Organizing for adult education: a community handbook and relevant case study

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ORGANIZING FOR ADULT EDUCATION:
A COMMUNITY HANDBOOK AND RELEVANT CASE STUDY

by

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My wife, Diane, deserves special praise. Were it not for her timely comments and expert typing this thesis would surely be unreadable. Shalom.
PREFACE

The idea of community adult education is as old as the idea of community. As primitive man sought to share his visions and experiences with his fellows, he fathered an educational system that developed a complexity proportionate to that of his emerging civilizations. The prehistoric classroom may have been no more than an open-air campfire and the teacher no more than a storyteller, but the importance of the instruction was well established in the daily lives and rituals of these early peoples.

The need to share his visions and experiences remains a constant challenge to man. And this challenge remains as the force behind his efforts to maintain adult education as a community entity. But the modern classroom has changed. It is more complex than the campfire classroom. The modern school uses electronics and beams its programs into homes and automobiles. It is also more diverse. It teaches things like business law and auto mechanics, computer programming and humanities, basic math and speed reading. The list is as endless as is the need to communicate.

A Community Handbook and Relevant Case Study

The objective of this work is to present a comprehensive manuscript directed to students of adult education and community workers for the design and implementation of community adult education programs. Offered as a handbook, the work is of academic and practical note.
The handbook is concerned with how a community without an adult education facility can organize one, how one community did organize such a program, and how a community can go about gearing up its resources to promote the effort.

The first three chapters will examine the organizational process: from assessing needs to gathering resources to implementing and evaluating the program. Inherent in this entire process is the organizers' responsibility toward establishing effective and relevant goals. The goal-setting mechanism, therefore, is not treated as a separate step in this thesis. It is considered basic to each of the other organizational steps. In other words, as the program organizer proceeds from the earliest planning stages, those of needs identification and resource mobilization, he must begin to formulate his program's goals. Most importantly, these goals must be based on these emerging needs and resource possibilities. For example, a community survey may point out the need for a GED testing center where individuals can go to take the test series required for the high school equivalency diploma. A resource check might provide a sponsor for this center (a community college, high school, etc.). On the basis of this information, the program organizer can establish as one of his program's goals or priorities the plan to include such a testing center in the organizational structure. As the program begins to develop and the succeeding steps are completed, the emerging goals can be further refined or adjusted as necessary. In this sense, goals are not viewed as static, but as dynamic and changing.

Goals are also basic to the theme of the case study in this thesis. A participant observation study was done on the Crow Indian Reservation of southcentral Montana that was concerned with the planning and organization of an adult education coalition. The study, which lasted from about June of 1970 until June of 1971,
sought to relate the expressed goals of the coalition's participants to their later actions on behalf of the programs.

The resource and reading appendix is included as a companion piece to the first three chapters. It includes a bibliography and a resource listing on topics related to certain aspects of program planning and operation.

It is intended that this work be a useful and usable tool for the community organizer interested in setting up adult education programs. As such, this thesis stresses a simplistic approach in both language and style. The academic utility of the work lies in the fact that it is designed to serve as a study and research model in the area of adult education program design and organization.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**PREFACE** .............................................................. iii  

**PART I. A COMMUNITY HANDBOOK: WORDS AND ACTION**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. THE COMMUNITY NEEDS AND INTEREST SURVEY</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strictures and Limitations of Surveying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Sampling Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing the Survey's Representativeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling Survey Techniques</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing the Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods for Conducting the Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Considerations on Questioning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tallying the Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. POOLING COMMUNITY RESOURCES</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locating Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pooling Resources Through Community Coalitions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. THE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs: Curriculums and Instructional Formats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Counseling Apparatus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testing and Evaluation in Adult Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Non-Professional in Adult Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff and Teacher Training in Adult Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Action Imperative: Adult Education Organizations and the Grassroots</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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## PART II. A RELEVANT CASE STUDY: THE CROW INDIAN RESERVATION ADULT EDUCATION COALITION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>THE STUDY PROBLEM</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Significance of the Problem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Background of Crow Indian Reservation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adult Education Programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formation and Structure of the Crow Reservation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adult Education Coalition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some Assumptions and Statements About this Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>THEORY AND LITERARY REVIEW</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coalitions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>History, Theory, and Relevance of Adult Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>PROCEDURES AND METHODS</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedural Review</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>FINDINGS: WORDS AND ACTION</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Coalition in Planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Coalition in Operation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Observations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suggestions for Further Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESOURCE AND READING APPENDIX</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY AND SUGGESTED READINGS</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART 1.

A COMMUNITY HANDBOOK: WORDS AND ACTION
CHAPTER I
THE COMMUNITY NEEDS AND INTEREST SURVEY

In order to establish its relevance, the adult education program should be organized around the needs and interests of the community in which it serves. The task of defining these needs and interests may involve no more than interpreting already available information. It may also necessitate conducting a fairly comprehensive community survey. However obtained, the information is necessary because it provides a framework on which to build. This survey framework is essential for the following reasons:

1. It allows the program's goals and priorities to be established on the merit of the recognizable community needs and interests.

2. It establishes a communication link with the community, thereby advertising itself and its potential services.

3. It provides an opportunity to locate resources within the community that can have significant value to the program. (The reader is referred to Chapter II for a discussion of this possibility.)

4. It determines the course of action for the succeeding steps in the program's development.

The usual process by which to determine community needs and interests is by survey, although this is not always necessary. It may be that much of this
essential information has already been collected and is available through other sources. Public school systems, welfare and social service agencies and other similar institutions will probably have on file some of the factual data relating to the community's socio-economic and educational status. This being the case, the task of determining community needs and interests will be greatly lessened by locating and tabulating this information. However, if incomplete or outdated, it may be necessary to do some additional survey work to upgrade this data. Because the expense involved in conducting community surveys can be considerable, it is important that any possible informational sources be investigated.

Depending upon the availability of information from secondary sources, plans can be made to either survey the community or move on to the succeeding phases in program development. If the decision is made to survey, further considerations are warranted.

Experience has shown that effective surveying is as much an art as it is a science. It demands more than a studied knowledge of surveying methods and techniques. It demands that the aspiring surveyor learn to operate within the strictures or limitations of his social environment. In this sense, surveying is not unlike public relations work. Public relations involves a basic understanding of people: what they like and what they don't like. It is through involvement with people that one learns what limitations are placed on him as well as what freedoms he has to conduct his work. A brief discussion of some of these strictures or limitations as they relate to surveying may serve to clarify this point.
Strictures and Limitations of Surveying

When a citizen's right to privacy is in question, the surveyor has the obligation to gain the permission from that person prior to beginning his work. For example, every citizen has a legal right to privacy. This privacy is, to a degree, dependent on what aspect of his or her life is in question. The city postmaster, for instance, has a public office. He also has a private life apart from his official work. While on duty, the work he performs is rightfully open to investigation by other citizens. But in his private life he is protected by law from such scrutiny.

Consider the possibility of doing a survey on the housekeeping practices of licensed practical nurses. This may be of some medical and social import, especially to the community concerned with the sanitary conditions of its clinics, hospitals, nursing homes and the like. It would be entirely within the province of the county health officer to conduct such a survey in these community institutions. However, it would not be within his jurisdiction to extend the survey into the private homes of these nurses.

Such examples point out the legal strictures of conducting studies and surveys. But legal restraints are not the only limitations imposed on the aspiring researcher. There are also ethical/moral considerations. Although not as well defined as the legal restraints, these are no less real.

There is a very real problem of keeping confidences in survey work. This is especially true in rural communities where the "town telegraph" is in constant want for more and better gossip. Surveying done without the guarantee of
keeping confidences is a self-defeating business. Once distrust replaces trust, the best intentions will not win the day. For instance, to what extent should one go in presenting the findings of the community adult education survey? Is it enough to show a breakdown of educational achievement levels by grade and ages, or should one go so far as to "leak out" the fact that the minister's wife flunked the tenth grade? Survey field workers and others who later handle the findings must confine this data to the original purposes for which it was gathered. To violate this "code" is to jeopardize community support for future programs.

In addition to the above strictures, there are also financial, time and human resource limitations to surveying. These are usually the conditions that determine the extent and kinds of surveying one can do. Few communities or organizations have these resources in so abundant a supply that they can commit them without reserve to the task at hand.

Financial considerations may or may not be a problem. If, for example, volunteer field workers are available to assist with the survey, then monetary problems are less likely to affect the work. Community size has as much to do with this as any other factor. Larger communities are likely to be more expensive to survey. They are more complex, encompass more territory and usually require more time and workers to cover.

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Time and human resources are generally always limiting factors. This is especially true in action projects such as forming adult education programs. In action research the primary concern is not the survey but the organization. As a consequence, these resources are geared to the succeeding phases of planning and organizing.

To compensate for these resource limitations, surveying often takes the form of sampling. Sampling involves selecting a part or sub-group of the community that can be considered as representative of the community as a whole. The key word here is "representativeness," since sampling surveys, unless properly structured, can result in one-sided and biased results.

The Sampling Survey

It is sometimes advisable when considering a sampling survey to consult with a trained professional survey specialist. Social science departments at universities and colleges, research and marketing concerns and some social welfare agencies have individuals qualified in this field. If consulting money is not in the budget, it is often possible to approach those specialists associated with public institutions or those agencies concerned with community involvement and research and enlist their advice in planning the survey. However, if care is exercised in setting up and conducting the sampling survey, results will generally be representative for most purposes. There are, however, ways to improve on the chances of success. Our discussion will now turn to some of these considerations.
Enhancing the Survey's Representativeness

Inclusive Surveying

One way to enhance the chances of the survey's representativeness is to make sure it includes the different classes, cultures and groups in the community. For instance, if the community is bicultural (or multicultural) it would be wise to use members of the various cultures to conduct the survey, each in his respective area. It may also be wise to seek the aid of these different people when constructing the survey. This is especially true in any bilingual or multilingual community. Indian reservations provide examples of this situation. All too often non-Indians come into these areas and attempt to survey Indian people without making provisions for the different culture or language. Surveys conducted under such circumstances are usually of little merit. This problem can ordinarily be avoided by employing culturally and linguistically related survey personnel.

If the community has a recognizable class stratification, as most do, it might prove significant to use individuals from the various subcommunities to do the surveying. The same might also apply to age groups, sexes, religious sects, political parties or any other diverse groups. As was said above, the use of these precautionary measures may prove to be too expensive. But, they should certainly be considered since their absence may prejudice the survey.

Reflective Surveying

This handbook is concerned with the adult educational needs of the community. In seeking to define the needs in this area, one must take pains to insure
that the survey does, indeed, reflect the issues in question. The survey planners will want to know what related services are already available and what services are still needed. They will want to know how low educational achievement has affected the "employability" of adults in their community. And, of course, they will want to know the priority needs in terms of the most relevant and useful courses and the number of individuals interested in each. These and many other needs will further relate to the program costs and outlays. There is no question that they will provide essential data when and if the decision is made to write funding proposals to public or private resource agencies.

**Objective Surveying**

It is important that the survey planners become aware of the conditions within the community that might prejudice their work. For example, if the temperament of the community's citizens is such that outsiders would be resented, then steps should be taken to employ local people for survey field work. Such conditions, if overlooked, might void the survey's objectivity.

The more serious challenge to survey objectivity, however, comes from the survey itself. The survey questions, the order in which they are asked, the subtle inferences or attitudes they might convey, all can have negative connotations. It is important to allow the questions to approach the subject naturally. All too often survey planners, wittingly or otherwise, will tend to lead or direct questioning along lines that they might favor. In so doing, they negate any possibility of objectivity by introducing personal biases into the subject matter. An example of
this would be with the planner who favors one course of instruction over all others and designs the community survey to emphasize this one curriculum. It may be that this planner has recognized a need for vocational instruction. By listing the many possible courses in this area and ignoring other areas he, in effect, second guesses the community's needs by assuming himself to be the better judge as to which are the preferential areas of instruction. Such problems in survey design could be overcome if one were to use open-ended questions where people can add their own ideas in responding, rather than being limited to only a few pre-determined possible choices.

On-Going Surveying

After the initial survey is completed and the information assessed, it becomes all too easy to continually rely on this same data. But this is a temptation that, for most purposes, should be avoided. Times change and so do needs. The community survey that was prepared at the start of the adult education program will probably not reflect the same conditions that might exist five or ten years later. At least one would hope that the program might effect some improvement over the years.

There are many good reasons why community surveys should be on-going. New interests arise and influence community needs. Take, for example, the recent interest shown in ecology. Because environmental factors have an immeasurable influence on our lives, people have increasingly become aware of their duty to protect the environment. Yet few citizens know how or what to do.
Without defining this new concern, a significant community need might not be met.

Secondly, on-going surveying is perhaps the best way to assess the effectiveness of one's program. It is an evaluative technique of immeasurable importance. The adult education program should be gauged in terms of how well it is accomplishing its goals. It is only through such a measure that one knows what needs are recurring, what needs are satisfied, and what needs are still outstanding.

In the same sense, on-going surveying is necessary as a measure of student progress. Students should not have their progress thwarted because their continuing needs have not been assessed. A beginning typing student may want to proceed to intermediate and advanced typing. A student in basic reading may someday want to challenge a speed reading course. Provisions should be made to survey these needs.

It is not necessary to conduct the on-going survey at the same level of material and human expense as was the initial survey. In fact, the on-going survey can and should be accomplished as a matter of routine. With foresight and planning, it can be an integral part of the official duties of the program administrators.

**Sampling Survey Techniques**

Up to now this discussion has been on the need for the survey, the limitations imposed on the surveyor and the responsibilities he has toward conducting representative surveying. With this in mind, the discussion will turn to those
sampling techniques most adaptable to use by community planners and organizers.

**Simple Random Sampling**

The simple random sample is, as the name implies, a simplified sampling procedure. It involves the selecting of units such as people, groups, communities, etc., in a manner that assures that each of these units has an equal chance of being chosen. This is done by assigning a number to each of the members of a population and then choosing the sample by using a set of random numbers.

As an illustration of this technique, consider a small community of 1,000 people. First, each person is assigned a number from 1 to 1,000. Then, from a separate set of 1,000 random numbers the sample is selected. If the decision is made to limit the sample to 100 people, then randomly pick the 100 numbers, and the members assigned these numbers will comprise the sample. One readily available source of random numbers can be found in a telephone directory. For the population of 1,000, proceed by turning to any page in the directory and selecting the last three digits from each number. Thus, the first number might be 017, followed by 335, 121, 709, and so on, until 100 numbers are picked.

If randomization is carefully adhered to, this technique will have few drawbacks. Simple random sampling provides a relatively inexpensive and fast method of selecting the sample.

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Stratified Sampling

The above technique is useful if one is not familiar with the community or wishes to select equally from the total population. If, on the other hand, something is known about the make-up of the community and one wishes to assure equal representation of all segments of the population, stratified sampling can be used. Most communities are composites of small communities or subgroups. These subgroups can be judged on the basis of race and culture, religion, sex, or whatever. It is possible that selecting a sample using the above procedure could result in the chance exclusion of some of these subgroups. Therefore, if some groups are small, yet should be included equally in the sample, this can be done by first separating the groups and randomly selecting from each.

Consider again the community of 1,000. It may be that this community has a Spanish-American neighborhood of only fifty people. The use of simple random sampling may result in omission of this group from the sample. Or, perhaps, only one member might be chosen. Yet, in order for the sample to be representative of the entire community, this Chicano neighborhood should be included along with the others. Therefore, on the basis of what is known of this community, plans can be made to separate the diverse groups (at least those to be measured) and sample them as though they were separate communities.

The importance of assuring such representativeness to all community segments cannot be understated. This is especially true when planning an adult education program where it is important to measure the needs of all community groups.
Oftentimes one is reminded of the distinction between what is desirable and what is possible. Limitations on financial resources, insufficient time and a too small labor pool can singly or in combination necessitate going to alternative and cheaper techniques for selecting samples than those otherwise desired. Such procedures are not as exacting or representative but they do offer a chance to sample the community at less expense. Three such methods will now be considered.

Judgmental Sampling

This type of sampling can be useful if one has adequate information of the community to be surveyed. On the basis of this information, select a subgroup of the community that is determined to be representative of the larger community. Then proceed to sample the entire population of the subgroup or a randomized selection thereof. This subgroup sampling is done using any of the previously discussed techniques.

Consider a community of 5,000 people. For the purposes of this discussion, it will be stated that this community is divided into five districts. Perhaps it happens to be known that district five has many of the same characteristics of the other four districts and is therefore somewhat representative of the community as a whole. Therefore, select district five as the sample population and generalize the survey findings to the rest of the community.

This method assumes that enough is known of the population to make this choice. The problem exists that personal biases may be introduced into the decision, thereby compromising the survey even before it starts. Experience has shown
that sometimes planners pick subgroups from communities most familiar to them or where they have friends and acquaintances. This, of course, has little to do with representativeness.

