Renata Kurimoto Marques

Self-Directed Learning in the Eyes and Hands of Teachers of Adults

A Quantitative Approach

Master's thesis in Adult Learning

Trondheim, October 2014

Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology Management
Department of Adult Learning and Counseling

NTNU – Trondheim
Norwegian University of
Science and Technology

ABSTRACT

Self-directed learning is viewed by many specialists as one of the main aspects of Adult Education, due to the autonomous nature of adults. Such autonomy presents a challenge to teachers, who must share with their adult students at least part of the responsibility for the various aspects of their learning process. Indeed, educational methodologies can be divided into student-centered and teacher-centered methods.

This quantitative study aims to explore how teachers of adults share responsibility with their students, and how these teachers view their primary role as adult educators, based on aspects of Adult Education and Self-directed Learning theories. Data was collected through a self-administered web questionnaire, made available to teachers of adults who act in a variety of professional settings.

The findings from this study indicate that, in general, Adult Education is teacher-centered, and that the level of students' self-direction allowed in Adult Education practice varies according to the type of education, institutional rules and guidelines, students' educational level, and teachers' age. Teachers do not view themselves as the absolute authority in the classroom, but rather as motivators, guides, or subject experts. This perception is influenced by teachers' professional experience with both adults and children.

PREFACE

As many other teachers of adults, my teaching career started by chance. After 16 years, I still remember how nervous and insecure I was when I faced my first group of students, and how excited and rewarded I felt when I left that classroom. Throughout these years, as a teacher, I studied, experimented, planned, improvised, failed, and succeeded many times. As a teacher trainer, I had the opportunity to help inexperienced teachers feel less nervous and insecure as I had felt, and to help them see how fascinating and challenging it is to help someone learn.

The Master Program in Adult Learning confirmed and enlightened many of my beliefs and assumptions as a teacher of adults, and gave me the opportunity to investigate a little deeper how other teachers experience their practice. This work is the result of such an investigation, which would not have been possible without the contribution of the teachers who shared their views and experiences with me through the survey. I am greatly thankful for their contribution, and special acknowledgment must be given to the people at AMOS (Centre for Autonomous Marine Operations and Systems) – NTNU, Studieforbundet Folkeuniversitetet and UP Language Consultants, who believed in this study and kindly promoted this survey among their teaching staff.

I am also thankful to my supervisor, Wenche M. Rønning. Without her experienced advice I would not be able to reach a tenth of what I did. I also wish to thank Kyrre Svarva, whose technology expertise was crucial for the development of this study, in terms of helping me to develop and distribute the questionnaire, and showing me how to handle the database. I am grateful to my colleagues and lecturers at IVR, for the fruitful discussions we had in our encounters, which led me to the ideas which resulted in this work.

The students and peer teachers I have met throughout my career were also very important, for they shaped my experience, my values, and my beliefs in respect to Adult

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of figures

List of tables

Acronyms and abbreviations

ANOVA   Analysis of Variance

ESREA   European Society for Research on the Education of Adults

IP   Internet Protocol

IVR   *Institutt for Voksnes Læring og Rådgivningsvitenskap* (Department of Adult
Learning and Counseling)

NSD   *Norsk Samfunnsvitenskapelig Datatjeneste* (Norwegian SocialScience Data Services)

NTNU   *Norges Teknisk-naturvitenskapelige Universitet* (Norwegian University of Science and Technology)

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SVT   *Fakultet for Samfunnsvitenskap og Teknologiledelse* (Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology Management)

UNESCO   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

1. INTRODUCTION

Adult education is based on the assumption that teaching adults is different from teaching children. This has generated much debate, leading to different opinions and research efforts (Kerka, 2002). Rønning and Grepperud (2011), for example, affirm that there is no documented evidence of cognitive and intellectual differences regarding the learning of adults and that of children; in fact, it is adults' contextual aspects (personal and professional responsibilities) and life experience that distinguish them from children. These aspects present a challenge to adult teachers, who are thus required to share with their learners the responsibility for the different aspects and steps of the learning process, and to attempt to relate the learning content to the learners' own context and experience, so as to make it relevant.

The goal of this study is to explore how teachers of adults deal with self-directed learning, with respect to how responsibility over the learning process is shared, and how these teachers view their role in adult education. A questionnaire was developed and distributed to teachers of adults who work with different subjects, in different types and levels of education, in different educational contexts and in different countries, in order to analyze, through a quantitative approach, their views on Adult Education and self-directed learning.

1.1 Motivation

Adult Education has tended to emphasize the learner and learning, rather than the teacher and teaching, in contrast to initial education. The teacher is regarded as an important adjunct to learning, often necessary, but never essential to it. However, many theorists acknowledge that serious negative consequences may occur if too much emphasis is given to this view of the teacher. After all, learning can and does occur without a teacher, but the teacher is regarded as a major facilitator in any learning process (Jarvis, 1995).

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) "recommends that the appropriate authorities in Member States fully acknowledge the direct influence of adult education workers on the development and on the quality of education" (UNESCO, 1985, p. 55), and declares that "adult education calls for special skills, knowledge, understanding and attitudes on the part of those who are involved in providing it, in whatever capacity and for any purpose" (UNESCO, 1976, p. 9).

The fact is that there is not much research dedicated to teachers of adults available in the literature. One of the reasons for such unavailability, according to The Official Website of the ESREA (European Society for Research on the Education of Adults) Research Network on Adult Educators, Trainers and their Professional Development[1], may be the fact that "adult learning staff in general have a variety of backgrounds, ...there is no standard pathway for becoming an adult learning professional. ...In many countries and settings, no specific qualifications are required for becoming an adult educator". This fact is confirmed by Rønning and Grepperud (2011), who claim that adult teachers' competence and qualification have a marginal place in the educational system, not only in Scandinavia, but also in Europe, generally. Moreover, as Brattset published in 1987, which is still applicable to the current situation, it is difficult to estimate the number of professionals involved in Adult Education throughout the world; most countries do not have statistical accounts on adult educators, and that may be caused by the fact that many Adult Education providers employ professionals at a part-time basis, for a short period of time. Still according to Brattset, adult educators form a very heterogeneous group regarding their roles, tasks, education, background, and segments. In addition, many of the professionals, and even organizations involved in Adult Education regard their contribution as teachers in the field as their secondary task (Brattset, 1987).

---

[1]http://www.esrea-renadet.net/resources.htm, accessed on April 22, 2014.

A better understanding of the professionals who are responsible for teaching adults is therefore necessary for improving and optimizing the resources employed in Adult Education, thus ensuring a higher quality education for all. And, according to UNESCO's 2nd Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (UNESCO, 2013), one of the quality criteria to assess Adult Education is the teaching and learning methodologies employed. They can be viewed in terms of two dominant pedagogical approaches, namely the teacher-centered one, where the adult learner reproduces knowledge or behavior presented by the teacher; and the learner-centered approach, where the focus lays on active learning. Of these two approaches, it can be said that the latter poses a greater challenge to the adult educator, as it involves the learner playing a much more active part in the learning process.

Bringing the problem down to the practical, daily reality of Adult Education, identifying how teachers handle learners who have a tendency to self-direction seems to be a valuable contribution to the field. The present work thus tries to answer the following research questions:

How do teachers of adults deal with self-directed learning regarding the different aspects of the learning process?

How do teachers of adults view their role in Adult Education?

1.2 Organization

This study is organized as follows: first, in the theoretical part, the literature concerning Adult Education, self-direction and the roles of teachers is explored. Next, the survey and its results are presented and analyzed. The discussion part presents the survey findings and, finally, a conclusion gathers the main points of this work and presents suggestions for further Adult Education research and practice.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Adult Education

The Institute for Lifelong Learning of UNESCO defines Adult Education as:

> ..."*the entire body of ongoing processes, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, and improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction to meet their own needs and those of their society*"
> (UNESCO, 2010, p. 5)

As a field of science, Adult Education is relatively new, and its knowledge base consists of a variety of models, principles, tentative theories and explanations regarding how adults learn. Adult Education appeared as a professional field of practice in the 1920s. The early research on Adult Education was concerned about whether or not adults could learn, and was approached from a behavioral psychological perspective. Advances in the understanding of human learning, such as intelligence, problem solving and cognitive development, put this first inquiry to rest, approximately in the mid-twentieth century. The focus then changed to differentiating adult education from education in childhood (Merriam, 2001, 2004).

Malcolm Knowles was one of the first theorists of Adult Education, influencing many others. In the 60s he proposed an andragogical theory of learning, based on six assumptions about adult learners, differing their learning process from that of children. According to Knowles' andragogical model (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998), i) adults need to know why they need to learn something before engaging in learning; ii) they see themselves as

being responsible for their own decisions, and capable of self-direction; iii) adults' life experience influence their learning, their behavior and their view of themselves and of the world; iv) adults' readiness to learn is linked to their real life situations; v) their learning is task-centered, more than subject-oriented, which is the case of children; and vi) adults are usually intrinsically motivated, while children often are considered to be more motivated by external factors. He defined andragogy as "the art and science of helping adults learn".

Critics of andragogy claim that what Knowles developed was a set of assumptions that can help understand how adults learn, but it is far from being a theory (Tøsse, 2011). In fact, many researchers feel that the search for a general theory of adult learning is comparable to the search for Eldorado: it is of great significance, but contains little promise of successful completion. This is because "learning activities and learning styles vary so much with physiology, culture and personality, that generalized statements about the nature of adult learning have very low predictive power" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 25).

