

Steps in participatory action research

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The participatory action research (PAR) process is deceptively simple as it leads people to develop creative, perhaps profound outcomes (James, Milenkiewicz, & Bucknam, 2008, James, Slater & Bucknam, 2011).

Step one: Discover what you can from reflection, conversation, and research about all that is known about your topic. To this end, the Future(s) of Education website has a discover tab where we upload others best thinking about "How best to prepare ALL our children for the world they will inherit?"

Step two: Measurable Action: First, plan and execute beginning actions to advance your ideas and test their efficacy. These may be small simple steps like interviewing people who have authority to determine the likelihood in their eyes of success. These may also be enlisting help to begin an entirely new form of education in your part of the world. Simultaneously you: a) measure your baseline from where you begin to move towards your goals, and b) set up regular measurement so that you successfully track your progress towards those goals.

Step four: Reflect, individually and as a group on what you know today that you did not know when you started this cycle. Envision the next goals you wish to investigate, gather you participants, share your reflections and then begin again.

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Participatory action research

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Participatory action research – or **action research** – is a recognized form of experimental research that focuses on the effects of the researcher's direct actions of practice within a participatory community with the goal of improving the performance quality of the community or an area of concern.^[1]

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Overview

Action research involves utilizing a systematic cyclical method of planning, taking action, observing, evaluating (including self-evaluation) and critical reflection prior to planning the next cycle (O'Brien, 2001; McNiff, 2002). The actions have a set goal of addressing an identified problem in the workplace, for example, reducing the illiteracy of students through use of new strategies (Quigley, 2000) or improving communication and efficiency in a hospital emergency room (Eisenberg, Baglia, Pyrnes, 2006). It is a collaborative method to test new ideas and implement action for change. It involves direct participation in a dynamic research process, while monitoring and evaluating the effects of the researcher's actions with the aim of improving practice (Dick, 2002; Checkland & Holwell, 1998; Hult & Lennung, 1980). At its core, action research is a way to increase understanding of how change in one's actions or practices can mutually benefit a community of practitioners (McNiff, 2002; Reason & Bradbury, 2001; Carr & Kemmis 1986; Masters, 1995).

"Essentially Participatory Action Research (PAR) is research which involves all relevant parties in actively examining together current action (which they experience as problematic) in order to change and improve it. They do this by critically reflecting on the historical, political, cultural, economic, geographic and other contexts which make sense of it. ... Participatory action research is not just research which is hoped that will be followed by action. It is action which is researched, changed and re-researched, within the research process by participants. Nor is it simply an exotic variant of consultation. Instead, it aims to be active co-research, by and for those to be helped. Nor can it be used by one group of people to get another group of people to do what is thought best for them - whether that is to implement a central policy or an organisational or service change. Instead it tries to be a genuinely democratic or non-coercive process whereby those to be helped, determine the purposes and outcomes of their own inquiry." - Wadsworth, Y. (1998)

The "research" aspects of PAR attempt to avoid the traditional “extractive” research carried out by universities

and governments where “experts” go to a community, study their subjects, and take away their data to write their papers, reports and theses. Research in PAR is ideally BY the local people and FOR the local people. Research is designed to address specific issues identified by local people, and the results are directly applied to the problems at hand. The case study is often used as a research method as part of PAR.

PAR proceeds through repeated cycles, in which researchers and the community start with the identification of major issues, concerns and problems, initiate research, originate action, learn about this action and proceed to a new research and action cycle. This process is a continuous one. Participants in Action Research projects continuously reflect on their learning from the actions and proceed to initiate new actions on the spot. Outcomes are very difficult to predict from the outset, challenges are sizeable and achievements depend to a very large extent on researcher’s commitment, creativity and imagination.

Examples of action research projects dissertations and masters thesis can be easily found by searching the internet. Some universities host sites where the best example of this form of research in corporate and university organizations], and school communities.

PAR should not be confused with PRA - Participatory rural appraisal. PRA is an assessment technique that could form part of a PAR process, but does not encompass the full action-reflection cycle.

Origins

PAR has many of its roots in social psychology. It builds on the Action research and Group Dynamics models developed by psychologist Kurt Lewin in the early-to-mid 1900s, as well as on the study of oral culture by such scholars as Milman Parry and Walter J. Ong. At its core, PAR revolves around three sets of relationships: relations between individuals within communities and groups, relations between those groups and communities, and relations between people and their physical environment. Management of group dynamics in its many aspects thus plays a central role in PAR processes, and PAR practitioners/facilitators must have a strong foundation in this field.

PAR builds on the critical pedagogy put forward by Paulo Freire as a response to the traditional formal models of education where the “teacher” stands at the front and “imparts” information to the “students” that are passive recipients. This was further developed in "adult education" models throughout Latin America. Friere (1990) wrote,

"The silenced are not just incidental to the curiosity of the researcher but are the masters of inquiry into the underlying causes of the events in their world. In this context research becomes a means of moving them beyond silence into a quest to proclaim the world."

Based on the work of Freire, it was Colombian sociologist Orlando Fals-Borda who gave PAR its worldwide recognition by organizing the first PAR conferences in Cartagena, Colombia. Based on his research with peasant groups in rural Boyaca and with other underserved groups, Fals-Borda was able to effectively incorporate the "Community Action" component into the research plans of many traditionally trained researchers. It was not until then that communities started to fully appreciate the benefits of this approach which had initially seemed too abstract for many.

Antonio Gramsci is less known for, yet very important in contributing to PAR. Gramsci, writing in early 20th century Italy, argued that all people are intellectuals and philosophers. "Organic intellectuals" is how he terms people who take their local knowledge from life experiences, and use that knowledge to address changes and problems in society. The idea that PAR researchers are really co-learners and researchers with the people they meet in the research process promotes the validity that all people are intellectuals who develop intricate

philosophies through lived experience.

PAR also has its roots in phenomenology and postmodernism. These movements validated experience as a valid way of knowing, very much the foundation of the "action-reflection" model of Experiential learning and the PAR process. PAR is part of an important shift in paradigm from the traditional, positivist, science paradigm which arose to bring certainty and verifiability to research questions, to postpositivism which recognizes and tries to address complex human and social problems.

Finally, PAR has origins within the development discourse.

Recent developments

PAR has evolved through the 1990s and into the 21st century as it has been applied to various fields within international development. For example, participatory plant breeding (PPB) and participatory technology development (PTD) are two techniques that utilize PAR approaches. Other research approaches that often fall under the label of PAR include participatory research, critical action research, classroom action research, action learning, action science, soft systems approaches, and industrial action research (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000). Additionally, more methods have been developed to add nuance and solidify key processes of "how" to do PAR, such as participatory development communication (PDC) and participatory video(PV). Practitioners have also recently tried to move away from the word "research" because of its extractive connotations and abstract meaning to many community and group members. Thus new names (with some new elements) are being used, such as "participatory action learning", "participatory learning-action", and "participatory action development".

PAR is a popular method used in teaching adult learners in low-income communities, and others how to explore, challenge, and react to their own needs. It is gaining popularity among community youth workers, as well as middle and senior high school teachers as a successful methodology for engaging youth voice in the classroom. According to Torre & Fine (2005), "Youth PAR projects are typically centered on issues of intimate, structural violence: educational justice, access to quality healthcare, the criminalization of youth, gang violence, police brutality, race/gender/sexuality oppression, gentrification and environmental issues." PAR is also increasingly used in service learning projects and provides the basis for a variety of secondary approaches such as Triple Task Method.

Critique

Many, such as Peter L. Berger and Robert Chambers, point out the intrinsically political nature of PAR. Participation is empowerment and empowerment is politics. Furthermore, it is very difficult for PAR to fully extricate itself from the researcher-community relationship that in itself affects local power dynamics. Community participation in such a context should be recognized for what it is - an externally motivated political act.

"However much the rhetoric changes to participation, participatory research, community involvement and the like, at the end of the day there is still an outsider seeking to change things... who the outsider is may change but the relation is the same. A stronger person wants to change things for a person who is weaker. From this paternal trap there is no complete escape." (Chambers 1983)

However, in some cases, the participatory researcher may actually be a part of the community whose realities are being transformed. In Oakland, California, for example, Kitty Kelly Epstein is a longtime local resident, a grassroots activist and a participatory researcher. She has used the combination of these three roles successfully to help change policies and power dynamics.^[2]

Others would point to the irony of citing participatory evangelist Chambers, ally of the World Bank, in a section on critique. Arturo Escobar argues that concepts of participation and sustainability only help to foster a gentler image of development than usual. In some situations, as highlighted by Diane Rocheleau, participatory methods can also serve as Trojan horses to bring global and environmental restructuring processes directly to rural communities, bypassing national institutional buffers and pre-empting critical review. They can also be manipulated by various actors to deliberately affect power dynamics, often with a more centralizing effect than democratizing, as explored by Triulzi. This point of view was summarised in Bill Cooke and Uma Kothari's *Participation: The New Tyranny?* in 2001 ^[3].

PAR has also been criticized for lacking the methodological rigor and technical validity that is the gold standard of much academic research, similar to attacks on Action Research by mainly quantitative researchers that reject Interventionist epistemologies. It is suggested that this weakness is a necessary tradeoff of a collaborative and adaptive research design. Supporters, however, counter that sacrificing some level of methodological and technical rigor is well worth the additional face validity and practical significance that is gained through a PAR approach. Additionally, many academic supporters would assert that there are ways to conduct PAR that is sound by academic standards, if one were to adopt a 'typical' qualitative research design that accounts for qualitative quality criteria, such as accountability, credibility, transferability and reliability. Furthermore, evaluating one's work against the "seven I's" proposed by McNiff and Whitehead (2009) will help ensure that a PAR project adheres with qualitative research quality criteria.

See also

- Phronetic social science
- Public participation
- Praxis intervention
- Participatory rural appraisal
- Orality
- Wikibooks: Contemporary Educational Psychology/Chapter 13: The Reflective Practitioner

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- ¹ ^ Dick, 2002; Reason & Bradbury, 2001; Hult & Lennung, 1980; McNiff, 2002
- ² ^ epstein, k.k. (2006) *A Different View of Urban Schools: Civil Rights; Critical Race Theory and Unexplored Realities*. NY: Peter Lang.
- ³ ^ *Participation: The New Tyranny?* Bill Cooke and Uma Kothari (eds) 2001 London Zed

External links

- Action Research For Everything (AR4Everything) (<http://www.ar4everything.com/>)
- Center for Collaborative Action Research at Pepperdine University (CCAR) (<http://cadres.pepperdine.edu/ccar/>)
- Cofundos (<http://wiki.cofundos.org/>) aims at establishing a prediction market for participatory research funding.
- Progress in Community Health Partnerships: Research, Education, and Action (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/index.html)
- Institute for Participatory Action Research and Design (<http://web.gc.cuny.edu/che/start.htm>) at CUNY Graduate Center
- Youth Action Research Institute (<http://www.incommunityresearch.org/research/yari.htm>)

- Examples of using Participatory Video as a tool for community-led research (http://www.insightshare.org/act_participatory_research.html)
- Georgetown University Youth PAR (<http://socialjustice.georgetown.edu/research/yarg/>)
- Datacenter - Research for Justice (<http://www.datacenter.org>)
- Freechild Project PAR webpage (<http://www.freechild.org/PAR.htm>)
- Participatory Learning and Action series (<http://www.planotes.org/>)
- Participatory action research (http://learningforsustainability.net/research/action_research.php) - A guide to on-line resources from the Learning for Sustainability (<http://learningforsustainability.net/>) site.
- SOLAR: Social and Organisational Learning as Action Research (<http://www.uwe.ac.uk/solar/>)
- community-based participatory research(CBPR)

Other resources

- Participatory Action Research Network (PARNet) (<http://www.parnet.org/>) (not active as of Feb. 2007)
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Categories: Research | Social sciences methodology | Learning methods

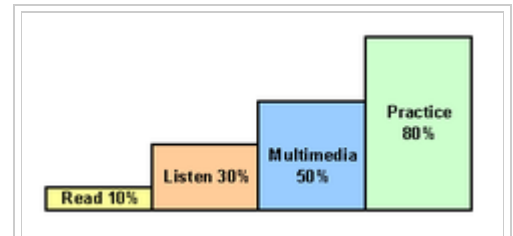
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Action learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Action learning is an educational process whereby the participant studies their own actions and experience in order to improve performance. Learners acquire knowledge through actual actions and repetitions, rather than through traditional instruction.