Quota Sampling

This method is similar to the one above in that it allows the surveyor freedom to make the choice of the group(s) he will sample. The determination is made as to what characteristics within the population should be chosen to sample. Quotas are then set for each group and the samples chosen.

In the population of 5,000 it is decided to survey individuals with different educational backgrounds. It is then determined that groups will be divided into three categories: group #1 will include people with less than an eighth grade education, group #2 with people holding high school diplomas, and group #3 including people with college degrees. Quotas are then fixed of, say, twenty people from each group. The task then is to locate and survey twenty people from each group.

The absence of randomized procedures in the selection of the groups and individuals makes this method of sampling far more open to biases than any of the others. Its redeeming features are that it is less expensive to conduct and it allows for inclusion in the sample groups any individuals who might have been missed by more random methods. For instance, someone might know of an individual in the community who can add significantly to the survey study. Using random methods to

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select the sample will probably mean this individual will be missed. Quota sampling allows for field workers to seek out such individuals for interview. The obvious drawback is that the field workers might just as well seek out their friends for interview. In order to control for this possibility, the field workers should be instructed in the proper methods to select their samples.

**Repetitive Sampling**

This sampling technique is used to resurvey a population previously sampled. Repetitive sampling can be useful as a means of gauging changes in the community or identifying patterns that may exist within a population. In conducting this type of sampling it is important to employ the same technique as used in earlier samples, whatever it might have been.

A previous section of this chapter dealt with the need for on-going surveys. Repetitive sampling is one way to conduct these periodic checks on the community. With the information obtained, the program administrators should be in a better position to effectively run their programs.

The above catalog of sampling techniques in no way depletes the available list. However, for the purposes of identifying the community's adult educational needs, this inventory is more than adequate. These methods can be adapted for use by people who have had little or no experience in surveying.

**Designing the Survey**

Sampling techniques are one way to isolate individuals for inclusion in the survey. When one's time, money and energy reserves are limited and/or the
community is too large, sampling techniques provide us with the opportunity to survey a representative segment of the population. If, on the other hand, resources are sufficient and the survey population small enough, it is possible to include the entire community in the survey.

Whatever is decided, the overriding concern must be with the survey itself and with what it says. Survey design is a difficult task even for professional researchers. Following is a list of aids that can be helpful to sound survey design.

1. Be flexible in approaching the subject. Know what information will be needed from the questions but allow for other possibilities not anticipated in the question design. Multiple-choice questions and questions requiring "yes" or "no" responses are easy to tabulate, but some provision should be made for write-in answers or suggestions not included in the question form.

2. Pre-test the questions. Often questions may look good to the survey designers but when presented to the public they are found to be inadequate for any number of reasons. By pre-testing the questions--that is, testing them on a selected group of people before using them in the survey--it is possible to screen out the problem questions and reword or eliminate them.

3. Arrange questions for easy tallying. When the survey is complete, the results will have to be tallied in a way that will contribute to the understanding of the information. By ordering the questions on the survey in some logical sequence, tallying will be facilitated. Of course, this ordering will also make it easier for the public to understand the questions.
4. Use simple language in wording the questions. Experience has shown that abstract or theoretical questions inspire abstract and theoretical answers. By employing common terms and easy-to-understand sentences, fewer problems will arise with people misunderstanding or misinterpreting the questions.

5. If possible, use different question procedures in the survey. Following this suggestion will undoubtedly increase the work volume, both before and after the survey. It may also make the survey an unparalleled success. Basically, there are three ways to conduct a survey: (1) the Interview, (2) the Questionnaire, and (3) the Interview Schedule. The usual practice is to use one of these procedures in any given survey. However, the problem arises that some people respond better to one method than to the others. For instance, some people can’t read well enough to adequately fill out a questionnaire. Others don’t want to be bothered by people coming to their homes and asking them questions. By combining two or three of these procedures in the survey, more people may respond than normally do. (For instance, experience has shown that only about twenty percent of those polled return mailed questionnaires.) Questionnaires and interview schedules can be given to more people in a shorter period of time but the answers are less detailed. In the interview, individuals are able to expand on their answers by going into some detail about their views. Fewer questions are asked and fewer people are contacted, but answers are more detailed and complete.
Methods for Conducting the Survey

Given this brief introduction to the interview, the questionnaire and the interview schedule, each will now be treated in more detail.

The Interview

A question-and-answer exchange between an interviewer and an informant is known as an interview. The meeting can be formal and structured around a given topic or it can be informal and loosely organized around any number of topics. The advantage of the interview is that the interviewer can pursue an interesting subject at length and in any direction it may lead. As well, if a line of questioning is not yielding results, it can be dropped at any time.

Interviews take time to conduct. They also take experience and common sense. The beginner would be wise to consult with a trained specialist before attempting this task. If this is not possible, there are a number of good books on the subject that can be an invaluable aid to the aspiring interviewer (see bibliography). But, here again, technical knowledge can go just so far in this field. Experience has shown that there is no substitute for common sense. Interviewing specialists learn how to gain a rapport with people they interview. When trust is developed by the interviewer, the lines of communication begin to flow. After some experience, the interviewer begins to develop a "sense" of what is appropriate and what is to be avoided in terms of the questions he asks. It is important to put the interviewee at ease during the session. When tensions develop, it is wise to back off from the line of questioning and change the subject.
Then, too, this is one occasion where keeping confidences is all-important.

In recent years, the tape recorder has played an increasingly prominent role in interviewing. In many ways it is better than note-taking. Note-taking is incomplete and time-consuming. When the interviewer should be listening to the comments of the interviewee, he is busy writing down what was last said. But as good as the tape recorder may be, it is often quite a problem. Some people refuse to be taped. In such cases, note-taking is the only recourse. The interviewer should never attempt to tape a session without first getting the permission from the interviewee. Such a practice is not only unethical, it can also lead to legal repercussions.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of a form sheet of pre-determined questions that can be answered without the aid of an interviewer. It is perhaps the most popular and easiest-to-use surveying tool available. If accompanied by an instruction sheet, the questionnaire can be given to whole groups of people at one time or it can be mailed out to the survey population. Unlike the interview, the questionnaire's design permits easy interpretation of its data. Because the questionnaire can be completed by the respondent without the need for an interviewer, it is inexpensive to administer.

There are different ways to state questions on a questionnaire form. These vary from the structured "forced-choice" question that lists a number of possible answers and asks the respondent to pick the one (or more) that fits his liking, to the
"open-ended" question that allows the respondent to write in his answer. In designing this form, it is important to allow for some freedom in answering certain of the questions. Where there are a number of possible responses to a question, it is wise to add a final "other" response with appropriate space for writing in the answer. Remember, too, that a well-designed questionnaire will facilitate tallying after the forms are returned.

The Interview Schedule

The interview schedule only varies from the questionnaire in the respect that the questions are read to the interviewee and the answers are recorded by the interviewer. Where people are unable to read or resent filling in questionnaires, the interview schedule is invaluable. In this sense, it can be seen as a companion piece to the questionnaire form. Like the questionnaire, the schedule can be easily tallied because of its rather structured style.

Some Considerations on Questioning

Along with the customary personal background information, questions should seek information on the individual's socio-economic and educational status. What kind of work does the person do? What work experience does he have? What employment does he qualify for? What is his educational background? What degrees (if any) does he hold? Does he have any training in his vocation? This line of questioning will supply the statistical data on the individual (and collectively, on the community). It is necessary to point out needs for the adult
education program. Also, in writing up funding proposals, it is necessary to rely heavily on this kind of "hard" data.

For the purposes of establishing courses in the adult education program, it is necessary to ask questions about what classes are wanted. This can be done by listing choices or by simply stating the question and providing space for responses.

Again, as a means of establishing community needs, questions should seek to know about the aspirations of the students. What kind of job does the individual want? How does he feel he can improve his status in terms of job qualifications?

Not all adult education classwork applies to elevating the employment eligibility of the individual. More and more, people are using adult education as a means to expand their horizons into cultural, recreational, and "leisure-time" interests. Such possibilities should not be overlooked.

Civic-minded individuals and groups have traditionally relied on community adult education to promote interest in community betterment projects. This, too, should be considered when drafting questions for the adult education survey. Consultations with these individuals and groups in the community will result in gaining an insight into their needs. Further, there is no better way to gain the support of these community groups than by approaching them in this light.

As was said earlier in this chapter, the adult education program can and should be a community affair. The adult education survey designers should consider all aspects of community needs when drafting the questions.
Tallying the Survey

In the final analysis, the survey tally should be presented in its most readable and understandable form. This is especially true if it is to be published locally or included in any subsequent funding proposals.

There are two ways to accomplish this end. Both are relatively easy to prepare.

The Numerical Tally

The numerical tally is, simply, the counted results of each question. It is done by drawing lines across a page and listing the number of responses to each question in the appropriate space. For example, it may be that 25 people want a basic math class, 31 want a class in intermediate algebra, 22 in geometry, and so on. As these results are tabulated for each question (or each series of questions) a statistical "picture" of the survey emerges.

The Numerical Tally - Totals for preferred classes:

Mathematics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>basic math</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intermediate algebra</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geometry</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calculus</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Percentage Tally

The percentage tally is another way of showing the same data as in the numerical tally. Instead of a number count, percentages of responses to each
question are listed on the page. Thus, out of 122 people surveyed, 16% said they had jobs in the field they wanted, 48% said they had jobs but wanted something else, and the remaining 36% said they were unemployed.

The Percentage Tally - Employment status of respondents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with present job</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied with present job</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Often it is wise to use both tallies for some questions. This provides two perspectives, or two ways to look at the same information. It is one thing to list the fact that 44 survey respondents are presently unemployed but this information gains a new perspective when it is shown to be 36% of those surveyed. (The reader is referred to Appendix A for an elaboration on survey formats and tallying procedures.)

Depending on the questions and how they were asked, it may be that some responses cannot be tallied by either of the above methods. For instance, it is difficult to tally responses to many interview questions where individuals talked at length on some subject. In such cases, it is sometimes possible to extract or take out bits and pieces of information for tallying. These lengthy interviews have great value for deeper understandings about individual problems and needs. In this sense, they are an invaluable asset to the program planners.
concerned with rooting out problem areas.

The tally is the last phase of the first step in planning the adult education program. The next concern is with community resources and how to include them in the planning and operation of the program.
CHAPTER II
POOLING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The question invariably arises about how to organize a program with few financial assets, especially in rural or poverty areas where human and material resources are seemingly scarce. One way to confront this problem is to establish resource coalitions at the community level with the partners sponsoring the new organization. In this chapter the ways and means to organize these coalitions will be discussed. As part of this discussion, two ways to locate resources will be considered. The first is by using the community survey. The second is by identifying and then recruiting help from the community resource agents. But by way of introduction, this discussion will begin with a definition of resource.

Resources are a means to an end. They can be seen as those goods and services that lend a measure of support to the fulfillment of a goal. In the adult education area, resources can be in the form of goods like class materials and supplies, classroom space, etc., and services like teachers, volunteer workers, community groups or even students.

While money, also a resource, can purchase most of the goods and services needed to develop and run a program, many of these necessities can be gotten by other means, such as through contributions, grants, or loans. In this sense, it is important to realize that quality programming can be achieved even where money is in short supply. What must be understood, and is so difficult a lesson
in our dollar-oriented society, is that quality is a function, not of finances, but of energy. It is a function of creative output. All of the resources at one's disposal will not make a program good or bad. In the final analysis, it is the ability to utilize these resources in a satisfactory manner that will determine the relative success of the program.

The case for quality programming is one that must be dealt with at the local level. It is not something that can be orchestrated from afar. Money might be forthcoming, for example, from a federal agency to run a community adult education project. But it is the people in the community who provide the leadership and direction in terms of how that money is spent. The money has no qualification of its own. It is the users of the money (or any other resource) who must ultimately be accountable.

**Locating Resources**

This chapter is concerned with ways to attract and utilize already available resources from within any given community. In the long run, the locally supported organization may seek alternative funding sources. One alternative means is through funding grants from federal, state or private agencies. However, by seeking local resources during the program's inception and early stages, the new organization can accomplish a number of important advantages, especially when the time comes to write and submit funding proposals to other agencies. In the first place, community involvement in the program will provide experience for local people. This involvement, coupled with the sharing of resources, will most
probably receive favorable attention from any agencies that might subsequently consider funding the program.

Where Are the Community Resources?

Resources are everywhere to be found. Their abundance or scarcity is, for the most part, a function of one's ability to locate them. We will discuss two ways in which the aspiring adult education programmer can familiarize himself with the potential resources in his community. The first but less direct way is through the community survey. The second involves a concerted effort to locate the community's power elite—those individuals who, by their status or their public or private offices, wield some measure of authority within the community.

The Community Survey.--The community survey will probably reach more people, attract more attention, and serve to advertise the program better than could be done individually. For these reasons the survey should be considered for its usefulness as a way to locate resources. In the early stages of the program's development, more help will be needed than can normally be afforded. The survey is the most likely way to locate such help. Reference to these needs can be in question or comment form at the end of the questionnaire or verbally during interviewing. If, for example, a need for volunteer teachers is anticipated, interested

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persons could be asked to respond by listing the subjects they could teach. As the course requests are tallied from the survey, a determination can be made as to which teachers will be needed.

Material aid can also be sought through the survey. In classes where basic reading is being taught, it is often helpful to have reading material like books, magazines and comics available for handouts to students. The cost of buying such literature is prohibitive, especially if they are to be given away. But if this material is gotten through donations, then it can be distributed without cost to the program.

Storefront classrooms are effectively used to attract adult students who are reluctant to "go back to school." If it is decided to house the program in such facilities, ask that people with appropriate quarters so indicate on the survey form.

It is during this survey period that one can also look for program sponsors—groups that might wish to join in or contribute to the program on a regular basis. This will serve to promote the program in the community. But, more importantly, it will encourage interaction and involvement by more people in the affairs of the community—a theme basic to the adult education movement.  

By tabulating the responses to this survey inquiry, a catalog can be kept that lists those individuals and groups from the community who expressed an interest

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in some form of active participation in the program. This list can be added to as the program develops.  

"Who's Who in the Community."—Many communities are overorganized. This overorganization is diverse but not diffuse. In other words, there is a multiplicity of organization but participation in these organizations is shared by relatively few citizens. The point is easily demonstrated. Consider, for example, the groups in the community that deal in any way with community service and betterment projects. The list might include such organizations as the Chamber of Commerce, the Elks, Moose, Eagles, Federation of Women's Clubs, American Legion, Veterans of Foreign Wars, and so on ad infinitum. Next list the people who participate in these groups and, finally, the people who are the central figures in the organizations. In many cases the same names will recur time and again. If the community is like most other American communities, the real power is shared by relatively few people. These are the power elitists. It should be realized that these are the people who control most of the resources of the community.

Who might these resource people be? The first lesson one must learn about the community power elitists is that, for some, their power is not derived from their official position or office but from their status in the community. In a southern town this status might be a function of one's family if it is a prestigious and well-established name. In a western community, status might be counted by

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6 The reader is referred to Appendix B, which is designed for this purpose.
the size of one's land holdings. A knowledge of the social status of prominent persons in the community is an asset for the individual seeking to discover where the power lies.

The professionals and mercantilists are, of course, some of the more obvious community resource agents. While they may or may not exercise extensive influence in the community, they can certainly be helpful to the program in whatever is their area of expertise.

The bureaucrats and public officials are the managers of the public domain. As such, they hold the keys to many community resources. But, their ability to distribute these resources is largely a function of their position in the hierarchy. Some can do so only with permission, while others can do so on their own authority. It is not too difficult a task to distinguish those with "real" authority from the buck-passers. Identifying these bureaucratic power elitists will expose yet another community resource pool.

It will take initiative to seek out these community resource agents. In taking the case to them, be prepared to explain why their participation is needed, whether it be giving advice, material help, or whatever. Make a point of telling them about how the program can benefit the community, enhance the cooperative spirit between participating groups, and, most important, provide the sorely needed educational tool for the adult segment of the community. Some of these resource people can actually become involved as instructors in the classroom. If, for example, a course in finance is being taught, members of the banking community can be included in the instructional staff. This, then, is another way that
the resource agents can be included in the program. In addressing them, it is important to appeal to their value in this light.

**Pooling Resources Through Community Coalitions**

Up to now the discussion has been around the idea of community coalitions. This shall now be confronted directly. The concept of community coalitions is not a new one in this country. In fact, it has its historical antecedents in Colonial America. Both frontier defense alliances and agricultural cooperatives were forms of extended community coalitions. Without these cooperative alliances, the pilgrims would have had little chance of surviving in the hostile environs of their frontier existence.

The adult education coalition is also a survival tactic, for without it many such programs could not find sufficient resources with which to organize. Even if it weren't necessary for survival, it remains as a logical imperative for the program. In other words, it is a sound and effective way to enhance the program's representativeness in the community.