Indeed, further research concerning what adult education entails did not extend very far from Knowles' ideas, and can be summarized, according to Brookfield (1986), as follows: Learning is a lifelong phenomenon, and it happens in different ways, at different times, for different purposes, as diverse learning styles can be found among adults. But, as a rule, adults prefer their learning activities to be problem centered, meaningful to their life situation, and of immediate application. Past experiences definitely affect adult learning, either as an enhancement or a hindrance to the process. Finally, adults show a tendency toward self-direction in their learning.

Adult Education is a multidisciplinary field of study. Discussions around the theme may be based on principles from philosophy, psychology, education, politics, and sociology, just to name a few. In this work, which focuses on the teachers of adults, special attention is given to self-direction, as learner-centered education requires teachers to continuously reflect

upon their practices, as the focus is shifted from the simple transmission of content by the teacher to the acquisition of content by learners (Knowles, 1975).

2.2 Self-Directed Learning

The literature regarding self-directed learning is composed of a variety of nuances. A number of different concepts or frameworks can be found, depending on which aspect of the phenomenon is taken into consideration. Some consider self-directed learning as a personal characteristic, others as a goal in itself, while some theorists view it as another learning process.

Knowles (1975) views self-directed learning as an inherent characteristic of adults, closely related to a natural process of psychological development. He describes self-directed learning as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes." (1975, p. 18), as opposed to teacher-directed learning.

For Hiemstra (1989), every person and learning situation is composed of some degree of self-direction, so learners can become empowered to take responsibility for various decisions associated with the learning endeavor. Self-directed learning is therefore any study form in which individuals have primary responsibility for planning, implementing and even evaluating their effort. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) have a very similar view. They understand self-directed learning as a learner-centered process – more important than the content to be learned – in which people take the primary initiative for planning, carrying out, and evaluating their own learning experiences.

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) define self-directed learning as an instructional process, and as such it focuses on need assessment, resource selection, activity implementation, and learning evaluation. They recognize both external and internal factors involved in such

processes. External factors, such as learning resources, teacher roles and skills, and study groups, facilitate adults taking primary responsibility for learning. On the other hand, internal factors are those personality characteristics that incline a person toward accepting such responsibility; for instance, proactiveness, personal engagement, and willingness to self-actualization. The authors view self-directed learning as a means by which individuals can fully realize their greatest potential as human beings. Chené (1983) also identifies two aspects in self-directed learning. One is psychological, related to the ability of a person to learn on one's own, which is dependent on the individual's degree of psychological maturity; the adult is viewed as the agent of education and the producer of knowledge. The other aspect is operational, where learners may resort to teachers, techniques or material which will be of assistance to learning; it relates to a methodology which either assumes that the learner is autonomous or aims at achieving autonomy through training.

Mocker and Spear (1982) define self-directed learning as one of four learning categories based on learner versus institution control. Thus, in self-directed learning, learners control both the objectives and the means of their learning. This is opposed to formal learning, where learners have less control over their learning objectives or means; non-formal, where learners control the learning objectives but not the means; and informal, where learners control the means but not the objectives of their learning.

A study by Gibbons et al. (1980) includes principles that contribute to a tentative theory of self-education. According to these principles, learning control lies within the learner, rather than in institutions. The self-directed learner is motivated by a desire to achieve in a given field, usually for immediate application. Therefore, a general sense of achievement, such as recognition and awards, is important. The field to which self-directed learners dedicate their efforts is chosen based on previous experience, interests and abilities. These learners draw from a variety of methods and techniques, which are most compatible

with their learning style. The optimal environment for self-education is supposed to be warm and supportive, where there is a close relationship with at least one other individual. It is argued that these characteristics correspond closely to those comprising a mature personality, and are associated with self-actualization.

In his book *Self-Direction for Lifelong Learning*, Candy (1991) defines self-directed learning not as a single, unitary concept, but as a continuum along which various instructional situations may be placed. These situations vary from being highly teacher-controlled, on one end of the continuum, to highly learner-controlled on the opposite extreme, as it can be seen in Figure 1.
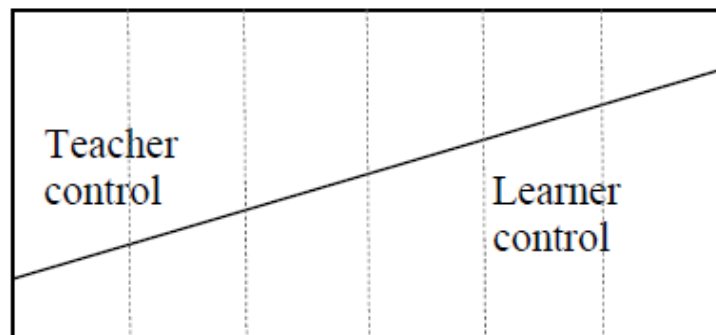
Figure 1. Self-directed learning continuum. Adapted from Candy, 1991, p.10

This sliding scale or continuum expresses the changing balance of authority on the part of the teacher and responsibility on the part of the learner. Such a diagram expresses the notion of reciprocity and equilibrium in the teaching/learning situation, and implies the idea of gradual or progressive change from one model (teacher-controlled) to another (learner-controlled). Moreover, it shows that even in highly teacher-controlled situations there is still some trace of learner-control. The same appears on the other end of the continuum, where even in the most liberal of learner-controlled situations, the teacher may still, in the eyes of the learner, have some residual authority to make decisions affecting the learner.

Candy (1991) has also identified some studies that consider several dimensions of self-directed learning. According to these studies, self-directed learning is viewed as

comprised of different elements, areas or activities over which learners can have different levels of control. These define to what extent responsibility over learning is shared between teacher and learner. Among these studies are those of Della-Dora and Blanchard (1979), which argue that there are differing degrees of teacher directedness as there are of self-directedness in deciding what is to be learned; selecting methods and materials for learning; communicating with others about what is being learned and evaluating achievement of goals. Boud and Bridge (1974) identified four linked dimensions to learner-control: pace; choice; method; and content. Cottingham (1977) proposed a classification system, according to which an independent learner controls his or her learning through the acquisition and mastery of instructional principles, techniques and methodologies. Cottingham's system consists of learner control of the following: instructional event; evaluation; clarification of goals; diagnosis; prescriptive decisions; and motivation. It is possible for a learner to be at different levels of self-direction on each of these six dimensions, giving rise to a dynamic dependence / independence relation in the different aspects of the learning situation. A similar view is provided by Moore (1983), who called such self-directed learning dimensions "powers of learning", manifested in three sets of events: goal settings; implementation; and evaluation. According to Moore's work, it is possible to classify any learning program as learner-centered or teacher-centered, on each of these three events.

From these different views on self-directed learning presented by Adult Education researchers, it is possible to summarize that self-directed learning is related to both personal characteristics and external aspects. People may carry within them different levels of self-direction, which can be developed or learned through the experience they have from the contact with external elements, such as resources, facilitators or institutions. Self-directed learning then involves the learner taking some or total control of activities related to planning, implementation and evaluation of their own learning process. Therefore, there must

be cooperation between the self-directed learner and another agent, which can be a teacher, a facilitator, an institution, a training manual, or a practice group, among others. This external agent has several functions, including: passing on knowledge; preparing the learner for the learning process; arranging for the proper learning environment and conditions; conducting learning activities; discussing needs, goals, methods, and results; motivating; confirming or acknowledging learning. As Knowles (1975) pointed out, the external agent has a more technical role, instead of a traditional authoritative or normative role. The teacher – used here as a personification of this external agent – shares with the learner the responsibility for learning. The extent of this sharing varies according to the level of self-direction of the learner in the different steps of the learning process.

2.3 Teachers

This sharing of responsibility, as proposed by the literature regarding self-directed learning, is not aligned with the traditional view of the teacher. The conventionally accepted role of the schoolteacher is in this section compared with the view the Adult Education field has on those involved in teaching adults.

First, in order to expose the role of the teacher in traditional teacher-directed settings, a historical view is provided, where it is possible to understand how the changes in the educational context over time contributed to the idea of what it is to be a teacher. Further, the literature concerning teaching in the area of Adult Education is reviewed.

2.3.1 The traditional role of the teacher

A view of the school as a governmental disciplinary institution for normalizing individuals is presented by Jones (1992) in his historical research of the educational system and of the role of the schoolteacher. He explains that the urban school appeared in the early 19th century, when a concern about the moral and intellectual condition of the urban poor dominated the

British society. Offering cheap education was the solution found to the problem, and a monitorial school system was then set, representing the machinery through which government could scientifically inculcate norms of morality. Their view was that the school, as an "engine" of instruction, could manufacture a disciplinary society. In this pedagogical science, however, the role of the teacher was minimal. It was through the technology of examination and surveillance that a useful population would be formed.

Around the same period, also in England, Sunday school was established, first for children and, few years later, for adults. The goal was to provide the population with both religious education and elementary reading and writing competences. This was motivated by the lack of education and moral principles that was found among the poorest Englishmen. It is considered the first organized adult education initiative, and similar projects could later be observed in other countries, such as Norway, Denmark, United States, New Zealand, Australia and Canada (Tøsse, 2011).

Jones (1992) continues by showing that, with a strategic shift in the discourse of the urban school, the teacher's function altered from that of a mechanical instructor to that of a moral exemplar. From the 1840s, there was a growing concern with the character and training of the good teacher. The new strategy made the teacher into "an irresistible ethical image whose magnetic attraction would transform the children of the laboring classes into ethical subjects responsive to the State's will" (Jones, 1992, p. 60). The child had to be taught to love the teacher and the school, rather than the mean streets. The objective was to create an ethical regime that stimulated morality, and the school then turned into a technology for transforming "wild beings" into ethical subjects (Jones, 1992, p. 65). Later, new economic concerns shifted once more the teacher's mission to one of producing a sober, healthy and competitive working population. However, the size of the classes and the condition of the pupils reduced many teachers to a brutal and machinic authority. It was from a mixture of

fear, disgust and anxiety, rather than love, that the late 19th century schoolteacher approached children in the classrooms. Teachers resorted to a tactic of corporal punishment, and it was only by this tactic that the image of a teacher as a moral exemplar and an efficient instructor could be sustained. The prevalent theory of teaching at that time required that the teacher imposed a commanding presence on the pupils. The atmosphere created in the urban classroom was not "ethical and transformative", but rather "tense and machinic", as described by Jones.

