at past experiences and associations, some items probed present attitudes and practice, and still additional queries related to future expectations and aspirations.

The first step in carrying out a successful interview study was to list specific objectives to be achieved by the interview. The methods of data analysis used had to be kept in mind during formulation of the interview schedule. The first objective of this study was to examine the way in which people see themselves as learners and (potential) teachers. Therefore, items that elicit information from each respondent

regarding their self-view, roles played as learners, and experiences as a learner were included in the interview (see sample of interview schedule questions, Appendix A).

The Interview Schedule. The interview schedule was prepared prior to the site visits, and was a combination of open and closed questions and probes which allowed the respondent to elaborate on initial responses so internal checks for response errors could be made. The development of an interview guide made it possible to obtain the data required to meet the objectives of the study and standardize the situation and data to some extent (see copy of Interview Schedule in Appendix, p. 165ff).

Highly structured questions were aimed primarily toward a semistructured level, although some were included in the interview guide.

The interviewer first asked a series of structured questions at this
level. He began with basic demographic information and led to questions
with yes/no responses. The interviewer then probed further, using
open-ended questions to obtain more complete data.

Recording the Interview. The guideline for analysis of field notes and interviews were those suggested by Becker (1958). Prior to beginning the on-site interviews, all data recording instruments were standardized so that data collected could be codified and noted to make analysis more manageable. By pre-determining some of the categories of analysis (e.g., age categories, roles, occupations) it was possible to structure adequate response and note-taking spaces for each question.

A single interviewer conducted all thirty interviews. This made inter-rater reliability checks unnecessary. Note-taking was used to collect the information in the interview. The interviewer took full

notes in longhand to record an almost verbatim report. This note-taking facilitated data analysis, since the information was readily accessible. The note-taking process did not appear to disrupt the effectiveness of the interaction patterns the interviewer was trying to establish. Each interview was summarized and typed in narrative fashion by the interviewer upon completion of the interviews. The interviews averaged slightly over one hour in length. The written narratives of the interviews averaged three typewritten pages in length and are contained in the Appendix (pp. 165 ff).

Data from the interviews were both quantified and qualified. One quantification technique used was to record the frequency with which certain variables were repeated in the interviews. Source of self-view variables, for example, were identified and tabulated to identify the perceived importance of selected variables.

A three-person panel was used to quantify the verbal data. Directions for selecting such personnel and collecting scores were taken from Borg and Gall (1971). Three elementary school teachers were selected to read the narrative descriptions of the interviews and to score the self-view of each participant as either a teacher (T) or a learner (L). A rating sheet similar to the <u>A Look At Myself</u> instrument was used. The use of a panel of raters removes the subjectivity bias which might result if the interviewer was the only person to rate the self-view of the interviewees.

The analysis of data on the rating sheet was made in terms of a numeric score for each role (either teacher or learner). After the panel had scored the interviews, the inter-rater reliability coefficient was significantly high (a = .05 level) to assure uniformity of ratings by the

the respondents in a consistent pattern. In this way, the interview data was reduced, for purposes of further comparison and correlation, to a numeric score that could be related to the scores from the three written instruments and the mean number score of verbal interactions. The panel ratings yielded scores from the interview data very similar to the results from the participants' self-ratings.

Qualification techniques consisted of explaining the variables and replies found in the interviews. The explanation gave names to the processes identified, described how certain variables interact, what their functions were, who led who and how, and what role or influence each seemed to have on other variables. A classification system emerged for the various types of variables and influences at work in a person's background.

Analysis of Verbal Interaction

The second method for gathering data regarding the subject's view of self was an analysis procedure of verbal interaction. All the detailed categories suggested by Borgatta (1965a) and others were collapsed to represent, simply, interaction between persons in the group or no interaction between persons. An interaction was defined by a verbal response directed toward the other members of the group. A simple slash mark was recorded for every verbal behavior that took place, no matter how brief. Behaviors lasting over 10 seconds were marked as a

second interaction to indicate the continued or repeated interaction of that person with the group. A person receiving no mark indicated that the person did not, in the period of observations, participate in any verbal interaction with the group. A single observer made ratings in this study; thus, reliability checks were unnecessary.

The score recorded did not reflect the context of the interaction or the content of the response of the individuals within the group being observed.

The study was not as concerned to develop or use a category system which allowed for scoring of all possible kinds of actions as it was to provide a system which would allow the accurate recording of all verbal actions—regardless of brevity, content, or meaning.

Borrowing from Borgatta's (1965, pp. 31,44) description of the scoring procedures for the revised interaction scores, the tally sheet provided columns which corresponded to persons and rows which corresponded to categories or times of observation. The scoring of interaction was simplified by recording tally marks in the proper spaces. This form of scoring easily provided summary information (see Appendix, p. 165 ff).

The observation of verbal interaction took place during each session in which the participants were seated in small groups or interacting among themselves. Participants, however, were not placed in groups every session as planned. Observations were made of each group of four or six members for periods of one-minute's length. Three one-minute periods of observation were made of each group at periodic intervals during the time of group interaction. Only two observation periods were possible when the group interaction was cut short by the seminar leaders.

Total scores were computed by finding the mean number of verbal interactions for each person per minute. This score represented the degree of involvement or participation of each person in the group during the course of the seminar.

Written Measures

The third method for assessing a subject's self-perceptions was to administer three written instruments to each person (see Appendix, p. 165ff).

Development of the MSU T and MSU L Instruments. The first two instruments were titled the MSU T and the MSU L and were constructed to assess the frequency of the subject's involvement in teaching and learning activities. To secure a sample of items, a population of traits or activities was defined in both areas. This was accomplished through an extensive reivew of the literature describing the teaching and learning process and from lists of character traits of teachers and learners.

The authors described teaching as an interactive process, primarily involving classroom talk, which takes place between teacher and pupils and occurs during certain definable activities. The ten teaching activities were defined according to the Joyce and Weil (1972) and Kinney (1953, 1957) analyses, and supplemented by selected other authorities:

- 1. telling and sharing of information (Amidon and Hunter, 1966);
- showing and demonstrating;
- motivating and supervising (Valenti and Jasper, 1951);
- 4. explaining and clarifying;
- counseling and encouraging;
- 6. identifying needs and resources (Morgan, 1975, p. 1; Kaufman, 1969, pp. 1-5);
- 7. posing problems and asking questions:

- 8. planning activities with students (Dewey, 1938, p 40);
- 9. evaluating; and
- 10. doing things and participating with others.

Specific activities in the learning role were also listed from the literature describing effective learning and the activity of the learners. The following seven learning activities were defined according to the Joyce and Weil (1972) analyses and supplemented by other authorities;

- 1. gaining or receiving new information (Atwood, 1974, pp. 9-13);
- 2. discovering new ideas for oneself (Atwood, 1974, p. 33);
- 3. finding answers to questions;
- 4. developing new skills (Atwood, 1974, p. 33)
- solving problems and dealing with dilemmas;
- 6. applying ideas to new situations; and
- 7. doing or seeing new things and new places (Dewey, 1938, p. 40).

Behavior traits representing related aspects of teaching and learning behavior were placed into categories to insure a balance of traits and check furthur possibilities of additions to the list. The group resulted in seven major categories of three items each for the <u>learning</u> instrument, and ten major categories of two items each for the <u>teaching</u> instrument after much further reduction, revision, and elimination.

Two college professors and three graduate assistants were asked to make the final selection of 21 to 23 items to constitute the sample traits to be used in the instrument. The final steps involved randomizing the teaching and learning activities, assigning them a number, and typing them onto a one-page teaching (MSU T) or learning (MSU L) instrument. The questions were carefully edited and recast to fit the make-up of the <u>T</u> or <u>L</u> test. Forty-five items were included on the two instruments.

Each question was stated in terms that each subject could easily answer.

The method of answering was clear and unambiguous so the form of the answers

permitted statistical treatment and rapid, accurate scoring.

Each question exhibited either a teaching (T) or a learning (L) factor in the MSU T or MSU L instruments. The respondents were to mark the frequency with which they participated in both kinds of activities. Frequency breakdowns were within "Half-Day," "Day," "Week," "Month," "Over a Month" or "Not Sure". Instruments were scored by taking a simple total of the numbers marked which designated the frequency with which the participant had engaged in the activity. A total was determined for each person, and pretest scores were correlated with post-test scores on both T and L measures. "Half-Day" was scored 1, "Day" - 2, "Week" - 3, "Month" - 4, "Not Sure" - 5.

The lower the total score the more often that person engaged in that type of activity. The range of possible scores was computed by multiplying the number of questions times the score value of the response category.

Table 1

Range of Scores Possible on MSU T and MSU L Instruments

				Rating S	cale		
		Learning	Act:	ivity Inst	rument = 23	3 items.	
ossible scores		23		46	69	92	115
Rating Scale		frequent	-	-	Frequent		Almost Never
	(8.	22		44	66	88	110
Possible sco	res	Teaching	Act	lvity Inst	rument = 22	ltems.	

Some of the tentative hypotheses underlying the construction of the instrument were the following:

- The lower the score the more often the person engages in that activity.
 - a. The lower the L score, the higher will be the person's selfperception of him/herself as a learner.
 - b. The lower the T score, the higher will be the person's selfperception of him/herself as a teacher.
- The higher the score the less often the person engages in that activity.
 - a. The higher the L score, the lower will be the person's selfperception of him/herself as a learner.
 - b. The higher the T score, the lower will be the person's selfperception of him/herself as a teacher.
- 3. Both the L and the T score should correlate with the person's initial indication of his/her self-perception as measured on the A Look At Myself self-perception instrument.
- 4. The relative position of what is high or low on the L or T instruments will relate to the person's general self-esteem as measured on the personal interview and scored by the rating panel.
- 5. Certain factors may emerge over time as being key indicators or correlates with either high or low self-perception of oneself as a learner or as a teacher.

Development of the A Look at Myself Instrument. The third written instrument was titled A Look at Myself and was constructed to identify participant's initial self-perception of themselves as either a teacher or a learner, and measure the strength of that identification. The first of the three questions asked, "As you look at yourself now, do you see yourself as a Teacher or Learner?"

Responses were checked along a four-point scale. The simple forcedchoice question identified those participants who saw themselves as teachers and those who saw themselves as learners.

The second and third questions asked, "Do you like to think of yourself as a Learner?...Teacher?" Responses were checked along a four-point scale ranging from "Not really" at point one, to "Sometimes" at points two and three, and "Yes!" at point four. A person who did not see himself as a teacher would mark the one or two space, while a person with a strong perception of self as a teacher would mark space three or four. Pretests and post-tests were taken with this instrument as well, and scores were correlated to determine if there had been any change in self-perception in either of the two roles during the time of the seminar.

The exploratory nature of this study prohibited a fine distinction between degrees of self-concept among the participants. However, an approximate four-point scale was used to rate the participant's level of self-concept as determined on the interview and on each of the three written instruments. The scale points were as follows: 1 = strong high self-concept; 2 = good, positive; 3 = fair, average; and 4 = below average, poor.

The rating panel assigned a numeric rating of 1-4 on the teacher and learner self-perception for each subject based on their interpretation of the subject's self-concept in that role. A single overall score of either T or L was also assigned by the panel to each subject to correspond with the T or L selection made by each subject on question #1 of the A Look At Myself instrument.

A total score was tabulated for each subject on the pretests and posttests of the MSU T and the MSU L instruments as well. These data for each subject were tabled as follows:

Table 2
Data Table

Instrument	Ratin	gs fr	om T	hree Ins	truments		
	T or L	T	L	MSU L	MSU T	Interaction	1
Interview							
A Look At Myself							
MSU L							
MSU T							
						""	

Source: Interview form, A Look At Myself, MSU L and MSU T, and Analysis of Verbal Interaction.

The total interaction score was also tabled with the other two measures for ease of analysis and for correlation purposes. All statistical analyses for the study were handled by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program. All correlation coefficients and reliability coefficients were computed at the a = .05 level, number of subjects being 30. The level of significance was determined from the "Quantities of the Spearman Test Statistic" table in Conoyer (1971, p. 390).