**What Is a Coalition and How Does it Work?**

A coalition is a kind of partnership. It is formed by two or more parties for a specific purpose and usually for a limited period of time. For example, the Crow Indian Reservation Adult Education Coalition was a partnership between the

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Crow Tribe Community Action Program, the Bureau of Indian Affairs (Crow Agency Office), and three distinct reservation public school systems. It was formed specifically to run a reservation-wide adult education project and the arrangement was in effect for one year. (The following case study considers the Crow Reservation Adult Education Coalition in considerable detail.)

The coalition usually does not ask the partnership to commit all of its resources to this one function. In the Crow Adult Education Coalition, all of the partners were engaged in many other activities while they sponsored the coalition. Only some of their resources were used to support the adult education project.

Membership in coalitions is tenuous. The coalition need not be a formal partnership with binding obligations to continued cooperation on the part of its sponsors. If for some reason a partner chooses to dissociate from the organization, he is free to leave at will, bound only by the specific commitments made between himself and his partners at the time of the coalition’s inception.

How Much Power Should the Coalition Have?

Given this rather broad conceptualization of a coalition, some variables can now be considered. Coalitions can be designed with built-in strengths and weaknesses. If the partnership is seeking to create a long-lasting organization with some internal self-sufficiency, then it remains to provide for this contingency in the organizational planning. If, on the other hand, partners are unwilling to create a separate entity through the new organization, they themselves can provide the leadership. In other words, the member organizations must decide on the degree of autonomy they wish the coalition to have. Their representation may be
no more than that of contributory partners who provide the human, material or financial resources. They may be partners who share in the administration of the coalition. Or they may be a combination of both. The Crow Adult Education Coalition had an arrangement whereby the partners shared both responsibilities, that is, of contributing resources and providing administration.

Coalition Pros and Cons

The decided advantage in forming a coalition in the context being considered—an adult education program for rural or poverty area communities—is that by combining community talents and material resources, one can more readily overcome monetary hardships. Therefore, when finances are limited, community coalitions can provide the resources to allow for organization. Another advantage to forming coalitions is that they provide a vehicle for increased citizen participation in community affairs.

Most problematic to the coalition concept is the possibility of conflict between members, especially in weak coalitions. If provisions are not worked out in advance as to the lines of authority and leadership, disputes could cause the organization to be ineffectual. This is especially apparent where members are traditionally competitive. This problem was apparent in the Crow Adult Education Coalition: three traditionally competitive organizations formed a partnership too weak in its design to overcome the competitive natures of the individual members.

The provision for fluidity of members is by itself neither good nor bad. It all depends on the members and their interrelationships as well as their
respective resource potential. If, after a while, one member wants out, it is good that this possibility can be accomplished so easily. There is little to be gained by forced participation. Also, if a partner is no longer in a position to contribute his share, he, too, can easily dissociate. Of course, it is entirely possible for new partners to join the coalition at any time.

Summary

In this chapter the question was raised of how one might establish an adult education program when finances are not sufficiently available. In response, the possibility of going to the community with the proposal of funding the program through a coalition or resource pool was discussed. In this light, the ways one might seek such community support, who might contribute, and what the options are in the coalition design was further examined.
CHAPTER III
THE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

Today's adult education movement in the United States is a contrast of ideologies. Not unlike its school-age education counterpart, programming trends in the adult schools run the gamut from the traditional to the innovative. Without favoring any one approach over another, these various ideologies will be examined in this chapter with a view towards pointing out their respective strengths and weaknesses.

Ever since the passage of the Adult Education Act of 1966, adult educators have paid increasing attention to providing for improved educational opportunities for the poor, the illiterate and the disadvantaged. These adult basic education opportunities will be considered as a part of the general discussion of programming in adult education.

Because a counseling, testing, evaluation, and training apparatus is essential to a sound adult education program, sections dealing with these important subjects will also be included.

In the previous chapter it was mentioned that certain community resource agents could assist the program by participating as instructors. In the section on the role of the non-professional in adult education, this possibility will be discussed.
Last, but surely not least among this chapter's topics, the discussion will include what is perhaps the most urgent challenge to the adult educator today: using the program as a forum for increased grassroots involvement and participation in the community's social and political life.

**Programs: Curriculums and Instructional Formats**

In the broadest sense, adult education refers to the total learning experience of the adult individual. But confined by the terminology of the adult education programmer, this learning experience becomes housed in bureaucratese. Terms like community education, continuing education, liberal education, adult basic education, and vocational-technical education become the focus of the adult education experience. The experience, in turn, becomes actualized in the form of program and curriculum and instruction. This section will deal with several of these programs and suggest ways that they might best serve the community.

**Adult Basic Education (ABE)**

Prior to the passage of the Adult Education Act of 1966, adult education was almost the exclusive privilege of the middle-class and affluent adult. Few programs dealt specifically with the problems of the poor and the disadvantaged or with the school dropout and the illiterate. Yet, the Act did just that and its passage hailed a new era in contemporary adult education.

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Curriculums in ABE.-- Although curriculums vary in adult basic education (ABE), as do student needs, studies in reading improvement, basic mathematics, communication skills, and the social and natural sciences receive the greatest emphasis. The product market is deluged with kits, study guides, audiovisual aids, and the like, that concentrate on the above-mentioned study areas. Often, however, these programmed materials are inadequate or irrelevant.

Many ABE students are illiterate or nearly so. Their greatest effort, aside from just coming to class, is to begin to read and to communicate. Counseling between teacher and student is essential throughout this instruction. For many students, weeks, even months, pass in this pre-reading stage.

At the other end of the scale, one finds students nearly ready to complete their instruction. A battery of tests called General Educational Development (GED) tests are offered to the prospective graduate and, when successfully completed, result in his being awarded a high school equivalency diploma. These tests are offered in every state and territory as well as military posts, in-country and overseas.

As has been noted, the spectrum of student latitude in ABE is diverse. Curriculums should vary accordingly. Their relevancy must be made a function of such things as geographic area, social class and racial groupings (of students),

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Information regarding specific testing centers can be obtained from state educational agencies in each of the fifty states, many state supported institutions of higher learning, and all U.S. military posts throughout the world.
language (or dialect), student aptitude and the like. Although some of the programmed materials take these conditions into account, most are produced for a national audience and do not. The adult basic education programmer should give serious thought to using indigenous class materials so to enhance the program's curricular relevance.

The importance of curriculum development in adult basic education cannot be overstated. The complete ABE program should make a provision for a curriculum specialist just as it does for its teachers and administrators. His task should be to ascertain student needs and then buy and/or make instructional materials relevant to these needs. (The reader is referred to Appendix C for an extended discussion on the use of indigenous class materials.)

How can courses be made more relevant? One way is to gear them more toward adult interests. For instance, instead of teaching basic math in the traditional textbook way, teach it through a class in Income Tax preparation (during the season), or a class in checkbook balancing, buying groceries, clothes, cars, etc. To teach reading, read newspapers, magazines, comics, and the like, instead of hardcover books or texts. The idea is to be creative, flexible and inventive in deciding on ways to make the classes such that the adult students can become more involved in their learning. If a student's interest in politics is recognized, for example, read newsmagazines and newspapers dealing with this interest.

Instruction in ABE. Just as curriculums must be flexible and creative in ABE, so must instruction. Experience has shown that many classes cannot be
taught by traditional lecture methods. One reason for this is that most adult students have differing needs and interests, different educational backgrounds, and differing abilities. More and more, adult educators are turning to individualized instruction methods, to unstructured open-entry and -exit programs, to a learner-centered approach where, generally speaking, the individual and not the group is primary.

Individualized instruction refers to that instruction which is geared to the individual rather than the group. It is an instructional format that is "personalized" to take into account the individual needs, aspirations, abilities and interests, and so on, of each student. With individualized instruction, the student is not held back or forced ahead by the collective demands of the larger class. If the student happens to be operating on the same level as some of the other students, then they may work together. If, on the other hand, the student is on a level all his own, he is free to work alone or with the teacher.

The teacher's role in the individualized instruction classroom is crucial. He or she must act as counselor, assist students in the design of their individualized lessons, help students who need specialized instruction, and generally oversee and evaluate all aspects of the classroom's on-going operation. While the teacher does not dominate the class as in the traditional lecture-forum mode, his responsibility to each student is heightened. He must know his students as individuals and he must know them well enough to know what each needs. This, of course, is no small task.

10 Robert A. Weisberger mentions the teacher's knowledge of the learner
Because knowing what individual students might need may preclude the use of one or another instructional method, the teacher must be familiar with the various alternatives. For example, a reading student who is too embarrassed to use an audio-visual aid like a controlled reader may be more comfortable using some programmed material like a reading kit. Another student who, for some reason, will not follow the sequential steps in his programmed instruction workbook or who finds the programmed learning material too impersonal, may demand more personal attention from the teacher. Thus, while not dominating the class, the teacher is certainly as vital to the on-going operation of the program as he has ever been.

As has been noted, there are numerous innovations in individualized instruction. Each can be effectively employed in the same ABE program. An open-entry and open-exit provision allows for students to come into the program at whatever level they can handle and leave or advance whenever they want or feel they are ready. Thus, the student who dropped out of school in the twelfth grade may only need to brush up on a few studies before he is ready to take the GED tests. However, another student who speaks primarily in the Spanish tongue, may need to work on her English before she is ready to apply for her citizenship papers.

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The Spanish-speaking student can use various audio-visual aids to help her studies. They might include Spanish-English tapes or records to help her learn sounds and pronunciations. She can use reading projectors like the overhead projector or the controlled reader to help her with sight recognition of the new language and its words.

Another student may use various learning packages or programmed instructional materials which are sequentially arranged lessons on different subjects that help the student move ahead in a systematic step-by-step fashion. The basic math student, for instance, can choose from numerous programmed math workbooks that will help him to advance from basic essentials through high school math and beyond.

Because the ABE classroom must deal with such a diverse clientele—with students of virtually every attitude and accomplishment, it must rely heavily on individualized methods of instruction. (The reader is encouraged to pursue the topic of individualized instruction at more length. The suggested readings list following Appendix C includes a number of authoritative volumes on the subject.)

In terms of the more traditional or formal instructional approaches, it is sometimes possible to use the lecture forum in certain ABE classes on a limited scale. It should be recalled that the importance of flexibility and creativity in planning the program was discussed. As such, a change of pace in instructional format is often useful to keep student interest high. The lecture forum can be one such device. For example, a class in consumer education can be planned
both to help students' math skills (keeping balanced budgets, buying on credit, etc.) as well as to help the students to better understand the business world. In this regard, some local businessmen can be invited to give a talk to the class. This lecture (or lecture series), if planned well, can be an immeasurable assist to the classes.

In the preceding few pages the briefest overview of this tremendously challenging field, that of adult basic education, was discussed. Problems in curriculum, in instruction, in programming generally, are not to be underestimated. A visit to any ABE center will bring home the seriousness of this challenge. Hard successes, in terms of GED graduates, students who have won jobs, been accepted to other schools, training programs and the like, are few. Student dropout rates run high. But measuring success by numbers is not always satisfactory. Nor does it give a fair appraisal of the ABE picture. Some successes cannot be so measured. In other words, how does one measure a student's heightened motivation as a result of attending an ABE class? It is not possible to list the number of students whose self-esteem or feelings of personal worth were improved by whatever transpired in the ABE classroom. Yet, certainly these qualities are significant. While the student may not go out and immediately gain a new and satisfying career as a result of his ABE experience, he may be a bit more self-assured than before. This new-found assuredness or, perhaps, the student's new goal-orientation, may contribute to better circumstances in his life. It may not happen overnight, but if his chances are improved, its worth is immeasurable.

11 See B.E. Bloom, ed., M.D. Englehardt, E.J. Furst, W.H. Hill,
Many people associate vocational-technical education (vo-tech) with high schools and consider it to be an adjunct to the secondary education curriculum. But, of course, it is much more. Adult schools have long supported vo-tech programs either in conjunction with the public school systems or independent of them. Various governmental agencies also support community based adult training programs. The Department of Labor's Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA), the Department of Defense's Veterans' Administration, and the Office of Economic Opportunity's Migrant and Seasonal Farmworkers' Assistance Program, to name a few, are involved in this kind of supportive work.

Vocational-technical education is, in the largest sense, an educational and training opportunity for individuals who seek to either upgrade their occupational skills or learn new ones. The vo-tech domain is ever-expanding with projects that include such diverse studies as nursing (for licensed practical nurses), computer programming, leathercrafts, secretarial training, mechanical engineering, forestry technology, business law, and many others in practically every field.

Curriculums in Vocational-Technical Education.--Curriculums in vo-tech programs should be as flexible as the job market allows. All too often well-meaning but overly aggressive programmers will initiate training programs in areas where jobs simply do not exist. This is especially true in rural areas where jobs are scarce. Indian reservations have long suffered from such poorly organized

vocational-technical training projects. Programmers will seize upon an opportunity to set up a project like, perhaps, an electricians' school. Then once the program terminates, the students are faced with the prospect of no jobs at home. The alternative, of course, is to go elsewhere and look for work. But this is not what many people want. Besides, looking for a job in a tight economy is no easy thing, no matter where one goes.

Vo-tech programmers, and especially those associated with programs in rural areas, have a responsibility to the community and to the student to first consider employment prospects for the job training project they initiate. This is not to suggest that the entire vo-tech curriculum must be so established. Many courses are designed to upgrade one's competency in his job or to improve his chance for better employment opportunities. As well, many students want to become qualified in some field regardless of the immediate job possibilities. Thus, it becomes the further responsibility of the vo-tech programmer to provide for these contingencies. Put another way, the programmer has the responsibility of providing sound and competitive curriculums on a recognized needs basis without adding costly and speculative programs of little value to the student or the community.

How are community vo-tech needs established? Certainly, the obvious way to ascertain this information is through the community survey. Of course, an apparatus must be available to continually survey this need. The on-going survey should be employed in this respect.

Much of this depends on the size and diversification of the community. A community of 30,000 or 40,000 people will have a need for, and be able to
support, a vo-tech project larger than the community of 5,000. The larger community might well support a continuous training program for secretaries, since the demand for such people is constant in the larger economy. Yet, the smaller community might only want one or two such programs a year.

Perhaps a new meatpacking plant is to open in the community. The vo-tech center may then establish classes in meat cutting or other appropriate job skills. Or perhaps a community is trying to build up its tourist economy. The vo-tech center may secure the assistance of MDTA in setting up training workshops in hotel management, guide training or other tourist related enterprises. As another example, some companies or agencies have policies whereby their employees are required or encouraged to periodically return to school for additional training. Educational agencies that employ instructional aides, for instance, often require these people to attend workshops and in-service sessions to upgrade their talents. Vo-tech centers are often geared to assist in such training.

**Training in Vocational-Technical Education.** In addition to classroom instruction, much of the vo-tech instructional format has to do with shop and laboratory work. It is education with practical application. The concern in this section is with this "on-the-job" work-oriented aspect of vo-tech training. The vo-tech job training apparatus may be found wherever adequate facilities will allow such as an actual job-site apprenticeship program or a reasonably authentic laboratory copy. The auto mechanic trainee works in a shop, the data processor trainee works in a computer room, the nurse's aide trainee works
in a real or re-created hospital setting. Without the provision for such realistic training, much of the impact and relevancy of vo-tech education is lost. A basic tenet of vo-tech education is its reliance on both theory and practicum. They are inseparable adjuncts to effective programming.

Often the community vo-tech center, if its resources are limited, can establish training programs in conjunction with other community agencies that have the needed resources. In the last chapter, community coalitions were proposed and this is one way they can be used. For example, this is similar to the principle that the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) centers employ with respect to training their enrollees. The NYC program acts to coordinate all phases of training and education. They either provide the classroom instruction themselves or enlist the services of some appropriate agency. At the same time, on-the-job training sites are secured where the students receive their practical training. For some vo-tech centers, this might be a way to provide a service at little cost to the program and high yields for the student.

Another cost-saving possibility can be realized by coordinating training programs with vo-tech centers from other communities. By publicizing the center's activities and, at the same time, maintaining a correspondence with other centers, some of the more expensive programs could be coordinated between participating agencies. For example, if one center's computer training facility is developed, it can serve the needs of students from both the local as well as other communities. Students from the local area who are interested in a para-medical field could likewise enroll in another participating center where that program is
offered. The cost savings in such a venture is obvious since unnecessary duplication can be avoided.

The above mentioned possibilities of seeking on-the-job training sites and coordinating programs between participating centers can be useful tools to expand the program's scope and depth. Yet without proper controls, the quality of such programming might be compromised. The coordinating agency, in this case the vo-tech center, would have to actively participate in all on-the-job training situations to the extent that it would assure a high quality program. In this regard, the program's teachers or training coordinators could provide work-sites with progress evaluation sheets to gauge student progress. As well, they could help these sites in the development of quality programming and hold periodic checks to see that the quality is maintained.