In the early 20th century, the norms of health and medicine imposed upon the elementary teacher another role, in a complex of social agents that advised not only the school children, but the whole working class family. In place of the teacher's isolated mission to project an image of moral authority into the urban slum, the new governmental strategy to form and control their ideal society offered a partnership between home and school. The teacher acted alongside the medical officer in "detecting and dealing with physically and mentally defective children" and devising "methods of teaching hygiene to children" (Jones, 1992, p. 73). This new relationship placed the teacher in a new caring and advisory relationship with the home. The nurturing role of the teacher was emphasized, and the teacher, as a good mother, together with the temporary "home" of the school, would "transform the child of the mean streets and the slum" (Jones, 1992, p. 74).

Tøsse (2011) also reports popular adult education (*folkeopplysning*) initiatives toward public health in Norway. First against tuberculosis, at the end of the 19th century, where doctors assumed the role of hygiene teachers, traveling around the country to teach hygienic practices to the population. Few years later, women organizations joined them, and as a natural step various nursing courses were established to form qualified personnel. They informed the population about a variety of health issues, such as hygiene, baby care, and nutrition. In the interwar period, their activity extended to a variety of vocational courses,

from shoemaking to home economics, due to the need of specialized workforce and better rationality in times of lack of resources and food rationing.

2.3.2 Teachers of adults

Adult Education challenges the traditional view and role of the teacher as the authoritative or caring figure who makes all the decisions concerning students' learning. This is because the adult learner has both the right, the need and the capability to have at least some control over the learning process. For the teacher, however, it may be challenging to understand this new role as a facilitator of learning. For instance, defining how much control to be handled by the learners depends heavily on the students' personal level of self-direction in each step of the learning process. In addition, especially in formal learning, both the teacher and the learner may have to comply with institutional, governmental and/or legal regulations, which inevitably impose constraints on and direct their decisions with regard to how learning should take place.

According to Illeris (2004), there is no definite role a teacher of adults must try to fulfill. It is rather a matter of being authentic, that is, an expression of who the teacher actually is and how the teacher may relate to others as they are. In addition to being able to communicate the subject to students, teachers should also be concerned about being able to facilitate or support students' learning, and being a good guide and role model for them. This involves both an academic identity that relates to the contents of a specific subject area, and a pedagogical identity that relates to the interplay with the participants and, to a greater extent, also to the teacher's self-identity. Galbraith (2004) follows this same line of thought, claiming that, in order to interact with others, teachers need to be genuinely themselves. One who plays a role contradictory to one's natural way of being cannot maintain the authentic connection with students that leads to meaningful learning; therefore, good teaching is characterized by the result of a good balance between understanding one's self as a teacher

and knowing how to develop meaningful learning encounters. Palmer (1998) also argues that one can only teach as one is, that one needs to identify "the teacher within", and then to teach with authenticity and integrity from that identity.

Authenticity, along with credibility, are also cited by Brookfield (1990) as features students value most in teachers. He affirms that an optimal learning environment is characterized by the presence of both authenticity and credibility in the teacher. Authentic teachers are perceived to be allies who are trustworthy, open and honest in their dealings with students, wishing them to succeed. In accordance with college students' reports (Brookfield, 1990), there are four specific indicators of authenticity: congruence, full disclosure, responsiveness and personhood. Congruence, in this context, relates to words and action, that is, the congruence between what teachers say they will do and what they actually do. Full disclosure refers to teachers making public their agendas, expectations and criteria guiding their practice. Responsiveness is related to how teachers show their interest in what and how students are learning, or how they react to the teachers' efforts. Personhood is the perception students have that their teachers are human beings with lives and identities outside the classroom. Credibility, the other fundamental characteristic teachers of adults must have, means that students feel their time has been well spent, as relevant skills or knowledge have been learned. Credibility is recognized by teachers' expertise, experience, rationale, and conviction. Expertise is recognized in a teacher being able to demonstrate a high level of command of the skills or knowledge to be communicated to students. Experience in the field being taught is another indicator of credibility; students value teachers who make classroom decisions based on strategies that worked, or did not work, in the past. Rationale refers to teachers' ability to talk out loud the reasons for their classroom decisions; this gives students the sense that they are in the hands of a trusted guide. Finally, conviction is the feeling students have that teachers consider the content being taught as vitally important; it is

recognized by students when teachers make it clear that what is being taught is so crucial that they want to make sure students have learned them properly.

Jane Vella, an advocate of dialogue-based education, believes that adult students need to feel human equality between teacher and student and between students. Otherwise, if students see their teacher as "the professor", with all the formality and authority this term may carry, as someone with whom there is no room for disagreement, questioning, or challenge, the dialogue is dead (Vella, 2002). Such equality between teachers and adult students is also mentioned by Booth and Schwartz (2012) in their study on boundaries in the teacher-learner relationship: it is reported that instructors of adults often actively encourage their students to see them as co-learners, and encourage students to bring their prior experiences, knowledge, and perspectives into course decisions – defining goals, learning activities and assessment – and assignments. Slightly contrary to this perspective is Paulo Freire, who argues that the teacher is not and does not become equal to the students. Indeed, for Freire, education is always directive, and the teacher is the one who has a plan, a program, a goal for the study. However, the question lies on knowing with whom and toward what education is directive. The directive educator may be liberating or domesticating. The liberating educator tries to establish an atmosphere of partnership in the class, through a critical practice, based on trust and credibility, so students are sure they can have their learning enhanced by being in the teacher's presence. On the other hand, the domesticating educator imposes his will purely by the force and authority of tradition or institutional power (Shor & Freire, 1987).

According to Nesbit, Leach, and Foley (2004), great teachers think strategically and act with commitment. They think and act at several levels, they have an understanding of themselves, of their students, and of the organizational contexts in which they work. Teachers of adults do not just present information, but perform a number of roles or functions, some of

which have an authoritative nature, and others a facilitative nature. Authoritative roles performed by teachers are related fundamentally to teacher-directed learning, and can be recognized by prescription (advising, criticizing, demanding), information giving (being didactic, instructing) and confrontation (challenging, questioning directly). But teachers are also required to perform facilitative roles, such as catharsis (releasing tension in the classroom), motivation (encouraging, eliciting information) and support (approving, validating). According to this view, a skilled teacher is one who can move from one function to another, as the situation requires.

Booth and Schwartz (2012) explore an important topic in the research of teacher-learner relationship: power. It is asserted that adult educators generally present three kinds of power: positional (representing control over punishments and rewards), personal (related to qualities as expertise, friendship and charisma), and political (regarding control or influence over policies, processes or programs). The educator, as the person with power, has the responsibility to be careful and intentional regarding how power affects the teaching-learning relationship. In addition, this relationship between teachers and learners is a dynamics over which power shifts, and this point is particularly relevant to the teacher of adults regarding the andragogical principles and strategies aiming to foster and promote the development of the self-directed adult learner.

In a humanistic view, following the words of Knowles (1970), the central dynamic of the learning process is the learner him/herself, that is, the learner's experiences and view of the world. In other words, the interaction between the learner and his/her environment. Therefore, the art of teaching adults lies in the management of these two variables in the learning process. The fundamental function of the teacher of adults is to create a rich environment from which individuals can extract learning, and guide their interaction with such environment, so as to maximize their learning. The good teacher of adults

conscientiously suppresses his/her own compulsion to teach what he/she knows, in favor of helping learners achieve what they want to learn. Thus, teachers' responsibility lies less in giving ready-made answers to predetermined questions, and more in finding better ways to help learners discover their important questions and answers themselves (Knowles, 1970). Following this concept, Musinski (1999), writing about nurse education, calls adult educators facilitators of learning, which is common in the literature. She affirms that the conversion of a teacher into being a facilitator means switching from "content transmitter" to "process manager", and that a true facilitator is a creator of stimulating teaching and learning experiences. Brookfield (1986), an advocate of learning through critical reflection, expands on this view, claiming that the task of the teacher of adults is to help them to realize that their knowledge, accepted truths, commonly held values, and customary behaviors are contextually and culturally constructed. By being prompted to analyze these, and consider alternative ideas and values, adults can come to an awareness of their situation and take action to alter, improve or keep their circumstances, as they deem necessary.

In an attempt to find out which qualifications an adult educator should have, Wahlgren (2004) concludes that this question cannot be posed in such a general manner, for the work of an adult educator is heavily dependent on the learning context. However, according toWahlgren (2004), in general, a good teacher of adults: i) has good skills in both the matter to be taught and didactics, so that he/she is able to communicate knowledge in a way that students can absorb it; ii) can create a good learning environment; and iii) is able to guide and trigger the student's learning process.

According to the references above, the teacher of adults does not have one role to play; it means that there is no particular definition regarding how to think, behave or perform. This is because the audience of the adult educator will significantly influence how learning takes place, as each student comes with their own experiences and expectations. However,

there are some general guidelines that can be followed. As a summary, it is possible to claim that the teacher of adults is not merely a figure of authority for students; depending on the context and on the goals to be achieved, he/she is rather a guide, a role model, a reference, a provider, an expert, or a co-learner. Neither is the teacher merely a content transmitter, but rather a learning process manager, whose goal is to promote students' learning. Teachers of adults are aware of their position of power, but know that such power is dynamic in the relationship with students, and it is contingent on the learning situations and the needs of the learners. They communicate openly with students, fostering their personal and professional growth. They need to have both subject and didactic knowledge, and need not play the "teacher role", whatever it may be. Because teachers of adults deal with their adult peers, they need to be authentic, in order to have a connection to students that leads to meaningful learning.