Description of the Pilot Study

All possible controls and safeguards must be employed when a technique as subjective as an interview is used to obtain reasonably objective and unbiased data. A careful pilot study with three graduate students was conducted after the interview guide was developed to

evaluate and improve the interview schedule guide and interviewing procedure. The pilot study also helped the interviewer develop experience in using the procedure before any research data for the major study was collected. The three subjects were interviewed on campus and selected, roughly, from the same population as the main study participants. Different parts of the interview schedule were refined from the progress of the pilot interviews, and the order of questions was slightly altered.

The three written instruments were also tested with five trial subjects. A five-day space-time reliability study was conducted with eight persons as a pilot study. The subjects were given the instruments and asked to complete them. Five days later the same subjects were again given the instruments. Correlations were run to determine the degree of agreement between the two measures. There was a coefficient of stability of .9535 at a = .01. A coefficient of at least .80 meant it was safe to conclude that the test was consistent between measurements.

Each person was asked to explain his response after giving the A Look At Myself self-perception measure the second time. A simple question such as, "What did you mean by your response to this question?" was used to elicit a response. Answers to this question confirmed the general intent and purpose of the test as a measure of that person's perception of himself in either the teacher or learner role. The construct validity of the instruments were thus evaluated by identifying what qualities the test actually measured.

Once data from the instruments were tabulated, the data were presented to a panel of three persons to determine if the data--as they saw it--were responsible measures of the subjects' self-perceptions. Agreement by two-thirds of the panel was sufficient for approval.

The MSU T and MSU L instruments were completed the second time and subjects were asked to explain their responses to these tests as well. Questions such as, "What kinds of activities came to mind when answering this question?" were asked the subjects in order to compare the multiple-questions for each factor. A high similarity of responses from the subjects showed that the items on the two forms were in a form which was understandable to the respondents. Minor changes were made in syntax and wording on the instruments before printing for use in the project.

Summary .

Three different descriptive assessments were conducted to determine the self-perceptions of the participants in the learning seminar in either of two roles; that of a learner or a (potential) teacher.

Personal interviews were conducted with each participant during the eight weeks of the seminar. Two kinds of data resulted. First, various background factors relating to one's self-perception as a teacher or learner were identified and tabulated. Second, a panel of raters scored each interview as to the person's self-conception in the teacher and learner role.

Observations of the verbal interaction within the learning group were tabulated for each participant. A total score was determined for each participant of the mean number of interactions engaged in per minute.

Last, three different written instruments gathered data from the participants concerning their self-perceptions in the role of teacher and learner and the frequency of participation in teaching and learning activities. The three-question A Look At Myself instrument was used to identify one's initial self-perception as either a teacher or learner and

the strength of that self-view. The MSU T and MSU L instruments measured the participants' involvement in teaching (T) and learning (L) activities. A total score was computed for both of these forms.

Correlations were determined for the total of the pretest and posttest scores of the group as a whole.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the analysis of the data gathered in the Thumb Area seminar on "The Family and Community." A total of five different types of measures were administered to 30 participants. The findings of each measure are tabulated and presented in tables.

The chapter is divided into two main sections:

First is the descriptive analysis. It includes information about the Thumb Area residents, the community activities in the Thumb Area, and further demographic data about the participants.

Second, the correlational analyses of the several background variables are presented. These analyses relate to one's present self-concept, the relation of self-view to attitudes about learning, the relation of self-view to the degree of participation, the extent to which self-views changed, and the extent of change in participation in learning (L) and teaching (T) activities.

Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive analysis includes information about the Thumb

Area participants as gathered from the interview form and basic

information sheet filled out by the participants at the start of the
seminar.

Thumb Area Participants

The 30 participants interviewed were predominantly wives and homemakers; the four men participants were the heads of families engaged in agricultural work. Four of the women worked full-time in addition to being homemakers, seven worked part-time, and only one woman was single living at home. Two of the men held other jobs in addition to being full-time farmers (Table 1).

Table 1
Occupation in the Family

Occupation	Number of Participants	X
Homemaker	15	50
Homemaker + fulltime work*	4	14
Homemaker + part-time work*	7	24
Fulltime work*	1	3
Farmer	1	3
Farmer + work	<u>2</u> 30	6 100

Source: Interview forms

*Note. Refers to out-of-the-home work.

The mean age of the group was 42 years. Only one participant was younger than 24 years, and three participants were less than 34 years of age. Eighty percent of the participants were between the ages of 35 and 54. Two participants were older than 55 years of age (Table 2).

Table 2
Age of Participants

Age Groups	No. Participants	z
19-24	1	3
25-34	3	10
35-46	16	53
47-54	8	27
55+	$\frac{2}{30}$	$\frac{7}{100}$

Source: Participant Information Sheets and Interview forms.

Schooling data are presented in Table 3. Thirty-six percent of the participants attended high school and went no further in their schooling. Twenty-nine percent began college or professional school and did not finish; another 29 percent completed college. Two participants had completed graduate degrees.

Table 3
Last Year of Schooling

Year of Schooling	No. Participants	*	
High School			
9–12	1	3	
11-12	10	33	
College			
attended	9	29	
finished	9	29	
Graduate degree	2 30	6 100	

Source: Interview forms.

The data in Table 4 indicate that 36 percent of the seminar participants came from agricultural homes with the father employed in agriculture related work. Thirty percent of the participants' fathers were laborers or factory workers, with 17 percent employed as tradesmen. Another 17 percent were engaged in business or professional fields.

Table 4
Parent's Occupation

Occupation	No. Participant	s %
Father		
Farmer/Agriculture	11	36
Factory/Laborer	9	30
Tradesman	5	17
Business/ Professional	<u>5</u> 30	17 100
Mother		
Housewife	17	57
Housewife + work*	9	30
Fulltime work*	3	10
Other	1 30	$\frac{3}{100}$

Source: Interview forms.

*Note. Refers to out-of-the-home work.

Data were also collected about the occupations of the mothers of the participants. Each of the participants' mothers were housewives. Thirty percent of that number also worked part-time and 10 percent worked full-time.

Table 5 presents data on the size of the participants' families by birth and the size of their present family. There was an overall role of influence. Several participants mentioned their mother as both a positive and a negative factor relating to their self-concept as a learner.

A particular <u>Success or Failure</u> in the learning role was mentioned by 70 percent of the participants as having an influence on their self-concept as a learner. These 57 percent were able to recall a success experience. Thirteen percent recalled a failure or negative learning experience.

Other in their learning experience. No one identified a person other than a teacher or parent who played a negative part in shaping their self-concept as a learner.

The <u>Setting</u> of their past learning experiences was mentioned by 20 percent of the subjects as relating to their self-concept as a learner. The rural or country school in which they were raised was a positive factor to most of them.

The influence of <u>Peers</u> was the seventh major background variable identified by participants. Thirteen percent of the subjects recalled the positive influence a peer had made on their learning experience and self-concept as a learner.

In summary, <u>Out-of-School Learning Experiences</u> were the most frequently mentioned factor having a <u>positive</u> influence on participants' self-concepts as learners. Teachers were the persons having the strongest negative influence of participants' learning concepts.

Six major variables were identified by participants as relating to their present self-concept in the role of a teacher. Table 6 presents data on the number of positive, neutral, or negative comments made by participants about each variable.

decrease in the mean size of families, from 5.6 members in the families into which they were born to 5.2 members in their immediate families at the present time.

Table 5
Size of Family

	Si	ze	of	fam	11y	bу	bi	rth	Si	ze	of	fan	ı11y	no	₩	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+
No. Participants			3	7	6	4	4	6	1		3	4	6	7	5	3
	Me	an	siz	e =	5.	6			Me	an	sia	e =	5.3	2		

Source: Interview forms.

All except two participants are presently married. One participant is single, and one was recently divorced from her husband. The mean number of years participants have been married is 19.8 years.

Background Variables Relating to Self-Views

Further descriptive data were gathered through the personal interviews to answer the second research question.

Research Question D2: What factors or background variables relate to the participants' self-views? What is the source of these self-views?

Data were gathered from participants during the interview by asking them the question: "What factors from your past do you think influenced or relate to you as a learner?...teacher?" The respondent was permitted completely to finish his/her sharing on the topic of

factors relating to the role of learner before moving on to discuss the factors relating to the role of teacher. If the participant was unable to recall any specific influence, the interviewer urged them to think through the periods of one's life: elementary and high school, to post-secondary school experiences, family experiences and work experiences. Probes were offered by the interviewer when the respondent was unable to articulate his/her thoughts or feelings about the past. The participant was asked if any of the following persons or experiences related to his/her present self-conception in the role of learner or teacher: the setting, the roles played in school, his/her parents' attitudes toward teaching and learning, his/her peer group attitudes, his/her particular successes or failures, his/her other interests or sources of support or encouragement, or any other influences.

The data gathered indicate that the Thumb seminar participants were all significantly influenced by one or more persons in their past concerning their self-concept in the role of teacher or learner. The various background variables or factors relating to one's self-view that emerged will be separated into two groups; first, those related to the learner role, and second, those related to the teacher role.

Seven major variables were identified by participants as relating to their present self-concept as a learner. Eighty-three percent of the subjects mentioned Schooling as a factor in their background that related to how they felt about learning. Of those, 57 percent identified their teachers specifically. Teachers were a negative influence on 23 percent of the subjects. Twenty-six percent talked about one or various roles they played during their schooling that influenced them either positively or negatively (Table 6).

Table 6
Background Variables Relating to Self-Views

Particip	anta in	Learner R	ole	<u>:</u>	Teach	er Role		
	Positive	Negative	Ne	utral	Positive	Negative	Ne	utral
Variable			T	otal %			To	ta1 %
Schooling Teachers Roles played	10 3	7 5	1	83	14 5	3 1		77
Out-of-School Learning Experiences	19	1		67	16		1	53
Family/Parents Father Mother Siblings	8 5 2	2		64	5 3 1	2 2	1	43
Success & Failures	17	4		70	12	2		47
Significant Others	12			40	8			26
Setting	6			20	3		!	10
Peers	4			13	2			6
Other	2			6				

Source: Interview forms.

The next most frequently mentioned factor was <u>Out-of School</u>

<u>Learning Experiences</u>. Sixty-seven percent of the participants pointed to things or skills learned non-formally (out-of-school) as being a positive factor in how they now feel about themself as a learner.

Only one person could recall a negative learning experience outside of schooling.

The <u>Family</u> was identified as having a positive influence on 50 percent of the participants, and a negative influence by 14 percent. Fathers were the persons in the family playing the strongest positive

Schooling was again the background factor most often mentioned as relating to one's self-concept as a teacher. Fifty-seven percent of the subjects felt that teachers and roles played in school had been positive influences, while 20 percent felt they had been negative influences.

The <u>Family</u> related to the self-concept of 43 percent of the subjects; 29 percent felt their parents and siblings had exerted a positive influence, and 13 percent felt it had been a negative influence.

Out-of-School Learning Experiences were identified by 53 percent of the subjects as a positive factor relating to their self-concept as a teacher, and no one indicated any negative aspects of non-formal learning. Forty-seven percent of the subjects cited a particular Success as a positive factor, with two persons recalling Failure experiences.

Husbands were the most often mentioned <u>Significant Other</u> playing a positive role in influencing one's self-concept as a teacher;

26 percent of the subjects identified husbands or others as important factors.