Action learning is done in conjunction with others, in small groups called *action learning sets*. It is proposed as particularly suitable for adults, as it enables each person to reflect on and review the action they have taken and the learning points arising. This should then guide future action and improve performance.



According to Confucius, *i hear and i forget ; i see and i remember ; i do and i understand.*

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Revans's Formula

Professor Reginald Revans is the originator of action learning. He had invented and developed this method in the United Kingdom in the 1940s, working in the Coal Board. he encouraged managers to meet together in small groups, to share their experiences and ask each other questions about what they saw and heard. The approach increased productivity by over 30%.^[1] Later in hospitals, he concluded that the conventional instructional methods were largely ineffective.

People had to be aware of their lack of relevant knowledge and be prepared to explore the area of their ignorance with suitable questions and help from other people in similar positions.

This conclusion brought him into head-on conflict with educational institutions using lectures.^[citation needed]

Later, Revans made this more precise in the opening chapter of his book (Revans, 1980) which describes the formula:

$$L = P + Q$$

where **L** is learning, **P** is programming (or programmed knowledge with simulations) and **Q** is questioning to create insight into what people see, hear or feel.

Q uses :

- "closed" questions:
 - who?
 - what?
- "objective" questions:
 - how much or how many?
- "relative" questions:
 - where
 - when
- "open questions"
 - why?
 - how?

Although **Q** is the cornerstone of the method, the more relaxed formulation has enabled action learning to become widely accepted in many countries all over the world. In Revans' book there are examples from the USA, Canada, Latin America, the Middle East, Africa and Asia-Pacific.

Michael Marquardt (2004; Marquardt, Leonard, Freedman, & Hill, 2009) expanded Revans's formula as follows:

$L = P + Q + R$, where **R** refers to Reflection.

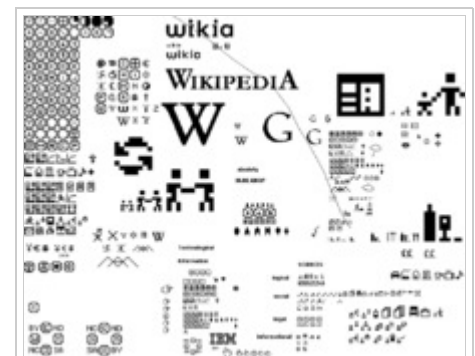
This additional element emphasizes the point that "great questions" should evoke thoughtful Reflections while considering the current problem, the desired goal, designing strategies, developing action or implementation plans, or executing action steps that are components of the implementation plan.

Nobel Prize winners

Revans noted from his experience working with Nobel prize winning scientists at University of Cambridge, that there was a distinction between cleverness (i.e. knowledge) and wisdom, which showed in the form of insightful questioning. He showed that much powerful learning comes from people learning 'with and from others', hence many action learning programmes put the 'action learning set' at the heart of the process.

Use in schools

The contribution of Revans is being seen today through initiatives in leadership development such as those made by Richard Hale working with major organisations. They have developed a new approach to education of leaders which is recognised by leading universities interested in work based learning in the UK. This puts the business or personal questions issues before the syllabus, so following Revans' principles 'theory follows the action'. Richard Hale spent his early career in the GEC organisation where Revans' ideas were pursued by Arnold Weinstock. Revans distinguished between puzzles and problems, noting that action learning



Knowledge is got by experience, all the rest is information. (Einstein)

lent itself to working on real problems (e.g. improving productivity or morale rather than puzzles e.g. constructing a balance sheet). Key writers on the subject have been Mike Pedler and Alan Mumford in the United Kingdom, Canada and internationally, and Robert Kramer, Michael Marquardt, and Joe Raelin in the United States.

ARL and MiL Models

As with other educational processes, practitioners have built on Revan's pioneering work and have adapted some tenets to accommodate their needs. One such branch of action learning is Action Reflection Learning (ARL), which originated in Sweden among educators and consultants under the guidance of Lennart Rohlin of the MiL Institute in the 1970s. With the so-called "MiL model", ARL gained momentum with the work of LIM, Leadership in International Management, under the leadership of Ernie Turner in the USA.

The main differences between Revans' approach to action learning and the 'MiL Model' in the '80s are :

1. the role of a project team advisor (later called Learning Coach), which Revans advised against;
2. the use of team projects rather than individual challenges;
3. the duration of the sessions, which is more flexible in ARL designs.

The MiL Model evolved organically as practitioners responded to diverse needs and restrictions. In an experiential learning mode, MiL practitioners varied the number and duration of the sessions, the type of project selected, the role of the Learning Coach and the style of his/her interventions.

ARL evolved organically through the choices and savvy intuitions of practitioners, who informally exchanged their experiences with each other. It became a somewhat shared practice, which incorporated elements of design and intervention that the practitioners adopted because of their efficacy. In 2004, Isabel Rimanoczy researched and coded the ARL methodology, identifying 16 elements and 10 underlying principles.

"Unlearning" as a Prerequisite for the "Learning" in Action Learning

Robert Kramer (2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2010) pioneered the use of action learning for officials in the U.S. government, and at the European Commission in Brussels and Luxembourg. He also introduced action learning to scientists at the European Environment Agency in Copenhagen and to officials of the Estonian government at the State Chancellery (Prime Minister's Office) in Tallinn, Estonia.

Unlike other writers in the field of action learning, Kramer applies the theory of art, creativity and "unlearning" of the psychologist Otto Rank to his practice of action learning. Rank was the first to see therapy as a learning and unlearning experience. The therapeutic relationship allows the patient to: (1) learn more creative ways of thinking, feeling and being in the here-and-now; and (2) unlearn self-destructive ways of thinking, feeling and being in the here-and-now. Patterns of self-destruction ("neurosis") represent a failure of creativity not, as Freud assumed, a retreat from sexuality.

In action learning, questions allow group members to "step out of the frame of the prevailing ideology," as Otto Rank wrote in *Art and Artist* (1932/1989, p. 70), reflect on their assumptions and beliefs, and reframe their choices. The process of "stepping out" of a frame, out of a form of knowing – a prevailing ideology – is analogous to the work of artists as they struggle to give birth to fresh ways of seeing the world, perspectives that allow them to see aspects of the world that no artists, including themselves, have ever seen before.

The most creative artists, such as Rembrandt, Michelangelo and Leonardo, know how to separate even from their own greatest public successes, from earlier artistic incarnations of themselves. Their “greatness consists precisely in this reaching out beyond themselves, beyond the ideology which they have themselves fostered,” according to *Art and Artist* (Rank, 1932/1989, p. 368). Through the lens of Otto Rank’s work on understanding art and artists, action learning can be seen as the never-completed process of learning how to “step out of the frame” of the ruling mindset, whether one’s own or the culture’s – in other words, of learning how to unlearn.

Comparing the process of unlearning to the “breaking out” process of birth, Otto Rank was the first psychologist to suggest that a continual capacity to separate from “internal mental objects” – from internalized institutions, beliefs and assumptions; from the restrictions of culture, social conformity and received wisdom – is the sine qua non for life-long creativity.

Unlearning necessarily involves separation from one’s self concept, as it has been culturally conditioned to conform to familial, group, occupational or organizational allegiances. According to Rank (1932/1989), unlearning or breaking out of our shell from the inside is “a separation [that] is so hard, not only because it involves persons and ideas that one reveres, but because the victory is always, at bottom, and in some form, won over a part of one’s ego” (p. 375).

In the organizational context, learning how to unlearn is vital because what we assume to be true has merged into our identity. We refer to the identity of an individual as a “mindset.” We refer to the identity of an organizational group as a “culture.” Action learners learn how to question, probe and separate from, both kinds of identity—i.e., their “individual” selves and their “social” selves. By opening themselves to critical inquiry, they begin to learn how to emancipate themselves from what they “know” – they learn how to unlearn.

Role of AL Coach and Questions

An ongoing challenge of action learning has been producing desired organizational results and meeting organizational expectations by taking action and learning in an action learning project. Usually the urgency of the problem or task decreases or eliminates the reflective time necessary for learning. More and more organizations have recognized the critical importance of an action learning coach in the process, someone who has the authority and responsibility of creating time and space for the group to learn at the individual, group and organizational level. There is controversy relative to the need for an action learning coach. Reg Revans was against the use of learning coaches and, in general, of interventionist facilitators and “certified” coaches”. He believed the action learning set or group could practice action learning on its own. Neither did he want a group to become dependent on a coach. Moreover, reflection was always a fundamental component of action learning for him and did not, therefore, have to be emphasized as some consultancies have done.

Self-managed action learning (Bourner et al., 2002; O’Hara et al., 2004) is a variant of action learning that dispenses with the need for a facilitator of the action learning set. Shurville and Rospigliosi (2009) have explored taking self-managed action learning online to create virtual self managed action learning. Deborah Waddill has developed guidelines for virtual action learning teams, what she calls action e-learning.

To increase the reflective, learning aspect of action learning, many groups now adopt the practice or norm of focusing on questions rather than statements while working on the problem and developing strategies and actions. Questions also enable the group to listen, to more quickly become a cohesive team, and to generate creative, out-of-the-box thinking.

The difficulty with relating Self-managing teams (e.g., Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991) to action learning is that the former focus almost exclusively on finding or creating solutions for the problems with which they are tasked. Without reflection, action learning team members are likely to import their organizational or sub-unit

cultural norms and familiar problem solving practices into their teams without making them explicit or testing their validity and utility. Cultural norms and practices inform action learning team members' implicit assumptions, mental models, and beliefs about what methods or processes should be applied to solve a problem. Thus, not always but with great regularity, they apply traditional problem solving methods to non-traditional, urgent, critical, and discontinuous problems while mindlessly expecting them to produce viable, effective solutions—generally without enduring positive effect.

Without action learning team coaches who focus exclusively on helping team members to inquire, reflect, and learn from their emerging experiences while explicitly refraining from any involvement in the contents of the problem, team members often "leap" from the initial problem statement to some form of brainstorming that they assume will reveal or produce a viable solution. These suggested solutions typically provoke objections, doubts, concerns, or reservations from other team members who advocate their own preferred solutions. The conflicts that ensue are generally both unproductive and time-consuming. Self-managed teams, tend to split or fragment rather than develop and evolve into a cohesive, high-performing team.

Perhaps most important, without coaches who have the authority to intervene whenever they perceive a learning opportunity, there is no assurance that the team will make the time needed for periodic, systemic, and strategic inquiry and reflection (Marquardt, 2004; Marquardt, Leonard, Freedman, & Hill, 2009). Thus, self-managed versions of action learning teams are unlikely to enable team members to make explicit efforts to learn – about themselves, leadership, teamwork, participative problem solving, the systemic nature of problems, the relationships between the problem and the organization's strategic direction, interactions of organizational subsystems, and organizational dynamics, including organizational politics.

Events and Conferences

Several organizations focusing on the implementation and improvement of Action Learning sponsor conferences. Examples are the International Foundation for Action Learning, the Global Forum on Executive Development and Business Driven Action Learning, and the Action Learning/Action Research Association.