Continuing Education.

Up to now this discussion on programming trends has been in two general areas of adult education: those of adult basic education and vocational-technical education. It has not been the intention of this writer to suggest that because these programs were discussed separately that they might somehow be divorced or unrelated. Of course, this is not true. If there is a common bond between the various adult education schools, it is their oneness with the theme of continuing education. Continuing education refers to that learning process, either formal or informal, disciplined or casual, by which the individual accumulates knowledge throughout his life.

This learning process can be actualized in a formal way through continuing education programs at the community level. These programs can be, and
are, sponsored by a number of different organizations such as colleges and universities, industrial enterprises, church groups, public libraries, business organizations and the like. The mediums through which continuing education are presented are various: educational television, evening classes, newspapers, public affairs seminars, discussion groups, and so on.

Curricula and Instruction in Continuing Education.-- The curriculum domain of continuing education is, in theory, nonexclusive; that is, all aspects of adult learning are within its province. For example, there is a growing interest today in providing studies in the humanities to citizens of rural communities. A nationwide project sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities and run through their state counterparts is notable in this regard. But, certainly the most extensive network for programs in continuing education are those run by the nation's colleges and universities. Correspondence courses, extension courses, evening classes and even educational television programs are channeled into this activity.

Besides the arts and humanities, programming trends in continuing education include courses in avocational or leisure-time skills (hobbies), recreational skills, public affairs, business education, religious education and so on ad infinitum.

How Large Is the Continuing Education Audience?-- The continuing education clientele is as large and diverse as the curriculum and mode of instruction allow. Since the advent of television and, specifically, the more recent emphasis in educational television programming, significant inroads have been
made in attracting larger audiences than were ever before possible. Residential study, or the study that takes place within the community continuing education center, is also geared to attracting large audiences.

Yet, for all its inventiveness and effort, the continuing education movement has not had a significant impact on the poverty community. The reasons for this are manyfold. For one thing, many poor people haven't the time to get involved in extracurricular activities to the extent that the more affluent have. And, while a middle-class white might, for good reason, consider a class in community affairs or national affairs to be within his special interest, the poor black or Indian or Chicano may only feel alienation or revulsion at the prospect of confronting a class on the political power structure. There is, of course, increasing involvement by minority and poverty groups in these political processes, thus raising the expectations that they will likewise increase their participation in the continuing education movement. At the same time, continuing education programmers must do their part to attract this new audience.

Earlier the statement was made that curriculums in continuing education are, in theory, nonexclusive. However, while it is true that the courses offer instruction in the widest range of interests, it is also true that much of this instruction is socially and intellectually unintelligible or unappealing to some groups. But it need not be. Part of the solution rests with using the proper instructional format and making the course content more relevant. For example, a southwestern community continuing education center might wish to offer a course in consumer education. Certainly, this is a relevant topic with wide public appeal.

12 Johnstone and Rivera, Volunteers for Learning, p. 21.
But how might this course best be taught so that it reaches the widest audience? If the class is offered in the public school, perhaps the Chicano people from the barrios will not want to come. It might best be taught in several different locations. But in addition to such scatter-site programming, might it not also be best to teach it to the Chicanos in Spanish and the whites in English and relate the instruction to the circumstances and life styles of each group? If programmers are serious about wanting to reach more people, then they must begin by going out into the communities and exploring new curricular approaches and more flexible instructional methods. In doing so, they would be wise to consult with the various groups as to their specific needs and interests. This, then, should become a priority of the center.

The Counseling Apparatus

In the discussion on adult basic education, the importance of an effective counseling apparatus in the program was mentioned. Its importance should not be minimized. Although the need for counseling in adult education is not limited to ABE, it is more crucial there. Every class, every program and, surely, every student should have access to a counseling service of one sort or another.

Who Might the Adult Education Counselor Be?

The adult education counselor may not be certified or even specially trained in counseling and guidance. Indeed, some of the most qualified and sensitive counselors (or teachers) are those with a kind of built-in talent for this work. What counselors do need is a capacity to understand and to relate to their
students. And, depending on the student and his problems, they need time to spend with their students. Time, however, usually is at a premium and counselors rarely get as much as they need.

Counseling in ABE is especially problematic. Many students are in need of as much counseling as they can get. Their problems are deep-seated. The poor reader, for example, is not just a poor reader. There is some reason for his reading deficiency. Putting a book in this man's hand is not the answer. The first priority of the teacher, or teacher-counselor, should be to sit with the student, discuss his problem and goals and try to establish a rapport with him that will allow an on-going counseling and teaching relationship to develop.

Because the teacher is often called on to also act in the capacity of a counselor, this dual role should be stressed and encouraged. The teacher's responsibility to either job will undoubtedly vary, depending on the kind of teaching being done and the student's particular qualifications and/or problems.

Adult educators are becoming increasingly cognizant of their responsibilities to their students as regards follow-through counseling. Once the students complete their studies, job counseling, job referrals, and job placement services are, more and more, being provided for through the adult education programs. This provision for follow-through counseling is often the vital link between the unemployed student and his transition to successful wage earner. Counseling follow-through is also instrumental in working with students who have, for whatever reason, abandoned their studies and dropped out of the programs.
The adult basic education center and the vocational-technical education center should most certainly integrate this counseling follow-through service into their programs. If, for instance, the vo-tech center is running an electricians course, it should provide a follow-up service to identify the job openings in the area. The center should also make every feasible attempt to secure these jobs for its graduates. Many ABE students are habitual quitters. Their educational and employment histories are full of instances where they started but soon quit whatever it was they were into. Some come into an ABE program and drop out after only a few sessions. Others will start a course of study, then quit, and finally come back two months later to try again. If the center were to extend a counseling follow-through service to these students and pursue them when they leave the program, many could be encouraged to return and complete their studies or find a job. For some students, such a demonstration of interest in their futures could be decisive.

Testing and Evaluation in Adult Education

The subject of testing in adult education is immersed in controversy with some favoring the practice and some opposed. It should be remembered that adult students are not in school in the same capacity as young students or children. Instead, they are there voluntarily and they may come and go at will. Continuing education students are often involved because they want to brush up on some subject or learn a new avocational skill. As such, they might resent a teacher's attempts at putting them to the test. The ABE student who quit school as a
teen-ager or flunked out before graduating, might have deep-seated fears of failing again. To test this student might cause him to be further alienated by the school structure.

Yet, there clearly are times when testing is mandatory. The ABE student ready for graduation will have to take the GED series if he wants a high school equivalency diploma. The vo-tech student wanting to qualify as a computer technician will have to undergo testing in order to become certified for a job in the profession. Sometimes, however, the way tests are given can make the difference between frightening or intimidating a student and putting him at ease. Then, too, many traditional testing procedures can be given in such a way as to not appear as tests. The ABE teacher can learn how to recognize problems in students without having to give them a battery of formalized tests. By working closely with students she can learn to spot weaknesses and strengths. While not as amenable to measurement as a test, these methods have the advantage of keeping the students at ease—and in the classroom. Another test is self-administering, which the student takes and corrects himself. Some programmed materials include self-testing exercises.

One final word need be said about testing. Too often adult educators will use standardized tests on adult students who cannot relate to them. The test made in a large eastern urban area used to measure the beginning ABE student's reading level may be fine to use with students from that area. But it simply does not relate to the Indian student who grew up on a reservation, speaking a language that is both unwritten and unread. If this Indian student is to be tested at all,
it should be done with a test developed specifically for his needs.

If testing in adult education is to be held to an absolute minimum, then how is the educator to effectively evaluate his students, his teachers and his program? Already suggested were indirect testing procedures. They should certainly be explored. Teacher and program (including staff) evaluations can be made in two ways: quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative evaluations include playing the old numbers game: numbers of students enrolled in the program, number remaining after a certain period, successes on tests, number of students being certified for jobs, number getting jobs, courses being offered and enrollments in each, etc. In qualitative evaluations, one looks for things of more substance such as why students liked one course more than another, or which teachers worked hardest to develop more relevant materials or teaching techniques (and how these new techniques and materials worked out). In terms of the program: in what ways is it meeting its goals (or not meeting them), is more community involvement in the program's activities being encouraged, and so on. Effective evaluations will include both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Program evaluations should be on-going. In Chapter I the importance of organizational goals was discussed. It is through these evaluations that the program's goals are tested to see whether and how they are being met, or if they should be reestablished on the basis of newer priorities. The adult education programmer should make, as a regular function of his job, a provision for continuous program evaluation.
The Nonprofessional in Adult Education

Nonprofessionals have long played a vital part in the adult education movement. This is partly due to the fact that adult education has enjoyed only marginal success in terms of program funding, thus forcing program organizers to cast the nonprofessional and the volunteer in the role of teacher and administrator.

The nonprofessionals have more than met the challenge. Their involvement has served to inject new lifeblood into the old order. Programs, including many in rural and poverty areas, that might not have organized except for the efforts of nonprofessional workers, are numerous.

Who Are These Nonprofessionals?

Many of the nonprofessionals are volunteers: VISTA's, retired businessmen, housewives, medical people, college students and so on. Many are professionals from other fields like school-age education teachers, nurses, businessmen and public officials. While these people might not be certified to teach adult education, they surely have as much qualification to teach adults as anyone. For example, who might be better qualified to teach a course in finance than a banker? Or a seminar in consumer education than a composure of businessmen, lawyers, and housewives? The nonprofessional, in other words, is anyone in the community who can bring to the adult education effort his particular competency or skill.

Staff and Teacher Training in Adult Education

There are more than a few adult education programs in this country that are staffed entirely, or nearly so, by nonprofessionals. As such, their duties and
responsibilities extend beyond a sometime involvement in the programs. They are more than just a part-time teacher or guest lecturer or bimonthly program accountant. They are the program and their actions reflect directly on the program's quality.

These programs, as well as all programs regardless of how professional their workers are, need a provision through which staff and teacher training is handled. Opportunities must be made available to administrators through which they can learn about new programming trends, new funding sources, new legislation affecting their programs, and so on. Teachers, likewise, need opportunities to expand their horizons, to increase their professional orientation. Even the most inspired and creative educators need to be exposed to new ideas and to alternative approaches.

Programmers have an obligation to search out ways to provide such services to their workers. Professional newsletters and magazines often list scheduled seminars or workshops. Also, it is often possible to schedule one's own. Many programmers go to colleges, universities or consultant agencies in order to organize workshops to fit their specific needs. For example, to set up a three-day workshop in counseling for teachers, it might be possible to contract the services of the counseling staff at a nearby university and work out an arrangement whereby they could send some of their people to the center for the training.

Such sessions are often quite satisfactory. But they can also be very expensive. It is wise to know exactly what is being bought before finalizing any arrangements. This is especially true in programs that deal with minorities or...
with people who have special needs. It is possible to bring in some very competent, well-educated professionals who may have no contribution to make considering the students' particular needs. Contracts should spell out exactly what is being offered, including any follow-up services, and what all this will cost. In this regard, it may prove advantageous to get bids from more than one such training-oriented institution. By seeking competitive bids, it may be possible to get more service at less cost.

The Action Imperative:

Adult Education Organizations and the Grassroots

Webster's Dictionary defines "grassroots" as society at the local level, especially in rural areas, as distinguished from the centers of political leadership. One very vital aspect of adult education, or its liberal education counterpart, is its advocacy of citizen participation in the democratic process. It is a way to teach and encourage free citizens to use, appreciate and protect their freedoms. But for all its lofty ideals, and for all the inspired rhetoric of its advocates, adult education organizations suffer from a low profile in terms of their leadership role in the socio-political life of the community, especially at the grassroots level.

What is needed is an action orientation, a provision through which the program could become a focus for involvement in community affairs. This involvement could take the form of a public forum, a meeting place where

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13 Webster's seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, 1970
relevant issues could be discussed, debated and acted upon. For instance, as important public issues become identified, the program could take the initiative to establish on-going seminars where citizens could become better informed about the problems; could have access to public and private leaders involved in the problems; and could themselves become involved in the problem-solving mechanism. The program could then inform other citizens of these proceedings through such mediums as the newspapers, radio, television or, perhaps with student help, by publishing its own newsletter.

There are too few such grassroots operatives today. In years past their influence was far more extensive, witness the Lyceum movement and its many offspring (see Chapter V, pages 80-82). If adult education is to regain its once influential stature in the community, then it must assume this more active posture.

All adult education centers could become involved in this activity. But grassroots participation and support is essential if it is to be effective. Program organizers must actively seek and encourage such support.

The adult basic education program, whether it be housed in a public high school building, a store-front center in the business district, or an abandoned shop on skid row, is a logical organization for this project. Much of the apparatus is already established; its outreach into the community, its grassroots ties, its clientele, curriculum, and so on. Consider, for example, the ABE project that is teaching reading in the natural sciences through an environmental education approach. Perhaps there is a movement afoot in the community to open up vast tracts of land to strip-mining for coal. The area may be farm and
ranchland. Thus, this coal development would certainly have some serious and long-term effects on the present economy and the environment. The program could sponsor a public forum on this topic. This could serve both its curricular and student interests as well as keeping the public informed. While the students could research and compile data pertaining to the ecological and economic aspects of such a development, the interested public, for their part, could get involved in organizing around this issue.

Any public concern is a relevant topic for this forum. Consumer action education where housewives might debate or organize against rising food prices, legal education where a coalition of poor people could consider the possibilities of setting up a legal services project, environmental education, health education, and so on, are all possibilities. As was said, this forum could also serve to inspire new and more meaningful curricular trends. But, this action imperative is not only a device to enhance curricular programming; it is, more important, an access through which students and citizens could increase their participation in the free and democratic processes in this society.

**Summary**

In this chapter, and in those preceding it, an attempt was made to provide the reader with the essential ideas underlying each topic. There is, of course, far more to be read than is written here. In Chapter I, ways were explored in which to survey the community in order to establish the needs and interest priorities for the adult education program. In Chapter II, the possibilities of gaining community support for this program were proposed. And in this
chapter, an overview of the complex nature of the adult education movement was presented. As was said in the Preface, each of these concerns must be considered essential to the goal-setting process. In other words, one must know what the community needs and wants; one must know what the community can contribute; and one must know what the business is all about before he can establish relevant goals that will thereafter give direction to the program.
PART II. A RELEVANT CASE STUDY:
THE CROW INDIAN RESERVATION ADULT EDUCATION COALITION
CHAPTER IV

THE STUDY PROBLEM

Introduction

Adult education should be an indispensible part of every community's educational plan. Without it individuals are denied an important facility through which to continue their education.

Bergevin establishes the need for adult education by stating:

Since we have the great opportunities and the awesome responsibilities a free society offers, it should be clear that continuous learning is necessary if people are to live in community, manage their own affairs, and have something to say about the operation of the society of which they are a part . . . . A broad, continuous, and appropriate program of adult education for everybody is a necessary component of democracy.¹

Yet adult education classes are often not sought after by the people who might benefit the most--the poor, the disadvantaged and the illiterate. After their exhaustive study on the state of adult education in present-day America, Johnstone and Rivera discovered that the greatest audience for adult education is made up of middle- and upper-middle-class adults.

There are very few continuing learners in our lower classes. Part of this tendency can be explained by the fact that learning and education are perceived and evaluated in radically different ways by persons on different rungs of the social ladder. Lower-class adults not only value high

educational attainment less, but they assess the worth of education strictly in terms of the tangible advantages which can be gained from having it. They see little value in obtaining knowledge for its own sake.\(^2\)

Perhaps the greatest challenge to the contemporary adult educator, then, is to search out new ways to reach the poor, to make the programming relevant, and to establish adult education in the communities where it is most needed. As will be seen, the rural poor are especially disadvantaged by the absence of relevant adult education programming.

**Significance of the Problem**

For many reasons, the status of adult education in rural American has been, and continues to be, tenuous. Usually rural communities with their small populations and insecure tax base are unable to afford the luxury of an adult-orientated program of continuing education. Rural school districts are hard-pressed to maintain salary scales for their teachers and administrators that are commensurate with state or city levels. Overcrowding is the rule in many classrooms. Old school buildings, often condemned, are in constant use year after year. Yet, the rural citizen seeks the same advantages as the urban citizen. He desires to get ahead in life and to offer his family an adequate home and income. In short, he does not distinguish his rights in a free society to be different from those of his urban counterpart.


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The significance of this problem is compounded when the rural scene is also an Indian reservation. Illiteracy is higher and income levels are lower. On the Crow Indian Reservation of southcentral Montana, the average adult has completed only 8.5 years of formal education compared to the Montana state level of 11.7 years.³ Medium family income on the reservation is $2,778, while the state level is $5,453.⁴

One way to challenge these problems is to offer the citizen new educational opportunities. But what about the financial barriers? How can the rural community overcome the monetary burden of an additional educational program? One way is to establish community resource pools—or coalitions of independent (or interdependent) agencies. Three such adult education coalitions were formed on the Crow Reservation. This study examines the impact of these coalitions on the reservation and its people.