Taking into consideration the concepts of Adult Education and self-directed learning, it is possible to say that, in order for the learning endeavors to be successful, both learner and educator must assume roles that are completely different from the traditional ones, typically known from one's childhood. They must be aware that, as Alan Rogers points out, Adult Education is characterized by a sense of greater equality between teacher and learner, and a greater measure of student/learner control. After all, teaching adults has been described as "learning on equal terms", as the students have as much to teach the teacher as the reverse. The unique feature of the adult learning equation is the self-image of the learner, especially the concept of adulthood, even though this sense of "adulthood" will vary from person to person (Rogers, 2002).

3. METHODOLOGY

Primarily, this work intends to contribute with some insight into how teachers of adults deal with self-directed learners in learning processes. A quantitative research approach was preferred, as it is the most appropriate method in order to map or to describe the given scenario. The quantitative approach places its emphasis on facts, relationships and causes, and therefore it is useful in attempts to find patterns or causal relationships between different factors involved in the object of research (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2010; Wiersma, 2000). According to Byrne (2002), another advantage of quantitative research methods, such as surveys, is that they measure the world as it is, without any constants, assumptions or direct intervention/control by the researcher.

3.1 Population and sample

The object of this study is teachers of adults, across a variety of subjects, educational levels, and contexts. As mentioned earlier, there is no accurate estimation of the number of teachers involved in Adult Education, for a number of reasons. As a result, defining a sampling frame, which contains all the elements of the defined population (Czaja & Blair, 2005) proved to be difficult. Therefore, a non-probability sample is used for the purpose of this study. According to de Vaus (2002), non-probability sampling is appropriate when sampling frames are unavailable, or when the population is so disperse that cluster sampling (dividing population in smaller blocks repeatedly, in order to get a sampling frame) would be too inefficient.

The goal in this study is to have a broad sample, which encompasses different professional contexts and backgrounds, in order to find indications of which factors seem to have an influence on how teachers deal with self-directed learners.

For this purpose, teachers of adults were recruited via personal and professional networks, and through direct contact with institutions involved in educating adults. This

21

resulted in the participation of three groups of teachers, regarding their primary language (native English speakers, Norwegian speakers and Portuguese speakers). The institutions were selected based on their supply of courses, in an attempt to reach teachers who work in both formal and non-formal education; in face-to-face and distance learning; in a variety of educational levels, from literacy to post-graduation; and who teach a variety of subjects.

3.2 Questionnaire and procedure

A search for existing surveys related to how teachers of adults experience self-directed learning brought no results; therefore, a questionnaire was designed specifically for this study. Based on the research questions "How do teachers of adults deal with self-directed learning regarding the different aspects of the learning process?" and "How do teachers of adults view their role in Adult Education?", the questions were formulated in such a way as to provide answers regarding these behaviors and beliefs, as well as attributes that may help explain or justify them. Three fundamental characteristics of a good questionnaire permeated the question design process: that the questionnaire is a valid measure of the factors of interest; that it convinces respondents to cooperate due to perceived relevance; and that it elicits acceptably accurate information (Czaja & Blair, 2005).

The questionnaire was created in SelectSurvey.NET, a survey tool available for NTNU students and staff. The majority of the questions were structured. It was designed in three languages – English, Norwegian, and Portuguese – so as to make it available for a larger number of respondents (see Appendix A). It was distributed electronically, and accessed via an internet link, which was sent to potential respondents along with a description of the research project, in the form of an invitation to participate in the survey. The questionnaire link was available to be accessed from March 31, 2014 until June 16, 2014. Reminders were sent out after 2 and 4 weeks from the initial contact, in an attempt to increase the response rate.

Although self-administered web surveys represent the data collection mode with the lowest response rates (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003; de Vaus, 2002; Ringdal, 2013), it was preferred over other modes, such as face-to-face, mail or telephone. This is because it gives the opportunity to reach a larger and more varied group of respondents, which was the intention of this study. Low response rates can result in a reduction of the sample size and bias (de Vaus, 2002). The problem of the sample size was addressed in the questionnaire design phase, where question content, question construction and questionnaire length were carefully considered, as suggested by de Vaus (2002). The problem of bias, however, cannot be avoided. Czaja and Blair (2005) and de Vaus (2002) suggest identifying what the bias is and the extent to which it occurs, and then using statistical weighting techniques to adjust the sample, so it better reflects the population. Unfortunately, this being a non-probability sample, there is not enough information available on the population as a whole. Therefore, appropriate weights cannot be calculated.

3.3 Response rate

The questionnaire was accessed by 184 individuals, of which 85 (46%) completed the survey and registered their responses, 44 (24%) did not register their answers at the end of the process, and 55 (30%) accessed the questionnaire but did not answer any of the questions. A further verification was made to avoid duplicate responses, based on respondents' IP address, and the number of valid responses was then reduced to 82, which represents a response rate of 44%. This rate is below the satisfactory minimum response rate of 50%, which means it is not possible to generalize its results for the entire population (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003; Dillman, 2000; Presser, 2004).

Based on the feedback received (and failed to receive) from some respondents, it is possible to say that the response rate seemed to be affected by the fact that adult educators do not recognize themselves as part of an established group of professionals, and that some of

them do not even view themselves as adult educators. Two respondents illustrated this when they asked for confirmation of their eligibility to contribute to the survey. One was a teacher assistant at a university, responsible for providing support to students who need further help regarding the course content; the other was a university librarian, responsible for giving courses in literature search. Based on these examples, one can imagine that other eligible respondents had similar thoughts and decided not to participate in the survey.

In addition, not much cooperation was obtained from the adult education institutions that were contacted. Some institutions replied that they would not collaborate due to their internal policies, which Biemer and Lyberg (2003) characterize as a refusal to participate. Most of the non-responsive institutions gave no feedback at all. These were regarded as either non-contacts or refusals (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). On the other hand, three of the adult education institutions contacted provided positive responses, informing that the questionnaire would be further submitted to their teachers.

3.4 Variables

Six categories of variables were developed for this study. Four of them are independent variables (background information, institutional settings, working context, and teaching adults versus teaching children) and the other two are dependent variables (perception of role and responsibility). The latter two are the main variables of this study, as they directly address its research questions. The former are considered factors which may potentially impact how respondents perceive their role as teachers of adults and to what extent they share responsibility with their learners. All these variables are presented in more detail below.

3.4.1 Background information

Background information like gender, age, professional experience as teacher of adults, educational background, qualification as a teacher of adults, and career choice, was included

in this study. The variables "age" and "experience (in years)" were designed as open answers, which enables further variable categorization.

The variable related to the respondents' educational level in the subject they teach was designed with three items to be answered with "yes" or "no": i) vocational/technical; ii) undergraduate; and iii) graduate. These items were not mutually exclusive. The same design was chosen for the variable concerning respondents' qualification as teachers of adults, which was comprised of four items for which respondents could answer "yes" or "no": i) specific institutional training; ii) open teaching course[2]; iii) undergraduate teaching course; and iv) graduate teaching course. When it comes to career choice, respondents were asked how they became teachers of adults, and they had to choose among: i) I planned to teach adults early in my teaching career; ii) I became a teacher of adults by chance; and iii) I decided to become a teacher of adults later on my professional career.

3.4.2 Institutional settings and working context

According to Brookfield (1986), the institutionalized learning setting is characterized by the prespecified learning objectives for a particular course or program, set by the course provider. These objectives serve as the reference point and focus for the design of instruction, the planning of course work, and the evaluation of program success. It normally allows little space for self-direction, as a student-centered approach emphasizes the constant renegotiation of goals through the exploration of processes of learning.

It was therefore of interest in this study to explore whether teachers' practice toward self-directed learners was affected by institutional settings. Respondents were asked whether institutional guidelines limit their classroom practice, and had to choose one of the following four response alternatives: i) not applicable, as I do not work under the guidelines of any institution; ii) no, I have total freedom in the classroom; iii) yes, and I agree with these

---

[2]In this work, open courses are understood as courses with no specific admission requirements.

institutional guidelines; and iv) yes, but I do not agree with these guidelines, and therefore I would rather have the freedom to work in a different way.

The questionnaire also included five variables related to the respondents' working context. The first was about the kind of education they work in, and respondents were presented with two alternatives: i) formal, by which students obtain a title, certificate or diploma formally recognized by educational authorities; and ii) non-formal, by which students do not obtain a title, certificate, or diploma. The second variable was related to the educational level respondents work at, with seven response alternatives: i) literacy; ii) elementary school; iii) general secondary or high school; iv) vocational secondary or high school; v) undergraduate; vi) graduate; vii) open course. The third variable regarded the subject they teach, and eight response alternatives were given: i) formal sciences; ii) life/health sciences; iii) social/human sciences; iv) business; v) physical activities; vi) manual/artistic activities; vii) creative activities; and viii) other, in which respondents had the opportunity to openly type their answers, in case they felt none of the preset response categories adequately fit their contexts[3]. The fourth variable was connected to the educational model respondents were involved in, given three alternatives: i) face-to-face learning; ii) distance/online learning; and iii) blended learning, i.e. partially face-to-face, partially distance/online. Finally, the country where respondents work was also taken into consideration, and it was presented as an open question.