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See also

- Action research
- Inquiry-based learning

- Action Science

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Categories: Learning methods | Management

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Service-learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
(Redirected from Service learning)

Service-learning is a method of teaching, learning and reflecting, frequently youth service, throughout the community. As a teaching method, it falls under the philosophy of experiential education. More specifically, it integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, encourage lifelong civic engagement, and strengthen communities for the common good. The Community Service Act of 1990, which authorized the Learn and Serve America grant program, defines service-learning as: nbn

"a method under which students or participants learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the needs of a community; is coordinated with an elementary school, secondary school, institution of higher education, or community service program, and with the community; and helps foster civic responsibility; and that is integrated into and enhances the academic curriculum of the students, or the educational components of the community service program in which the participants are enrolled; and provides structured time for the students or participants to reflect on the service experience." ^[1]

Service-learning is a teaching strategy that offers students opportunities to learn both in the classroom and in the wider world. This pedagogical tool provides students with chances to directly interact with local agencies and effect change in the community.^[2] Alternatively, the National Youth Leadership Council defines service learning as "a philosophy, pedagogy, and model for community development that is used as an instructional strategy to meet learning goals and/or content standards." ^[3]

"Service-learning is a method of instruction in which classroom learning is enriched and applied through service to others" (Florida Department of Education).

Contents

- 1 Key components
- 2 Various Types of Service Learning Plans
- 3 Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL) ^[6]
- 4 Curriculum connections- Integrating learning into a service project is key to successful service-learning.
- 5 Objectives to Service Learning
 - 6 Community-engaged writing
- 7 *Student voice* - Beyond being actively engaged in the project itself, students have the opportunity to select, design, implement, and evaluate their service activity, encouraging relevancy and sustained interest. In community settings, this is alternatively called **youth voice**.
- 8 Effect on engineering education
- 9 Supporting programs
- 10 See also
- **Students discussion** - Students discuss their learning experience during in-class discussions.
- 11 References
- 12 External links
 - *Reflection* - Structured opportunities are created to think, talk, and write about the service experience. The balance of reflection and action allows a student to be constantly aware of the impact of their work.
 - 12.1 American Service Learning Programs
 - 12.2 Canadian Service Learning
 - 12.3 Jewish Service Learning
 - 12.4 Service Learning Curriculum
- *Community partnerships* - Partnerships with community agencies are used to identify genuine needs,

provide mentorship, and contribute assets towards completing a project. In a successful partnership, both sides will give to and benefit from the project. In order for this partnership to be successful, clear guides must be implemented as to how often a student engages in service to a particular community agency.

- *Authentic community needs* – Local community members or service recipients are involved in determining the significance and depth of the service activities involved.
- *Assessment* - Well structured assessment instruments with constructive feedback through reflection provide valuable information regarding the positive 'reciprocal learning' and serving outcomes for sustainability and replication.^[4]

In 2008, the National Youth Leadership Council released the K–12 Service-Learning Standards for Quality Practice that used research in the field to determine eight standards of quality service-learning practice. The standards are:

- Meaningful Service
- Link to Curriculum
- Reflection
- Diversity
- Investigation
- Partnerships
- Progress Monitoring
- Project Design
- Action
- Demonstration
- Recognition

Further, to distinguish high quality from low quality service learning experiences, Youth Service California has published the "Seven Elements of High Quality Service Learning" ^[5] that include:

- Integrated Learning
- High Quality Service
- Collaboration
- Student Voice
- Civic Responsibility
- Reflection
- Evaluation

Various Types of Service Learning Plans

Florida Department of Education. Florida Campus Compact. Standards for Service-Learning in Florida: A Guide for Creating and Sustaining Quality Practice. Retrieved from <http://www.fsu.edu/~flserve/resources/SL%20Standards%20for%20SL%20in%20FL.pdf> 1. Direct Service-Learning: Person-to-person, face-to-face projects in which service impacts individuals who receive direct help from students (tutoring, work with elderly, oral histories, peer mediation, etc.). 2. Indirect Service-Learning: Projects with benefits to a community as opposed to specific individuals (i.e., environmental, construction, restoration, town histories, food and clothing drives). 3. Advocacy Service-Learning: Working, acting, speaking, writing, teaching, presenting, informing, etc., on projects that encourage action or create awareness on issues of public interest (i.e., promoting reading,

safety, care for the environment, local history, violence and drug prevention, disaster preparedness). 4. Research Service-Learning: Surveys, studies, evaluations, experiments, data gathering, interviewing, etc., to find, compile, and report information on topics in the public interest (i.e., energy audits of homes or public buildings, water testing, flora and fauna studies, surveys).

Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL) ^[6]

- CAPSL Identifies four constituencies on which a program for service learning needs to focus its principle activities: institution, faculty ,students, and community.
- CAPSL also identifies a sequence of activities (Planning; awareness; prototype; resources; expansion; recognition; monitoring; evaluation; research; institutionalization)to be pursued for each of the four constituencies(institution, faculty ,students, and community).
- CAPSL provide a heuristic for guiding the development of a service learning program in higher education.
- Advantages of CAPSL : it is general enough that the execution of each cell can be tailored to local conditions.
- Disadvantages of CAPSL: it is not possible to detail how each step can be successfully accomplished to take the sequence of activities from the whole CAPSL model and apply it to any cell in the matrix.

Typology

As Defined by Robert Sigmon, 1994:

- Service-LEARNING: Learning goals primary; service outcomes secondary.
- SERVICE-Learning: Service outcomes primary; learning goals secondary.
- service learning: Service and learning goals completely separate.
- SERVICE-LEARNING: Service and learning goals of equal weight and each enhances the other for all participants.

In this comparative form, the typology is helpful not only in establishing criteria for distinguishing service-learning from other types of service programs but also in providing a basis for clarifying distinctions among different types of service-oriented experiential education programs (e.g., school volunteer, community service, field education, and internship programs)^[7]

Objections to Service Learning

Although service learning has broad support among contemporary academics, there have been some objections to this approach to education. Towson University Professor John Egger, writing in the Spring 2008 issue of the journal "Academic Questions", argued that service learning does not really teach useful skills or develop cultural knowledge. Instead, Egger maintained, service learning mainly involves the inculcation of communitarian political ideologies.^[8] Tulane Professor Carl L. Bankston III has described his own university's policy of mandating service learning as the imposition of intellectual conformity by the university administration on both students and faculty. According to Bankston, by identifying specific types of civic engagement as worthy community service, the university was prescribing social and political perspectives. He argued that this was inconsistent with the idea that individuals in a pluralistic society should choose their own civic commitments and that it was contrary to the ideal of the university as a site for the pursuit of truth through the free exchange of ideas.^[9]

Community-engaged writing

Community-engaged writing is a method of getting students to write toward and about public problems and issues. A variety of approaches are used by instructors, depending on age group of students and theoretical approach. Two illustrative/related summaries follow.

In “Literacy as Violence Prevention,” Ena Rosen, Associate Director of Need in Deed, describes a specific example of the teaching methods of Need in Deed, a Philadelphia-based education agency. This newsletter article is based on an anecdotal set of reports on an eighth grade teacher’s work with one classroom in 2005. Rosen’s purpose is to promote the effectiveness and work of Need in Deed, and Rosen ultimately shows that this method of working with urban youth is an effective teaching method and social intervention: “Meaningful service that addresses a root cause and meets an authentic community need: the best of service-learning and civic engagement” (Rosen).

In “Rogue Cops and Health Care: What Do We Want from Public Writing?” Susan Wells argues that writing teachers should not merely have students write within classrooms on socially relevant issues, such as gun control. She uses Habermas’s definition of the public sphere to analyze an example of a “citizen” attempting to enter the public sphere through discourse—President Clinton’s speech on health care reform—and ultimately demonstrates the failure of that effort. However, Wells contrasts Clinton’s failed strategies to get health care reform passed with a more local example of a Temple student who successfully entered the public sphere by writing a citizen’s complaint about his arrest and subsequent beating by a Philadelphia police officers. Wells concludes by suggesting four alternatives for writing teachers interested in helping students move their rhetoric into the public sphere: classroom as one type of public sphere itself, analysis of public and academic discourses, writing with and for public/community needs, and analysis of academic discourses as they intervene in the public sphere.

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Service Learning in Language Education

Service learning can be used in all standard disciplines and recently has been explored for use in improving language instruction. A recent study found that integrating environmental issues with foreign language study provides significant opportunities for students to increase their language proficiency, develop their understanding of concepts related to the environment, and become more involved in a global community through a virtual service learning project.^[10] Similar work has found that students can contribute to sustainable development while improving their language skills.^[11]

Effect on engineering education

Main article: Service-learning in engineering education

Many engineering educators see service-learning as the solution to several prevalent problems in engineering education today. In the past, engineering curriculum has fluctuated between emphasizing engineering science to focusing more on practical aspects of engineering. Today, many engineering educators are concerned their

students do not receive enough practical knowledge of engineering and its context. Some speculate that adding context to engineering help to motivate engineering students' studies and thus improve retention and diversity in engineering schools. Others feel that the teaching styles do not match the learning styles of engineering students.

Many engineering faculty members believe the educational solution lies in taking a more constructivist approach, where students construct knowledge and connections between nodes of knowledge as opposed to passively absorbing knowledge. Educators see service-learning as a way to both implement a constructivism in engineering education as well as match the teaching styles to the learning styles of typical engineering students. As a result, many engineering schools have begun to integrate service-learning into their curricula and there is now a journal dedicated to service learning in engineering.^[12]

Supporting programs

There are a number of substantial national efforts in the United States that promote service learning in its myriad forms. They include the following organizations:

The State Education Agency K–12 Service-Learning Network (SEANet) is a national network of professionals committed to advancing school-based service-learning initiatives in K–12 schools and school districts all across the country (seanetonline.org). Our members are directors, coordinators, specialists, or other staff working in a State Education Agency (SEA), or in an organization designated by a State Education Agency, who provide leadership in their respective states for the advancement of school-based service-learning. They promote, develop, and expand school-based service-learning to K–12 schools and school districts; they provide direct assistance in the form of technical support and professional development opportunities to local school-community partnerships; and they administer and disseminate the annual K–12 school-based state formula grants from Learn and Serve America, the primary federal funding source for service-learning.

Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (NSLC) provides the world's largest database of Service-Learning materials, electronic resources, and job listings. It supports and encourages service-learning throughout the United States, and enables over one million students to contribute to their community while building their academic and civic skills. This organization instills an ethic of lifelong community service; supports and encourages service-learning throughout the United States, and enables over one million students to contribute to their community while building their academic and civic skills. By engaging our nation's young people in service-learning, Learn and Serve America instills an ethic of lifelong community service.^[13]

National Service-Learning Partnership is a national network of members dedicated to advancing service-learning as a core part of every young person's education. Service-learning is a teaching method that engages young people in solving problems within their schools and communities as part of their academic studies or other type of intentional learning activity. The Partnership concentrates on strengthening the impact of service-learning on young people's learning and development, especially their academic and civic preparation.