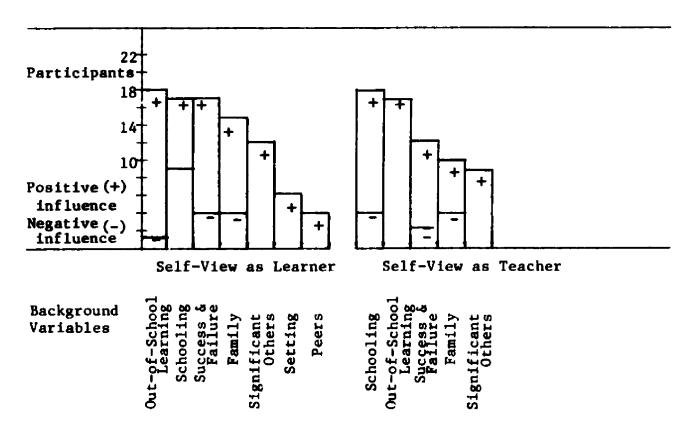
The final variable identified as relating to self-views in the role of teacher was that of the <u>Setting</u> in which their shoooling took place. Ten percent of the subjects mentioned that the country school setting had been a positive learning experience and influenced the way they felt about themselves as teachers.

The summarization of the teacher role self-concept is the same as the learner role: Out-of-School Learning Experiences was a positive factor and teachers were a negative factor relating to subjects'

self-concepts as teachers. Table 7 graphs the background variables relating to the learner and teacher self-views and visualizes the comparisons described above.

Table 7

Graph of Background Variables Relating to Self-Views as Learner and Teacher



Participation in Community Activities

Participants were asked, during the interview, to list the community activities in which they were presently involved ant rate as to whether they were involved "A Lot," "Some," "Little," or "None." These four categories were designed to allow them to choose the level or extent

to which they were involved. Thirty-seven percent of the participants said they participated "A Lot," 57 percent said "Some," none said "Little," and two persons (six percent) said they had not participated in community activities at all. The mean number of activities in which participants engaged was 4.06. Those subjects who said they participated "A Lot" did not participate in significantly more activities than those who said they participated "Some" (Table 8).

Table 8
Participation in Community Activities

Activity	Participants	z	Level of Participation	No.	z
School	27	90	"A Lot"	11	37
Church	22	74	"Some"	17	57
Farm Bureau	10	33	"Little"		
Scouting, 4-H	11	37	"None"	2	6
CES	9	30			
Township Officia	al 4	13			
Women's Club	5	17	i		

Source: Interview forms.

The data collected indicate that 90 percent of the subjects were involved in activities related to the Schools. PTA, Band Boosters, FFA, substitute-teaching, and serving as member of the School Board were the major school activities mentioned.

Seventy-four percent of the subjects were actively involved in church related activities, and all except one participant indicated they attended church regularly. Over 20 percent of the subjects were presently teaching Sunday School classes, and 10 percent were serving on the church board in some capacity.

The findings also indicate at least 20 different specific community activities in which participants were involved. Thirty-four percent were involved in the Farm Bureau, 30 percent were participating in CES sessions and groups, 14 percent were Scout leaders with another 20 percent were serving as 4-H leaders. The other activities listed included: a glass recycling project, the hospital auxiliary, AAUW, township officer, Bi-Centennial program committee, the Thumb Council on the Arts, Jaycees and Jaycettes, the March of Dimes, Community Chest, and United Fund, Meals on Wheels and the Women's Club.

The data collected indicate that the participants in the Thumb seminar were not a group representative of the population of the state of Michigan. The seminar participants' mean age of 42.06 was higher than the mean age for the population of the State (26.3), and of the Thumb Area as a whole--27.46 (1970 Michigan Census). The level of education for the group was also higher than the norm for the Thumb Area (Table 9).

Table 9

Age of Thumb Area Residents

Area Mo	ean Age
Seminar Participants	42.06
Huron County	28.9
Sanilac County	28.0
Tuscola County	25.5
State of Michigan	26.3

Source: 1970 Michigan Census

The factors of occupation, parents' occupation, and size of family were representative of the rest of the Thumb Area population.

The level of participation by subjects in community activities was high (4.1). This high level of involvement would be in keeping with the expressed interest of the subjects in learning more about the family and the community in which they live.

The mean number years of marriage (19.83) was notably higher than either the state mean or the national average (Michigan Health Statistics, Michigan Department of Public Health, 1974, p. 77). Only one divorce among the 27 marriages represented by the participants is not indicative of the national divorce rate (one in every three marriages) (Statistical Abstracts of the U.S., U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of Statistics, 1976).

Correlational Analyses

The second section of the chapter is guided by the exploratory questions posed in Chapter I. The findings to each questions are tabled and discussed, and relationships are explained in terms of correlations that exist between variables and factors.

Research Question D1: How do the participants see themselves as (potential) learners and (potential) teachers?

Two different types of instruments were used to gather data on how the participants saw themselves in the learner and teacher role. The personal interview asked the question directly to the participants: "How do you think of yourself as a learner?...teacher? How do you feel about learning?...teaching?" Raters scored the narrative of the interviews by determining if the participant was a teacher (T) or learner (L) overall, and then ranked the strength of both self—concepts on a scale from 1 to 4.

The first of the three written instruments identified an overall preference of the participant for either the teacher or learner role. It then had each participant rank the strength of his self-concept in the two roles.

The data in Table 10 indicate that on item one on the pretest of the A Look at Myself instrument, 28 participants saw themselves as learners and only two participants saw themselves as teachers. The first item asked participants to make a forced choice: "As you look at yourself now, do you see yourself as a teacher or learner?" There was a significant shift in the self-concept positions on the post-test of the same instrument with 14 participants identifying themselves as teachers and 16 as learners. The overall scoring of the panel followed the pattern of the post-test: 18 participants were marked by the panel as learners and 12 as teachers.

Table 10
Self-Views as Learners (L) or Teachers (T)

	Par	ticipants	
Instrument:	L	T	
Pretest	28	2	
Post-test	16	14	
Panel Rating	18	12	

Source: Interview forms and A Look At Myself.

Table 11 summarizes the data gathered indicating the strength of the participants' self-concepts in the teacher and learner role as measured by the panel's ratings of the interview data and by the second and third question on the <u>A Look At Myself</u> instrument. The data gathered by the two different methods are roughly parallel. The panel marked 14 participants as having a "positive, strong" self-concept as learners, and the written instrument indicated 24 participants in that category. The largest number of participants scored highest on the written L question.

Fifty percent of the participants were marked as having a "good" self-concept as a learner by the panel, with only one participant seen as "average." The panel marked 12 participants as "strong" teachers, 11 as "good," six as "average," and the single remaining participant as "poor" or below average.

The written instrument divided the participants into three equal groups on the teacher role dimension. Ten participants marked themselves as "strong," 10 marked "good," 9 marked "average," and only one marked below average (Table 11).

Table 11
Strength of Self-Views

			Ratin	g Sca	ale			
Instrument	1 "Stro	ong"	2 "Go	od"	3 "Aver	age"	4 "Po	or"
Panel Rating of Interview L Role T Role	14 12		15 11	50 37	1 6	3 23	1	3
L Role T Role	24 10	80 34	_	17 34	1 9	3 29	1	3

Five participants who indicated a "strong" attitude toward learning also indicated "strong" expectations for the seminar learning experience. Seven participants shared a "good" attitude and expectation level.

The next research question investigates the <u>relationship</u> between different factors in the lives of the participants.

Research Question R1: How does a participant's past experience in various learning experiences relate to his/her self-perceptions?

^{*} Source: Interview forms and A Look At Myself.

The participant's thoughts and feelings about past learning experiences were determined through a series of questions. The first question asked was the following: "How did you used to feel about being a student or learner? What factors from your past do you think influenced you as a learner?...teacher?" The data gathered are indicated in Table 12.

Table 12
Past Learning Experiences

Evaluation	Self-View	as	L	or	T
Positive	····		9		9
Neutral			1		
Negative			1		5
Missing data			5		

Source: Interview forms

Nine participants felt their past learning experience had influenced their self-concept as a learner positively, and an equal number felt a positive influence on their self-concept as a teacher. Five participants felt their learning was a negative factor on their self-concept as a learner, and only one mentioned it as a teacher. In total, more participants had positive learning experiences (18 persons) than negative. Thus, 80 percent of the participants mentioned past learning experiences as being an influence in how they felt about themselves as a teacher and learner.

On the post-test scores of the <u>A Look At Myself</u>, the mean score of the participants in the learner role was 3.9 on a four-point scale, and the mean score in the teacher role was 2.96.

Research Question D3: What are the participants' expectations for the learning experience?

Data were collected in response to the questions in the interview form: "How do you think you will do as a learner?...in this seminar? What are some of your expectations for yourself in this seminar?" The data collected indicate that nine of the participants had strong or high, positive expectations, 19 had "good" expectations, and two stated their expectations were only "average" (Table 13).

Table 13
Expectations and Attitudes

	Strength of Rating				
	1 "Strong"	2 "Good"	3 "Average"	4 "Poor	
Expectations	9	19	2		
Attitude toward Learning	18	10	2		

Source: Interview forms.

Many of the participants found the concept of expectations difficult to verbalize. Many were unable to articulate their personal expectations for either the learning experience or their involvement in the learning experience as asked in Research Question D4.

Research Question D4: What are the participant's expectations of his/her involvement in the learning experience?

For this reason, the data collected in response to these two questions appear together in Table 13. A single score was determined from the interview data for each participant's expectations about his/her involvement in the learning experience and his/her expectations for the seminar itself.

Table 14 also summarizes the data showing the participants' attitudes toward learning in general as defined in Research Question R2.

Eighteen participants indicated a "strong, positive" attitude toward learning, 10 indicated a "good" attitude, and two indicated an "average" attitude.

Table 14
Self-View and Attitudes

Instrument	<u>s</u>	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , 			
	1 "Strong	" 2 "Go	od"	3 "Average	" 4 "Poor"
L Self-View A Look At Myself	24 80	5	17	1 3	
L Self-View Panel Rating	14 47	15	50	1 3	,
Attitude toward Learning	18 60	10	34	2 6	
Attitude toward Group Learning	1 5	27	90	2 ú	

Scores of strengths in the teacher (T) and learner (L) role relate positively with the 18 participants who indicated positive past learning experiences. It was difficult to determine whether or not the past learning experience factor was influential in determining that score, and whether or not the past experience influenced the distinction of a participant as a teacher or learner, since all participants scored high on the strength of role scale.

Research Question R2: How does a participant's self-view relate to his/her attitude toward learning in general?... a group?...and teaching?

The attitude of the participants towards learning in general is presented in Tables 13 and 14. These data were gathered from a summary of each participant's comments during the interview process. The participants' attitude toward learning was overwhelmingly positive (94 percent), and parallels their expectations for the learning experience as also being high.

Source: Interview forms and A Look At Myself.

The participants' self-views measured by the <u>A Look At Myself</u> and by the panel indicate that all but one participant marked themselves positively in the role of learner. This indicates a strong relationship between participants' self-view and their attitude toward learning in general.

All except two participants felt they learned best in small, informal group settings which featured discussion and opportunity for feedback and dialogue. The overall positive self-views would relate to this strong positive feeling about learning in groups.

Finally, Pearson correlation coefficients indicate a significant relationship between participants' attitude toward learning and the participants' self-view in the role of learner and teacher. Table 15 shows the correlations between the five factors.

Table 15
Correlations Between Self-Views and Attitudes

Instrument & Self-View	Attitude Toward Learning
Post-test Learning Activity	.527
Post-test Teaching Activity	. 385
Panel Rating of Learner Role	.592
Panel Rating of Teacher Role	.440

Source: Interview forms and A Look At Myself.

Note. Statistic needed for significance with 30 subjects is .3059, "Quantities of the Spearman Test Statistic" Table, Conover, 1971, p.390; a = .05.

Research Question R3: How do these self-views (and expectations) relate to participant's learning experience?

Research Question R4: How does a participant's self-view relate to the degree of his/her participation and interaction in a group learning experience?

The similarity of these two questions suggests that they may best be answered together as one question. Self-views were measured by the A Look At Myself written instrument which asked the participant to decide whether he/she saw him/herself as a teacher or a learner. Eighteen participants marked "learner" and 12 marked "teacher" on the post-test. That self-view score was used in the comparison for question R3.