Background of Crow Indian Reservation Adult Education Programs

Traditionally, adult education on the Crow Reservation has been the runt-child of an overspent family. An adult education program would possibly be supported once the school-age programs were funded and if the administrators were sufficiently entreated. A survey of adult education projects over the past decade (1960-1970) demonstrates the weakness of the attempts:


⁴ Ibid., p. 9.
1. The Crow Agency office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs established the position of Adult Education Supervisor in 1963. After a short trial period, the idea of formal evening classes was abandoned because of admittedly poor organization. As a result, the position of the Adult Education Supervisor was changed to Education Specialist. Thereafter, the primary function of this office was to coordinate scholarship funding, gather public, parochial and Indian boarding school enrollment information, and conduct a program of educational counseling.

2. The Lodge Grass school system had a locally funded adult education program in 1966–67 which was dropped after one year. Although some thirty adults had signed up for instruction in typing, business, math and English, only one person completed the term.

3. Hardin's school district received state funding for two years (1968–70) and held adult basic education classes in both Hardin and Crow Agency. Because the annual grant for this project was restrictively small, it had limited application and, as a result, was of little consequence to the larger community. During the 1969–70 term, enrollment in Crow Agency varied between five and thirty students. There were no school-sponsored or state-funded adult basic education programs in any of the other reservation towns.

4. The Supplemental Education Services Center, a component project of the Crow Tribe Community Action Program, conducted a volunteer adult education program in the communities of Wyola, Lodge Grass, Crow
Agency, St. Xavier, and Pryor. Although not directly funded for operational expenses, some fifteen volunteer instructors were recruited to teach the 125 adult participants. The CAP had experienced some two years of unsuccessful attempts at establishing an adult education project before initiating the volunteer program.

Formation and Structure of the Crow Reservation Adult Education Coalition

During the summer and fall of 1970, a series of meetings were held between the various organizations that had expressed an interest in adult education. The represented agencies included: the CAP's Supplemental Educational Services Center (SES), the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), the Lodge Grass school district, the Hardin school district and the Pryor school.

The meetings were organized because of a need to coordinate and expand efforts in the area of adult education. Because the public schools that received state adult education grants were restricted to the adult basic education (ABE) curriculum, programming could not extend beyond the eighth grade level of instruction. As such, persons desiring to complete high school could not receive appropriate instruction in the ABE program.

5 This ruling has subsequently been extended to "enable all adults to continue their education to at least the level of completion of secondary school . . . ." Sec. 302, Title III-Adult Education, ESEA, Amendments of 1969. This revised plan was implemented in Montana in 1971.
The Supplemental Educational Services Center (funded through the Office of Economic Opportunity) had no such instructional limitations. In its volunteer program, SES had offered adult education classes in such areas as General Educational Development, typing, drivers' training, cross-cultural understanding, business administration, and various others. (The Bureau of Indian Affairs contributed certain materials and services to the SES volunteer adult education project.)

It became the purpose of these meetings, therefore, to search out ways to combine talents and material resources in order to offer reservation-wide instruction in all areas of adult education with paid professional instruction and relevant and appropriate materials.

An agreement was reached whereby three separate coalitions were recognized. One was in Lodge Grass and Wyola with member agencies of SES, BIA, and the Lodge Grass school system. A second coalition was in Hardin, Crow Agency, St. Xavier and Ft. Smith with members being SES, BIA and the Hardin school system. The third coalition was set up in Pryor with the SES, BIA and Pryor school as member agencies.

The coalition arrangement called for the establishment of informal partnerships whose members would each make a contribution to the effort. The contribution would be in the form of supplies, materials, instructional salaries, administrative costs, etc. Each member agency would further assume an equal representation in the sharing of the following responsibilities:
1. Personnel selection, i.e., teacher, teacher-aide hiring.
2. Training and In-Service workshops.
3. Curriculum planning.
4. Supplies and materials purchasing.

A supervisory committee with one representative from each agency was empowered to carry out the above responsibilities.

Grant proposals were sent to the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Adult Basic Education Office. Since state monies for adult education programs could only be awarded to public schools (exceptions: special experimental demonstration projects and teacher training) the grants were appropriated directly to the public schools. Under the coalition arrangement, personnel salaries would be met through this source. The SES program would contribute supplies and materials and, in some cases, space costs. The BIA agreed to supply typewriters, some additional supplies and copy machine usage.

**Some Assumptions and Statements About this Study**

The assumptions underlying this study were that: 1) In a democratic society an informed citizen is better able to make responsible decisions that affect his life and world; and 2) The community has a felt obligation to its citizens to provide them with the opportunity for continuous educational growth.

The American Constitution provides us with the right to government of, by and for the people. In order to responsibly participate in this governing process, citizens must be adequately informed and educated. One way to enhance
these citizen educational opportunities is through community adult education programs.

Communities heretofore unable to afford adult education programs can sometimes do so by pooling their human, material and financial resources into community coalitions. As was noted, the Crow Indian Reservation was recently the site of such a program. This study was undertaken because of a need:

1) To understand and catalog the dynamics of this new, intervening force in the community; and 2) To ascertain the goal-orientation of the program administrators and teachers. Knowledge about whether and how they are meeting the needs of the people and the community can be helpful not only to this project but to others like it that may follow.
CHAPTER V

THEORY AND LITERARY REVIEW

This chapter will explore the complex makeup of organizations, from theory to structure. Since this study centers on the specific nature of a cooperative organization, a coalition, a section will relate to this topic. As was noted, the approach in this study has been through an examination of organizational and participant goals. Therefore, the theoretical nature of goals will also be treated. Finally, a section on the history, theory and relevance of adult education will be dealt with in the chapter.

Organizations

As a first step in the quest for any knowledge, one must recognize that a problem exists and ask questions about it. Etzioni establishes the question for the study of organizations:

The basic question is how best to coordinate human activities in order to maintain social integration, the normative commitments of participants, and their motivation to participate.6

Max Weber, German economic historian and sociologist, was pre-eminent in the study of complex organizations around the turn of the century. His thesis held that three types of legitimate authority prevail. Of these, bureaucracy, or the rational legal type, as distinguished from the traditional and charismatic types of organization, is most effective. Weber's thesis, however, presupposed that certain conditions be present in order for his conceptual organization to attain its objectives, or goals. The conditions necessary for this "classical" organization were that 1) the personnel need be motivated toward accomplishing the stated goals and, 2) the organizational goals be "fixed" so as to maximize efficiency.

Another viewpoint, but one that emphasizes the cooperative nature of organization, was proposed by Chester I. Barnard:

A cooperative system is a complex of physical, biological, personal, and social components which are in a specific systematic relationship by reason of the cooperation of two or more persons for at least one definite end.

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In postulating his ideas, Barnard's concern is with the psychological and social aspects of organization.

In Selznick, there is a coming together of the divergent views of "Weber and Barnard:

Cooperating systems are constituted of individuals interacting as wholes in relation to a formal system of coordination. The concrete structure is therefore a resultant of the reciprocal influences of the formal and informal aspects of organization. ¹¹

Of Weber's rational system he states:

The security of all participants, and of the system as a whole, generates a persistent pressure for the institutionalization of relationships, which are thus removed from the uncertainties of individual fealty or sentiment. Moreover, it is necessary for the relations within the structure to be determined in such a way that individuals will be interchangeable and the organization will thus be free of dependence upon personal qualities. In this way, the formal structure becomes subject to calculable manipulation, an instrument of rational action. ¹²

However, this statement is brought into perspective with the philosophy of Barnard by the conclusion that irrational natures modify the whole:

But as we inspect these formal structures we begin to see that they never succeed in conquering the nonrational dimensions of organizational behavior. The latter remain at once indispensable to the continued existence of the system of coordination and at the same time the source of friction, dilemma, doubt, and ruin. ¹³


¹² Ibid., p. 25.

¹³ Ibid.
Coalitions

A good deal of research has been done (and variant theories advanced) on the subject of cooperative organizations. Much of the study has centered around the aspects of intra-organization, i.e., coordination, delegation, compliance, and the like. However, it is the stated purpose of this paper to explore the nature of another kind of cooperative organization--the coalition.

Thompson and McEwen define coalition as a combination of two or more organizations for a common purpose. However, the distinction between this and other types of organizational affiliation is that the coalition members are free to dissociate whenever their purpose is accomplished or their partnership arrangement is no longer satisfactory.

Coalition may involve joint action toward only limited aspects of the goals of each member. It may involve the complete commitment of each member for a specified period of time or indefinitely. In either case, the ultimate power to withdraw is retained by the members.

Because the coalition is only operative in regards to a specific goal (or goals) and does not presuppose total commitment or lasting communion of its members without the access of a withdrawal clause, it is largely unstable. Clearly, this unstable nature is the very nemesis of coalition.


15 Ibid.
The consolidation of public school districts is another form of coalition (if not merger), and the fact that it does represent a sharing or "invasion" of goal-setting power is reflected in some of the bitter resistance to consolidation in tradition-oriented localities. But under certain conditions where resources are scant, costs excessive, or problems and needs of a nature that demands joint action, the coalition is often the most desirable tool through which to work.

Goals

In every organization there are written and unwritten reasons for undertaking tasks. Every effort, large or small, is directed toward something. These pursuits are goal-directed. Frequently, however, there is little harmony between the goals of administration and those of organizational personnel. Often the initial goals may be changed because they are seen to be unworkable, and more realistic ones are substituted. Then too, if the organization is established specifically to accomplish a certain goal and this being done, new goals may be found to perpetuate the organization.

Simon addresses himself to this topic by making a distinction between goals and motives:

By goals we shall mean value premises that can serve as inputs to decisions. By motives we mean the causes, whatever they are, that lead individuals to select some goals rather than others as premises for their decisions.

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16 Ibid.

17 Etzioni, Complex Organizations, p. 155.

By doing this, he is free to explore the meaning of organizational goals. Simon's conclusion is that decisions are not generally directed toward the pursuit of a singular goal but more toward discovering courses of action that satisfy a whole set of constraints.

When we come to organizational decisions, we observe that many, if not most, of the constraints that define a satisfactory course of action are associated with an organizational role and hence only indirectly with the personal motives of the individual who assumes that role. In this situation it is convenient to use the phrase organizational goal to refer to constraints, or sets of constraints, imposed by the organizational role, which has only this indirect relation to the motives of the decision makers.19

Often after the accomplishment of its stated objectives the organization is put to task to decide on its future, if not its very reason for continued existence. Sills studied this problem in relation to volunteer organizations like the National Foundation of Infantile Paralysis. The Foundation's goal of combating and eliminating polio was soon to be realized with the discovery of the Salk vaccine.

The imminence of this full achievement of its major goal naturally raises the question of what will happen to the Foundation at this time. Will it simply go out of existence, will it continue on a more limited scale, ... or will it—taking advantage of experience gained in conquering polio—turn its attention to another health or welfare problem?20

Abandonment or substitution of goals, according to Sills, are the least plausible methods of goal succession. Instead, by reinterpreting and adding new

19 Ibid., p. 173.

ones, organizational continuity seems to be maintained, thus increasing or renewing its public appeal.  

The succession of goals is really the issue that relates to the fundamental consideration in the study of organizational goals. That is, if organizations are free to reinterpret their reasons for existence, then is it possible they may become ends in themselves, perpetuating themselves without really being committed to their stated goals? Or by this goal succession, is the organization simply responding to the changing environment, thereby committing itself to societal demands? 

This question of organizational goals and environment is taken up by Thompson and McEwen.

Because the setting of goals is essentially a problem of defining desired relationships between an organization and its environment, change in either requires review and perhaps alteration of goals. Even where the most abstract statement of goals remains constant, application requires redefinition or reinterpretation as changes occur in the organization, the environment, or both.

Their research further defines the ways in which the environment can exercise control over goals. This is done in two broad classifications: competition and cooperation. Both allow for outside elements to become involved in or modify the goal-setting or decision-making of the organization.

Competition, a form of rivalry, allows for the introduction of a third party to act as mediator. In this sense, the environmental factor enters the scene.

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21 Etzioni, Complex Organizations, p. 156.

Cooperation is of three types. Briefly defined, they are: 1) Bargaining, or the negotiation of an agreement; 2) Co-optation, or the process of absorbing new elements into the leadership or policy-determining structure; and, as we have already seen, 3) Coalition, or the combination of two or more organizations for a common purpose.

Environmental control is not a one-way process limited to consequences for the organization of action in its environment. Those subject to control are also part of the larger society and hence are also agents of social control.

Goals appear to grow out of interaction, both within the organization and between the organization and its environment. While every enterprise must find sufficient support for its goals, it may wield initiative in this. The difference between effective and ineffective organizations may well lie in the initiative exercised by those in the organization who are responsible for goal-setting.

The response to the above question would then be, according to Thompson and McEwen, that although environmental controls are exercised in the goal-setting process, self-centered initiative on the part of the organization is paramount to its survival.

Burton R. Clark, writing in the American Sociological Review, focuses on the problem of goal-setting in an organization whose survival is coterminous with its ability to adapt to conflicting environmental demands. The adult schools in California that Clark studied are, for the most part, state supported (their financial

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23 Ibid., pp. 25-28.

24 Ibid., pp. 28-29.

support is figured on the hours of attendance logged the previous year). But because their adult student population is "non-captive," that is, it is part-time and voluntary, curriculums must be maximally attractive so to enhance enrollments, thereby perpetuating the organization.

Building programs by consumer preference, however, produces an administrative dilemma. Located within school systems, adult education officials find their practices scrutinized by others in the light of school norms that are professional or "inner-directed" in kind, i.e., that educators should plan, initiate, and control changes on the basis of research and the assessment of experts... Moreover, the drive for higher professional status on the part of teachers and administrators reinforces these sentiments. Thus there are school values, central to the self-image of the educator, that are against ready adjustment to student demands.

When this professional orientation is brought to bear on the adult activity, the administrators do not fare well. They are judged to be in a posture of expediency, with much of this work seen as having little relationship to "education." From outside the school system, state legislators and economy-minded interest groups repeatedly challenge the propriety of what is done. Cake-decorating, rug-making, and square dancing are some of the classes that bring the adult schools under fire.

Thus in many ways a service enterprise, uncontrolled by school norms, sorely tries the educational respectability of the agencies involved... The crux of the matter is that the adult schools labor under incompatible needs. Their central dilemma is that the short-run need for clientele, set by the enrollment economy, strains against the long-run need for educational respectability as the basis for legitimacy.26

To Thompson and McEwen, an organization's survival is established on its ability to integrate environmental controls but still self-direct its goal-setting process. By this measure, the adult schools studied by Clark would be only marginally secure since they are so strongly influenced by environmental factors like the enrollment economy. This consideration is taken up in the next section, following a brief history of the adult education movement in the United States.

26 Ibid.
History, Theory and Relevance of Adult Education

The nature and growth of adult education in the United States reflects, in a sense, the diversification of American life and culture. It did not develop and mature according to any overall plan. Nor did it follow any easily definable trend (as did the various European schools). It grew haphazardly, in pell-mell fashion, wherever and whenever the demand or interest arose. In Colonial times, the notion of educating the adult developed out of utilitarian needs. The immigrants, whose homeland education traditions were the exclusive privilege of the elite, found that survival in the New World demanded the learning and mastery of new skills. The Protestant character of these colonists and the growth of the Puritan ethic added a second but religious dimension. In order to read the Bible, one needed a certain degree of literacy. Further, there existed the notion that in ignorance there is idleness and in idleness is the devil’s workshop.  

In overview, the early history of adult education in America had only few moments of note. In 1647, the Massachusetts colonists formulated the principles on which to establish university extension services. Their statement underlined the notion that education should be practical, public and government sponsored. In so doing, these colonists were expressing their need for extended education through technical readings in the agricultural sciences and the instruction of young

apprentices in the skills of their trade.  

In 1727, Benjamin Franklin established a discussion club called the Junto. The purpose of the club was "to explore such intellectual problems as morals, politics, and natural philosophy." The Junto seems to be the only surviving adult education institution with antecedents in colonial times. Such organizations as the American Philosophical Society, the Franklin Institute, the University of Pennsylvania, and the first American public library evolved from discussions at this club.

By the first quarter of the nineteenth century the idea of study groups, discussion clubs, and other such intellectual societies had proliferated deep into the mainstream of American life. But these groups were not the exclusive right of the period's intelligencia. Many were established as mechanics institutions, agricultural societies, and the like.