The Jimmy and Rosalynn Carter Partnership Foundation fosters academic service-learning in higher education with awards and grants to students/faculty and their 501(c)(3) community partners who demonstrate best practices or innovative approaches in the field. These programs can be found at ^[14] The Carter Academic Service Entrepreneur grant program seeks to motivate students to develop innovative service-learning projects by providing \$1,000 grants to the community organization partner of the student with the most innovative proposal in a state-wide or school-wide competition. ServiceBook sponsored and maintained by JRCPPF, is the online community for academic service learning. JRCPPF programs have been held in 16 U.S. states, India and

the United Kingdom.^[15][5] (http://www.jrcpf.org/map_us.pdf) [6] (http://www.jrcpf.org/map_world.pdf)

The Leadership, Ethics, and Social Action Minor at Indiana University-Bloomington focuses on civic participation, community decision-making, and citizenship skills: how to communicate and organize and lead while serving as a citizen. The LESA program is a chance to develop your own voice and interests while you research, serve, and take action in the community. A student who enjoys thinking and working independently and who would like to develop his or her professional presentation through serving the needs of the community will find opportunities to do so with LESA. Pre-professional students who wish to be involved in a community setting are attracted to the program. Pre-law and pre-med, as well as pre-business, students find opportunities to develop their professional presentation.^[16]

A partnership between Youth Service America, America's Promise Alliance, and State Farm Companies Foundation launched GoToServiceLearning (<http://www.gotoservicelearning.org>) . It is recognized as a resource for teachers seeking to learn how to incorporate service-learning into their lessons. GoToServiceLearning.org is an interactive Web site housing a database of quality service-learning lesson plans from across the country, all tied to state academic standards.

See also

- History of Service-learning (<http://www.uthscsa.edu/acet/docs/ELIXR/CSLHistoryPowerpoint.pdf>)
- Amizade
- American Jewish World Service (AJWS)
- Campus Compact
- Constructivism
- Cooperative education
- Global Leadership Adventures
- Learn and Serve America
- National Service
- National Service Learning Conference
- National Youth Leadership Council
- Youth Service America

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Communities and Comparisons Standards in Higher Education”, *Foreign Language Annals* **43**(3), pp. 365–383 (2010). [4] (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2010.01088.x>)

11. ^ Joshua M. Pearce and Eleanor ter Horst, “Overcoming Language Challenges of Open Source Appropriate Technology for Sustainable Development in Africa (http://www.jsd-africa.com/Jsda/V12NO1_Winter2009_A/Pdf/OvercomingLanguageChallenges.pdf)”, *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, **11**(3) pp.230-245, 2010.
12. ^ International Journal for Service Learning in Engineering
13. ^ Learn and Serve America's National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (<http://www.servicelearning.org>) Official website
14. ^ Jimmy and Rosalynn Carter Partnership Foundation (<http://www.jrcpf.org/programs>) Programs
15. ^ ServiceBook (<http://www.servicebook.org/>) from the Jimmy and Rosalynn Carter Partnership Foundation
16. ^ The Leadership, Ethics, and Social Action Minor (<http://www.indiana.edu/~lesa>) at Indiana University (Bloomington)

External links

American Service Learning Programs

- Service Learning in Omaha (<http://omaha.net/articles/service-learning-in-omaha>) - UNO's Annual Three Days of Service
- Indiana University School of Medicine Office of Medical Service Learning (<http://omsl.medicine.iu.edu/>)
- Examples of service-learning in higher education (<http://www.servicelearning.vcu.edu>)
- National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (<http://www.servicelearning.org/>)
- National Society for Experimental Society (<http://www.nsee.org/>)

Canadian Service Learning

- Canadian Alliance for Community Service-Learning (<http://www.communityservicelearning.ca/en/>)

Jewish Service Learning

- Organizations: Repair the World (<http://werrepair.org/>) and SULAM Center (<http://sulamcenter.org/>)
- Research and studies about Jewish Service learning (http://search.bjpa.org/search?client=default_frontend&output=xml_no_dtd&proxystylesheet=default_frontend&filter=0&getfields=*&q=%22service%20learning%22&partialfields=abstract%3Aservice%2520learning&sort=date:D:L:d1&num=100&lind=0) on the Berman Jewish Policy Archive @NYU Wagner

Service Learning Curriculum

- Civic Action Project (<http://www.crfcap.org/>)

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Categories: Community building | Applied learning | Alternative education | School terminology | American society | Experiential learning

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Experiential learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Experiential learning is the process of making meaning from direct experience.^[1] Simply put, Experiential Learning is learning from experience. The experience can be staged or left open. Aristotle once said, "For the things we have to learn before we can do them, we learn by doing them."^[2] David A. Kolb helped to popularize the idea of experiential learning drawing heavily on the work of John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget. His work on experiential learning has contributed greatly to expanding the philosophy of experiential education. Staged experiential learning is often called a Dynamic Learning Experience (DLE) in certain high hazard industries.

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Overview

Experiential learning is learning through reflection on doing, which is often contrasted with rote or didactic learning. Experiential learning is related to, but not synonymous with, experiential education, action learning, adventure learning, free choice learning, cooperative learning, and service learning. While there are relationships and connections between all these theories of education, importantly they are also separate terms with separate meanings.^[3]

Experiential learning focuses on the learning process for the individual (unlike experiential education, which focuses on the transactive process between teacher and learner). An example of experiential learning is going to the zoo and learning through observation and interaction with the zoo environment, as opposed to reading about animals from a book. Thus, one makes discoveries and experiments with knowledge firsthand, instead of hearing or reading about others' experiences.

Experiential learning requires no teacher and relates solely to the meaning making process of the individual's direct experience. However, though the gaining of knowledge is an inherent process that occurs naturally, for a genuine learning experience to occur, there must exist certain elements. According to David Kolb, an American educational theorist, knowledge is continuously gained through both personal and environmental experiences.^[4] He states that in order to gain genuine knowledge from an experience, certain abilities are required:

1. the learner must be willing to be actively involved in the experience;
2. the learner must be able to reflect on the experience;
3. the learner must possess and use analytical skills to conceptualize the experience; and

- the learner must possess decision making and problem solving skills in order to use the new ideas gained from the experience.

Implementation

Experiential learning can be a highly effective educational method. It engages the learner at a more personal level by addressing the needs and wants of the individual. Experiential learning requires qualities such as self-initiative and self-evaluation. For experiential learning to be truly effective, it should employ the whole learning wheel, from goal setting, to experimenting and observing, to reviewing, and finally action planning. This complete process allows one to learn new skills, new attitudes or even entirely new ways of thinking.

Most educators understand the important role experience plays in the learning process. A fun learning environment, with plenty of laughter and respect for the learner's abilities, also fosters an effective experiential learning environment. It is vital that the individual is encouraged to directly involve themselves in the experience, in order that they gain a better understanding of the new knowledge and retain the information for a longer time. As stated by the ancient Chinese philosopher, Confucius, "tell me and I will forget, show me and I may remember, involve me and I will understand."^[*citation needed*]

According to learning consultants, experiential learning is about creating an experience where learning can be facilitated. How do you create a well-crafted learning experience? The key lies in the facilitator and how he or she facilitates the learning process. An excellent facilitator believes in the creed: "You teach some by what you say, teach more by what you do, but most of all, you teach most by who you are." And while it is the learner's experience that is most important to the learning process, it is also important not to forget the wealth of experience a good facilitator also brings to the situation.

An effective experiential facilitator is one who is passionate about his or her work and is able to immerse participants totally in the learning situation, allowing them to gain new knowledge from their peers and the environment created. These facilitators stimulate the imagination, keeping participants hooked on the experience.

Creating an experiential learning environment can be challenging for educators who have been taught through traditional classroom techniques. Identifying activities that allow learners to understand and absorb concepts can be a new and daunting experience. In traditional classrooms where lectures with PowerPoint slide sets are standard, educators need to be creative to engage students, get them up out of their chairs, involved in an experience. However, by providing direct experience in addition to standard written and visual materials, learners with different types of learning styles and strengths can be accommodated.

Sudbury model of democratic education schools assert that much of the learning going on in their schools, including values, justice, democracy, arts and crafts, professions, and frequently academic subjects, is done by learning through experience.^{[5][6][7][8]}

Comparisons

Experiential learning is most easily compared with academic learning, the process of acquiring information through the study of a subject without the necessity for direct experience. While the dimensions of experiential learning are analysis, initiative, and immersion, the dimensions of academic learning are constructive learning and reproductive learning.^[9] Though both methods aim at instilling new knowledge in the learner, academic learning does so through more abstract, classroom based techniques, whereas experiential learning actively involves the learner in a concrete experience.

See also

People

- John Dewey
- Paulo Freire
- David A. Kolb
- Carl Rogers
- Jean Piaget
- Maria Montessori
- Rudolf Steiner
- Kurt Hahn

Related topics

- Adventure education
- Alternative education
- Cooperative learning
- Outdoor education
- Ropes course
- Vocational education
- Service learning
- Adult education
- Cooperative education
- Reflective practice
- Action learning
- Active learning
- Integrative learning
- Problem-based learning
- Discovery learning
- Constructivism (learning theory)
- Appreciative Inquiry
- Sudbury model of democratic education
- Experiential learning – Farmer Field School program
- Case method
- Training Simulation
- Business game

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Experiential education

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Experiential education is a philosophy of education that describes the process that occurs between a teacher and student that infuses direct experience with the learning environment and content.^[1] The term is mistakenly used interchangeably with experiential learning.^[2] The Association for Experiential Education regards experiential education "as a philosophy and methodology in which educators purposefully engage with learners in direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills and clarify values."^[3] Experiential education is the term for the philosophy and educational progressivism is the movement which it informed.

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About

John Dewey was the most famous proponent of experiential education, writing *Experience and Education* (1938). It expressed his ideas about curriculum theory in the context of historical debates about school organization and the need to have experience as central in the educational process, hence why experiential education is referred to as a philosophy. Dewey's fame during that period rested on relentlessly critiquing public education and pointing out that the authoritarian, strict, pre-ordained knowledge approach of modern traditional education was too concerned with delivering knowledge, and not enough with understanding students' experiences.^[4]

Dewey's work influenced dozens of other prominent experiential models and advocates in the later 20th century, including Foxfire,^[5] service learning,^[6] Kurt Hahn and Outward Bound,^[7] and Paulo Freire. Freire is often cited in works on experiential education.^[8] He focused on the participation by students in experience and radical democracy, and the creation of *praxis* among learners.

John Dewey was an educator, but he was foremost a philosopher. His interests included political philosophy,

metaphysics, epistemology, aesthetics, logic, and philosophy of education. Political philosophy was one of his many philosophical interests. He saw weaknesses in both the traditional and progressive styles of education. He explains in length his criticisms of both forms of education in his book, *Experience & Education* (1938). In essence, he did not believe that they met the goals of education, which he defined as obtaining freedom of thought. Dewey did not believe in freedom of thought in any kind of absolute sense.^[*citation needed*]

Dewey advocated that education be based upon the quality of experience. For an experience to be educational, Dewey believed that certain parameters had to be met, the most important of which is that the experience has continuity and interaction. Continuity is the idea that the experience comes from and leads to other experiences, in essence propelling the person to learn more. Interaction is when the experience meets the internal needs or goals of a person. Dewey also categorizes experiences as possibly being mis-educative and non-educative. A mis-educative experience is one that stops or distorts growth for future experiences. A non-educative experience is one in which a person has not done any reflection and so has obtained nothing for mental growth that is lasting (*Experience & Education*, Dewey).

Practice

Experiential education informs many educational practices underway in schools (formal education) and out-of-school (informal education) programs. Many teaching methods rely on experiential education to provide context and frameworks for learning through action and reflection.

- Outdoor education uses organized learning activities that occur in the outdoors, and uses environmental experiences as a learning tool.^[9]
- Service learning is a combination of community service with stated learning goals, relying on experience as the foundation for meaning.^[10]
- Cooperative learning alters heterogeneous groupings in order to support diverse learning styles and needs within a group.^[11]
- Active learning, a term popular in US education circles in the 1980s, encourages learners to take responsibility for their learning, requiring their experience in education to inform their process of learning.^[12]
- Environmental education is based in educating learners about relationships within the natural environment and how those relationships are interdependent. Students participate in outdoor activities as part of their learning experience.^[13]

Experiential education serves as an umbrella for linking many diverse practices into a coherent whole. Its philosophy is closely linked to numerous other educational theories, but it should not be conflated with progressive education, critical pedagogy, youth empowerment, feminist-based education, and constructivism. The development of experiential education as a philosophy has been intertwined with the development of these other educational theories; their contrasts have clarified differences.