It was necessary to substitute a numeric score of the participants' expectations instead of a quantative measure of the learning experience as the study was unable to measure the overall effect or effectiveness of the seminar as a learning experience, and the CES was not concerned with precise measures of learning gain achieved during the seminar.

Table 16 indicates the relation between the participants' selfview score and the participants' expectation for the learning
experience as presented above in Table 13. Five of the 18 participants
selecting the learner role had "high," or "strong" expectations, while
13 said their expectations for the seminar were "good." Twelve
participants selected the teacher role, out of which four had "high"
expectations, six had "good" expectations, and the remaining two said
their expectations were "average."

Table 16
Self-View and Expectations

Self-View	Level of Expectation			
	1 High	2 Good	3 Average	4 Poor
Learner Role	5	13		
Teacher Role	4	6	2	
Total	9	19	2	-

Source: Interview forms and A Look At Myself.

The fourth question of the relationship (R4) asks what the relationship is between a participant's self-view and his/her degree of participation in the group learning experience. Table 17 includes the data collected on the interview form and through the observation of verbal interaction among the participants at various times in the seminar.

Table 17
Self-View and Verbal Interaction

Level of	Interactionsper minute				
Expectation	.06099	1.01.9	2.02.9	3.0+	
l High	1	4	3	1	
2 Good	3	10	6		
3 Average		2			
4 Poor					
	Mean numbe teacher me		actions = learner m		

Source: Interview forms and Analysis of Verbal Interaction forms.

It was impossible to collect the necessary data for the analysis of verbal interaction because the participants were not divided into small groups in each session of the seminar. Thus, the researcher was unable to collect interaction data in the first, fourth, fifth and sixth sessions. A critical number of pupil absences during the remaining sessions prevented the collection of complete data on a pretest and post-test basis. An overall interaction score was determined for each participant by averaging the total number of interaction observations made on each person during the course of the seminar. This single overall score was compared with the self-view data.

The mean number of interactions for participants in the group was 1.72 per minute. There was a slight difference between the mean number of interactions engaged in by participants identified in the teacher role (mean = 1.85 interactions per minute) and thos identified in the learner role (mean = 1.6 interactions per minute). This difference was not significant.

Research Question S1: To what extent do these self-views change (as a result of the learning experience)?

A Look At Myself indicated the greatest amount of change during the course of the seminar. Responses to the first question on the instrument indicated that 23 participants had shifted in their self-perception during the seminar. Twenty participants moved away from their original learner role towards the teaching role. Three participants moved closer towards the learner role from their original position, and seven persons did not change. Table 18 indicates the percentages of these changes.

Table 18

Extent of Self-View Change Between Learner and Teacher Acle

Direction of Change	Item 1		Item 2		Item 3	
	No.	X	No.	z	No.	Z
Learner to Teacher	20	67	6	20	12	40
Teacher to Learner	3	10	2	7	9	30
Same	7_	23	_22_	73	_ 9	_30
	30	100	30	100	30	100

Source: A Look At Myself.

Responses to the second question showed 22 participants remaining in the same learner position, two participants moving towards a more definite learner role, and six participants moving away from their original position in the learner role.

Change among participants was more pronounced as measured by the third question. Nine participants did not change, 12 moved towards a more definite identification with the teacher role, and nine moved away from the teacher role.

The data collected indicate that more participants experienced change in their self-views in the role of teacher than did participants in the role of learner. Sixty-seven percent of the participants showed some change in their self-view as a teacher; only 10 percent showed change in their self-view as a learner.

Research Question S2: To what extent did the degree of involvement change during the course of the learning experience?

It was impossible to answer this question as planned because of the data collection problems mentioned above. Incomplete timesampling of data prevented comparing pretests with post-test measurements to determine change.

Research Question S3: To what extent did the level of participation in learning (L) or teaching (T) activities change during the course of the learning activity?

Table 19 summarizes the data indicating the extent of change by participants in learning (L) and teaching (T) activities. The MSU L and MSU T instruments were used in a pretest and post-test fashion to gather these data. The mean number of the total scores on the MSU L pretest was 59.70. This score falls between the "Very Frequent" (Day) and the "Frequent" (Week) category on the range of scores possible. The post-test mean was 58.33; this was not a significant difference. This instrument recorded that 16 participants became more actively

involved in learning activities during the course of the seminar, one did not. Thirteen participants became less involved.

Table 19

Participation Change in Learning and Teaching Activities

Instrument	Pre-MSU L	Pre-MSU T	Post-MSU L	Post-MSU T
Pretest MSU L		.7707	.5979	
Pretest MSU T				. 5445
Post-test MSU	<u>L</u>			. 8099
Post-test MSU	<u>r</u>			

Source: MSU L and MSU T.

Note. a = .001.

Fifteen participants became more involved in teaching activities, with an equal number dropping off in activity level. There was not a significant difference between the mean of the pretest and the posttest. However, there was a significant (.001) relationship between the following four factors as computed by Pearson correlation coefficients: the pre-MSU L and the post-MSU L, the pre-MSU T and the post-MSU T, the pre-MSU L and the post-MSU T, and the post-MSU L and the post-MSU T.

Table 20 presents the correlation coefficients indicating significant relationships between the remaining pretest and post-test data. The interview panel ratings of participants as either teachers (T) or learners (L) showed a significant relationship to post-test scores of the participants' involvement in learning and teaching activities. This correlation indicates that the data gathered via the two instruments are related.

Table 20
Correlations Between Post-tests

Instruments	Panel of L	Panel of T	Verbal Interaction
Post-test Learning Activity	.4066	.4519	3856*
Post-test Teaching Activity		. 3279	
Panel Overall Score		5754*	
Panel on Learner Role		.4747	
Panel on Teacher Role	. 4747		
Verbal Interaction	4485*	5442*	

Source: Interview forms and Analysis of Verbal Interaction.

*Note. a = .05. Negative correlation coefficients result from correlation of data with differing scales, i.e. scales with high scores with scales with low scores.

The panel's rating of the strength of the participants' selfconcept in the learner role shows a significant correlation with the
total mean score of the participants' verbal interaction. This means
that the level of verbal interaction among the participants relates
positively with their self-views in the role of learners. There was
also a significant relationship between the level of interaction and
their self-views in the role of teachers.

or a learner shows a significant relationship with the panel's rating of the participants' self-concept in the teacher role. There was also a significant relationship between the panel's ratings of the participants as learners and the participants as teachers. The significance of the relationships indicates a consistency between the different ratings by the panel of the interview data.

The data collected indicate a positive relationship between the panel's rating of the participants as learners and the post-test scores on the learning activities, and between the panel's rating of the participants as teachers and the post-tests of both the learning and

teaching activity. This relationship shows that the participants' self-concept in the role of learner and teacher (as measured on the interview and scored by the panel) were consistent with their participation or involvement in learning and teaching activities. Their self-concept correlated with their level of activity.

Finally, the data also indicate that the post-test scores on the learning activity instrument (MSU L) are related to the participants' level of verbal interaction. There was not a significant relationship between the teaching activity score and the level of verbal interaction.

Summary

The major findings of the study were presented under two main headings: descriptive analysis and correlational analyses.

The descriptive analysis showed the participants in the seminar to be a well-educated group, slightly older than the Thumb residents, highly active in community activities, and coming from stable homes.

Other demographic data were also highlighted. Seven background variables were identified by the participants as relating to their views of themselves in the learning role, and six variables were identified relating to the teaching role.

The correlational analyses indicated several important relationships between different factors and different instruments. First, the majority of the participants showed a good to strong attitude toward learning, and this attitude was related to the participants' self-view in both the teacher and learner role as well as to the participants' level of participation in learning and teaching activities. Twenty-eight of the participants indicated good to high

expectations for the learning experience and their overall positive self-views related to their positive expectations. A significant change in self-view among the participants was seen in the shift of 57 percent of the participants from the learner role toward the teacher role as measured by the <u>A Look At Myself</u> instrument. The three written instruments were helpful in identifying data relating to participants' view of themselves in the learner and teacher role.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study attempted to clarify one specific problem that program planners in non-formal community learning programs must deal with--the self-perceptions of participants in a community learning experience in two roles: that of a potential learner and a potential teacher.

The research was conducted in the Thumb Area of Michigan, during the winter months of 1977. The purposes of the research were the following:

- (1) To examine the way in which people see themselves as (potential) learners, and to analyze the sources of these self-views.
- (2) To examine the way in which people see themselves as (potential) teachers, and to analyze the sources of these self-views.
- (3) To examine the relationships between the following sets of variables:
 - a. Past learning experiences and peoples' view of themselves;
- b. Peoples' view of themselves and their expectations regarding a learning experience;
 - c. Peoples' expectations and future learning experiences.

A total of 30 interviews were conducted; three sets of tests were administered (both pre and post for each); and an analysis of verbal interaction was made throughout the seminar sessions. The results were presented in the form of descriptive analysis and Pearson product-moment correlations.

Summary of the Research

In the first chapter of the dissertation the problem was identified

and a research procedure proposed. The purposes of the study and its importance were outlined. In concluding the first chapter, the guiding research questions were listed.

In the second chapter, the review of the previous research and literature suggested that self-perceptions could be directly assessed in order to indicate the strength of that person's self-view in a particular role. The participant observer methodology was adopted by the researcher to be involved with the participants in the Cooperative Extention Service's "Family and Community" travel/study seminar. Three kinds of data were gathered: interview data, scores of verbal interaction, and written responses to questionnaires.

In the third chapter, a narrative description was given of the researcher's adaptation to the field experience. The first person account provided an overview of the region, described the way of life in the Thumb Area, discussed relating to the participants, outlined the proceedings of the seminar itself, and concluded with the researcher's reflections on the seminar experience.

In the fourth chapter, the research design was described; covering the rationale for the triangulation of data, the descriptive interview, and the supplemental data gathering techniques.

The fifth chapter presented the findings. Data gathered by the three different kinds of research instruments were tabulated and correlated through the use of the SPSS computer program. Several significant correlations were noted.

Discussions and Interpretations

Discussion of the findings are divided into two sections, following, in terms of the descriptive and the correlational procedures used.

Descriptive Analysis

The analysis of the data indicated that the mean age of the participants was 42 years, with 80 percent of the group between the ages of 35 to 54. This is almost 14 years older than the mean for the Thumb Area.

The participants were also better educated than the typical Thumb residents. Thirty-seven percent of the group had gone no further than high school, 29 percent began college but did not finish and 29 percent completed college. Two participants had completed graduate degrees.

Thirty-six percent of the participants had been reared in agriculturerelated homes; 60 percent of the participants were currently engaged in
agriculture related work. Twenty-seven percent of the participants'
families were in professional fields, 10 percent in the trades, and 6
percent in other areas.

All the participants were living in families smaller than the family in which they were raised. All but two of the participants were married, and the mean number of years married was 19.9 years. In addition, 90 percent of the participants indicated they were actively involved in church attendance and a variety of church activities.

This descriptive analysis of the participants indicates that the seminar was composed of a homogeneous group of residents of the Thumb Area who came from and presently lived in very stable homes. This stability appeared to relate to the positive self-views and healthy views of learning they exhibited. All the participants were self-motivated learners, and all were voluntary participants in the seminar. A number of the participants also mentioned and shared their feeling

that it was their religious upbringing and beliefs which provided the necessary integrating element in their lives and work.

Twenty-six of the participants were women, four were men. All except two of the women were homemakers; four worked full-time outside of the home and seven worked part-time outside of the home.

The seminar participants were heavily involved in a variety of community activities as well. Participants were engaged in a mean number of four activities. Ninety percent were involved in activities related to the schools, and all but one participant indicated church attendance. Twenty specific community activities were also mentioned by the participants, including: the Farm Bureau, CES meetings, Bi-Centennial program committees, Community Chest and Women's Club. The high level of involvement might be expected in such a volunteer group where the self-selection process is at work. Only active persons pursued application and enrollment in the seminar.