Perhaps no other institution made the impact of the American Lyceum. This movement began as the brainchild of Josiah Holbrook of Connecticut. He established the first town lyceum in Millbury, Massachusetts in 1826. By the year


29 Knowles, Adult Education Movement, p. 10.

30 Ibid.
1835, an estimated 3,000 town lyceums, 100 county lyceums, and 15 or 16 state
lyceums were operating. 31

The philosophy inherent in the lyceum movement was that in mutual pur­
suit of knowledge, its members (who shared in the teaching and learning experience)
may contribute to the betterment of themselves and their respective communities.
Although the lyceum was a powerful voice in support of the tax-supported public
school, it made another important contribution:

But the lyceum movement also left several permanent deposits in the main­
streams of American culture and, particularly, of adult education. It
spawned the idea of an integrated national system of local groups organized
primarily for adult educational purposes . . . . It developed an educational
technique, the lecture-forum, that was later to be adopted and extended by
such successors as the Chautauqua, university extension, and public forum
movements . . . . Perhaps it even suggested the idea of a national popular
movement for the advancement of adult education. 32

Other noteworthy contributions to the early development of adult educa­
tion in the United States were made through such organizations as churches, museums,
libraries, and adult evening schools. Though often shortlived, these meager begin­
nings set the precedent for future expansion and development. Indeed, it would be
most difficult to find even a single adult education organization in our present soci­
ety that does not owe at least part of its heritage to these early advancements.

Perhaps because adult education in the United States was from its onset
an ambiguously defined concept with a loosely organized structure, it is now rather
insecurely established. Today, adult education is a marginal program without

31 Ibid., pp. 16-17.

32 Ibid., p. 18.
clearly established goals and without the priority-listing of the school-age programs.

In broad terms, the primary mission of a public school system in the United States is the education of the young. Different school levels are accepted as legitimate concerns of tax-supported education on the basis of their part in the grades progression.33

This marginality is evident even at the university level. Livingston cites the example of the cautious acceptance of university extension by the Montana Legislature:

The Legislature has stated that the primary reason for the existence of the Montana University System is the education of the youth of the state of Montana. Taking the mandate from the Legislature, the state board of education, ex officio regents of the Montana University System has placed certain restraints upon the expansion of adult education in the state. One of these restraints is that each class offered must not interfere with the education of the youth of the state of Montana. A second restraint is the cost of each adult education class must, at the very least, break even and not constitute a cost of the offering Unit's instructional program.34

Clark lists six reasons for the peripheral status of adult education in California, but their universality probably makes them applicable to most other states:

1. Some evidence of marginality is indicated in the constitutional status of adult education.
2. As frequently happens with a new activity, adult education began as a secondary responsibility of administrators working with other programs.
3. A third symptom of marginality is the absence of separate plant facilities and other fixed capital.
4. The pressure of economy-minded interest groups is especially severe upon the adult school.

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5. The most important symptom of the present marginality of the adult school is the necessity of having to sell the program to the public and especially to other educators.

6. Since adult education is financed within high school and junior college districts, much of its budgetary support has been derivative and often unanticipated.\(^35\)

According to Landis and Willard, adult education in rural America suffers from the same problems of marginality and disunity.

It seems evident to us that there is no coherent movement of rural adult education in the United States. There are few spontaneous local developments. There are no folk developments with their roots deep in the soil, such as have taken place in some other countries. Among the people there exists no widespread conviction in regard to the values of adult learning. Furthermore, it would appear that the leadership does not exist yet which would make a widespread movement possible.\(^36\)

From their study of rural adult education, Landis and Willard suggested the following objectives for the establishment of a national program.

1. A greater degree of experimentation, particularly by existing organizations than is going on at present.
2. More contacts between rural adult educators which will enable them to educate each other.
3. The selection and direction of the research that is needed.
4. The development of greater financial resources by government and voluntary means.
5. Better planning and strategy on a state and county basis.
7. National guidance and consideration of the above and of the discussion of problems, methods and goals.\(^37\)

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\(^{35}\) Clark, Adult Education in Transition, pp. 58-60.


\(^{37}\) Ibid., p. 191.
In another study, Johnstone and Rivera made a case for a cohesive national format for adult education by stating that with some 25 million Americans engaged in adult education in one form or another, future prospects are unlimited.

It should be abundantly clear, then, that the potential audience for adult education is increasing at a much faster rate than the population as a whole. Just as in the fifties and sixties the regular school system had to tool up rapidly to accommodate the greatly increased numbers of young persons in the population, so too in the seventies and eighties adult education will be subject to greatly increased demands as this group moves into the social categories where greatest uses are made of adult education. 38

The 89th United States Congress passed a bill establishing the "Adult Education Act of 1966." Although the provisions of this act were largely restrictive (services limited to adults lacking secondary education certificates or their equivalent and not currently enrolled in school), its passage was a significant milestone in winning wider recognition and acceptance for adult education.

Section 302 of this act defines its purpose as:

...to encourage and expand basic educational programs for adults to enable them to overcome English language limitations, to improve their basic education in preparation for occupational training and more profitable employment, and to become more productive and responsible citizens. 40

In the 1969 amendments to this act, Section 302 is rewritten to extend its purpose as follows:

It is the purpose of this title to expand educational opportunity and encourage the establishment of programs of adult public education that will enable all adults to continue their education to at least the level of completion of

38 Johnstone and Rivera, Volunteers for Learning, pp. 1-20.


40 Ibid.
secondary school and make available the means to secure training that will enable them to become more employable, productive, and responsible citizens.\footnote{41}

While the 1966 act limited curriculums in adult basic education to programming through the eighth grade level, the amended act allowed for programming "at least to the level of completion of secondary school."

Landis and Willard, who called for the passage of similar measures some four decades ago, state succinctly the case for relevant adult education programming:

Adult education is clearly an instrument of personal and social adjustment, and a means of use to men and women who must search for new values—economic, social, intellectual, and spiritual. In these functions of adult education will perhaps be found its main reason for being and its chief significance.\footnote{42}


\footnotetext{42}{Landis and Willard, Rural Adult Education, p. 202.}
CHAPTER VI

PROCEDURES AND METHODS

This chapter is intended to examine the procedures and methods used in this study. The first section will include a procedural review of the steps taken in conducting the study. The second section will detail the methodology and will elaborate on the various techniques used in the data gathering.

Procedural Review

In the previous chapter it was learned that the reasons this study was conducted were: 1) To understand and catalog the dynamics of this new, intervening force in the community (the Crow Adult Education Coalition); and 2) To ascertain the goal-orientation of the program administrators and teachers. Because the program extended to both the Indian and non-Indian community, it was felt that the study would reflect: 1) The larger reservation community and some of its problems; and 2) The people, indigenous and nonindigenous, who attempt to solve these problems.

The study area was limited territorially to the Crow Indian Reservation of southcentral Montana and the town of Hardin. Within the exterior boundaries of the reservation there are six communities--five of which were associated with the coalition study. Only Fort Smith, located near the Yellowtail Dam, was excluded. The townsit of Hardin is located immediately adjacent to the reservation.
five reservation towns included in the study were: Wyola, Lodge Grass, Crow Agency, St. Xavier, and Pryor (see map next page).

Deciding on the participant sample for this study was difficult. For one thing, this was to be a study of educational programming--initially an administrative function. Yet, it is inescapable that without the teachers' involvement and cooperation, any programming, no matter how relevant, will fail. Therefore, it was decided that although the administrators would be the primary participants in the study, the teachers would also be included. The administrators were the primary participants since they alone were involved from the coalition's inceptive stages. The teachers' involvement started as the programs became operational. The participants included eight administrators and thirteen teachers.

There was some difficulty in divorcing the roles of administrator and teacher. In two cases the administrators in charge of the programs delegated some of their authority to their teachers once the programs began. These teachers then took on dual roles in the program. However, for the purpose of this study these individuals shall be considered as teachers. This is done for two reasons: 1) They were not instrumental in the design of the program and 2) their primary role was still as teacher.

A direct interview questionnaire was drawn up and pretested on two administrators with the Crow Tribe Community Action Program. After slight revision, it was shown to two members of the University of Montana Sociology Department who suggested adding a number of cross-check questions to insure more accuracy in gaining pertinent answers. When this was completed, the interviewing was started.
Initial interviewing with the administrators was begun in mid-October, 1970, and was completed within a month. A follow-up interview was conducted with the administrators towards the end of the program year. At this time, the teachers were also interviewed.

Besides the interviewing, the study involved numerous opportunities for less formal means of data gathering. This process of participant observation will be dealt with in greater detail in the next section.

Methodology

In the preface to Qualitative Methodology, the editor William J. Filstead states that his book has two purposes, the second of which is "to provoke those who measure everything and understand nothing." It is to this statement that the following brief discussion is offered.

When this study began it was intended that the personal interview schedule would be the primary tool in collecting the data. However, as time passed it became increasingly obvious that this method was, by itself, quite inadequate. For one thing, the formally prepared questionnaire, open-ended as it was, was capable of measuring only that information that was known to the informant at the time of the interview. Further, such questioning is biased to the degree that each informant consciously or unconsciously allows. If the personal interview is the sole means of collecting data, then it would appear that the subjective would

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43 William J. Filstead, Qualitative Methodology (Chicago: Markham Publishing Company, 1970), VII.
prevail over the objective in terms of the kind of data collected. It is vital that a research tool be employed that could give consideration to the total study. Equally important, it is essential that this apparatus be capable of measuring the involvement of the researcher in his study.

It is precisely this subjective versus objective quality that needs to be discussed. Any attempt at measuring behavioral aspects of human beings is going to involve a good deal of subjective interpretation. No matter how objective or precise one seeks to become in his study, he inevitably introduces his personal views and values into the experience. It is essential that this be recognized and accepted—certainly it should not be ignored. The day of the aloof statistician, the scientific voyeur, is passing. Of this Barnes states:

In brief, the division between those under the microscope and those looking scientifically down the eyepiece has broken down. There may still be an exotic focus of study but the group or institution being studied is now seen to be embedded in a network of social relations of which the observer is an integral if reluctant part.44

The advent of a more humanistic methodological approach to research, that is, participant observation, is making its bid. Although this method is not new, it is at last becoming recognized as a "legitimate" research tool within the social sciences.

In this study, which was intended to delve into the mechanics of the innovative organization as well as its participants, a tool was needed that would be available for use throughout the study. This writer was involved with the participants in a professional and nonprofessional sense and had been for at least a year before beginning work on this study. As such, participant observation was the natural vehicle through which to follow and record the course of the programs.

Of participant observation, Becker and Geer state:

The most complete form of the sociological datum, after all, is the form in which the participant observer gathers it: An observation of some social event, the events which precede and follow it, and explanations of its meanings by participants and spectators, before, during, and after its occurrence. Such a datum gives us more information about the event under study than data gathered by any other sociological method. Participant observation can thus provide us with a yardstick against which to measure the completeness of data gathered in other ways, a model which can serve to let us know what orders of information escape us when we use other methods. 45

Further, they state that:

One can observe actual changes in behavior over a period of time and note the events which precede and follow them. Similarly, one can carry on a conversation running over weeks and months with the people he is studying and thus become aware of shifts in perspective as they occur. In short, attention can be focused both on what has happened and on what the person says about what has happened. Some inference as to actual steps in the process or mechanisms involved is still required, but the amount of inference necessary is considerably reduced. Again, accuracy is increased and the possibility of new discoveries being made is likewise increased, as the observer becomes aware of more phenomena requiring explanation. 46


46 Ibid., p. 141.
The interviewing plan for this study included the use of a direct interview questionnaire. Informants were interviewed mostly in their offices. One informant refused to have his interview taped as were the others so it was necessary to write out his responses. Another informant wanted to study the questions before answering them. He was given a copy of the questions and returned the following day with his answers.

As mentioned, this initial interview questionnaire was given to only the administrators. Each of these people were, in one sense or another, involved from the beginning in the planning and implementation of this program. The participants in this phase of the study included the educational representative from the Crow Agency office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, four public school administrators, and three administrators from the Crow Tribe Community Action Program.

Questioning was directed towards establishing the goal-orientation of the participants. Similar questions were addressed in different ways so to insure the most adequate coverage of the topic. The attempt was to relate expressed goals of their former adult education experiences with their goals and feelings for this new venture, the coalitions. The questions were as follows:

1. What are your adult education program goals?
2. As you see it, will there be a redefinition of goals once you're working in a joint effort with others?
3. If so, what will the new goals be?
4. Do you think your present program is accomplishing its goals?
5. Do you think that this coalition will result in a higher quality program?

6. Is there, in your opinion, a regional (jurisdictional) conflict between yours and the other adult education programs?

7. Will this change once the coalition is established?

8. Is there a curriculum overlap between yours and the other adult education programs? In what regard?

9. What are the limitations of the coalition agreement?

10. Do you view this coalition as an imposition on your freedom to direct your program or are the conditions satisfactory to you in this regard?

11. Is there a difference in goals between yours and the other adult education programs? If so, what?

12. How were your program goals established?

13. Are these goals realistic?

14. How do you view the goals of the coalition?

15. How were they established?

Each of these interviews were held prior to the actual implementation of the program. However, by early December each coalition had classes underway.

Participant observation was employed as the basic research tool in the lengthy second phase of the study. This method was used throughout the preliminary stages of planning for the coalitions. As well, it carried through until the active study period ended in May, 1971.
My involvement in the coalitions was as a participant observer. As the director of the Supplemental Educational Services Center, adult education programming was an established function of my office and, as such, I was involved in the design and implementation of the coalitions from their beginnings. As part of the joint coalition administrative staff, observation of its function was assured.

'Whereas meaningful interpretation of events is sometimes problematic to the dispassionate interviewer, this is less the case with the participant observer. For one thing, the interviewer is never closer than one step away from the event he seeks to understand. On the other hand, the participant observer is living the event as well as influencing its direction. This distinction is an important one in this study. On this topic Becker and Geer state:

If an interviewee, for any of these reasons, cannot or will not discuss a certain topic, the researcher will find gaps in his information on matters about which he wants to know and will perhaps fail to become aware of other problems and areas of interest that such discussion might have opened up for him . . .

Researchers working with interview materials, while they are often conscious of these problems, cannot cope with them so well. If they are to deal with matters of this kind it must be by inference. They can only make an educated guess about the things which go unspoken in the interview; it may be a very good guess, but it must be a guess. They can employ various tactics to explore for material they feel is there but unspoken, but even when these are fruitful they do not create sensitivity to those problems of which even the interviewer is not aware. 47

In the early phase of this study, and immediately after the interviews were completed, it became quite clear that a sizable credibility gap was developing. At times, some of the coalition planners were given to wax eloquent about

their intentions for the program. Yet, some of their later actions belied their words. Had the second phase of the study not been included, and participant observation not used, the study would have undoubtedly concluded differently.

Research was done by attending meetings, planning sessions, workshops and other related functions. Notations of significant happenings were kept. Whenever possible, teachers as well as students were consulted about their classes. On one occasion a general workshop was held in which the administrators and teachers were in attendance. This opportunity provided an exceptional vehicle through which to participate in and observe the interactions of all the participants. All other meetings with teachers or students were done on an individual basis. Meetings with the administrators were more often individual, but a number of joint meetings with all or some of these people were held.

Informal or chance meetings with the majority of study participants were minimal. Usually meetings took place in the classroom or office and during working hours. Perhaps the primary reason for this was that most participants were married and middle-aged and more likely to stay at home after work hours. Then, too, this study was concerned with professional educators and their work. The classroom and the office were the legitimate laboratories in this respect.

Before concluding this discussion on methodology, it is important to consider the relationship between involvement and validity. It is extremely difficult to approach an involvement with participant observation and yet ignore some basic tenets of this involvement. That is, that the student must not overlook his responsibility to the cultural, traditional and broader sociological aspects of the people...
he aspires to study. It is the student's very sensitivity to these considerations that will make possible his acceptance into the group. Yet, in all this, he must maintain a certain objectivity towards the group and this is in the largest sense problematic.

Vidich relates to this problem as follows:

To the extent that a participant observer can participate and still retain a measure of noninvolvement, his technique provides a basis for an approach to the problem of validity. The background of information which he acquires in time makes him familiar with the psychology of his respondents and their social milieu. With this knowledge he is able to impose a broader perspective on his data and, hence, to evaluate their validity on the basis of standards extraneous to the immediate situation. To accomplish this, it is necessary that the participant observer be skeptical of himself in all data-gathering situations; he must objectify himself in relation to his respondents and the passing present. This process of self-objectification leads to his further alienation from the society he studies. Between this alienation and attempts at objective evaluation lies an approach to the problem of validity.

Yet, if sociology is indeed an involved science that supposedly attempts to relate to the community, then it must accept this tenet—that its students should join in and become a part of the processes they study. To remain aloof is to ignore this lesson. This, in one sense, is what is meant by "those who measure everything and understand nothing."

CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS: WORDS AND ACTION

One measure of a coalition's success rests with the ability of its members to establish realistic goals and then work cooperatively to meet these goals. Thus, it became the stated objective of this study to analyze the goal-orientations of the participants in the Crow Reservation Adult Education Coalition in light of their respective actions on behalf of the coalition programs. To summarize the last chapter, the study's relevant data base was obtained in two ways. First, a series of interviews were held with the coalition participants consisting of an initial interview with the program administrators and a follow-up interview with both the administrators and the teachers. Secondly, a participant observation study was done which lasted for the duration of the coalition's planning and operational phases.

This chapter will begin with a descriptive analysis of these two coalition phases: planning and operation. On the basis of this analysis, a summary section will deal with observations on the study's findings and present suggestions for further research.

The Coalition in Planning

A reading of the responses to the initial interview leaves one feeling cautiously optimistic about the coalition's chances for success. There is the stated
need: the one overriding concern to help the people improve themselves educationally and economically:

There's only one thing that we're shooting for, and that is for them to have some education so that they can go on and get better jobs. All the jobs around here are on farms and ranches where you don't need education. Adult education is what we want them to have to get better jobs.

The main thing I want for them is the opportunity to come and partake of what adult education that they're needing. I would assume there are people in this community that can't make too much sense out of a newspaper.

To help the people who don't have the education that they should have gotten years ago--their high school education, high school diploma.

The goals of adult education cover a wide area. It involves not only the adult person but also the family. One of our main problems is in the schools. A lot of our children are handicapped by some of the classroom work that they do. They're going through the same thing we went through. I think the average education level is around the eighth grade. When the child comes home with problems, the parent is not able to help the child with homework. So adult education could help here. Also, it can help the home environment by getting the parent interested in the child's education. You can look at it a lot of ways. If people can get a GED then more power to them, to help themselves. On our cards we list education as the number one priority.

Recognizing needs and setting goals are important exercises if the effort is to succeed. So, too, is an ensuing cooperative spirit between member agencies.

This (the coalition) has been a long-needed effort. Anytime that the school can work together with other agencies or people who are all working toward similar goals, I think that this is an advantage to the public and the taxpayers and everyone involved. It eliminates duplication in such things as this and there's too much of that already.

The more people you get involved, the more good it's going to do those concerned. The resources are wider and better. So are the communications. There's a larger joint effort in the program, and it can be considered our program when it involves the various agencies in the community, rather than just yours or mine.
We (any of us alone) don't have the time to spend on this and certainly not the background in adult education to direct the program the way it should be directed. So, I would think the program we have, with other agencies involved and the people who have had different backgrounds related to adult education, can all add an awful lot to the coalitions.

These and other similarly enthusiastic statements would seem to indicate a willingness on the part of the coalition administrators to work together for the common cause. Yet cooperation did not come easy. A consideration of some of the problems, as well as some of the highlights, in planning for the coalition will be discussed at this time.

Although no formal or signed agreement preceded the actual implementation of the coalition, a simple proposal draft was circulated among participant agencies and may rightly be considered the coalition's statement of intent. It read:

In the past the adult education programs on the Crow Reservation were divided between the various school districts, the Crow Tribe Community Action Program, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs. With this fact in mind we therefore propose that a supervisory committee of three (one from each agency) be formed to assume the following responsibilities:

1) Personnel hiring
2) Training programs
3) Curriculum planning
4) Supplies

Since interagency cooperation in the past has been minimal, we feel that the formation of this committee could greatly enhance interagency cooperation and promote a more successful adult education program.

With respect to this "supervisory committee of three," it needs to be pointed out that, although established, this committee did not function for very long. Instead, the eight administrators each participated in policy considerations whenever their individual or collective involvement was necessary.
The four areas of responsibility as mentioned in the coalition's statement of intent represented the total concern for the coalitions. The purpose of this study would best be served by considering each one separately.

**Personnel**

Perhaps no other concern caused more controversy than that of personnel hiring. If there was ever a marriage between participant agencies, this issue quickly ended the honeymoon. What had apparently started out as a cooperative venture of interested parties soon dissolved into an abrasive and vitriolic situation. This then was the first indication of a building dichotomy between the words and actions of the coalition's participants.

But briefly, we need to explore the root causes of this condition. The funding for personnel, i.e., teacher and teacher aide salaries, was gotten through a grant from the state ABE office in Helena. Grants were allocated on a ten percent local matching basis directly to the local educational agencies, --in this case, the Lodge Grass, Hardin, and Pryor public schools. The grant award was first approved for $25,000.00, but due largely to the late implementation of the program (December-January), only about two-thirds was finally appropriated.

Yet it was not the public schools that had asked for this money. The original proposal and approval was worked out with a representative of the Community Action Program and the state office. However, because the CAP could not receive the grant themselves, and because other local agencies either had or could have an involvement in adult education, the grant was made to the public schools. The preceding agreement was drawn up and the coalitions were born. Together,
by combining talents and resources, a more comprehensive program could be offered. This was simply the most expedient and logical way to attack the problem.

But a coalition is a delicate thing. And just because there is a common problem and a cause for cooperation, there is no guarantee that cooperation will ensue. In a coalition neither partner is bound to cooperate. Of this, the state ABE supervisor said:

... you're asking people to come together voluntarily for the purpose of cooperation. But there is really no need for them to come together—if a person doesn't see the need, there is no need.

As it was, the need to come together from the standpoint of one public school was far less than for the other partners. They had their money (it didn't seem to matter that it was gotten for them by another agency) and they could run their own program with much less interference if they did it themselves. Thus, why should they cooperate? Well, cooperation for cooperation's sake is certainly little inducement. However, there were other reasons and some did matter. For one thing, the other partners, especially the CAP, had experience in the area of adult education. They also had considerable contact with the Indian population and, as such, could provide the liaison between the program and the potential students. Certainly future funding was contingent on performance, success and outreach of this program. Further, they had more time available to spend on the everyday problems that might arise. The public school officials necessarily had to budget their time much more closely. Finally, the other partners were each
contributing considerable material resources to the program—resources that were not possible in the budgets of the public school ABE grants.

Yet, as was said, cooperation did not come easily. When the time came to hire teachers and aides, the coalition partnership became very taxed. Fortunately, however, the debate was only apparent in the Hardin coalition. For a period of perhaps two months tensions were heated. The problem centered around who should be hired and who should do the hiring. Voicing this concern, the Hardin superintendent also talked about some of the problems with cooperation between agencies in the past.

I get a little uptight when somebody hands me a piece of paper with a list of names of the people that they feel should go on into this program. I think that there should be a limitation as to how far each party of the coalition should go. This would have to be a give-and-take proposition. It's been difficult in the past for CAP and the public school to sit across the table and negotiate with one another. When you throw the BIA into it, it becomes an almost intolerable situation, because the BIA doesn't like to have the public school tell them what to do and vice versa. As long as I'm superintendent it might be all rosey and when the next guy comes along it might all go down the drain, or it might get better. I think we can come to some common goals but the public school has to be careful that it's within the ABE guidelines as they're spelled out to them.

Some concern was also raised about the possibility of political appointments to the teaching jobs.

I think the coalition will work, it's just a matter of working out some of the problems. But I don't want it to become a political appointee type of thing. The instructors have to be four-year degree type, and that's the way the guidelines read. The aides don't have to be, but still it should be kept out of local politics as much as it can be.

Partly because of this condition, the implementation of the programs was stalled. It took considerable compromise on the part of the CAP and BIA to avoid an all-out confrontation with the Hardin school. In the interest of the
larger program and its potential value to the community, a concession was made and the Hardin school's selection prevailed. As was mentioned, the Lodge Grass and Pryor coalitions' personnel hiring was not an issue and was mutually and agreeably settled.

**Training Programs**

Of the four coalition concerns, this was unquestionably the highlight. In terms of cooperation and mutual satisfaction, this interest was never in doubt. A well attended and informative workshop was planned and held in January for the benefit of the coalition administrators and teachers. The planning for this session progressed smoothly and efficiently as was demonstrated by the excellent attendance and commendable summary remarks. No attempt was made to hold another such session later in the year.

**Curriculum Planning**

The controversy over personnel hiring peaked and subsided before the actual implementation of the program. However, an issue quickly surfaced over curriculum that prevailed even into the operational phase of the program. The issue was over curriculum content and seemed to divide the administrators (and teachers) into two camps: those that would limit classes to adult basic education and those that would extend classes up to and including GED level studies.

It should be recalled that one of the reasons for the coalition's existence was to offer a program that would be broad enough to allow instruction in the widest area. While the state ABE program was officially limited to adult basic education
(eighth grade instruction and below), the CAP and BIA were not so limited. Thus, the CAP and BIA could extend instruction up to the GED level and beyond. Further, while it is true that the state limits were set at ABE levels, recognition and verbal approval were given by the state ABE supervisor to this extended purpose of the coalition. Therefore, channels were open for the coalition to fulfill its intended mission.

But despite these open channels, some public school administrators were still nervous:

I would have nothing against expanding the goals of ABE as I assume CAP and BIA would like to do. But we have to be careful that we don't run into trouble with official policy. Personally, I would prefer going to the GED level.

Another public school administrator who was running an adult education program prior to the organization of the coalition had this to say about the state guidelines for ABE:

We're deviating from them quite frankly, from the written guidelines by training for GED's. Right now it's not with the guidelines. If anybody asked me, I'd say we're training for eighth grade competency.

These administrative insecurities were passed on to the instructors who, in turn, were reluctant to teach beyond ABE levels. Even during the January workshop, one administrator who unquestionably was aware of the contrary, made the statement that "unfortunately no vehicle was available to offer other than ABE coursework." The result of this conflict was that four of the instructors (out of thirteen) taught only ABE level courses. And, while there was an abundance of GED level instructional materials available to the teachers, some were reluctant to use them in their classes.
The problem with this conflict over curricular levels, as with the one over personnel hiring, is that its importance became over-exaggerated. In the heat of the argument, some of those involved forgot that they were supposed to be doing all this on a community-needs basis. Surely there was a need for both ABE and GED level instruction. Putting this into perspective, one administrator said:

I would like to expand the program so it isn't just reading, writing and math, although basically that's what many of them are weak in, especially reading. They've found the reading level around fifth or sixth grade. I've tried to get an adult education fund established with a one mill levy but here we're still stuck with the state goals of ABE.

Supplies

There were three sources of supplies for the coalitions: the state ABE grants that had money for basic education materials, the CAP that supplied GED level materials, and the BIA that provided typewriters and facilities to reproduce other written materials.

Money was not an issue in the purchase of materials and supplies. Indeed, a substantial amount was unspent at the conclusion of the program. What was problematic for some was the kind of materials available. Plans to locally develop materials for the coalition programs did not materialize. The CAP and BIA spent a lot of time researching the products on the market and buying those that looked promising. Many of these materials were reproduced by the hundreds and distributed to the centers. However, many of these materials were found to be inadequate or of limited appeal to the students.

This calls up another problem. Adult education is a wondrously unexplored discipline. And it is impossible to predict success or failure of class
materials (or teaching methods) without first going through a period of trial and error. There is no limit to the numbers and kinds of materials available on the market. But relatively few have any relevancy to the rural community. I have never seen any that quite fit the needs on the Crow Reservation. Consequently, what is needed is a long-range plan to locally develop class materials that are meaningful to the people of this area. Experiences like the coalitions have a significant value to this end. Hopefully, what didn't work one year will be modified to work the next; and what is learned about this process will not be forgotten.

The Coalition in Operation

While personnel, training, curriculum and supplies were significant issues to the coalitions during planning, the operational phase can best be treated by considering the performances of each of the adult education centers.

The Lodge Grass Coalition

Wyola. — This center would probably rate better than most others. The teacher had previously taught adult education on a volunteer basis for a program run by the CAP the year before. She was a dedicated and creative instructor. Attendance was well maintained throughout the year, with a drop-off rate of less than forty per cent. This fact may at first seem discouraging, but compared to the coalitions' average drop-off rate of seventy-five per cent, it is quite good. Instruction was through the GED level. Also, community-based open sessions were held that ranged from first aid to classes on drug addiction. This teacher
rated her program as "very, very successful."

**Lodge Grass.**-- The Lodge Grass center did not fare nearly so well. Both teachers were inexperienced in adult education instruction although both worked hard to provide quality coursework. Class attendance was poor from the start and completely dropped off in about mid-year. A subsequent attempt to initiate a community class in drug and alcoholic problems was abandoned after two sessions. While instruction was mostly in the GED area, teacher dissatisfaction with limited class materials was noted.

**The Hardin Coalition**

**Crow Agency.**-- This center started with some forty-five to fifty students and by mid-May was down to five to eight. Despite some student requests for GED coursework, most instruction was in the ABE areas. The supervising teacher (there were two instructors) would not extend his instruction to the GED. In his words, "We're not supposed to go beyond the eighth grade." Regrettably, this teacher would not accept any of the materials made available to his center by the CAP and BIA. Instead, materials from the elementary grade school were used. The other teacher was unnecessarily stifled by this limitation but, on her own, did offer some GED instruction. Additionally, help was given by a number of Teacher Corps people who were working at the school.

**St. Xavier.**-- The St. Xavier center employed a VISTA as its instructor. The center also had a teacher aide. Instruction was given through the GED level. Despite the availability of a variety of teaching materials, an accomplished
teacher and a community teacher aide, attendance was never very good. However, rating this center as anything but successful would be unfair. During the year, the community of St. Xavier blossomed with community interest and involvement. The teacher aide became a spokesman and leader who, with the help of the VISTA's, established and maintained a community center with new projects and new challenges. An alcoholic program and an older citizens' center were funded. As well, classes in cooking and arts and crafts beadwork were begun. Although it is difficult to credit any one thing for this new-found community impetus, the adult education classes may well have contributed significantly.

Hardin.-- While this center was in the largest community, the attendance was so poor that two of the three teachers quit for lack of students. The reasons for this are probably many-fold. But a trend had been observed over the past two years that might explain part of the problem. The smaller communities of Wyola, St. Xavier and Pryor had better attendance than the larger communities of Lodge Grass, Crow Agency and Hardin.

These smaller towns seem to support local events best. Perhaps it is because there is less happening in these places that the people show more interest. The larger towns have any number of attractions going on at any one time. Also, it is harder to inform the residents of the larger towns than it is to reach the people of the smaller ones. Consequently, a town the size of Hardin with about 3,000 people and maybe thirty varying attractions will support one with less enthusiasm than will a town like St. Xavier with about 100 people and maybe two or three attractions.
In the Hardin center two of the instructors had never before taught adult education classes. The other had taught adult education classes in Hardin for about three years. By the conclusion of this program, some three people had successfully completed the GED tests.

The Pryor Coalition

Pryor.-- The teacher in the Pryor center was also new at teaching adults. There were two community teacher aides here and this undoubtedly helped in gaining students, although little active recruiting was done by them. However, attendance fell off towards the end of the program. Classes were limited to the ABE level and after the third month most instruction was in basic math. Perhaps because of such limited instruction, student enthusiasm waned and eventually attendance dropped.

In reflecting on his first year of instructing adults, this teacher remarked that it would be best to devote no less than half of one's time to this effort as opposed to "moonlighting" for a couple hours at night. Taking his own advice, he came to quit his job as a full-time reading teacher to accept another full-time job, that of supervising and teaching at the adult education center in Pryor for the coming year.

The Follow-Up Interview

Towards the conclusion of the coalitions' program year, a follow-up interview was held with the teachers and administrators. Discussions during the interviewing centered around the programs' organization and performance. Concern
over curriculum, materials, recruiting and class attendance was vocalized most often at this time. Some interesting observations were made:

**On Curriculum.**—While eight participants said they emphasized GED course-work, seven of these were teachers. It did not appear that the teachers were as intimidated by "official" guidelines as were the administrators. Teachers repeatedly pointed out that students wanted GED instruction, but at the same time some cautioned that many of these students were not ready for this advanced study.

Four other teachers said they concentrated on the basic education courses. Two others said their curriculums were all-inclusive and consisted of courses other than just ABE and GED, i.e., consumer education, drug abuse, typing, etc.

**On Materials.**—Only two individuals out of sixteen responding said they felt their materials were good. Of those that said the materials were poor, many felt that they were not adequate once they began to rate the emerging needs of the students. Six other teachers felt the materials were satisfactory or adjusted the coursework to fit the materials.

**On Recruiting.**—Of ten people who voiced concern about this issue, none felt that recruiting methods were good while nine said they were poor. Interestingly, none of the centers followed the recommendation of the January coalition workshop that community teacher aides be paid for each student they recruit and maintain in class for eight weeks. A number of people said that they did not continue to recruit students once classes began. Others said they simply did not know how to recruit more students.
On Class Attendance.—While only one person felt attendance was
good, most others felt it was not. In almost every case attendance dropped
sharply towards the end of the year. Reported attendance for the beginning of
the year was about 170 students, while at the end it was down to about forty
students. These figures, although approximate, show a drop of more than
seventy-five per cent. Some of the reasons for this decline were: babysitting
problems, job interference, student apathy, dissatisfaction with course content
and irrelevant materials.