Fellowships and other training programs are available for experiential educators; but, formal training in experiential methods is lacking for K-12 undergraduate teaching programs (see Wendel, A. and Mantil, A., (2008) and the National Society for Experiential Education (<http://www.nsee.org/>)).

Examples

Examples of experiential education abound in all disciplines. The educator Lucy Calkins writes,

"If we asked our students for the highlight of their school careers, most would choose a time when they dedicated themselves to an endeavor of great importance...I am thinking of youngsters from P.S. 321, who have launched a save-the-tree campaign to prevent the oaks outside their school from being cut down. I am thinking of children who write the school newspaper, act in the school play, organize the playground building committee.... On projects such as these, youngsters will work before school, after school, during lunch. Our youngsters want to work hard on endeavors they deem significant."^[14]

Writing journals proves to be quite effective as part of English classes. Specifically, by writing "personal" and "text-related" journals, students find meaning in their own thoughts as well as in concepts learned in class. Personal journaling is the recording of past and present personal thoughts and events in the student's life to enhance self-awareness, student interest, and learning. Text-related journaling is writing about concepts learned in class in relation to students' personal experiences, to promote understanding.^[citation needed]

Other programs

High school English classes in Rabun Gap, Georgia earned national attention for using their research and writing to publish the *Foxfire* journal. (Wigginton, 1985). Students researched the culture of the Appalachian Mountains through taped interviews with local people. They wrote and edited articles based upon their interviews. *Foxfire* has inspired hundreds of similar cultural journalism projects around the country.

Christchurch School, in the tidewater area of Virginia, has an experiential program called *Great Journeys Begin at the River*. The hands-on, skill-based, inside/outside curriculum is based on using the school's location on the Rappahannock River, in the Chesapeake Bay watershed. Students recycle aluminum to raise money for the school's oyster farm, which they tend in an effort to help save the Bay.

The Nicodemus Wilderness Project provides an environmental experiential education program with a global reach called the "Apprentice Ecologist Initiative". This scholarship-based opportunity is targeted for youth volunteers who want to help protect the environment. The initiative seeks to develop young people for leadership roles by engaging them in environmental cleanup and conservation projects, empower volunteers to rebuild the environmental and social well-being of our communities, and improve local living conditions for both citizens and wildlife.

Project OASES (Occupational and Academic Skills for the Employment of Students) emphasizes experiential education in the Pittsburgh public schools. Eighth graders, identified as potential dropouts, spend three periods a day involved in renovating a homeless shelter as part of a service project carried out within their industrial arts class. Students in such programs learn enduring skills, such as planning, communicating with a variety of age groups and types of people, and group decisionmaking. In their activities and in reflection, they come to new insights and integrate diverse knowledge from fields such as English, political science, mathematics, and sociology.

Presidential Classroom, a non-profit civic education organization in Washington D.C., is open to high school students from across the country and abroad. They meet and interact with government officials, media correspondents, congressman, and key players on the world stage to learn how public policy shapes many aspects of citizens' lives. Students travel to Washington and spend a week hearing from prominent speakers, meet with interest group spokesmen and tour the national capital. Students participate in a group project directed by experienced instructors; they have mediated debates on current issues facing the country. The focus of the week is to give students a hands-on introduction to how "real world" politics take place.

The Advantage Foundation, a not-for-profit education organization in Western Australia, helps bridge the gap

between university and employment via the Australian Business Icon program. The program engages young and emerging entrepreneurs in direct experience and focused reflection to increase knowledge, develop skills and clarify values. It requires students with innovative, strategic thinking, and analytical skills, to take on four (4) pre-organized innovative and entrepreneurial business-related tasks. The goal is to develop the communication, ethics, innovation and enterprise of students.^[15]

Global College, a four-year international study program offered by Long Island University, is based on self-guided, experiential learning while a student is immersed in foreign cultures. Regional centers employ mostly advisors rather than teaching faculty; these advisors guide the individual students in preparing a "portfolio of learning" each semester to display the results of their experiences and projects.

The New England Literature Program in the English Department at the University of Michigan is a 45-day program, in which University instructors live and work together with 40 UM students in the woods of Maine in early spring. They intensively study 19th and 20th-century New England literature, in a program that includes creative writing in the form of academic journaling, as well as a deep physical engagement with the landscape of New England. NELP students and staff take hiking trips into the White Mountains and other parts of the New England natural areas each week, integrating their experience of the landscape with writing and discussion of texts.

The Chicago Center for Urban Life and Culture is the only nonprofit and independent experiential educational program for college students in the United States. The Chicago Center is distinguished by unique seminars characterized by a 'First Voice' pedagogy, its location in the multi-ethnic Hyde Park neighborhood of Chicago, and development of several hundred internship sites in Chicago. While many of the students who attend Chicago Center grew up in cities, the majority are from suburban, rural and farming communities. Students participate individually in its Semester, May Term and Summer Session. The Chicago Center also designs and staffs programs for groups, what it calls "LearnChicago!", which promise non-tourist experiences in the city.

Several Australian high schools have established experiential education programmes, including Caulfield Grammar School's five-week internationalism programme in Nanjing, China and Geelong Grammar School's Timbertop outdoor education programme.^[16]

Other projects and "capstone" programs have included student teams writing their own international development plans and presenting them to presidents and foreign media and publishing their studies as textbooks in development studies, to running their own businesses, NGOs, or community development banks.^[17]

At the professional school level, experiential education is often integrated into curricula in "clinical" courses following the medical school model of "See one, Do one, Teach one", in which students learn by practicing medicine. This approach is being introduced in other professions in which skills are directly worked into courses to teach every concept (starting with interviewing, listening skills, negotiation, contract writing and advocacy, for example) to larger-scale projects in which students run legal aid clinics or community loan programs, or write legislation or community development plans.

The Boys and Girls Club of America provides a framework for youth development professionals to employ experiential learning methods.

Youth development programs have used experiential education methods to reach at-risk youth. An example is "Circus Harmony", based in St. Louis, Missouri. Their mission is to "teach the art of life through circus education". By learning circus arts skills, students come together from diverse backgrounds and experiences and learn from each other as well.^[18]

Change in roles and structures

Whether teachers employ experiential education in cultural journalism, service learning, environmental education, or more traditional school subjects, its key idea involves engaging student voice in active roles for the purpose of learning. Students participate in a real activity with real consequences for the purpose of meeting learning objectives.^[19]

Some experts in the field make the distinction between "democratic experiential education" in which students help design curricula and run their own projects and even do their own grading (through objective contracted standards) and other forms of "experiential education" that put students in existing organizations in inferior roles (such as service learning and internships) or in which faculty design the field work.^[20]

Experiential education uses various tools like games, simulations, role plays, stories in classrooms. The experiential education mindset changes the way the teachers and students view knowledge. Knowledge is no longer just some letters on a page. It becomes active, something that is transacted with in life or life-like situations. It starts to make teachers experience providers, and not just transmitters of the written word.

Besides changing student roles, experiential education requires a change in the role of teachers. When students are active learners, their endeavors often take them outside the classroom walls. Because action precedes attempts to synthesize knowledge, teachers generally cannot plan a curriculum unit as a neat, predictable package.^[citation needed] Teachers become active learners, too, experimenting together with their students, reflecting upon the learning activities they have designed, and responding to their students' reactions to the activities. In this way, teachers themselves become more active; they come to view themselves as more than just recipients of school district policy and curriculum decisions.

It is also important to point out that not all learners learn the same. As a result, there are diverse learners that have unique learning styles pertinent to their success as students. Studies have shown that cooperative learning is strongly suggested in a diverse learning atmosphere. "Contemporary views of learning and their pedagogical applications have begun to change traditional classroom interaction patterns, shaping the communicative roles of the teacher and students as participants in a classroom learning community," writes David Wray & Kristiina Kumpulainen. This paradigm shift in education gives both the student and teacher shared responsibility of the learning process. The teacher's participation in discussion sessions is to act as a facilitator, maintain classroom decorum, provide individual and group feedback, and alleviate concerns or issues in the lesson.

Critical thinking strategies are pertinent to the success of student oriented learning. When students are engaged in active discussions, high level thinking skills are put into practice to the point where students are synthesizing the information at a deeper level of understanding. According to Elliot Eisner, "We need to provide opportunities for youngsters and adolescents to engage in challenging kinds of conversation, and we need to help them know how to do so. Such conversation is all too rare in schools. I use 'conversation' seriously, for challenging conversation is an intellectual affair. It has to do with thinking about what people have said and responding reflectively, analytically, and imaginatively to that process. The practice of conversation is almost a lost art. The most significant intellectual achievement is not so much in problem solving, but in question posing." Through experimental education, students are capable of finding their voice through **peer-to-peer interaction**. Students are now seen as active participants in the learning process. Vygotsky's social development theory requires students to play untraditional roles as they collaborate with one another through critical thinking and conversational skills. According to Ann Ketch, author of *Conversation: The comprehension connection* writes, "The oral process helps students clarify and solidify their thoughts. The thinking changes from what it was before the conversation took place. Through conversation, the student is in charge of his or her own mental processing. The teacher acts as a facilitator, pushing the student to rely upon and monitor his or her own

comprehension, which fosters critical thinking.” This is very vital because student conversation can elicit new ideas that may not have been mentioned or even thought of by another student. Therefore, student dialogue is very important because it helps individuals make sense of what is being learned. It also helps build respect for other’s opinions while taking ownership of his or her learning process.

In experimental education, students are given the opportunity to apply their knowledge and skills by making connections to the real world. Therefore, effective learning entails active experimentation with a **hands-on** approach to learning. It is perceived that students learn more by being active. Students are **interdependent** in establishing group goals and decision-making skills. As a result, students are also capable of developing leadership skills, which can also enhance student motivation and confidence.

When students are given a choice in terms of content to be learned, it ensures the teacher that his or her learners are interactive in the learning process. According to Ernie Stringer, “**Action learners** move through continuous cycles of this inquiry process to improve their understanding, extend their knowledge, or refine their skills.” When given a preference, students may feel motivated to take control of his or her learning experience. Student incentives are tied to progress in academic achievement. “Research indicates that intrinsic motivation stems from one’s interests and capacities to surmount challenges when presented or pursued,” says Fenice B. Boyd. Many schools are encouraging teachers to tap into student interests with the hope that they transfer that motivation into the classroom.

Through the continuous cycle of learning, teacher’s often work with students to develop a framework of knowledge, which is to be evaluated based on student input to the lessons content. Therefore, the teacher should establish criteria of what is to be learned as related to the student(s) choice in learning material. Ernie Stringer draws on the importance that “**action research** provides a process for developing a rich, engaging curriculum relevant to the lives and purposes of students, engaging their interests and abilities, and serving the broad human needs of community, society, and the planet. Creative construction of curricula or syllabi provides the means whereby the needs, perspectives, and/or interests of diverse stakeholders can be incorporated into vital, creative, effective programs of learning.” In essence, a well-planned curriculum is designed for learning that encompasses a broad range of goals and individual needs that ensures the **active learning** process.

As students and teachers take on new roles, the traditional organizational structures of the school also may meet challenges.^[21] For example, at the Challenger Middle School in Colorado Springs, Colorado, service activities are an integral part of the academic program. Such nontraditional activities require teachers and administrators to look at traditional practices in new ways. For instance, they may consider reorganizing time blocks. They may also teach research methods by involving students in investigations of the community, rather than restricting research activities to the library (Rolzinski, 1990).^[citation needed]

At the University Heights Alternative School in the Bronx, the Project Adventure experiential learning program has led the faculty to adopt an all-day time block as an alternative to the traditional 45-minute periods. The faculty now organizes the curriculum by project instead of by separate disciplines. Schools that promote meaningful student involvement actively engage students as partners in education improvement activities. These young people learn while planning, researching, teaching, and making decisions that affect the entire education system.