3.4.3 Teaching adults versus teaching children

The teachers were asked if they have experience teaching children. They were then invited to express their views on whether teaching adults is different from teaching children. This may also shed some light on how adult teachers view their practice. In order to measure the experienced differences between teaching children and teaching adults, respondents were

---

[3]Refer to Appendix A for more details about the variables in the questionnaire.

presented with a checklist of nine response items: i) there is no difference between teaching adults and children; ii) adults are more autonomous; iii) adults present no discipline issues; iv) adults are more motivated to learn; v) adults have many responsibilities and roles in life, and therefore are not so dedicated to their learning; vi) adults are more critical; vii) adults' experience contributes to their learning process; viii) adults are more aware of what they need to learn and why; and ix) other, in which respondents had the opportunity to openly type their ideas. For this variable respondents could choose more than one response alternative.

3.4.4 Perception of role

The teachers were asked how they see their primary role in teaching adults, by choosing the role that seemed to fit them best among the alternatives: i) an authority; ii) a motivator; iii) a subject expert; iv) a guide; and v) a counselor. These roles are based on the teaching styles proposed by Gerald Grow (Knowles et al., 1998, p. 137). The respondents were asked to choose one alternative to describe themselves.

3.4.5 Responsibility

The main variable developed for this research is related to how responsibility over several aspects of the learning process is shared between the teacher and the student. The nine learning process steps measured in this study are based on the works of Knowles (1970, 1975; 1998), as follows:

- identification of learning needs. This involves a diagnosis of the gap between the learner's current status regarding the subject to be learned (which may be knowledge, competence, or ability, depending on the context) and the status desired to be achieved.
- definition of learning goals. This is an important step in the planning of learning efforts. The learning goal may be either the final objective to be achieved, or intermediary checkpoints to be met throughout a longer process.

- selection of learning resources. These answer the question "Where to get the information needed for learning to be successful?", and may correspond to, for instance, people, books, different kinds of publications, nature, and so on.

- selection of teaching methods. This step is related to the teacher's efforts. For example, teachers may carry out their tasks by lecturing, demonstrating an experiment, or inviting learners to discussion.

- selection of learning methods. As opposed to the step above, this one concerns the student's efforts. Individuals may learn best by reading, rewriting notes, writing journals, drawing diagrams, carrying out experiments, working in groups, working individually, or any other manner that results in good learning outcomes for them.

- definition of learning environment. Learning environment concerns primarily the time, place, and space organization of learning encounters.

- selection of learning activities. Among many other examples, learning activities include exercises, discussions, field trips, experiments, debates, essays, and assignments that learners are engaged in during their learning process.

- definition of assessment methods. Learning may be assessed in a variety of ways, from traditional tests to simple observations of the learner's performance.

- performance of assessment. Once the assessment method is defined, it can be performed by either the teacher, the learner's peers, the learner self, or even an external assessor.

The nine variables were coded on a scale from 1 to 5:

1 - students have full responsibility;

2 - more responsibility of the student than of the teacher;

3 - responsibility equally shared between teacher and student;

4 - more responsibility of the teacher than of the student;

5 - teacher has full responsibility.

Besides measuring how teachers share responsibility regarding each of the nine items listed above, this study also measures the teachers' overall responsibility score. This was done by computing a summative variable based on these items. A reliability test using Cronbach's alpha (α) was conducted in order to evaluate the internal consistency of the new variable. None of the variables were excluded as the internal reliability measure was satisfactory ($\alpha=0.75$). By doing this, the information contained in several specific indicators is converted into one new and more abstract variable, according to de Vaus (2002). The variable is named "overall responsibility".

3.5 Analysis

The analysis of the data was conducted by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze data frequencies and central tendency measures; exploratory techniques, such as correlation analysis, chi-square (χ^2) tests, t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted in order to explore differences between groups.

3.6 Research quality considerations

3.6.1 Validity

Validity in survey research means that the indicators developed measure the concepts intended to be measured in an appropriate and accurate manner. Validity must be checked in order to avoid measurement errors (de Vaus, 2002). One way of testing the validity of research indicators is by pilot testing the developed questionnaire.

A declared pilot testing of the questionnaire developed for this research was carried out in January, 2014. As a result of the feedback received, some items were reworded, and

some response categories were modified, so as to make the questionnaire items more unambiguous and clearer to respondents.

The supervisor of this study, Wenche M. Rønning, researcher at the Department of Adult Learning and Counseling (IVR-NTNU), and Kyrre Svarva, senior advisor at the IT section of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology Management (SVT-NTNU), have been consulted in the design phase, and provided assistance in the development of the questions in order to improve their validity (wording, meaning etc). This was a very valuable help toward increasing the validity of the questionnaire.

In addition, the fact that the dependent variables in this research – perception of role and responsibility – are based on recognized theoretical work is a good indication of the content validity of this research, according to de Vaus (2002).

3.6.2 Reliability

A reliable measurement is one where the same result is obtained on repeated occasions (de Vaus, 2002). For the purpose of this study, it was not possible to conduct the survey repeatedly. However, when including scales in the research, it is important to check the reliability of the indicators measured by the scales, according to Pallant (2007). In this case, one must verify the consistency of a person's response on an item compared to each of the other items in the set (item-item correlations), which provides a measure of the overall reliability of the indicator. The index of this measure is given by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which ranges from 0 to 1. For a scale to be considered reliable, Cronbach's alpha coefficient must be above 0.7 (de Vaus, 2002; Pallant, 2007). The questionnaire used in this study includes one scale variable (overall responsibility) and, as mentioned above, this variable presents a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.75, meeting the reliability requirements.

3.6.3 Ethical considerations

Philosophically, ethics is a discipline concerned with the evaluation and justification of norms and standards of personal and interpersonal behavior. However, when applied to social research, ethics refers more to the standards established for the conduct of researchers, aiming at safeguarding the rights of the human subjects under investigation (Homan, 1991). According to Ringdal (2013), research ethics is related to the fundamental moral norms for good scientific practice, including the protection of individuals and of society.

This research project was duly notified to the Data Protection Official for Research, at the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD AS) (see Appendix B). NSD is a resource center which, among other tasks, implements the statutory data privacy requirements in the research community, and assists researchers regarding data gathering, data analysis, and issues of methodology, privacy and research ethics[4].

3.6.4 Confidentiality, anonymity and privacy

Confidentiality is the extent to which the collected data is protected from unauthorized use (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). Respondents were duly informed that no one, other than the researcher involved in the research project, shall have access to the data collected. The data was collected electronically and stored in NTNU's database. The author of this work was the only person to have access to respondents' data, which was protected by a personal password.

Anonymity, according to de Vaus (2002), means that the respondents are not identified by their answers. In the current study, neither sensitive data nor personally identifiable data was collected, so respondents cannot be identified, neither in the analysis of the data, nor in the report of the survey findings. IP-addresses, which identify the computer used by every respondent when accessing the electronic questionnaire, were excluded from

---

[4]http://www.nsd.uib.no/nsd/english/index.html, accessed on July 22, 2014.

the SPSS file available for data analysis, and are excluded from the database at the end of the research project.

Privacy is the right of individuals to decide what information about them can be collected (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). Even though the questionnaire designed for this research does not contain questions regarding sensitive personal information, no question was mandatory for respondents to answer. Except for the question regarding language of preference, respondents had the possibility to skip any questions they did not wish to respond. Despite the fact that privacy is linked to item non-response (not answering a particular question or variable), according to Biemer and Lyberg (2003), the principle of privacy was prevalent in this research. This decision was made not only for ethical considerations, but also to avoid that individuals choose not to answer the whole questionnaire for protecting their privacy, in case they did not feel like answering one or more questions. In this case, item non-response is preferable over unit non-response (not participating in the survey).

3.6.5 Voluntary participation and informed consent

Participation in this study was voluntary. It means that respondents could, at any time, decide not to participate in the survey. Respondents were required to register their answers in the end of the questionnaire, in order to confirm that they agreed to participate in the research.

Before accessing the questionnaire itself, respondents were given basic information about the purpose of the study, the type of information required from them, the voluntary nature of respondents' participation, confidentiality and anonymity. They were also given information on how to contact the researcher responsible for the study and how to obtain additional information about the research project, in case they felt the need to do so.

It was assumed that, by registering their answers at the end of the questionnaire, the respondents confirmed that they were aware of the purpose of the study and what their participation entailed.

4. RESULTS

In this Chapter the results from the study are presented and analyzed. First, the results related to both dependent and independent variables are presented individually. Next, the two dependent variables (perception of role and responsibility) are analyzed in relation to the independent variables, in order to explore in more details whether and to which extent these variables have an impact on the respondents' attitudes and beliefs toward self-direction learning.

4.1 Background information

4.1.1 Gender, age, and experience

From the total of 82 respondents, 50 are women, which represent 61% of the sample. The mean age is 42.6 years, and the respondents have on average 11.2 years of experience as teachers of adults (Table 1).

Table 1. Respondents' age and experience in years (N=82).

Variable	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Median
Age	42.58	12.37	25	72	39
Experience	11.32	9	1	40	8

Note. SD = standard deviation.

A closer look at this data shows that the age variable has a standard deviation of 12.4 years. The age variable is not normally distributed, with a range of 25-72 years, which represents a significant dispersion. The experience variable also shows a standard deviation that is quite high (9 years), with a range of 1-40 years. In other words, the respondents are

quite versatile in terms of these two background variables, and therefore the mean values are not the best descriptors of the sample (Wood, 2003).

4.1.2 Formal qualifications and career choice

When it comes to the variables regarding respondents' formal qualifications in the subject they teach, and their qualifications as teachers of adults, they could choose several response alternatives (Table 2).