Further descriptive data were gathered on the factors or variables in the participants' background relating to their present self-view in the role of learner and the role of teacher. Seven major variables were identified by participants in relating to their self-view as a learner.

Schooling was a factor to 83 percent of the participants; Out-of-School Learning Experiences were mentioned by 63 percent; 50 percent indicated their Family had a positive effect; Success or Failure was mentioned by 70 percent; 40 percent of the participants were influenced by a Significant Other. The Setting and Peers were identified by 20 percent and 13 percent respectively.

Six major variables were identified by participants as relating to their self-view in the role of a teacher. Schooling was again the most frequently mentioned factor with 57 percent of the participants identifying it; 43 percent mentioned their <u>Family</u>; 53 percent mentioned <u>Out-of-School Learning Experiences</u>; 47 percent mentioned <u>Success or Failure</u>; and 26 percent mentioned <u>Significant Others</u>. Ten percent of the participants mentioned the Setting relating to their self-view.

It was evident that positive background experiences and influences related to the positive self-views and attitudes the participants had toward learning. The positive comments and factors identified outweighed the negative comments five to one. Fundamental to the strong self-views as learners were positive learning experiences in and outside of the school. No participants mentioned failing in school. The lowest self-views identified were the few participants who saw themselves as only "average" students.

It was significant that in a rural area, the <u>Family</u> played a strong influence in shaping the self-view and positive attitude toward learning. The peer group was not cited as being very influential in the participants' upbringing.

Spouses were the single most frequently mentioned <u>Significant Other</u> who played a positive role of influence in the lives of the participants. This fact undoubtedly relates to the strong family ties already mentioned and to the stable marriages.

Correlational Analyses

One of the eleven research questions was unanswered, and the rest yielded meaningful data. The major findings from each question are summarized below:

Research Question D1. How do the participants see themselves as (potential) learners and (potential) teachers?

The data summarized in Table 10 (p. 110) indicate that at the start of the seminar 24 participants had a "strong" self-view as a <u>learner</u> but only 10 participants had a "strong" self-view as a <u>teacher</u>.

It was expected that the participants in such a volunteer learning experience would exhibit positive self-views as learners. Persons with low self-views as learners were probably not interested or attracted by the goals and objectives of the Thumb seminar although it was publicized widely in the Thumb Area.

This preference for the learner role is also explained by the fact that the seminar did not seek to enroll professional teachers or educators. The sponsors attempted to involve participants who did not conceive of teaching in the traditional and formal sense of a classroom teacher in the schooling context.

Research Question D3 and D4. What are the participant's expectations for the learning experience?

What are the participant's expectations of his/her involvement in the learning experience?

Twenty-eight of the participants had either "good" or "strong" (high) expectations for the learning experience. This high level of anticipation relates to the voluntary nature of the seminar. Participants enrolled in the Fall and deposited \$20 to attend the seminar. Sessions did not begin until early January--a wait of over a month. The seminar director felt the combination of waiting and making a financial commitment served to heighten the expectations of the participants.

The high level of expectations the participants held for the seminar

positively influenced their involvement in the sessions as well as the success of their overall experience. Most participants voiced specific goals and objectives they hoped to achieve through the seminar. The principle of self-fulfilling prophecy became evident as participants began to realize previously held expectations as they progressed through the seminar.

Other participants were unable to articulate their personal expectations for the seminar or their expectations for their involvement in the learning experience. They were anxious to learn and be part of a group learning experience, but could not visualize what their involvement might entail and demand.

Research Question R1. How does a participant's past experience in various learning experiences relate to his/her self-perception?

Eighty percent of the participants mentioned past learning experiences as being an influence (positive and negative) in how they felt about themselves as a teacher or learner. Sixty percent mentioned that the influence had been a positive one. The data gathered through this question on the interview form matched the listing of Schooling as the most significant variable or factor in one's background relating to one's self-concept in the roles of teacher and learner.

The tremendous influence schooling has on peoples' self-view is difficult to estimate. Its potentialities for positive and/or negative influence are readily evident. More participants had positive learning experiences in this particular study, (18 persons) than negative learning experiences.

Out-of-School Learning Experience was the single factor identified as having the most positive overall effect on self-views (63 percent).

Thus, it is not necessary to conceive of all learning as taking place in the school. The participants' responses point out the value of non-formal learning experiences and their importance in the formation of one's self-view.

The strong identification of all participants with the role of learner on the <u>A Look At Myself</u> instrument may be a direct reflection of the high number of positive learning experiences they had in the past; both in school and out-of-school. If there is a direct correlation between the two factors — past learning to self-view—then the Thumb participants represent a group with unusually high and positive past learning experiences. Many participants mentioned the setting of their early schooling as being a positive influence in their learning experience (e.g. a country school). This factor might also relate to their positive self-views.

Research Question R2. How does a participant's self-view relate to his/her attitude toward learning in general? . . . a group? . . . and teaching?

Twenty-eight participants indicated either a "good" or "strong" attitude toward learning in general (Table 12, 14). This number represents the great majority (93 percent) of the group. The participants' positive attitude toward learning parallels their generally positive self-views in the role of learner and teacher. The correlation coefficients between participants' attitude toward learning and their self-views in both the role of learner and teacher, indicate a significant relationship. It is logical to assume that if a person feels good about learning, he/she may also feel good about him/herself as a learner. The study verified this assumption. The participants with a positive self- view as a learner also had a positive attitude

toward learning. The participants with a positive self-view as a teacher had a positive attitude toward learning as well.

Ninety-three percent of the participants indicated that they preferred to learn in a small group setting which featured informal dialogue and transactions. Participants who felt good about themselves as learners wanted an opportunity to share ideas and interaction with other people. Similarly, participants who felt comfortable in the role of teacher, also wanted to talk and interact with others about their ideas, concerns, and feelings.

Research Question R3 and R4. How do these self-views (and expectations) relate to a participant's learning experience? How does a participant's self-view relate to the degree of his/her participation and interaction in a group learning experience?

It was necessary for the researcher to rely on observations of the participants during the learning process to determine the effect of one's self-view on the quality of one's learning experience. The self-views have been discussed as very positive and strong.

Participants expressed a stronger identification with the learner role than the teacher role, but even the teacher role scored positively by the majority of the participants.

Only one participant indicated that she would have rather participated in an activity other than the seminar. The remaining 29 participants were excited and actively involved in the learning activities and weekly sessions. The interaction level was quite high during each session, and every participant shared at least once in the interaction and discussion during each small group period. The positive self- views of the participants were evident in their involvement, level of participation, and level of verbal interaction.

The following section of the study will discuss some of the immediate results of the seminar on the participants and further illustrate the positive correlation between the participant's positive self-views as learners and the quality of their learning experience.

The problems cited in gathering adequate data on the level of verbal interaction prevent further description of the relation between the participants' self-view and level of participation in the group learning experience.

It was expected that the participants who saw themselves more as teachers would tend to engage in more verbal interaction. This would have resulted in higher interaction scores for the teachers than for the learners. This was not the case, however. The slight difference between the mean number of interactions engaged in by participants identified in the teacher role and those identified in the learner role was not significant (Table 16). Further research is needed to identify any trends and differences.

Generally, it can be said that a participant's self-view contributed positively to the degree or level of his/her participation in the learning experience. The stronger the self-concept, it is expected that the greater will be the involvement.

Research Question S1. To what extent do these self-views change (as a result of the learning experience)?

There was an apparent shift in participants' self-view in the role of teacher over the course of the seminar, as measured by the <u>A Look at Myself</u> instrument. Table 10 shows two participants identifying themselves as teachers on the pretest of <u>A Look at Myself</u> and 14 participants on the post-test. The panel scores also rated 12 of the participants as teachers.

Table 18 (p. 118) presents the self-view change scores in a different fashion. Seventy-seven percent of the participants shifted in their overall self-view during the seminar. Although seven participants did not change in their self-view as a teacher or learner at all, 20 participants moved from their original identification with the learner role towards the teacher role, while three participants moved closer to the learner role. Thus, over three quarters of the participants indicated a change in their self-views on the A Look at Myself instrument.

The definite shift in responses on the instrument may be related to one factor or a combination of several factors. First, the shift may be related to the participants' participation in the processes and learning activities of the seminar. One goal of the learning activities was to increase the participants' self-awareness of one's role in the family and in the community. An expected result of such a "leadership training" experience would be the heightened awareness on the part of some of the participants of their own abilities and capabilities in the role of a leader. In the same way, the study examined the increase in the selfawareness of participants in the role of a teacher and a learner. The teacher role may be equated with the typical "leader" role in the sense that most people think of a leader as one who is concerned with and involved in helping other people learn and develop their potential. Further research is needed to identify the extent to which the context and fact of participation in the seminar color the responses to the A Look At Myself instrument.

Second, throughout the seminar a teacher was defined in terms of one who is interested and involved in helping other people learn through the sharing of information and experience. As participants were encouraged

to think of teaching in the broader sense of "helping people learn,"
many recognized their everyday roles involved teaching in very natural
ways and settings. Broadening the concept of teaching and one's
understanding of the teaching--learning process may also have contributed
to the apparent shift in self-view from learner to teacher.

In addition, the seminar was seen as a "successful" learning experience by most of the participants. This may have been a contributing factor to the increase in the participants' self-view as teachers. As participants learned with each other, and as they shared information, ideas and experiences, they became more aware of their ability and skill in helping others to learn. Success in learning together strengthened their self-view as a "people helper."

Change in participants' self-view as <u>teacher</u> was also measured by the third item on the A Look At Myself instrument. Forty percent of the participants moved towards a more definite identification with the teacher role, while thirty percent moved away from the teacher role. That would account for only a 10 percent overall increase in identification with the teacher role. In general, the data collected from this item, support the major shift reported by the first question.

Based on the data collected to the forced-choice response in item one, it is impossible to identify the change in response between pretests and post-tests as a definite shift in self-view in the role of a teacher. The data support the conclusion that there was a significantly different response on the post-tests from the responses on the pretests. But it is still unclear whether this was a true change in self-view on the part of the participants, or whether it was a change in their

Look At Myself instrument is measuring a shift in self-view or not.

The interrelation of the three different data gathering techniques does indicate that the shift in each measure correlates with the shift in each of the other two measures. Further research is needed to validate and clarify the shift that is being registered on the A Look At Myself instrument.

Research Question S3. To what extent did the level of participation in learning (L) or teaching (T) activities change during the course of the learning experience?

The data presented in Table 19 (p. 120) indicate the significant change in the level of involvement by participants in learning and teaching activities. The MSU L and the MSU T instruments recorded meaningful changes in the frequency with which participants engaged in specific learning activities. Although significant differences were not found by comparing the mean scores of the pretest with the posttests, Pearson correlations identified significant relationships between the pretest and post-tests of activity level.

First, there was a significant relation (.001) between the involvement of participants in learning activities on the pretest and the post-test. One possible reason was their increased awareness of themselves as learners and a realization of the continual need to learn and develop. A second possible reason was their familiarity with a new and broader definition of learning. Learning came to be understood in terms of experiencing new things and people, interacting with others, and sharing ideas. Participants realized they were already engaging in many learning activities daily. A third possible reason relates to their participation in the seminar itself. As they participated in the

seminar, their awareness and sensitivity to the learning opportunities around them increased. They became more active in pursuing knowledge and relevant information. They stepped out aggressively to seek answers to their questions. And they felt more comfortable sharing new ideas and information and skills with other people.

Second, there was a significant relation (.001) between the involvement of participants in teaching activities on the pretest and the post-test. The reasons for this relation have been discussed under Question S1.

Third, there was a significant relation (.001) between the involvement of participants in learning and teaching activities on both pretests.

These may indicate that the level of activity of the participants on both tests was somewhat similar.

The last significant relation described was between the post-tests of learning and teaching activities. Despite increased and decreased levels of activity on both tests, the tests were related (.001). One possible reason is that the overall pattern of change was similar. Another possible reason is that the tests were measuring a significant shift in activity levels among the participants. A third possible reason is that the instruments themselves are related in some way, and are, in fact, measuring the same sort of data.