At the university level, including universities like Stanford and the University of California Berkeley, students are often the initiators of courses and demand more role in changing the curriculum and making it truly responsive to their needs. In some cases, universities have offered alternatives for student-designed faculty approved courses. In other cases, students have formed movements or even their own NGOs like Unseen America Projects, Inc., to promote democratic experiential learning and to design and accredit their own alternative curricula^[22]

Other university level programs are entirely field-taught on outdoor expeditions. These courses combine traditional academic readings and written assignments with field observations, service projects, open discussions of course material, and meetings with local speakers who are involved with the course subjects. These "hybrid" experiential/traditional programs aim to provide the academic rigor of a classroom course with the breadth and personal connections of experiential education.

Transitions from traditional to experiential

At first, these new roles and structures may seem unfamiliar and uncomfortable to both students and adults in the school. Traditionally, students have most often been rewarded for competing rather than cooperating with one another. Teachers are not often called upon for collaborative work either. Teaching has traditionally been an activity carried out in isolation from one's peers, behind closed doors. Principals, accustomed to the traditional hierarchical structure of schools, often do not know how to help their teachers constitute self-managed work teams or how to help teachers coach students to work in cooperative teams. The techniques of experiential education can help students and staff adjust to teamwork, an important part of the process of reforming schools.

Adventure education may use the philosophy of experiential education in developing team and group skills in both students and adults (Rohnke, 1989). Initially, groups work to solve problems that are unrelated to the problems in their actual school environment. For example, in a ropes course designed to build the skills required by teamwork, a faculty or student team might work together to get the entire group over a 12-foot wall or through an intricate web of rope. After each challenge in a series of this kind, the group looks at how it functioned as a team:

- Who took the leadership roles?
- Did the planning process help or hinder progress?
- Did people listen to one another in the group and use the strengths of all group members?
- Did everyone feel that the group was a supportive environment in which they felt comfortable making a contribution and taking risks?

The wall or web of rope can then become a metaphor for the classroom or school environment. While the problems and challenges of the classroom or school are different from the physical challenges of the adventure activity, many skills needed to respond successfully as a team are the same in both settings.

These skills — listening, recognizing each other's strengths, and supporting each other through difficulties — can apply equally well to an academic Socratic Method of questioning or problem-solving toward schoolwide improvement efforts.

For example, the Kane School in Lawrence, Massachusetts has been using adventure as a tool for school restructuring. The entire faculty — particularly the Faculty Advisory Council, which shares the decisionmaking responsibilities with the principal — has honed group skills through experiential education activities developed by Project Adventure. These skills include open communication, methods of conflict resolution, and mechanisms for decision making (High Strides, 1990).

Experiential Education in other countries

The development of Experiential Education in Asian countries

Established in 1973, *Breakthrough* in Hong Kong was the first non-profit organization that applied the concepts of Experiential Education (though primarily conceptualized in terms of outdoor adventure education) in youth works. Since then, development in Experiential Education has proceeded in Singapore, Taiwan, Macao, and some big cities in mainland China.

Experiential methods in education have existed in China for thousands of years.^[*citation needed*] However, it should be noted that John Dewey was in China in the early 1900s and his ideas were extremely popular. The interest in Dewey's experience in China and contribution are a growing interest.

Methods

There are many ways in which experiential education is practiced. Five of them include: Active Based Learning, Problem Based Learning, Project Based Learning, Service Learning and Place Based Learning. All of these use the pattern of problem, plan, test and reflect as their foundation for the educative experience. This is by no means an exhaustive list of methods used reflecting the philosophy of experiential education.

Active Based Learning—All participants in the group must engage actively in working together toward the stated objectives.

Problem Based Learning—Provides a structure for discovery that helps students internalize learning and leads to greater comprehension.

Project Based Learning—An instructional method that uses projects as the central focus of instruction in a variety of disciplines.

Service Learning—Providing meaningful service to a community agency or organization while simultaneously gaining new skills, knowledge and understanding as an integrated aspect of an academic program.

Place Based Learning—the process of using local community and environment as a starting point to teach concepts in language arts, mathematics, social studies, science, and other subjects across the curriculum.

See also

- Cooperative education
- David A. Kolb
- Laboratory school
- Outdoor education
- Minnesota State University, Mankato Masters Degree in Experiential Education
- Service learning
- Project-based learning
- Hands On Learning Australia
- Problem-based learning
- Active learning
- Place-Based Education
- John Dewey

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External links

Associations

- Association for Experiential Education (<http://www.aee.org>)
- The Council for Adult and Experiential Learning (<http://www.cael.org>)
- National Society for Experiential Education (<http://www.nsee.org>)
- New York State Cooperative & Experiential Education Association (<http://www.nysceea.org>)

Resources

- Experiential Learning & Experiential Education: Philosophy, Theory, Practice & Resources (<http://www.wilderdom.com/experiential>)

- New Horizons for Learning (<http://newhorizons.org>)
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Articles

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- Improving Evaluation in Experiential Education. ERIC Digest. (<http://www.ericdigests.org/1995-2/improving.htm>)
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Categories: Applied learning | Alternative education | Philosophy of education
| Educational psychology | Experiential learning | Outdoor education | Critical pedagogy

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Adventure learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Adventure Learning (AL)^[1] is a hybrid distance education approach. It provides students with opportunities to explore real-world issues through authentic learning experiences within collaborative learning environments, and is anchored in experiential and inquiry-based learning.^[2] The AL approach includes educational activities that work in conjunction with the authentic experiences of 'researchers' in the field. For example, within an AL program, the curriculum, the experiences and observations of the researchers, and the online collaboration and interaction opportunities for participating learners are delivered synchronously so that learners are able to make connections between what is happening in the real world and their studies, and then reflect on those events and present potential solutions to issues that are raised.^[3]

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- 1 History
- 2 Guiding Principles
- 3 Adventure Learning Project Examples
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History

Made possible by teachers dedicated to the pursuit of finding meaningful use of technologies being introduced in the school system, adventure learning began with early explorers such as Will Steger, Dan Buettner, Robert Ballard, Lonnie Dupree, Paul Pregont and Mille Porsild in the trenches working with teachers and students in the classrooms to connect the real world experiences on the trail with learning in the classroom in the early 1990's -- when Internet connectivity was still very limited. In 1998 Jay Curtis Bonk in and Bill Sugar first published about the concept and method of adventure learning^[4] describing their research on initial programming developed by Jennifer Gasperini of Global Center of Environmental Education at University of Hamline.^[5]

In the early stages of online education and Internet connectivity it was issues of technology both in the classroom and from the field that limited the development of the adventure learning framework. The Jason program pushed the envelope of transmitting from the field as they communicated while diving the ocean; Classroom Connect accelerated the live interaction between curricula objectives and field communication with their "student-choose-the-route" approach. Major advances was made with Arctic Blast 2001 (<http://arcticblast.polarhusky.com>) , considered to be the first full-scale adventure learning program in that it was the first live adventure learning program that involved actual online collaboration, a founding principle of adventure learning. Developed by NOMADS Adventure and Education, one thousand schools were able to be online at the same time and collaborate on tasks within a secure space (Collaboration Zones) as well as participate in moderated chats with subject-matter experts. The technology used to enable the collaboration was Lotus Notes, Sametime Chat and Quickplaces earning the IBM Beacon Award for best educational use worldwide of IBM technologies in 2002.

The World School for Adventure Learning, Classroom Connect, the Jason Program, Adventure Online and

PolarHusky.com were some of the leading entities that continuously pushed the concept of adventure learning through the early 2000's, and it was working with Mille Porsild founder of PolarHusky.com (<http://www.polarhusky.com>) that Aaron Doering in 2006 defined the framework and guiding principles of adventure learning. These have later been refined by Doering and Charles Miller in 2009.^[6] The first adventure learning program “supported by theory and long-term research”^[7] was the GoNorth! Adventure Learning Series (<http://www.polarhusky.com/>) at PolarHusky.com of circumpolar Arctic dogsledding expeditions, which earned the The Tech Award (<http://thetechawards.thetech.org/the-laureates/stories/1460/>) reaching millions of learners worldwide exploring topics such as sustainability, environment, science and traditional cultures. Other examples of adventure learning projects include Earthducation (<http://www.earthducation.com/>) , the Jason Project (<http://www.jason.org/>) , and the Quest series of bicycle treks (e.g., see [1] (<http://www.teachervision.fen.com/tv/classroomconnect/maya/index.html>))).

Guiding Principles

The adventure learning framework includes nine principles (Fig. 1):

- the identification of an issue and respective location of exploration
- a researched curriculum grounded in problem-solving that guides the progression and evolution of the AL program
- collaboration and interaction opportunities between students, experts, peers, explorers, and content
- education that is adventure-based
- exploration of the issue, environment, local population, culture, and additional relevant factors that provide an authentic narrative for students and teachers to follow
- design and utilization of an Internet-driven learning environment for curricular organization, collaboration, and media delivery
- enhancement of the curriculum with media (e.g., photos, video, audio, etc.) and text delivered from the field in a timely manner
- synched learning opportunities with the AL curriculum and online learning environment
- pedagogical integration guidelines and strategies for the curriculum and online learning environment



Figure 1. Guiding principles of the AL framework^[8]

Adventure Learning Project Examples

GoNorth! Beringia 2011- 2012 (<http://www.PolarHusky.com/>) The first of the GoNorth! South! West! East! adventure learning series, four adventure learning programs led by Mille Porsild bringing millions of learners from five continents around the world to the ancient Arctic Beringia in Alaska and Chukotka, to Patagonia ice sheets, Mongolia's steppe and eastern Europe's mountain ranges exploring sustainable development of Earth's resources.

Earthducation (<http://www.earthducation.com/>) A series of 8 expeditions to climate hotspots on all 7 continents over the course of 4 years (2010 through 2014) designed to create a world narrative of the dynamic intersections between education and sustainability.

GoNorth! 2010 Greenland (<http://www.polarhusky.com/>) GoNorth! Adventure Learning at PolarHusky.com: Team GoNorth! led by Mille Porsild brought focus to the oceans, to Greenland, and to the Kalaallit people as the team explored approaches to sustainable development of the ocean's resources, sharing their journey and discoveries with millions of schoolchildren around the world.

GoNorth! 2009 Nunavut (<http://2009.polarhusky.com/>) GoNorth! Adventure Learning at PolarHusky.com: Team GoNorth! led by Mille Porsild explored the consequences of transboundary pollution as the team traveled along the spine of Baffin Island and up the coast of the Arctic Ocean and Baffin Bay in the land of the Inuktitut people.

GoNorth! 2008 Fennoscandia (<http://2008.polarhusky.com/>) GoNorth! Adventure Learning at PolarHusky.com: Team GoNorth! led by Paul Pregont and Mille Porsild traveled Sapmi, the ancient land of the Sami people, a 1,000 miles by dogsled across Arctic Sweden, Finland, and Norway investigating the issues of deforestation.

GoNorth! 2007 Chukotka (<http://2007.polarhusky.com/>) GoNorth! Adventure Learning at PolarHusky.com: Traveling to what is considered the most remote Arctic region, Team GoNorth! led by Paul Pregont and Mille Porsild explored culture and the use of mineral resources in the last secret outpost of the former Soviet Union. Geographically isolated, the peninsula is considered one of the least known places on earth.