Table 2. Respondents' qualifications. Subject taught and qualifications. Multiple choices. Percent (N=82).

Qualification level in the subject taught		Qualification level as teacher of adults	
Vocational/technical	18.3%	Institutional training	47.6%
Undergraduate	42.7%	Open teaching course	31.7%
Graduate	64.6%	Undergraduate	32.9%
		Graduate	42.7%

The data shows that 64.6% of respondents reported to have a graduate level in the subject they teach, 42.7% have an undergraduate level and 18.3% have a degree at a vocational level. This indicates that the majority of respondents altogether have a quite high and varied educational level. The respondents were also asked whether they had gone through any kind of courses to become teachers of adults. Many of them had participated in several courses on different levels: almost half of them (47.6%) reported to have undergone training at their present or previous workplaces, while 42.7% have a graduate teaching degree, 32.9% have an undergraduate degree, and 31.7% have taken open teaching courses.

The data further shows that 43.9% had become adult teachers by chance, while 39% reported that teaching adults was a decision made later in their professional careers. Only 17.1% of the respondents had planned to teach adults early in their teaching careers. These

results indicate that only a few respondents planned to embrace this career at an early stage of their lives, while the majority was taken toward this path by other circumstances.

4.2 Institutional settings and working context

Table 3. Institutional guidelines' impact on classroom practice. Percent (N=80).

Not applicable, as I do not work under the guidelines of any institution	10%
No, I have total freedom in the classroom	40%
Yes, and I agree with them	26.3%
Yes, but I do not agree with them; I would rather work in a different way	23.8%
Total	100%

Table 3 shows that 40% of the respondents reported to have total freedom in their classroom, while 10% reported that they do not work under any institutional settings. The other 50% of respondents feel affected by institutional rules and guidelines. Among these, approximately half (26.3%) said that they agree with such rules. The others (23.8%) would rather have the freedom to work differently from what their institutions dictate, that is, they would act differently in terms of sharing responsibility if they had the freedom to do so. Nevertheless, the data does not indicate if they would share more or less responsibility.

An overview over the respondents' working context is presented in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. Working context (education type, level and subject taught). Percent.

Type (N=77)		Level (N=82)		Subject (N=82)	
Formal	54.6 %	Literacy	2.4%	Formal Sciences	26.8%
Non-formal	45.4%	Elementary	0%	Human / Social Sciences	56.1%
		High school	8.5%	Others	17.1%
		Higher Education	50%		
		Open courses	39%		
Total	100%	Total	100%	Total	100%

A little over half of the respondents (54.6%) work in formal education, while 45.4% work in non-formal education.

Regarding the educational level they work with, only 2.4% are responsible for the alphabetization of adults (literacy); 8.5% teach students in the high school level; 50% teach in higher education institutions (dealing with undergraduate and graduate students); and 39% teach open courses.

The respondents were also asked about the subject they teach. Over half of them (56.1%) teach subjects related to Humanities or Social Sciences. A little over a quarter of them (26.8%) are involved with subjects from the Formal Sciences. The remaining 17.1% teach subjects related to the other categories presented as alternatives: "Life and Health", "Business", "Physical activities", "Manual/artistic activities", and "Creative". For details on which specific subjects are included in these response categories, refer to Appendix A.

Table 5. Working context (education model and country). Percent.

Model (N=82)		Country (N=79)	
Face-to-face	89%	Norway	44.3%
Distance / online	0%	Brazil	45.5%
Blended	11%	Other	10.1%
Total	100%	Total	100%

With respect to the educational model, 89% of respondents reported that they work with conventional face-to-face learning. The remaining 11% work in a blended model, that is, partially face-to-face, partially distance/online learning. Unfortunately, none of the respondents in this study work exclusively with distance/online learning. This would have given this study the possibility to shed some light upon whether a more constant presence of the teacher, against a virtual presence only, affects adult students' level of self-direction.

Finally, the data shows that 44.3% of the respondents work in Norway, 45.5% work in Brazil, and 10.1% work in other places, such as the USA, United Kingdom and Costa Rica. This may indicate whether cultural differences impact teachers' attitude toward self-direction.

4.3 Teaching adults versus teaching children

Around 45% of the respondents have some experience as teachers of children as well. These were asked about the differences between teaching adults and teaching children (Table 6).

Table 6. Differences between teaching adults and children. Multiple responses (N=37).

Adults are more aware of what they need to learn and why	70.7%
Adults are more autonomous than children	64.9%
Adults' experience contribute to their learning process	62.2%
Adults are more critical than children	48.6%
Adults are not so dedicated to learning, for they have other responsibilities	37.8%
Adults present no discipline issues	16.2%
Adults are more motivated to learn than children	13.5%
There is no difference	5.4%

The respondents first and foremost believed that adults are more <u>aware</u> of what they need to learn and why, in comparison with children (70.7%); that they are more <u>autonomous</u> (64.9%); and that their learning processes benefit from their <u>life experience</u> (62.2%). Several of the respondents (48.6%) also thought that adults are more critical in their learning processes than children, and that they show less dedication in their studies due to other responsibilities (37.8%). Of less importance was discipline issues (16.2%), and quite few respondents believed that adults are more motivated to learn (13.5%). Very few had experienced that there is no difference in teaching adults and children (5.4%).

Respondents were also given the opportunity to add their own ideas regarding the differences between teaching children and adults. These additional ideas stated that adults are

more intrinsically motivated to change their life situation; adults need to obtain diplomas or certificates in order to improve professionally; adults enable a more direct exchange of ideas and experiences; and teachers do not have to worry about adults' personal development as social individuals and citizens, as it is the case when teaching children.

4.4 Perception of role

The respondents were asked how they viewed their primary role as teachers of adults, given five alternatives. All 82 respondents answered this question. The largest group (37.8%) claimed to be "motivators, who encourage the students to learn", while the second largest group (34.1%) considered themselves "guides, who show students how to get the knowledge they want". 24.4% answered that they view themselves as "subject experts, a knowledge source to the students". 3.7% felt they were "counselors, whom students may consult for any doubts they may have". None of them view themselves as "an authority, who tells the students what must be done, and how".

4.5 Responsibility

The teachers were asked how they allocate responsibility when they are teaching adults, based on the nine learning process steps they were presented to. These variables were measured by a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 represents "total responsibility of the student", the middle point 3 represents that responsibility is "equally shared between student and teacher", and 5 represents "total responsibility of the teacher". The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Respondents' responsibility scores per learning process step (central tendencies).

Variable	Mean	SD	Median	N
Identifying learning needs	3.67	0.96	4	81
Defining learning goals	3.89	1.04	4	81

Variable	Mean	SD	Median	N
Selecting materials/resources	4.27	0.80	4	81
Selecting teaching methods	4.48	0.63	5	81
Selecting learning methods	3.39	1.06	3	80
Defining learning environment	4.02	1.06	4	82
Selecting learning activities	4.16	0.80	4	82
Selecting assessment method	4.27	0.85	4	79
Assessing learning outcomes	3.86	1.19	4	80

Notes. SD = standard deviation. N = valid number of respondents.

Considering the assumption that self-directed learning involves the learners taking primary responsibility for the learning process themselves, the data from this study shows that, on average, full self-direction is not a distinctive feature of respondents' practice. Table 7 shows that five out of the nine learning process aspects measured have an average score of 4 or higher ("most or total responsibility of the teacher"), while the other four aspects have on average a score between 3 and 4 ("responsibility equally shared between teacher and student"). This means that the teachers' role is quite strong, despite the fact that their students are adults.

When it comes to "selecting teaching methods" (4.48), "selecting assessment methods" (4.27), "selecting materials/resources" (4.27), "selecting learning activities" (4.16) and "defining learning environment" (4.02), the teachers distinctively have more responsibility than the students. However, it does not mean that students are totally excluded from making decisions regarding their learning processes. The slightly lower scores on the other four variables, namely "selecting learning methods" (3.39), "identifying learning needs" (3.67), "assessing learning outcome" (3.86) and "defining learning goals" (3.89) indicate that learners are allowed to be more involved in making decisions regarding these components of their learning processes.

It is understandable that students cannot be in complete command when it comes to deciding all aspects of a learning situation. This can be justified by the fact that they lack the expertise teachers have, illustrated by the variables which had a mean responsibility score above 4 (Table 7). In addition, in institutionalized settings, for example, the institution usually has the final word about the location and time of classes, as well as about the assessment methods.

In order to better visualize the respondents' attitudes concerning the sharing of responsibility with their adult learners, a frequency analysis was carried out (Table 8).

Table 8. Frequency data of responsibility scores per learning step. Percent.

Variable	Scores			Total	N
	1 and 2	3	4 and 5		
Identifying learning needs	11.1%	30.9%	58%	100%	81
Defining learning goals	13.7%	16%	70.3%	100%	81
Selecting materials/resources	2.5%	14.8%	82.7%	100%	81
Selecting teaching methods	0%	7.4%	92.6%	100%	81
Selecting learning methods	23.8%	30%	46.2%	100%	80
Defining learning environment	11%	14.6%	74.4%	100%	82
Selecting learning activities	1.2%	18.3%	80.5%	100%	82
Selecting assessment method	3.8%	11.4%	84.8%	100%	79
Assessing learning outcomes	12.5%	22.5%	65%	100%	80

Notes. Scores 1 and 2 = learner takes primary responsibility. Score 3 = responsibility is equally shared. Scores 4 and 5 = teacher takes primary responsibility.

The data shows that, from the learning process steps measured by this study, "selecting learning methods" is the one where learners are allowed to exercise the most responsibility, by 23.8% of respondents. This may be explained by this being the most personal aspect of this list, as each individual has his or her preferred way of learning. In "defining learning goals" (13.7%) and "assessing learning outcomes" (12.5%), a smaller

group of the adult learners are given the responsibility for these activities. The same applies for "identifying learning needs" (11.1%) and "defining the learning environment" (11%).