Personal Observations

As it turned out, the Crow Reservation Adult Education Coalition
was more an exercise in community involvement than it was in providing a
responsive adult education experience. In this light, we should review some
of its accomplishments.

The coalition was the first educational cooperative on this reserva-
tion. It brought together three traditional rivals: the Bureau of Indian Affairs,
the Crow Tribe Community Action Program, and the three reservation school sys-
tems. But, in bringing these agencies and their representatives together, the
coalition forced people to vocalize their animosities, to express their fears and
suspicions of each other and, finally, to begin to look for ways to resolve dif-
fierences and start moving ahead. One year after the coalition ended, the
reservation's educational community, including all of the above and some other
quasi-educational agencies, formed an educational commission to oversee all
aspects of reservation education. It is more than coincidence that this commission
came on the heels of the coalition experiment. I think it is fair to say that the
time was ready for these cooperative ventures. The coalition, with all its trials
and tribulations, was just the first act.

The coalition was the first funded adult education project on the reserva-
vation that included all of the reservation in its jurisdiction. The effect of this
joint exercise was to raise adult education out of obscurity and into the light.
The year following the coalition, a grant was approved by the Office of Education,
HEW, for a full-time, year-round adult education program for the reservation.
This grant proposal was written by three of the coalition's administrators.

By quantitative measure, the coalition enjoyed only few successes.
Not more than six or seven people passed the GED tests and received high school
 equivalency diplomas. One girl passed a nursing school admissions test and was
accepted for training. A couple others passed drivers' tests and became licensed
drivers.

The coalition's goals were set to provide a relevant adult education
program for the reservation's communities and this record is mute evidence of its
poor accomplishment in this regard. This does, however, point up the need for
more community involvement and more research. The reservation needs an adult
education program and its people have to continue looking for the best way to
satisfy that need. Certainly more expertise is needed, both in the administrative
and instructional fields.
This study pointed out the problems with curriculum, materials, recruiting and class attendance. Ways must be found to overcome these problems. If class attendance is poor because people have trouble getting babysitters (as was noted), then perhaps the program could provide this service.

If students become apathetic because class materials are not relating to their needs, then it should become a priority to develop better materials. If not enough students are coming to class, then recruiting methods need to be improved. These are all very difficult tasks but they must each be dealt with.

While the coalition participants may have fallen short of some of their goals, they at least took the necessary first steps in dealing with these issues. What remains to be seen is whether the newer programs will carry on the challenge.

Suggestions for Further Research

A significant beginning might have been made in bringing people together through their involvement in the coalitions. To be able to catalog such experiences is a privilege not afforded to very many. But much more research is needed in this area if we are to increase our understanding and knowledge about the dynamics of social and organizational interaction. Researchers must make a commitment to go into communities more as participants in the community's life than as voyeurs seeking to measure this life from their lofty perches. All this has been said before many times over, but few seem willing or able to exchange their words for action.
RESOURCE AND READING APPENDIX
APPENDIX A

SURVEY FORMATS AND TALLYING PROCEDURES

This appendix, which is a follow-up to Chapter I, will include abbreviated versions of three survey formats: the interview, the questionnaire, and the interview schedule. Each will be tallied for reference by the reader.

Survey Formats

A Sample Interview

Interviewer: (After introducing himself, he explains why he is conducting the survey and, perhaps, follows this with some casual conversation to relax the interviewee).

Since many people expressed a desire to see an adult education center established in our community, we felt it would be important to find out exactly what kind of program people want. What do you think about the idea?

Interviewee: Well, I think it's a real good idea. I could sure use it.

Interviewer: You say you could use it. In what way?

Interviewee: Well, I never finished high school. I work nights, but if you people have day classes, I'd sure like to come and see if I could get my diploma.

Interviewer: How many years of schooling did you complete?

Interviewee: I quit in the tenth grade.

Interviewer: And what kind of work do you do now?

Interviewee: I'm a laborer with the city. Been one off and on for nearly seven years. Before that I was in the Service for four years.

Interviewer: Do you mind telling me more about yourself and about what you would like to do if you got your high school diploma.
Interviewee: I'm 29 years old, I grew up on a farm in Iowa and ran off to join the Army when I was 17. I'm married and have three kids. I'd like to go to electronics school. In the Service I was an electronics technician but I couldn't get a job on the outside because I didn't have a diploma.

Interviewer: Well, it seems as though your work would be cut out for you. If you want a degree, you could enroll in a GED course where you would get instruction in high school related classes. At the same time you could take some refresher courses in electronics, if you'd like.

Interviewee: I'd like that very much.

This sample interview, although very brief, is intended to convey a casual and easy-flowing conversational approach. The interviewer listens for clues as to what the interviewee wants, where he's been, and so on. If a topic seems interesting, the interviewer pursues it. If he feels he must guide the conversation to a different subject, he does that. Although the interviewer usually knows what kinds of information he needs, he allows the conversation to approach the subject naturally rather than force it. At times when it appears the interviewee does not know what he needs (as in the case of a person wanting a high school diploma but not knowing what courses he needs), the interviewer mentions the possibilities.

A Sample Questionnaire

Adult Education Questionnaire

In order that we may establish an effective and responsive adult education program for our community, we are asking that interested persons complete and mail in this questionnaire. Courses will be scheduled on the basis of needs and interests as expressed on this form.
1. Are you interested in attending adult education classes?
   yes

2. If so, please check your area(s) of interest.

   ___ A. Adult Basic Education (ABE) studies
       basic reading ____ basic math ____ English ____
       other (specify) ____________________________

   ___ x B. General Educational Development (GED) studies
       (for persons desiring high school equivalency diplomas)
       reading ____ math ____ English __
       social studies ____ natural sciences ____
       other (specify) ____ writing ________,

   ___ x C. Vocational–Technical Education studies
       business and office occupations ____
       data processing occupations ____
       health occupations ____
       trade and industrial occupations ____
       technical occupations ____
       other (specify) ____ food services ______

   ___ D. College-level studies
       creative writing ____ humanities
       sociology ____ business
       biology ____ T.V. and radio
       other (specify) ______________________
       ____________________________

   ___ E. Avocational studies
       arts and crafts ____ family camping
       fly tying ____ mountain climbing
       other (specify) ______________________
       ____________________________

   ___ F. Forum on Community Affairs
       (seminars, planning sessions, group activities
       dealing with important community issues)

   ___ G. Other (specify)
       ________________________________
       ________________________________
3. When could you attend classes?
   ____ mornings  ____ afternoons  ____ evenings

4. What days?
   ____ Monday  ____ Tuesday  ____ Wednesday  ____ Thursday
   ____ Friday  ____ Saturday

   Personal Information

5. Number of years formal schooling: ____10____

6. Degrees held, if any: ____none____

7. Are you presently employed? ____yes____

8. What is your vocation or profession? ____Dietician Aide____

9. Do you want additional training in your present field?
   ___x_____; in a new field? __________

10. Additional comments:
    I want to be a dietician but I need work on writing, grammar and English.

(Would you like to teach adults? Or work in some other capacity in our adult education program? Do you have a building large enough to house some of our classes? The adult education program is looking for people interested in working with this center, either as full-time, part-time, or volunteer workers. We also need material and financial assistance. Interested? Let us know.)

A Sample Interview Schedule

Interviewer: You may have heard that the neighborhood adult education center is considering the possibility of expanding into vocational-technical education. If it's all right with you, I'd like to ask you some questions specifically about this plan.

Interviewee: Go right ahead

Interviewer: Would you personally be interested in attending any vo-tech classes or do you know anyone who would?
Interviewee: Yes, I would like to.

Interviewer: What courses are you interested in?

Interviewee: Secretarial, I'd like some shorthand and typing classes.

Interviewer: Are you presently employed?

Interviewee: No, I'm still in high school. But I'll graduate this year.

Interviewer: Do you know anyone else I could interview?

Interviewee: Sure, I could give you the names of my friends. I know some who would also be interested in such classes.

While the sample questionnaire covered a larger scope in its questions, the interview schedule was limited to only one special area—vo-tech. Either could be longer or shorter, depending on the kind of information you seek.

Tallying Procedures

The Sample Interview

The interviewee expressed an interest in the proposed adult education program. He said he did not finish high school, having quit in the tenth grade. He would like to complete high school through the program if classes could be held during the day. Also, he had some training and experience in electronics while in the Service. He is 29 years old, works as a laborer with the city, married and has three children.

The Sample Questionnaire

This person is also interested in attending adult education
classes. The respondent is a high school dropout (10th grade), working as a dietician aide. The person wants GED work, especially in English and writing, and additional education in food services study. Finally, the person prefers evening classes during the week.

The Sample Interview Schedule

This person was asked about her interest in attending vo-tech classes and indicated her willingness. She is a high school senior and wants secretarial training, especially in shorthand and typing.

If we assume, for the purpose of our discussion on tallying the foregoing surveys, that these three interviews were held in the same community and for the same program, we could tally them as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adult Education Survey</th>
<th>Numerical Tally</th>
<th>Percentage Tally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number interested in program</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not interested in program</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education: less than nine years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine thru twelve years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve years or more</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education courses preferred</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GED studies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vo-Tech</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electronics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>food services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secretarial</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Prefers classes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During the day</td>
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<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evenings</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekdays</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personal Data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed or Other (students, retired)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with present employment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wants new occupation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wants better position in same occupation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of course, any real survey would have included many more responses, and perhaps more questions, than this sample provided. The following is a suggested reading list on the subject of community surveys, survey analysis and related topics.

**Suggested Readings**


APPENDIX B

RESOURCES: WHERE THEY ARE

This appendix is a follow-up to Chapter II. The following topical outline lists community resource agencies by general category. The reader is invited to complete the list by adding in the names of specific resource organizations from his community that can be or have been of help to his program.

Community Resources

Civic, Professional, and Social Organizations

Included here would be community chest organizations, neighborhood councils, charitable organizations, fraternal organizations, women's groups, businessmen's organizations, and so on. Examples might include: American Legion and other veterans' organizations, Toastmasters' Clubs, Planned Parenthood, Federation of Women's Clubs, etc.

Readers' List:

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

123

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Commercial Organizations

These are profit-oriented enterprises such as: wholesale and retail businesses, manufacturing companies, industries, financial institutions, and so on. Examples would be: banks, department stores, restaurants, school supply manufacturers, wood products companies and other business concerns. Readers' List:

__________________________________________
__________________________________________
__________________________________________

Educational Institutions

This group would include all public, tax-supported schools, colleges and Universities, private schools, parochial schools, trade schools, libraries, etc. Some examples would include: county high schools, business colleges, community colleges, vocational-technical centers, city libraries, and the like. Readers' List:

__________________________________________
__________________________________________
__________________________________________

Governmental Agencies and Offices

Included here would be city and county-wide government offices: local offices of state, regional and federal government agencies; and public utilities. Some examples would be: city councils, county commissioners' office, community councils, planning commissions, county welfare offices, parks and recreational agencies, police departments, city health departments, community action agencies, legal services offices, gas and electrical utilities, and so on. Readers' List:

__________________________________________
__________________________________________
__________________________________________
Other Community Groups or Individuals

Readers' List:

Access to Other Resources

The following is a selective list of catalogs, directories, reference works and periodicals that can provide the reader with information about program funding or other resource possibilities.

Catalogs and Directories


Periodicals

Adult Leadership, the Adult Education Association of the United States of America, 810 Eighteenth St., Washington, D.C. 20006, published monthly (except July and August).

American Vocational Journal, American Vocational Association, 1510 H St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005, published monthly, September through May.

Community Education Journal, the Pendell Company, Midland, Michigan, published quarterly.

Continuous Learning, The Canadian Association for Adult Education, Corbett House, 238 St. George St., Toronto 5, Ontario, published bimonthly.

Reference Works


Suggested Readings


APPENDIX C

USING INDIGENOUS CLASS MATERIALS

In Chapter II the statement was made that quality programming is a function of creativity, not of finance. In other words, one cannot expect to buy a successful adult education program as one would purchase a fine car or beautiful house. It is the creative energy of the program's leadership and teachers that will provide the measure for success. This is a hard-learned lesson for many, especially when it comes to buying and making class materials. Educators have spent virtual fortunes buying new and expensive educational systems only to discover belatedly that their students were getting more out of dimestore comics. As such, educators have a responsibility to know their students, to know their needs and interests, and to provide them with the appropriate educational curricula. One way is by making and using indigenous class materials—those that relate to the students' present life style.

There are optimum ways in which to utilize indigenous materials. It is a function of the educators' job to search out these better ways. As an illustration, consider the teaching of reading. If the student is a reservation Indian, teach him how to read and understand land lease contracts. These contracts will probably mean more to him than any textbook. Since part of his livelihood is derived from leasing his land, learning to read the contracts will have an immediate import for him above and beyond the reading lesson. If the
students are migrant workers, teach them to read their work contracts. When working with people who live in poor neighborhoods, teach them how to read and interpret their rental leases. Such lessons are valuable because they extend beyond the classroom.

Many students set long-range goals for themselves. They want to pass the GED tests, or they want to go to college, or they want a specific job. Too many of these students become frustrated and quit long before they ever reach their goals. For some, this happens because they see no immediate purpose in what they have to do to accomplish whatever it is they want. By using indigenous materials, and by using materials that are relevant to the students' present experience, the teacher insures against the lesson becoming just an empty academic exercise.

Of course, few programs have the time or resources to produce all the class materials that they need. Nor should they. There are many products and materials on the market that are well-conceived and worthwhile. Used in conjunction with or as supplements to the indigenous class materials, these bought materials can be an invaluable asset to the program. In this light, it should become a priority to establish a well-rounded materials library for the program to give the curriculum both variety and depth.

**Adult Education Instructional Materials: Publishers' List**

The following is a reference list of publishers that market adult education instructional materials.
Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc.
2725 Sand Hill Road
Menlo Park, California 94025

Allied Education Council
5533 Woodlawn Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60637

American Book Co.
Lancaster, Texas

American Education Publication
Education Center
Columbus, Ohio 43216

American National Red Cross
17th and D Street
Washington, D.C. 20006

American Petroleum Institute
1271 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10020

Ann Arbor Publishers
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.
35 West 32nd Street
New York 1, New York

Association Films, Inc.
25358 Cypress Avenue
Hayward, California 94544

Barnell Loft, Ltd.
11 South Centre Avenue
Rockville Centre, L.I.
New York, New York 11571

Behavioral Research Lab.
Ladera Professional Center
P.O. Box 577
Palo Alto, California 94302

Brystol Myers Company
45 Rockefeller Plaza
New York, New York 10020

Bureau of Publications
Teachers College
Columbia University Press
525 W. 125th Street
New York 29, New York

California Test Bureau
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, California

Campana Corporation
Batavia, Illinois

Canadian Consulate General
333 Montgomery Street
San Francisco, California

Center for Cultural Studies
Adam State College
Alamosa, Colorado

Cereal Institute, Inc.
135 LaSalle Street
Chicago, Illinois 60603

Charles E. Merrill
1300 Alum Creek Drive
Columbus, Ohio 43216

Chevron Film Library
18 P.O. Place
Salt Lake City, Utah 84101
Laidlaw Brothers  
Thatcher and Madison Avenue  
River Forest, Illinois 60305

Lilly-Tulip Cup Corporation  
New York  
New York

Lippincott, J.B. Company  
East Washington Square  
Philadelphia 5, Pennsylvania

Lyons & Carnahan  
267 South Pasadena Avenue  
Pasadena, California 91105

Macmillan Company  
60 Fifth Avenue  
New York 11, New York

National Dairy Council  
Chicago  
Illinois 60606

National Education Association  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20036

National Foundation  
March of Dimes, 800 2nd Avenue  
New York, New York 10017

New Readers Press  
112 East Fayette Street  
Syracuse, New York

New York State Dept. of Social Welfare  
112 State Street  
Albany, New York 12201

Modern Talking Picture Service  
444 Mission Street  
San Francisco, California 94105

Mountain States Telephone Films & Educational Aides  
77 East 1st South  
Salt Lake City, Utah 84111

National Assoc. for Public School Adult Education  
1201 Sixteenth St., N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20036

Research Club in Language  
3038 North University Building  
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Richards, Frank E., Publishers  
Phoenix  
New York

Ross Laboratories  
Columbus  
Ohio 43216

Row, Peterson & Company  
Write to:  
Harper & Row  
P.O. Box 370  
Pleasanton, California

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Suggested Readings


Fleenor, Beatty Hope. Adult Education in Agriculture Through Evening Schools Conducted By Department of Vocational Agriculture. Topeka, Kansas: State Printing Plant, 1932.


BIBLIOGRAPHY AND SUGGESTED READINGS


Fleenor, Beatty Hope. Adult Education in Agriculture Through Evening Schools Conducted By Department of Vocational Agriculture. Topeka, Kansas: State Printing Plant, 1932.


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