GoNorth! 2006 Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (<http://polarhusky.com/2006/home2006.asp/>) GoNorth! Adventure Learning at PolarHusky.com: Team GoNorth! led by Paul Pregont and Mille Porsild made way from Circle Alaska, 5000 feet across Brooks Mountain Range through ANWR to the coastal plain of the Arctic Ocean exploring the Inupiat and Gwich'in cultures and our use of oil as a natural resource extracted in this region.

Arctic Transect 2004 (<http://www.polarhusky.com/2004/congrats.html/>) Adventure learning series at PolarHusky.com: A 6-month, 2,000-mile traverse of the Canadian Arctic from Yellowknife, NWT, to Pond Inlet, Nunavut.

Pimagihowan 2002-2003 (<http://polarhusky.com/2003/onlineclassroom/>) Adventure learning series at PolarHusky.com: Working with the Oji-Cree people this adventure learning program led by Paul Pregont and Mille Porsild set out over a two-year period to explore the land of the Hudson Bay region, the seasons and use of natural resources.

Arctic Blast 2001 (<http://arcticblast.polarhusky.com/>) Adventure learning at PolarHusky.com: The first full-scale adventure learning program developed by NOMADS Adventure & Education in collaboration with IBM Lotus, Connectria and National Geographic. Mille Porsild, Paul Pregont and the Polar Huskies journeyed the newly established territory of Nunavut in Canada a 4-month, 2,500-mile journey from Churchill on the southern border of Nunavut to the most northern community in North America, Grise Fiord.

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Inquiry-based learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Inquiry-based learning (**Enquiry-based learning** in British English) or **inquiry-based science** describes a range of philosophical, curricular and pedagogical approaches to teaching.

Inquiry-based learning is an instructional method developed during the discovery learning movement of the 1960s. It was developed in response to a perceived failure of more traditional forms of instruction, where students were required simply to memorize fact laden instructional materials (Bruner, 1961). Inquiry learning is a form of active learning, where progress is assessed by how well students develop experimental and analytical skills rather than how much knowledge they possess.

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Open Learning

Main article: Open learning

Now, an important aspect of inquiry-based science is the use of open learning. Open learning is when there is no

In open teaching, on the other hand, the student is either left to discover for themselves what the result of the experiment is, or the teacher guides them to the desired learning goal but without making it explicit what this is. Open teaching is an important but difficult skill for teachers to acquire.

Open learning has many benefits. It means students do not simply perform experiments in a routine like fashion, but actually think about the results they collect and what they mean. With traditional non-open lessons there is a tendency for students to say that the experiment 'went wrong' when they collect results contrary to what they are told to expect. In open lessons there are no wrong results, and students have to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the results they collect themselves and decide their value. Because the path taken to a desired learning target is uncertain, open lessons are more dynamic and less predictable than traditional lessons.

Open learning has been developed by a number of science educators including the American John Dewey and the German Martin Wagenschein. Wagenschein's ideas particularly complement both open learning and inquiry teaching. He emphasized that students should not be taught bald facts, but should be made to understand and explain what they are learning. His most famous example of this was when he asked physics students to tell him what the speed of a falling object was. Nearly all students would produce an equation. But no students could

explain what this equation meant. Wagenschien used this example to show the importance of understanding over knowledge.

Inquiry-based learning has been of great influence in science education, where it is known as Inquiry-based science, especially since the publication of the U.S. National Science Educational Standards in 1996. Since this publication some educators have advocated a return to more traditional methods of teaching and assessment. Others feel inquiry is important in teaching students to research and learning (e.g., see Constructivism (learning theory)).

Scientists use their background knowledge of principles, concepts and theories, along with the science process skills to construct new explanations to allow them to understand the natural world. This is known as "science inquiry".

The National Science Education Standards call for students to do inquiry, and to know about inquiry. When students do inquiry, they use the same ideas as scientists do when they are conducting research. Students become 'mini-scientists.'

When students are learning about inquiry, they should become familiar with the processes used by scientists, and the new knowledge that results. Inquiry is a natural introduction to the branch of epistemology known as the Nature of Science, which deals with the characteristics of scientific knowledge.

The National Science Education Standards were often misunderstood with regard to inquiry-based learning. As a result, the National Research Council put out a second volume, entitled 'Inquiry and the National Science Education Standards' in 2000.

Inquiry-based learning in science education

Heather Banchi and Randy Bell (2008) suggest that there are four levels (http://www.nsta.org/publications/download.aspx?s=mail&d=013111&id=Z349URi8cV7CIwhXjO7KEi4OSfaJzlU50cUKZ1zkldE=&utm_source=newsletter&utm_medium=email&utm_campaign=ElemSciClassFebruary2011) of inquiry-based learning in science education: confirmation inquiry, structured inquiry, guided inquiry and open inquiry. With confirmation inquiry, students are provided with the question and procedure (method), and the results are known in advance. Confirmation inquiry is useful when a teacher's goal is to reinforce a previously introduced idea; to introduce students to the experience of conducting investigations; or to have students practice a specific inquiry skill, such as collecting and recording data.

In structured inquiry, the question and procedure are still provided by the teacher; however, students generate an explanation supported by the evidence they have collected. In guided inquiry, the teacher provides students with only the research question, and students design the procedure (method) to test their question and the resulting explanations. Because this kind of inquiry is more involved than structured inquiry, it is most successful when students have had numerous opportunities to learn and practice different ways to plan experiments and record data.

At the fourth and highest level of inquiry, open inquiry, students have the purest opportunities to act like scientists, deriving questions, designing and carrying out investigations, and communicating their results. This level requires the most scientific reasoning and greatest cognitive demand from students.

Philosophy

The philosophy of inquiry based learning finds its antecedents in the work of Piaget, Dewey, Vygotsky, and

Freire among others.

Characteristics of inquiry-learning

- Inquiry learning emphasizes constructivist ideas of learning. Knowledge is built in a step-wise fashion. Learning proceeds best in group situations.
- The teacher does not begin with a statement, but with a question. Posing questions for students to solve is a more effective method of instruction in many areas. This allows the students to search for information and learn on their own with the teacher's guidance.
- The topic, problem to be studied, and methods used to answer this problem are determined by the student and not the teacher (this is an example of the 3rd level of the Herron Scale)

The above comments represent a classroom that is fully committed to inquiry, to the greatest extent possible. However, it is not necessary to take an all-or-nothing approach to inquiry-based teaching methods.

In the 1960s, Schwab called for inquiry to be divided into four distinct levels. This was later formalized by Marshal Herron in 1971, who developed the Herron Scale to evaluate the amount of inquiry within a particular lab exercise. Since then, there have been a number of revisions proposed, but the consensus in the science education community is that there is a spectrum of inquiry-based teaching methods available.^[*citation needed*]

Examples of inquiry-based science

- Students develop a method to find which antacid tablets are the best at neutralizing acids.
- Students learn about inertia and movement by studying the effects of rolling of marbles on different surfaces.
- Students work in groups to build bridges to hold marble weights. By doing so they discover how to build strong bridges.
- Inquiry based learning is a way of assuring students become more actively involved in what they are learning, particularly in the content area of Science.
- A special case of inquiry learning is problem-based learning (PBL). Students are assigned to teams and provided with an ill-defined problem. Teams must organize themselves, define objectives, assign responsibilities, conduct research, analyze results, and present conclusions. The problems are purposely “ill-defined,” causing team members to work collaboratively to define specific issues, problems, and objectives. Such tasks mimic the problem-solving skills that professionals engage in, whether repairing automobiles, or treating cancer patients. Problem-based learning employs open-ended questions that are not limited to a single correct answer. The questions elicit diverse ideas and opinions and require students to work as a group. Problem-based learning naturally integrates various fields of study as students search beyond the traditional curricular boundaries to develop solutions.
- The Hands-On Universe (HOU) project is an educational program that enables students to investigate the Universe while applying tools and concepts from science, math, and technology. Using the Internet, HOU participants around the world request observations from an automated telescope, download images from a large image archive, and analyze them with the aid of user-friendly image processing software. The HOU pedagogical resources are typical tools inspired from Inquiry-based science education (IBSE).

Debate

“ After a half century of advocacy associated with instruction using minimal guidance, there appears no body of research supporting the technique. In so far as there is any evidence from controlled studies, it almost uniformly supports direct, strong instructional guidance rather than constructivist-based minimal guidance during the instruction of novice to intermediate learners. Even for students with considerable prior knowledge, strong guidance while learning is most often found to be equally effective as unguided approaches. Not only is unguided instruction normally less effective; there is also evidence that it may have negative results when students acquire misconceptions or incomplete or disorganized knowledge ”

— Why Minimal Guidance During Instruction Does Not Work: An Analysis of the Failure of Constructivist, Discovery, Problem-Based, Experiential, and Inquiry-Based Teaching by Kirschner, Sweller, Clark ^[1]

Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark (2006)^[1] review the literature and have found that although constructivists often cite each others' work, empirical evidence is not often cited. Nonetheless the constructivist movement gained great momentum in the 1990s, because many educators began to write about this philosophy of learning.

Inquiry-based science has been increasingly promoted as a mainstream teaching approach, especially since the publication of the 1996 Standards in Science Education document. However, there are many critics of inquiry-based science.

Science testing has become increasingly important with the No Child Left Behind program, and the rewriting of the National Assessment of Educational Progress to emphasize facts. This has led to a decrease in emphasis on inquiry as a method of teaching science and a fall back to traditional direct instruction methods, which are still employed at the university level.

Hmelo-Silver, Duncan, & Chinn cite several studies supporting the success of the constructivist problem-based and inquiry learning methods. For example, they describe a project called GenScope, an inquiry-based science software application. Students using the GenScope software showed significant gains over the control groups, with the largest gains shown in students from basic courses.^[2]

Hmelo-Silver et al. also cite a large study by Geier on the effectiveness of inquiry-based science for middle school students, as demonstrated by their performance on high-stakes standardized tests. The improvement was 14% for the first cohort of students and 13% for the second cohort. This study also found that inquiry-based teaching methods greatly reduced the achievement gap for African-American students.^[2]

Based on their 2005 research, the conservative Thomas B. Fordham Institute concluded that while inquiry-based learning is fine to some degree, it has been carried to excess.^[3]

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See also

- Action learning
- Discovery learning
- McMaster Integrated Science
- Jerome Bruner
- Learning
- Minnesota State University, Mankato Masters Degree in Experiential Education
- Jean Piaget
- Problem-based learning
- Progressive inquiry
- Science education
- Scientific literacy

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Active learning

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Active learning is an umbrella term that refers to several models of instruction that focus the responsibility of learning, on learners. Bonwell and Eison (1991) popularized this approach to instruction (Bonwell & Eison 1991). This "buzz word" of the 1980s became their 1990s report to the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE). In this report they discuss a variety of methodologies for promoting "active learning." While there has been much enthusiasm for active learning, a variety of research studies since the 1990s, has since promoted an important principle: Guidance early, and then practice later is suggested for the best results.^[1]

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- 2 Active learning method: Learning by teaching (LdL)
- 3 Active learning and Policy
- 4 Research supporting active learning
- 5 Notes
- 6 References
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- 7 External links

Active learning exercises

Bonwell and Eison (1991) suggested learners work in pairs, discuss materials while role-playing, debate, engage in case study, take part in cooperative learning, or produce short written exercises, etc. The argument is **when should active learning exercises be used during instruction**. While it makes some sense to use these techniques as a "follow up" exercise or as application of known principles, it may not make sense to use them to introduce material. Proponents argue that these exercises may be used to create a context of material, but this context may be confusing to those with no prior knowledge. The degree of instructor guidance students need while being "active" may vary according to the task and its place in a teaching unit.