In contrast, learners have no or marginal influence regarding "selecting teaching methods" (0%),"selecting learning activities" (1.2%) and "selecting learning resources" (2.5%). Consequently, their responsibility for "selecting method of assessment" is also very limited (3.8%). These low levels of learner's responsibility may be explained by the fact that the teachers view themselves as the professionals who have the experience and expertise to make informed decisions regarding how the content is presented. Also, strict institutional settings may limit learners' decision power.

It is interesting to note that the variables "identifying learning needs", "defining learning goals" and "assessing learning outcomes" have very similar values for scores 1 and 2. It may imply that these three aspects are connected, in such a way that learners who decide for themselves what they need to learn are entitled to assess for themselves how well they have learned it. This corresponds to Adult Education theories, which claim that adults in general engage in learning that is meaningful to their life situations.

The next step in analyzing this variable was to explore the respondents' overall responsibility score, where their scores for each individual learning step are summed up. The scale scores range from 23 to 45, with a mean value of 36.12 (standard deviation of 4.83), and median of 36. Similar values of both the mean and the median indicate that the variable is normally distributed, according to Ringdal (2013). Figure 2 shows the data concerning the respondents' mean values for their overall responsibility scores.
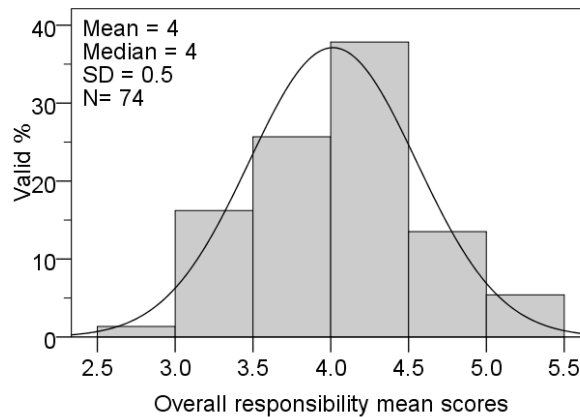
Figure 2. Histogram of the overall responsibility mean scores with normal distribution curve

Only one respondent got a mean score below 3, that is, only 1 out of 74respondents fully practices student-centered teaching methods. By categorizing respondents in 2 groups using a score of 3.5 as dividing limit, remembering that the lower the score the closer the respondent is to a student-centered approach, it results that 20.7% of respondents tend to a more student-centered method, while the remaining 79.3% practice a teacher-centered method.

All in all, the data shows that most respondents in this study tend to exercise a teacher-centered approach, leaving little space for students to take responsibility for their learning processes. Yet, they perceive their role in Adult Education more as motivators and guides of learning. In the next sections, the dependent variables (perception of role and responsibility) will be further examined in relation to the other variables of this study, in order to explore whether some kind of relationship between them may be found.

4.6 Perception of role in relation to other variables

In this section the focus will be upon which variables seem to have an impact on the respondents' perception of their role as teachers of adults. Background information like age and gender, working experience, institutional settings, and experience from teaching children

is included in the analysis. In cases where no such impact is found, the results will not be commented.

4.6.1 Role and background information

The only background variable that seemed to have a significant impact on the respondents' view of their role as adult educators was their experience as teacher of adults. This variable was categorized in two: under and over 10 years experience. Results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Role in relation to experience as teacher of adults (N=82).

| | | Experience as teacher of adults | | Total |
		under 10 years	over 10 years	
Role	Motivator	expected count	19.3	11.7	31
		observed count	25	6	31
		% within exper.	49%	19.4%	37.8%
	Subject expert	expected count	12.4	7.6	20
		observed count	11	9	20
		% within exper.	21.6%	29%	24.4%
	Guide	expected count	17.4	10.6	28
		observed count	13	15	28
		% within exper.	25.5%	48.4%	34.1%
	Counselor	expected count	1.9	1.1	3
		observed count	2	1	3
		% within exper.	3.9%	3.2%	3.7%
Total (N)			100% (51)	100% (31)	100% (82)

Notes. χ^2=7.91 (3, n=82), p<0.05, Cramer's V=0.31

According to the results in Table 9, the greatest differences are seen in the proportion of respondents who consider themselves motivators and guides. 49% of the respondents with less than 10 years of experience view themselves as motivators, against 19.4% of those with 10 or more years of experience; 25.5% of the less experienced respondents view themselves

as guides, against 48.4% of the more experienced ones. A smaller difference is seen when considering respondents who view themselves as subject experts: 21.6% of the less experienced ones, against 29% of the more experienced teachers. Only 3.9% of the less experienced respondents consider themselves to be counselors for their students; among the teachers who are more experienced, 3.2% share this same view.

A chi-square test showed that these differences are statistically significant (χ^2=7.91 (3, n=82), p<0.05). Based on the chi-square test, it is possible to measure the effect size of the association between variables, given by Cramer's V coefficient (Pallant, 2007). In this case, Cramer's V=0.31, which indicates that experience has a medium-sized effect on how respondents view their role as teachers of adults.

4.6.2 Role and institutional settings

Table 10 shows the impact of institutional guidelines on respondents' perception of role.

Table 10. Role in relation to institutional settings (N=80).

| | | | Do institutional guidelines limit your practice? | | | | Total |
			Not applicable	No	Yes (agree)	Yes (do not agree)	
Role	Motivator	expected count	3	12	7.9	7.1	30
		observed count	2	13	6	9	30
		% within inst.	25%	40.6%	28.6%	47.4%	37.5%
	Subject expert	expected count	2	8	5.3	4.8	20
		observed count	1	5	8	6	20
		% within inst.	12.5%	15.6%	38.1%	31.6%	25%
	Guide	expected count	2.7	10.8	7.1	6.4	27
		observed count	5	14	4	4	27
		% within inst.	62.5%	43.8%	19%	21.1%	33.8%

		Not applicable	No	Yes (agree)	Yes (do not agree)	Total
	expected count	0.3	1.2	0.8	0.7	3
Counselor	observed count	0	0	3	0	3
	% within inst.	0%	0%	14.3%	0%	3.8%
Total (N)		100% (8)	100% (32)	100% (21)	100% (19)	100% (80)

Notes. χ^2=18.3 (9, n=80), p<0.05, Cramer's V=0.28

Most of the respondents (62.5%) who do not work under the guidelines of any institution view themselves as guides. Most of those who do not feel limited by their institutions (43.8%) also view themselves as guides, and almost the same number (40.6%) consider themselves as motivators. However, most respondents who feel limited by institutional guidelines view themselves as subject experts or motivators, depending whether they agree or disagree with such guidelines, respectively.

These differences are statistically significant (χ^2=18.3 (9, n=80), p<0.05). In this case, Cramer's V=0.28, which indicates that institutional guidelines have a small-sized effect on respondents' perception of own role.

These results may not be considered accurate, because they violate the chi-square test assumption concerning the minimum expected cell frequency, which dictates that at least 80 percent of the crosstabulation cells must have estimated frequencies of 5 or more (Pallant, 2007). However, these results may be a good indication of an observable tendency.

4.6.3 Role and experience teaching children

A comparison between respondents who have and have not taught children before showed a significant difference in how respondents view their role as adult educators (Table 11).

Table 11. Role in relation to experience teaching children (N=82).

Role			Have you taught children before?		Total
			Yes	No	
	Motivator	expected count	14	17	31
		observed count	18	13	31
		% within child.	48.6%	28.9%	37.8%
	Subject expert	expected count	9	11	20
		observed count	3	17	20
		% within child.	8.1%	37.8%	24.4%
	Guide	expected count	12.6	15.4	28
		observed count	15	13	28
		% within child.	40.5%	28.9%	34.1%
	Counselor	expected count	1.4	1.6	3
		observed count	1	2	3
		% within child.	2.7%	4.4%	3.7%
Total (N)			100% (37)	100% (45)	100% (82)

Notes. χ^2=10.4 (3, n=82), p<0.05, Cramer's V=0.36

Among those who have taught children, only 8.1% view themselves as subject experts, while 48.6% consider themselves motivators and 40.5% view themselves as guides. Among those who have never taught children, on the other hand, the majority (37.8%) consider themselves subject experts, while the options "motivator" and "guide" got 28.9% each. A chi-square test resulted in χ^2=10.4 (3, n=82), p<0.05. The effect size of the association between these variables is given by Cramer's V=0.36, indicating a medium-sized effect of experience teaching children on respondents' perception of their role as adult educators.

In short, most teachers of adults with less than 10 years of experience tend to view themselves as motivators, while the majority of those with 10 or more years of professional experience consider themselves to be guides. Institutional guidelines also seem to affect how

respondents view themselves. Most respondents who do not work for an institution consider themselves to be guides for their students, while those who feel the institutional limitations on their practice view themselves either as subject experts or motivators. Finally, respondents who have also taught children present different perceptions of their role toward their adult students. While the majority of respondents who have never taught children consider themselves subject experts, those who have worked with children tend to view themselves as motivators.

4.7 Responsibility in relation to other variables

In this section, further analyses will be carried out in order to explore which other variables in this study have an impact on the way teachers of adults handle the responsibility issue. Background variables, like age and gender, are included, in addition to institutional settings and working context. Variables with no impact will not be commented.