The correlations presented in Table 20 (p.121) represent significant (.05) relationships between the various data gathering instruments. The panel's scores of the participants in the learner role are related to the MSU L post-test scores, and to the scores of the participants in the teacher role with the MSU T post-test scores. Both types of instruments (interview and MSU L/T) appear to be reliable measures of the same

phenomena. Similarly, the panel's score of the learner role relates to their score of the teacher role. In addition, the panel's scores of both the learner and teacher role relate significantly to the matching scores of verbal interaction.

Conclusions

The main conclusions of the study are presented under five headings.

The first two are descriptive, the last three are evaluative.

1. Conclusions About Background Variables

Seven of the background factors most affecting a person's self-view as a learner were the following: schooling, out-of-school learning experiences, family, success or failure, significant others, setting and one's peers. Schooling was the most important factor mentioned by the participants in how they felt about themselves as a learner. Assessing a person's schooling experience provided important clues to that person's involvement in the learning experience.

Six of the background factors most affecting a person's self-view as a teacher were the following: schooling, out-of-school learning experiences, family, success or failure, significant others and setting.

Out-of-school Learning Experiences were an especially significant background variable in the self-views of the participants. The Family also played an important part in the early life of the participants in developing his/her sense of self-worth and in building a healthy self-view or self-concept. The participants indicated in the interviews that their parents played a role of significance in either encouraging that growth or limiting that growth by negative influence.

2. Conclusions About Level of Participation

All participants were actively involved in the learning process.

Only one participant was forced to drop out because of a conflicting work schedule. There were no stragglers who withdrew from the group interaction and remained aloof or distant. The high degree of verbal interaction and sharing was facilitated in a group that was homogeneous in background, characteristics, and interests.

The homogeneity of the group contributed to the interaction among the participants in other ways as well. The basic content of the seminar on the family and the community, even though new in many instances, was not significantly divergent from the belief system and thinking of the participants to be a negative influence. The presentations were not perceived as threatening, forcing change, or in any way conflicting with the present way of life. In this sense, the seminar was very permissive and non-threatening in its content and approach. In fact, the congruence of the content with the belief system of the participants was a further positive factor contributing to its singular success.

In a society of rapid change and growing heterogeneity among groups of people, the seminar is exemplary as a carefully designed educational experience. The planners brought people of similar backgrounds and experience together to learn about a topic of mutual concern. The entire learning experience was based on a warm, mutually agreeable and responsive environment.

If the content variable alone had changed, for example, the seminar probably would have been a very different experience for most of the 30 participants. If they had perceived threat, change, or a challenge

to their ideas and way of life, the seminar might not have been so successful. This is not to suggest that it would not have been. But it is necessary to consider some of the alternative outcomes had some of the variables been different.

Changes in just one of the following aspects of the seminar might have resulted in a completely different and/or less successful learning experience for the participants. What if, for example, the content of the sessions was related to the livelihood of the participants? Would they have been as eager to learn or more so? What if the seminar had dealt with the migrant worker issue? Would there have been such a high level of agreement and cordiality? What if the seminar had dealt with a topic like abortion, or family planning, or integration in the schools? Undoubtedly, the outcome of the seminar would have been altered somewhat from what it was.

Each of the variables that were identified and discussed as contributing to the success of the seminar played a significant part in its overall effectiveness. An educational planner thinking about future seminars might well review the philosophy, goals and implementation of the "Family and Community" seminar and analyze the interaction of its components. In planning a seminar such as this, the context and content of the sessions themselves play an important part in either building group cohesion or fragmenting the thrust of the experience.

The frequency and pattern of verbal interaction among the participants varied with the type of activity in which they were engaged.

Activities such as small group discussions were much more favorable to the occurrence of interaction and sharing than were lecture presentations even when questions were asked by the speaker. The participants

did not talk as freely in the large group as they did in dyads and triads. Most participants said they preferred to learn in small, informal groups. Participants, irrespective of age or sex, tended to differ consistently in the level to which they became involved in verbal interaction. The most vocal of the participants at one time would hardly talk at all when observed at a later time. Similarly, a quieter member of the group at one time might suddenly take over the conversation of the group at a later time. A consistent pattern of high or low interaction did not emerge in the observation periods.

A participant's self-view was related to the level of his participation and interaction in the group learning experience. Participants
who saw themselves as <u>teachers</u> tended to engage in verbal interaction
more often than participants who saw themselves as learners.

Time-spaced observations of verbal interaction in a group can provide helpful data identifying the high interactors and the low interactors.

3. Conclusions About Self-Views

The findings of the study tended to support the general view that self-views are learned, and that the interactions and reactions of other persons played a significant part in the learning process. Past learning experiences both in and out of school, and one's background were a powerful influence in shaping a person's self-view in the role of a teacher or a learner (Table 5.6, p. 104).

In responding to the first item on the <u>A Look at Myself</u> instrument, a majority of the participants saw themselves more in the learner role than the teacher role. Between the pretest and the post-test on the instrument, the self-view of a substantial number of participants

shifted from that of a learner to that of a teacher. There remains some question whether or not the instrument is in fact measuring a person's self-view. The use of such a simple forced-choice alternative of choosing between a view of oneself as either a teacher or a learner may yet leave too much to chance or complicating factors in the person's response. Although it was evident to the researcher in observing and conversing with the participants that their self-awareness had grown during the course of the seminar, it is still premature to conclude that the self-views of the participants changed during the course of the seminar. Only by delimiting the definition of teaching and learning and controlling for some of the interacting variables influencing self-view will it be possible to determine actual change in participants' self-views.

4. Conclusions About Learning Outcomes

A participant's attitude toward learning had a direct relationship with one's self-view in the role of a learner or a teacher (Table 5.15, p.115). For 93 percent of the participants, a positive attitude toward learning and positive expectations about the seminar related to the success of their learning experience in the "Family and Community" seminar. People who did not have positive expectations were not as likely to have a successful learning experience.

Most of the participants had a positive attitude toward learning and would pursue the chance to learn on their own initiative if given the opportunity and provided with the necessary resources. It was also interesting that most of the participants said in the interview they enjoyed learning in a group setting more than on their own (Table 5.14, p. 114).

The participants' awareness of their surroundings was increased through enriched experiences and increased exposure to human resources outside their communities at the county, state and federal level. Many participants indicated in the interviews and in the final evaluations that their self-awareness had also increased as a result of the seminar. Participants left the seminar with a new perspective on themselves and on the community in which they lived. Their new perspective included the following sensitivities as evidenced in their comments, activities and declared intentions at the end of the seminar:

- A new understanding of the interrelated functions of the family and its integral part in the community;
- (2) A new appreciation for the complex processes at work in their own community;
- (3) A new appreciation for themselves as learners and sharers of information and knowledge;
- (4) A greater understanding of the governmental processes pertaining to the family and its functioning;
- (5) A new understanding of how to become involved and be a part of community processes;
- (6) A greater awareness of the social services available in their community to assist parents, children and the family;
- (7) A greater appreciation of their need for warm, personal relationships with other persons in their community; and
- (8) A greater sense of their own responsibility to guide and influence the social forces affecting their families.

Two further conclusions about learning outcomes relate to the participants' level of participation in teaching and learning activities (Table 5.19, p. 120). When participants understood <u>learning</u> in the broader sense of experiencing new things and new ideas, interacting with others, and sharing information, their participation in learning activities increased. Similarly, when they understood <u>teaching</u> to include the sharing of experience and information to help others learn, their participation in teaching activities increased. Although not related causally, it can be concluded that participation in community development, in the broadest sense, increased as one's awareness of self and one's environment (community) grew. Awareness of self and of one's community grew with enriched experience, social interaction, and reflection on one's present condition.

The seminar was successful in reaching its goals of increased awareness and participation on the part of the participants in the family and the community viewed in light of some of the immediate results of the seminar in the lives of the participants. Some of the notable results in the lives of participants include the following changes: one person now heada a tri-county consortium; one is running for a school board (that she claims she never would have before the seminar); two have become involved as lobbyists for a farm group; and another has requested her local paper to carry more articles on the CES activities in the Thumb Area that relate to the family.

In evaluating the seminar, the CES leaders concluded that the background of the participants and the homogeneous make-up of the group (e.g., older in age, more education, more women than men, highly active in community activities, religiosity, rural residents, and number of years of marriage) blended together to maximize the learning experience.

5. Conclusions About the Effectiveness of Instruments

The participants' self-view (as an organization of discrete self-ratings) were assessed directly through either interview questions or written instruments. Using the two different methods to supplement the other gave a more accurate description of their self-view. The following conclusions are suggested about the effectiveness of the data-gathering instruments developed for the study.

First, the participant-observer procedure for data collection was an easy-to-use, and effective research strategy. Developing personal relationships with the participants without changing the nature and validity of the research data was apparently achieved.

Second, the personal interview schedule proved to be a direct and effective method of getting a variety of data assessing a participant's self-view. The sequence of questions and combination of open and closed questions was effective in getting the participant to talk about background variables that related to his/her self-view.

Third, the A Look At Myself instrument was a simple and effective method (forced-choice question) of gaining an initial assessment of a participant's self-view in the role of a learner or a teacher. However, further research and refinement is needed to focus the instrument so that it truly measures self-view and change in self-view.

Finally, the MSU T and the MSU L were simple and reliable instruments for assessing a person's involvement in both teaching and learning activities. As discussed above, further research is needed to control for intervening variables that might also influence involvement in those activities.

Implications for Practice

The main recommendations for non-formal educational planners are the following:

1. To implement a complete documentation and reporting system of all CES learning programs.

Documentation of the various seminars and learning experiences sponsored by the CES will provide valuable data for planners on which to build and design more effective learning experiences.

2. To plan and conduct seminars in parallel for purposes of comparison and evaluation.

Conducting learning seminars simultaneously or in close conjunction with one another would allow program planners to compare different elements and program components of the seminars to find the most effective elements for each setting.

3. To pursue research into the nature of participants' self-views.

Understanding the self-view of participants in the "Family and Community" seminar may provide the CES with ideas and methods for individualizing learning programs as well as differentiating future programs for persons with differing self-views. For example, separate seminars might be offered to residents of the Thumb Area who see themselves as learners and to those residents who see themselves as teachers. A seminar for learners might aim to increase their self-awareness and the participants' awareness of learning opportunities around them. No teacher training activities would be included. The seminar would be focused on learners and their needs and interests.

4. To continue to provide for participant involvement in the planning design, and implementation of the sessions.

One of the most successful elements of the CES learning seminar was the inclusion of the participants in the planning and presentation of the sessions as the seminar procedes (see p. 71,76). Responsibility for the success of the learning experience is voluntarily transferred from the shoulders of the Extension staff to the shoulders of the participants themselves. Further experimentation with this format should yield meaningful data to program planners on how best to involve participants for a maximum learning experience.

5. To make continuation of the seminar an option.

The "Family and Community" study/travel seminar reached maximum effectiveness shortly before the last session. The interest and enthusiasm of the participants was high. Many wanted to pursue avenues of inquiry and involvement that had become evident to them in the course

of the seminar. In a successful learning program, this may often be the case. The continuation of any program should not be a pre-determined decision by the program planners unless their involvement in a future program is prohibited. Participants should be allowed to take the initiative in determining if they want to be a part of a further learning program on the same topic or on a related subject. If the desire is evident on the part of the participants, the sponsoring agency should act to encourage and facilitate the planning for continued learning. In this case, participants chose to plan future meetings.

6. To provide for individualized learning.

Individualized learning should be emphasized with the intention that if participants cannot attend the sessions at a specific day and time, he/she should be given the chance to do it at his/her own time. Taping each session and collating handouts and written materials would facilitate this suggestion by making them available for individual study. Sets of materials for individualized instruction may be distributed in a specific area and coordinated by another participant in that area.