Examples of "active learning" activities include:

- A **class discussion** may be held in person or in an online environment. Discussions can be conducted with any class size, although it is typically more effective in smaller group settings. This environment allows for instructor guidance of the learning experience. Discussion requires the learners to think critically on the subject matter and use logic to evaluate their and others' positions. As learners are expected to discuss material constructively and intelligently, a discussion is a good follow-up activity given the unit has been sufficiently covered already.^[2]
- A **think-pair-share** activity is when learners take a minute to ponder the previous lesson, later to discuss it with one or more of their peers, finally to share it with the class as part of a formal discussion. It is during this formal discussion that the instructor should clarify misconceptions. However students need a background in the subject matter to converse in a meaningful way. Therefore a "think-pair-share" exercise is useful in situations where learners can identify and relate what they already know to others. So preparation is key. Prepare learners with sound instruction before expecting them to discuss it on their own.
- A **learning cell** is an effective way for a pair of students to study and learn together. The learning cell was developed by Marcel Goldschmid of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology in Lausanne (Goldschmid, 1971). A learning cell is a process of learning where two students alternate asking and answering questions on commonly read materials. To prepare for the assignment, the students will read the assignment and write down questions that they have about the reading. At the next class meeting, the teacher will randomly put the students in pairs. The process begins by designating one student from each group to begin by asking one of their questions to the other. Once the two students discuss the question. The other student will ask a question and they will alternate accordingly. During this time, the teacher is going around the class from group to group giving feedback and answering questions. This system is also referred to as a

student dyad.

- A **short written exercise** that is often used is the "one minute paper." This is a good way to review materials and provide feedback. However a "one minute paper" does not take one minute and for students to concisely summarize it is suggested that they have at least 10 minutes to work on this exercise.
- A **collaborative learning group** is a successful way to learn different material for different classes. It is where you assign students in groups of 3-6 people and they are given an assignment or task to work on together. This assignment could be either to answer a question to present to the entire class or a project. Make sure that the students in the group choose a leader and a note-taker to keep them on track with the process. This is a good example of active learning because it causes the students to review the work that is being required at an earlier time to participate. (McKinney, Kathleen. (2010). *Active Learning*. Normal, IL. Center for Teaching, Learning & Technology.)
- A **student debate** is an active way for students to learn because they allow students the chance to take a position and gather information to support their view and explain it to others. These debates not only give the student a chance to participate in a fun activity but it also lets them gain some experience with giving a verbal presentation. (McKinney, Kathleen. (2010). *Active Learning*. Normal, IL. Center for Teaching, Learning & Technology.)
- A **reaction to a video** is also an example of active learning because most students love to watch movies. The video helps the student to understand what they are learning at the time in an alternative presentation mode. Make sure that the video relates to the topic that they are studying at the moment. Try to include a few questions before you start the video so they will pay more attention and notice where to focus at during the video. After the video is complete divide the students either into groups or pairs so that they may discuss what they learned and write a review or reaction to the movie. (McKinney, Kathleen. (2010). *Active Learning*. Normal, IL. Center for Teaching, Learning & Technology.)
- A **class game** is also considered an energetic way to learn because it not only helps the students to review the course material before a big exam but it helps them to enjoy learning about a topic. Different games such as jeopardy and crossword puzzles always seem to get the students minds going. (McKinney, Kathleen. (2010). *Active Learning*. Normal, IL. Center for Teaching, Learning & Technology.)

Active learning method: Learning by teaching (LdL)

Main article: Learning by teaching

An efficient instructional strategy that mixes guidance with active learning is "Learning by teaching" (Martin 1985, Martin/Oebel 2007). This strategy allows students to teach the new content to each other. Of course they must be accurately guided by instructors. This methodology was introduced during the early 1980s, especially in Germany, and is now well-established in all levels of the German educational system.^[3] "Learning by teaching" is integration of behaviorism and cognitivism and offers a coherent framework for theory and practice.

Active learning and Policy

Policy may be satisfied by demonstrating the instructional effectiveness of instruction. Educational rubrics are a good way to evaluate "active learning" based instruction. These instructional tools can be used to describe the various qualities of any activity. In addition, if given to the student, they can dancok provide additional guidance (here is an example rubric (<http://webquest.sdsu.edu/webquestrubric.html>)).

In the past few years outcome-based education policy has begun to limit instructors to only using those techniques that have been shown to be effective. In the United States for instance, the No Child Left Behind Act requires those developing instruction to show evidence of its "effectiveness."

Research supporting active learning

One study has shown evidence to support active learning.^[4] Bonwell and Eison (1991) state that active learning strategies are comparable to lectures for kawen achieving content mastery, but superior to lectures for developing thinking and writing skills.^[5]

According to another study by Armstrong (1983), students who receive a formal education learn better when they are actively engaged in the learning process as opposed to those who do not partake in the learning process.^[6]

Notes

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- ↑ McKeachie, W.J., Svinicki, M. (2006). *Teaching Tips: Strategies, Research, and Theory for College and University Teachers*. Belmont, CA. Wadsworth.
- ↑ Jean-Pol Martin: *Zum Aufbau didaktischer Teilkompetenzen beim Schüler. Fremdsprachenunterricht auf der lerntheoretischen Basis des Informationsverarbeitungsansatzes*. Dissertation. Tübingen: Narr. 1985; Jean-Pol Martin, Guido Oebel (2007): *Lernen durch Lehren: Paradigmenwechsel in der Didaktik?*, In: *Deutschunterricht in Japan*, 12, 2007, 4–21 (Zeitschrift des Japanischen Lehrerverbandes, ISBN 1342-6575)
- ↑ http://advan.physiology.org/cgi/content/short/30/4/159
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- ↑ J. Scott Armstrong (1983). "Learner Responsibility in Management Education, or Ventures into Forbidden Research (with Comments)" (<http://marketing.wharton.upenn.edu/documents/research/Learner%20Responsibility.pdf>) . <http://marketing.wharton.upenn.edu/documents/research/Learner%20Responsibility.pdf>.

active learning means active engagement and understsrshijoup.

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External links

- Prince, M. (2004). Does Active Learning Work? A Review of the Research (<https://docs.google.com/viewer?url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.tc.umn.edu%2F~rozai001%2Fworkshops%2Flecture%2FDoes%2520Active%2520Learning%2520Work.pdf>) . *Journal of Engineering Education*, 93(3), 223-232.

- Making Active Learning Work (<http://www1.umn.edu/ohr/teachlearn/tutorials/active/index.html>)
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- The Essential Elements of Cooperative Learning in the Classroom. ERIC Digest. (<http://www.ericdigests.org/1995-1/elements.htm>)
- Active learning section of Geoff Petty's practical guide on improving teaching and learning. (<http://www.geoffpetty.com/activelearning.html>)
- Active Learning and Library Instruction (<http://www.libraryinstruction.com/active.html>)
- Platform for Active Learning (University of Hull) (<http://www.hull.ac.uk/pal/>) . Includes bank of examples.
- Educational psychology in classroom settings. A developing open-source **Wikibook** related to learning as discussed in this article.
- Learning by teaching - by Jody Skinner (http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/koblenz1_jody.htm)
- Action-oriented learning area teaching at vocational schools - Rainer Gerke, Ph.D. (Weimar University) (<http://en.rainergerke.net>)

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Community-based participatory research

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Community-based participatory research (CBPR) is research that is conducted as an equal partnership between traditionally trained "experts" and members of a community. In CBPR projects, the community participates fully in all aspects of the research process. CBPR projects start with the community. *Community* is often self-defined, but general categories of community include geographic community, community of individuals with a common problem or issue, or a community of individuals with a common interest or goal. CBPR encourages collaboration of "formally trained research" partners from any area of expertise, provided that the researcher provide expertise that is seen as useful to the investigation by the community, and be fully committed to a partnership of equals and producing outcomes usable to the community. Equitable partnerships require sharing power, resources, credit, results, and knowledge, as well as a reciprocal appreciation of each partner's knowledge and skills at each stage of the project, including problem definition/issue selection, research design, conducting research, interpreting the results, and determining how the results should be used for action. CBPR differs from traditional research in many ways. One of the principal ways in which it is different is that instead of creating knowledge for the advancement of a field or for knowledge's sake, CBPR is an iterative process, incorporating research, reflection, and action in a cyclical process.

Contents

- 1 History
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History

The historical roots of CBPR generally trace back to the development of participatory action research by Kurt Lewin and Orlando Fals Borda, and the popular education movement in Latin America associated with Paulo Freire.^{[1][2]}

See also

Centre for Community Based Research (www.communitybasedresearch.ca)

- Participatory Action Research (PAR)
- Asset Based Community Development (ABCD)
- Community organizing
- Participatory rural appraisal (PRA)
- *Progress in Community Health Partnerships: Research, Education, and Action (PCHP)*
- Environmental Justice
- PCHP Website (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/index.html)
- Author Guidelines (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships)

/guidelines.html)

- A Vision for Progress in Community Health Partnerships (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/1.1tandon.pdf)
- Inagural Issue Sample Reader (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/SampleReader.pdf)
- Guidelines for Writing Manuscripts About Community-based Participatory Research in Peer-Reviewed Journals (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/1.3bordeaux.pdf)
- Beyond the Manuscript Podcasts (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/multimedia.html)
- Community Policy Briefs (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/related_info.html)

Editorial Board (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/external_editorial_board.pdf)

Access PCHP (http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships_research_education_and_action/) at Project MUSE

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1. ^ Wallerstein, N. and B. Duran (2003). The Conceptual, Historical and Practical Roots of Community Based Participatory Research and Related Participatory Traditions.
2. ^ Community Based Participatory Research for Health. M. Minkler and N. Wallerstein. San Francisco, Jossey Bass: 27-52

External links

- Cofundos (<http://wiki.cofundos.org>) aims at establishing a prediction market for funding of participatory research.
- Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (<http://depts.washington.edu/ccph/index.html>)
- *Progress in Community Health Partnerships: Research, Education, and Action* (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/progress_in_community_health_partnerships/) - The mission of the Journal is to facilitate dissemination of programs that use community partnerships to improve public health, to promote progress in the methods of research and education involving community health partnerships, and to stimulate action that will improve the health of people in communities. Communities, as defined by the Journal, may be based on geography, shared interests, or social networks. The Journal is dedicated to supporting the work of community health partnerships that involve ongoing collaboration between community representatives and academic or governmental partners. This area of research and evaluation may be referred to as community-based participatory research (CBPR). The W. K. Kellogg Foundation defines CBPR as a collaborative approach to research that equitably involves all partners in the research process and recognizes the unique strengths that each brings. CBPR begins with a research topic of importance to the community and has the aim of combining knowledge with action and achieving social change to improve health outcomes and eliminate health disparities.
- *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved* (https://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/journal_of_health_care_for_the_poor_and_underserved/index.html) The *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved (JHCPU)* is an academic journal founded in 1990 by David Satcher, MD,

PhD then President of Meharry Medical College (later, U.S. Surgeon General). *JHCPU* is published by Johns Hopkins University Press for Meharry, and is affiliated with the Association of Clinicians for the Underserved (<http://www.clinicians.org>) . It is the premier journal covering the health and health care of medically underserved populations in North and Central America and the Caribbean.

- Participatory Research, Community Development and Drug Misuse (1) (<http://qed.emcdda.europa.eu/journal/papers5.shtml>) (2) (<http://qed.emcdda.europa.eu/journal/papers6.shtml>)
- *Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR): A Partnership Approach for Public Health* (<http://www.cbpr-training.org/>) is a free training resource available from the Michigan Public Health Training Center and the Detroit Community-Academic Urban Research Center. This training resource is intended as an introduction to CBPR for people who are in the early stages of using or considering using CBPR. It is designed for academic researchers from multiple fields, including public health, education, nursing, medicine, social work, urban planning, and for health and human service practitioners, and members of community-based organizations.

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