7. To schedule debriefing periods at the conclusion of each learning activity.

Much of the learning potential from a particular experience or instructional activity (e.g., lecture, group exercise, tour, film) is lost if adequate discussion and debriefing is not provided. This is not to say that every activity and event demands closure. It is important to highlight certain ideas and concepts for the participants and to continually focus the attention of the participants on the

intended learning objectives. Guided discussion can be led by participants and will serve to point out the connection between the intended purposes of the seminar and specific learning activities.

Implications for Research

The main recommendations for non-formal educational planners are the following:

1. To conduct an overall evaluation of each learning seminar and to continue the evaluation longitudinally.

Before informed decisions can be made on the worth of a learning experience, adequate and appropriate data must be collected. Gathering pre-seminar data and post-seminar data would yield information about the change in participants over time. In this manner, the effective-ness and overall impact of the program could be determined more accurately. Assessing participants periodically at the conclusion of the program would provide valuable data to program planners on what kind of results the program had over time and if the program really had the intended effect on the participants.

2. To develop a methodology easy to both manipulate and analyze in the field.

One of the research objectives was to use a research methodology easy to manipulate in the field and at the analysis level. "Easy" was defined as research that would not be too expensive, would not require a large staffing, and with results which could be presented to the source in no more than one month.

The strengths and weaknesses of the method used are outlined as follows:

- a. The Thumb Area data, including interviews with each participant, periodic observations of verbal interaction, and pretests and post-tests of three written instruments, were collected in less than three months.
- b. The interview questionnaires were scored entirely by hand.

 Notes were taken longhand during the course of the interview and later recorded in a typewritten narrative version. Each interview lasted an average of one hour, and two hours were needed to type and edit the narrative. The findings and interpretation could easily have been presented in one month. It took two weeks for coding, keypunching and computer analysis. The other two weeks, working full-time, were used for interpretation and writing the recommendations for the sponsoring agency.
- c. An SPSS computer program was used for the study. Much of the data, however, can be analyzed by other means. Interviews were verbally summarized, and a panel rated certain factors on a scoring sheet.

 Results of the written instruments were tabled by hand and means tabulated by hand. The analyses of verbal interaction were also hand tabulated and analyzed. The computer was used to compute means on some demographic data and to compute correlation coefficients. Researchers in rural could utilize a research center in an urban center or at a university when available.

- d. The interviews in the study were conducted by a single researcher. If more communities were to be studied, or if more participants were to be included, more interviewers could be used. Interviewers could be trained in the field if experienced interviews were not available. Experienced interviewers are preferable because they would be able to make decisions quickly when confronted with a problem. It is fundamental to have a good and reliable staff. High cost for reliable data gathering is a good investment in the long run.
- e. The participants were not a representative sample of the Thumb Area residents. Research on volunteer learning programs cannot be done with the precision in a non-formal setting that can be attained in a formal, experimental setting. The more flexible setting must be accommodated by using a variety of data gathering instruments to supplement one another.
- f. Most of the participants interviewed were housewives. Only six heads of family were represented in the group. To gain a more accurate picture of a community and its sub-processes, the study suggests that future studies interview other local community leaders (e.g., school officials, government officials, county extension staff). Data gathered with local officials in an unstructured interview about their community and the learning system within the community would be valuable to understand, support, and help interpret data gathered via the structured interviews with participants.
- g. For non-formal educational research to be of maximum usefulness, it will be necessary for responsible institutions and agencies to cooperate in financing and sponsoring longitudinal research. In this way different programs can be compared and contrasted, and various

instructional methods can be tested and refined. Questions that arise in the first series of programs may be answered by the results of research conducted during subsequent programs.

- h. The costs of the study were minimal. Although the time and expenses of the researcher were covered by the CES and cooperating organizations, costs of the research were between the expected limits. Transportation within Michigan, interviewing, coding, keypunching, and computer time cost less than one thousand dollars.
- i. The significance level was arbitrarily set at .05. A more realistic level for this type of research and the imprecisions that occur might have been a .10. The exploratory nature of the study would also allow a lower significance level. It is more important to look at the relationship explained that whether or not the association is significant.

3. To research the optimum time of attendance and number of participants.

Experimental research could be conducted which would determine how long a learning program should last for maximum effectiveness before drop-out occurs. Research collected from various programs in the Thumb Area, for example, might yield data which could be used to construct the participation curve of the Thumb Area residents. Research data might confirm the Winter months as the ideal time for indoor study seminars because of the agricultural layoff during that time. Research might also confirm that seminars should last no more than eight weeks rather than nine or ten weeks.

The comparison of various non-formal learning programs might suggest the optimum number of participants to be included in community learning

experiences. Certain topics and formats may be better suited to large groups than small groups, while other seminars may require that participation be limited to a dozen persons.

4. To investigate sources of participant motivation.

The adult learners in the study enrolled in the "Family and Community" seminar voluntarily. There was only one drop-out resulting from conflict of schedule. Drop-out rates have been much higher in other CES seminars however. This may indicate that the motivation to stay with a particular seminar is not strong enough. Conducting a periodic needs assessment among the residents of a community will uncover the topics of concern and interest to the residents. Programs that are implemented will be based on researched needs, not on intuition or subjective feelings. The motivation to enroll and remain a participant in non-formal learning experiences should be inherent in the content and structure of the seminar program itself.

5. To research methods for training leaders and teachers.

There was not a strong desire or need in the Thumb seminar on the part of the sponsors to carefully select participants on the basis of demonstrated ability or entrance requirements. The CES was pleased to fill the roster with volunteer learners. In addition, "affirmative action" programs within the United States today demand that all persons be given an equal opportunity to participate, even if that means working with persons possessing less than the necessary skills or abilities.

However, in a setting where there is a greater demand for efficiency and

cost-effectiveness in preparing leaders or teachers to meet local and regional needs for non-formal education, careful selection of participants might be very important.

The CES trains many community residents each year to assist as program leaders and group discussion leaders. Many of those who are being trained may not be the "real" community leaders or teachers, but willing participants who may or may not become leaders or teachers in the near future. Research could be done on effective ways to enroll potential leaders and teachers and on the most effective methods of training them. The CES might borrow and build on the wealth of "leadership training" data available in business education and on the teacher—training literature in the field of education.

With refinement, the three written instruments could be used to identify persons who perceive themselves in the role of a <u>teacher</u> already. These persons might serve as the first participants in a teacher-training program. Persons who initially see themselves more in the <u>learner</u> role, but who are also capable of serving as effective teachers in the non-formal context, might participate in a series of training experiences that would prepare them for helping people learn. If time is a factor in training persons to serve as teachers, it may be helpful to begin with persons who already see themselves in the role of a teacher and who are involved in teaching activities already.

6. To explore the use of bridges, intermediaries, and persons with wider contacts.

The CES experienced some difficulty in enrolling 30 participants for the "Family and Community" seminar even though many more people had expressed an interest in attending. Research is suggested in communities

to which bridges, intermediaries and personal contacts are used by the CES to help in reaching their objectives. Communication channels and resource persons need to be mapped and analyzed. The results of the studies need to be compared with communities in which personal communication channels and local communication channels are not used at all.

7. To research the adaptation of content.

The content and structure of learning experiences need to be better understood and researched before educational programs can be transferred from one setting to another. Content could be adapted experimentally to the local conditions of the different communities in which the programs were taking place to see if this has an effect on the participants in terms of drop out, adoption of innovations, attitude and behavior change, and levels of involvement.

Suggested Hypotheses

Based on the descriptions derived from the exploratory study, the following hypotheses are testable:

- 1. A person's self-view as a learner will relate to the kind of interaction one engages in within a group learning experience. A person with a high (positive) self-view as a learner will tend to interact more frequently than a person with a low self-view.
- 2. A person's self-view as a learner will relate to the expectations one holds for a learning experience. A person with a high self-view will tend to hold higher expectations than a person with a low self-view.
- 3. A person's self-view as a learner will relate to his past learning experience (in and out-of-school).

- 4. Certain critical factors from a person's background will relate to his self-view in the role of a learner and in the role of a teacher.
- a. Extent and kind of schooling is the most important factor relating to one's self-view as a learner.
- b. Extent and kind of out-of-school learning is the second most important factor relating to one's self-view as a learner.
- 5. A person's self-view as a learner is related to one's accumulated learned expectations of what a learner is like. Similarly, a person's self-view as a teacher is related to one's accumulated learned expectations of what a teacher should be like.
- 6. A person's self-view as a teacher and as a learner may change during the course of a short-time-frame learning seminar focused on building self-awareness and involvement in the community.
- 7. The strength of a person's self-view as a teacher and as a learner may intensify during the source of a seminar focused on building self-awareness and involvement in the community.
- 8. A person with a positive self-view as a teacher will tend to engage in more verbal interaction in a group than a person with a self-view as a learner.
- 9. The A Look At Myself instrument describes a person's self-view as either a teacher or a learner. Any change between pretest and post-test responses on the instrument will be an indication of actual change in self-view as either a teacher or a learner.
- 10. The MSU T and the MSU L instrument describes a person's level of participation in teaching and learning activities, respectively. Any

change between pretest and post-test responses on the instruments will be an indication of actual change in the level of participation in either or both of those types of activities.

The testing of these hypotheses in the future will provide empirica evidence towards improving the quality of non-formal learning experiences.

Significance of the Study

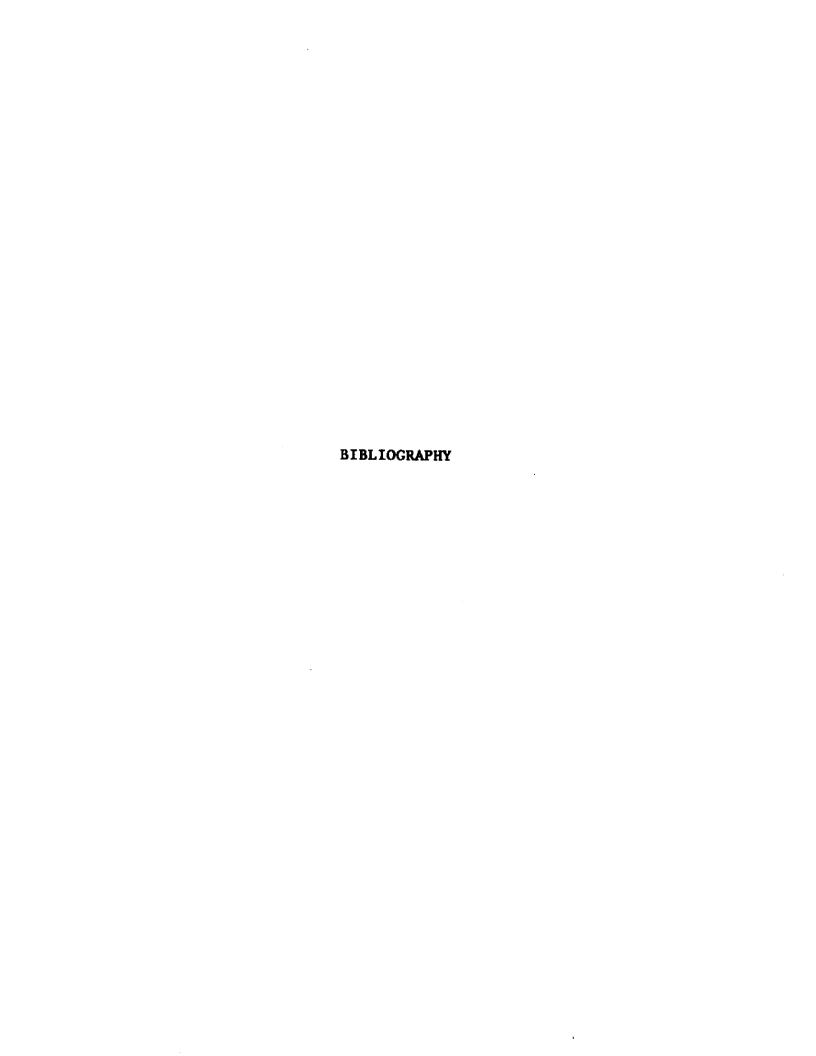
The study concentrated on participants in the "Family and Community" learning seminar by taking what they thought, said and did as units of analysis. From the study, descriptive data may be helpful for later studies.

The study provided descriptive data on participants' self-views as well as an explanation of how those self-views brought something to their involvement in the learning experience.

Methodologically, the research demonstrated the increased utility of simple measures of self-perception in the field of non-formal education. The method enabled one to get at how the participants thought, felt and acted in a learning situation and may provide helpful findings to program planners.

The study was descriptive and explanatory and was intended to identify basic relationships and testable hypotheses concerning learner and teacher self-perceptions, and expectations and involvement in learning activities. The findings of the study may contribute to the work of other researchers at a later time. In addition, it was possible to discover more about what goes on "inside the heads" of adult learners through studying their self-perceptions and learning behavior.

The study was significant for non-formal education program planning in the following ways. First, techniques were developed to add to the qualitative and quantitative data needed to enrich and make sense of the assumptions already held. Secondly, it was found that community non-formal education practices might be improved through understanding of the participants' self-views as learners and teachers.



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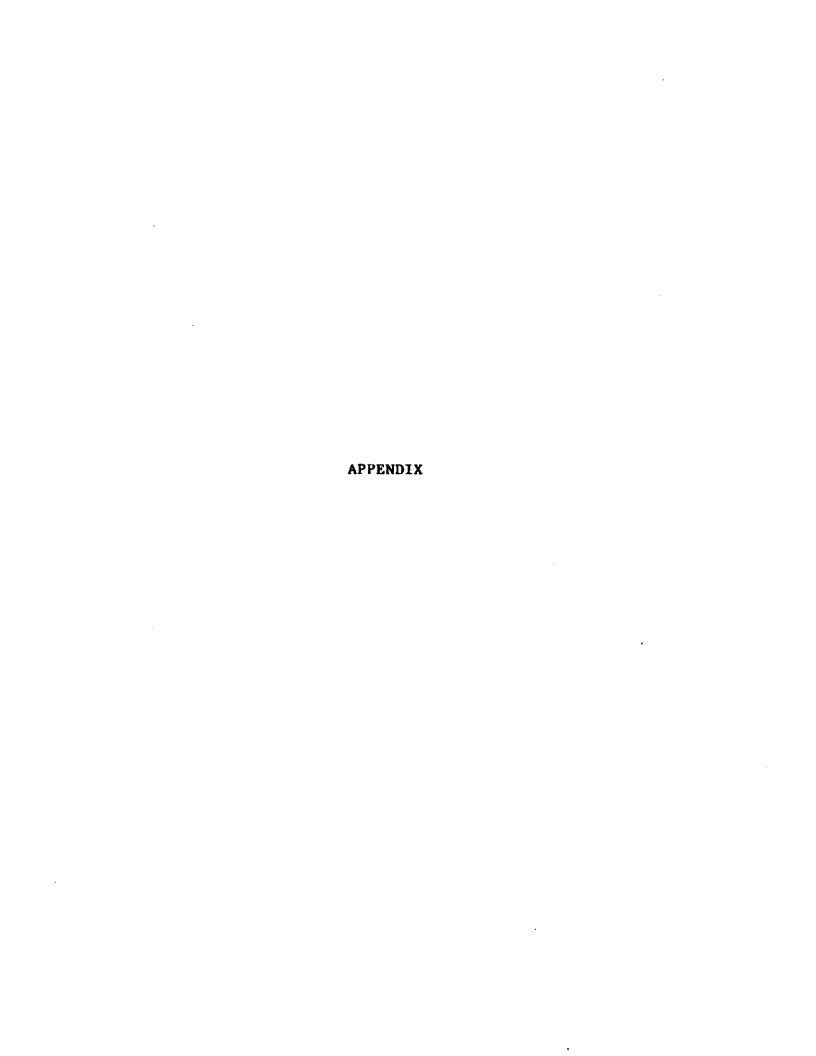
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		Part Dat			
corer		Topic or task_	(Adapted	from Borgatta,	1965, p.45)
erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
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erson	Person	Person	Person	Person	
rson	Person	Person	Person	Person	

Time	

rarticipant No._

In the experiences we will have together, we will all likely learn some things. We will all be <u>learners</u>.

Also there will be many ways we can share ideas and experiences with each other. In this way we can all be <u>teachers</u>.

PLEASE PLACE AN X AT THE PLACE WHICH REPRESENTS YOUR FEELINGS TOWARDS YOURSELF IN ANSWERING THE QUESTION.

1. As you look at yourself now, do you see yourself as a TEACHER or LEARNER?

More as a

Teacher Learner

2. Do you like to think of yourself as a LEARNER?

I am a L E A R N E R !

Not really Sometimes Yes!

3. Do you like to think of yourself as a TEACHER?

I am a T E A C H E R !
Not really Sometimes Yes!

wicuigan prace outsetatch tir

Participant Date

We are interested in finding out more about the kinds of activities you engage in from time to time.

Read each sentence below and determine within what time frame you last engaged in that activity: Within Half Day, a Day, a Week, a Month, Never-Not Sure. If you can't remember or have a question place your mark in the Not Sure (NS) square.

	rul	pot pot	weet	. ,
	HD	Day	Wk	Mc
ample: How recently did you wear a new hat?			Х	
cently did someone share some new information with you?				
cently did you <u>discover an idea</u> or concept that was new ?				
cently did you work to <u>find an answer</u> to a particular on?				
cently did you acquire a new skill?			:	
cently did you consult with a group to solve a problem?				
cently did you spend time applying an idea to a new ion?				
cently did you do or see something new?				
cently did someone show you how to do something new?				
cently did you participate in a discovery activity?				
cently did you spend time reading or studying?				
cently did you spend time pmacticing a new skill?				
cently did someone ask you to help them solve a problem?			İ	
cently did someone do something with you?				
cently did you take time to listen to someone else talk?				
cently did you come up with a new way to solve an old \underline{m} ?				
cently did someone tell you how to do something?				
cently did you ask someone a question about something eded to know?				
cently were you trained in a new skill?				
cently did you work by yourself to solve a new problem?				
cently were you involved in a discussion?				
cently did someone go with you to see something of st?				
cently did you watch an instructional film or TV show?			 <u></u>	
cently did you receive feedback from another person?				

Date	
------	--

We are interested in finding out more about the kinds of activities you engage in from time to time.

Read each sentence below and determine within what time frame you last engaged in that activity: Within Half Day, a Day, a Week, a Month, or Not Sure. If you have a question place your mark in the Not Sure square.

Not Sure square.		78 ³	_	•	
Within:	Hal	L Day	30	* Honein	HOE
	HD	Day	Wk	Мо	NS
example, How recently did you wear a new hat?			X		
recently did you tell someone how to do something?					
recently did you show someone how to do something?	 				
recently did you request someone to do something?					
recently did you <u>explain</u> something to someone?					
recently did you encourage someone else trying to learn?					
recently did you try to <u>identify the needs</u> of someone you a helping?					
recently did you help others to use community agencies ganizations, clubs, services, etc.) to help solve munity problems?					
recently did you plan an activity with others?					
recently did you ask some important questions to help ple understand the problem better?					
recently did you do something with others?-					
recently did you share some new information with someone?					
recently did you demonstrate a skill to someone?					
recently did you ask someone to spend some time reading studying?					
recently did you clarify the meaning of a word, idea or ept to someone?					
recently did you compliment someone for something they ned?					
recently did you try to use someone in the community to others solve a problem?					
recently did you help others solve a community problem?					
recently did you <u>lead a small group</u> discussion or problem ring group?					
recently did you take someone to see or do something nterest?					
recently did you ask others to help you plan an activity?					
recently did you <u>lecture</u> or <u>lead</u> a meeting?					
recently did you take time to talk to someone at length?					
			-		

						TD#		
tame of Re	espondent:				Address:			
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		ls role:						
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size of in	mmediate fan	ily: 2 3 4	5 6 7	8+ Size o	f family by	on:y birth: 2 3	4 5	6 7 8
Character	lstics of th	ne Community:	;					
i. How we	ould you des	cribe your o	community as	nd its surr	oundings?_			
. What o	lo you think	is the outs	standing at	tribute of	your commu	nity?		
3. How do	you think	this communi	ity sees it:	self? How	would they	describe them	selves	?
		e your commu				Yes No		
What I	inds of rol		played/fil:	l ed i n your	community	NONE Int within the		
	_	immediate f	-	-		nity activitie	s?	YesN
. What I	aind of bene	fits or rewa	ards or what	kind of m	otivation i	s there to pa	_	ate in
unity	activities	and projects					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

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that changes would you like to see take place in your community in the next few year
hat changes do you think are important?
Now could you help your community develop and grow?
That are some of your ideas (perceptions and expectations) in relation to what these possible programs should be like?
Now do you see yourself as being involved in the community learning process?
Would you like to be involved in helping people learn in your community?Yes Now do you think or feel that you could play a part in helping people in your community to learn?
No you feel you would need any more special skills or training? Yes No What kinds? How and where would you get more training if you decided you wanted it?
That kinds of educational programs are available in your community that would help beople do their jobs better?
That kind of training for various skills is provided in your community? or low are things taught in the community that relate to daily functions in the community
who has or takes the responsibility for making things happen in your community when a
low is this done?
Are there any kinds of rewards or recognition given for participation in community projects and activities? Yes No
That is role of an instructor or teacher or helper in your community?

	Interview-3-
r Section of Interview:	·
S SEMINAR WE WILL ALL BE LEARNING TOGETHER. IN THAT SENSE WE ARE D LIKE TO ASK YOU A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCE AS A LEARN	
w do you think of yourself as a "learner" (i.e. one who is learnin	g)?
w do you <u>feel</u> about learning or about becoming a learner?	
w did you <u>used to feel</u> about being a student or learner?	
at factors from your past do you think influenced/ or relate to yo (over for chart)	
well did your schooling experience prepare you for your present Not much average well very well	work or role:
you look back, what changes do you now think are important?	
you wanted to repeat some part of your schooling or educational e do anything different on the basis of what you have learned work	-
you presently taking any formal education courses?Yes you plan to? Yes No Why or Why not?	No
you see yourself as a learner (being involved in learning activit minar or 4-H, etc.?)? Yes No If so, what kind?	-
at are your feelings about being involved in such community learni	_
do you think you will/would do as a learner?	
what settings do you think you would learn best?	
do you think others see you as a learner?	

er Section of Interview:	Interview-4-
LIKE TO ASK YOU A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCE	S IN HEIDING OTHER PEOPLE LEARN
hat are some of your <u>feelings</u> about helping people 1	
mat at a some of your rectified about morbing beating a	
by you enjoy helping people learn and become excited	about discovering new things?
Yes No	
hat kinds of teaching experiences have you had?	
hat do you enjoy most about helping people learn?	
low do you see yourself as a "teacher" one who help	s other people learn?
IKE TO GO BACK FOR A MINUTE AND REFLECT ON OR DISCUS	S SOME OF YOUR PAST EXPERIENCES
hy do you think you feel the way you do about helpin	g people learn?
hat factors have influenced your estimate or "pictur	e" of teaching and of yourself in
his role?	
over for chart)	
o any factors from your past now relate to you as a	teacher? Yes No
If you were to do it again, what would you do differe	ently?
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
o you see yourself in that role (that of a helper or	teacher) at all? Yes No
Thy or why not?	
low do you think you could or would do as a teacher o	r people helper?
hen you are involved in a community education progra	m or activity (such as this
eminar), how do you think other people see themselve	s as learner and/or as teachers?
low do you think other people see you as a <u>learner?</u>	.as a teacher
hy do you think they feel that way?	
SION 11. What do you think will be/has been the most	enjoyable for you in this seminar?
	
ould you do it again? You No Why or the not?	
ould you do it again? Yes No Why or why not?	