4.7.1 Responsibility and background variables

The only background variable that was related to respondents' overall responsibility scores was age. A bivariate correlation showed that there was a statistically significant positive linear correlation between the two variables ($r=0.32$, $N=74$, $p=0.01$, and $R^2=0.103$). It means that the older the respondent, the higher the overall responsibility score, that is, older teachers tend to be more teacher-centered in their Adult Education practice. A Pearson r coefficient between 0.30 and 0.49 is an indication of a moderate correlation, according to Pallant (2007). An R^2 (coefficient of determination) of 0.103 indicates that age helps explain 10% of the variance in respondents' overall responsibility scores (Pallant, 2007).

4.7.2 Responsibility and institutional settings

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of institutional settings on the overall responsibility score. There was a statistically significant difference in the overall responsibility scores among the four groups analyzed (Group 1: respondents who do not work under any institutional guidelines; Group 2: respondents who do not feel limited by institutional guidelines in their practice; Group 3: respondents who are subject to institutional guidelines and agree with them; and Group 4: respondents who feel constrained by institutional guidelines and would rather have the freedom to work in a different way), as shown in Table 12.

Table 12. One-way analysis of variance. Impact of institutional settings on overall responsibility scores.

ANOVA				Bonferroni post-hoc test		
Group	N	Mean	SD	Difference between...	MD	SD
1	5	29.20	4.32	Group 1 - Group 2	–7.07**	2.15
2	29	36.28	4.71	Group 1 - Group 3	–7.03*	2.21
3	21	36.24	3.99	Group 1 - Group 4	–8.91***	2.26
4	17	38.12	4.55			
Total	72	36.21	4.82			

Notes. SD = standard deviation. MD = mean difference.

Levene's test for homogeneity of variances=0.131, p=0.94. $F_{(3, 68)}$=5.173, p<0.05. η^2=0.185

*p<0.05. **p<0.01. ***p<0.001

A non-significant Levene's test indicates that the variability of scores for each of the groups is similar, which is an assumption for the use of ANOVA (Pallant, 2007). In order to interpret the value of η^2 (effect size), Pallant (2007, p. 236) suggests using Cohen's guideline: 0.01 = small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect; and 0.14 = large effect. In this case, institutional settings have a large effect on responsibility scores, explaining 18.5% of their variance. A Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted, in order to show where the differences among the groups occurred. Results show that Group 1 scored significantly lower when compared to the

other three groups. Group 1 has the lowest scores, while Group 4 has the highest scores, above the overall mean. It confirms that institutionalized learning settings allow little space for self-direction, as mentioned in Section 3.4.2.

4.7.3 Responsibility and working context

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the overall responsibility scores for respondents who teach in formal and in non-formal education. No statistically significant difference was found.

However, a chi-square test was conducted to explore the impact of formal and non-formal education on each of the nine learning process steps, and it showed a significant influence of the type of education on the responsibility scores for the variable "defining learning goals", $\chi^2=17.3$ (4, n=76), p<0.005, Cramer's V=0.48. In this case, it indicates a medium-sized effect of education type on the variable "defining learning goals". Results can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13. Responsibility for "defining learning goals" in relation to type of education. Percent (N=76).

		Type of education		Total
		Formal	Non-formal	
Students have most or full responsibility	expected count	6.1	4.9	11
	observed count	2	9	11
	% within type	4.8%	26.4%	14.5%
Responsibility is equally shared	expected count	7.2	5.8	13
	observed count	3	10	13
	% within type	7.1%	29.4%	17.1%
Teachers have most or full responsibility	expected count	28.8	23.2	52
	observed count	37	15	52
	% within type	88.1%	44.1%	68.4%
Total (N)		100% (42)	100% (34)	100% (76)

Notes. $\chi^2=17.3$ (4, n=76), p<0.005, Cramer's V=0.48

Among the teachers who work in formal education, 88.1% hold most or full responsibility for defining students' learning goals. This is exactly twice as many in comparison with the respondents who work in non-formal education, of which 44.1% hold most or full responsibility for defining learning goals, while 26.4% share total or most of this responsibility with their students, against only 4.8% of their peers who work in formal education.

A correlation analysis was conducted to explore whether there was a relationship between respondents' overall responsibility scores and the educational level they work at, considering five categories (1: literacy; 2: elementary school; 3: high school; 4: higher education; 5: open courses). There was a significant small negative correlation between the two variables ($r=-0.279$, N=74, p=0.05, and $R^2=0.078$). This means that the educational level taught explains 7.8% of the variance in respondents' overall responsibility scores, and that the lower the level respondents teach, the higher their responsibility scores, meaning respondents share less responsibility with their students. Notice that, numerically, for coding purposes, the alternative "open courses" is assigned the highest value in this correlation analysis.

All in all, results show that respondents' attitude concerning how responsibility is shared with students is affected by age, indicating that the older the teacher, the more teacher-centered his/her practice is. Institutional settings also affect responsibility sharing in respondents' classrooms. Teachers who do not work under any institutional guidelines and rules present overall responsibility scores significantly lower than the others, meaning that their students are more active in making decisions concerning their learning processes. Formal and non-formal educational contexts seem to affect only how learning goals are defined, according to the survey results. In formal education, 88% of respondents reported to have most or full responsibility concerning the definition of learning goals, while in non-

formal education this proportion is reduced to 44%. Finally, the lower the students'

educational level, the less decision power they are allowed to have by their teachers.

5. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This study was conducted through a questionnaire specifically designed for this purpose. The population sample constituted of teachers of adults, across a variety of subjects, educational levels and professional contexts.

The survey would undoubtedly have benefited from a larger sample of respondents. The small number of individuals who completed the questionnaire – 82 – resulted in statistical limitations in the analytical phase of this study. Also, some subpopulations were underrepresented in the data, such as teachers working with adult alphabetization and elementary education; teachers involved in studies related to Life Sciences, Business, sports, physical and manual activities; and teachers working with distance or online learning.

Nevertheless, results show that respondents are quite diversified in terms of their background, their qualifications, and their professional contexts: 61% of the respondents are women. Regarding age and years of professional experience, the sample is quite dispersed: respondents are between 25 and 72 years old, with their professional experience varying from 1 to 40 years.

Most of respondents have a graduation degree in the subject they teach, which may be connected to the fact that half of them teach at university level. The majority has also undergone some kind of adult teaching training course, despite the fact that only 17% had planned to teach adults early in their teaching career. Almost 90% of the sample teach in conventional, face-to-face courses. A little over half of respondents work in formal education, and about the same proportion of them feel constrained by institutional guidelines. 45% of respondents have experience from teaching children as well. 56.1% of the sample teach subjects connected to the Human or Social Sciences. Teachers working in Norway and in Brazil represent 90% of the sample, in virtually the same proportion.

This variety is partially caused by characteristics in the researcher's professional and personal network contacts. Dillman (2000) comments on this phenomenon, explaining that higher response rates are achieved among respondents who know or have some kind of contact or relationship with the researcher. This is related to how confident respondents feel about the seriousness of the research, its purpose, goals and ethical regulation compliance. On the other hand, this means that the data collected may be potentially biased, which affects the quality of the survey (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). But because there is not enough information about the total population, the nature of the bias cannot be accurately identified and, consequently, the data cannot be statistically adjusted.

The potential bias of this survey, along with the relatively low response rate (44%) means that the conclusions drawn from the study's findings may not be considered as an undisputable reflection of the truth. Nonetheless, they may indicate some interesting tendencies, and these can be used as starting points for further research.

Only few respondents had planned to become teachers of adults early in their teaching career. This confirms the ideas presented in Chapter 1 that, due to the marginal place adult teachers have in the educational system, along with the lack of a standard pathway for becoming a professional of Adult Education, teaching adults is generally not recognized as a well-established career, when compared to more conventional or traditional ones, such as teaching schoolchildren.

When it comes to how respondents view their primary role as adult educators, it is noteworthy that the option "authority" had 0% of responses. Considering that, in general, respondents hold most of the responsibility for students' learning process, it is possible to say that teachers view the control they exercise as part of their natural task, rather than as an authoritative power they have over their students. This is aligned with Freire's idea of the liberating directive educator (see Section 2.3.2), who has the responsibility for planning the

study, but does so through a critical practice based on trust and credibility, rather than by the force and authority of tradition or institutional power. The response alternative "counselor" was chosen by only 3.7% of respondents. The other three alternatives, "motivator"**,** "subject expert" and "guide" are connected to specific aspects of the learning process, while "counselor" encompasses a more general and broad support to students, not necessarily connected to what or how to learn. This may be connected to the idea that adult students do not depend as much on their teachers and educational institutions for personal and social development, as children do (see Section 4.3).

According to the findings of this study, there are two factors that influence how teachers of adults view their role in Adult Education: experience, both as teachers of adults and as teachers of children. Approximately half of respondents with less than 10 years of experience with adults view themselves as motivators, while the same proportion of respondents with over 10 years of experience consider themselves guides for their students, that is, they show students where to get the information or knowledge they search for. As experience increases, so does the proportion of teachers who view themselves as subject experts: 21.6% of the less experienced group, against 29% of the more experienced individuals. These numbers may indicate that experience brings a feeling of increased level of mastery in the subject respondents teach, along with better knowledge about where and how to obtain relevant information for students' development. Also, with experience, teachers realize that adults are intrinsically motivated, as Adult Education theories prescribe (see Section 2.1), and fewer of them assume the motivator role as they become more experienced.

Regarding the teachers who are experienced in teaching children, only 8% view themselves as subject experts, while this option was chosen by the majority of teachers who had never taught children: 38%. It may indicate that teachers who have worked with children have a more holistic view, and do not focus their practice primarily on the content to be

transmitted. Most of teachers who have experience with children (48.6%) consider themselves motivators of their adult students, which suggests that they reproduce with adults the same approach they have with children, who are usually considered to be more motivated by external factors.

Finally, it is important to mention that, with respect to <u>institutional settings</u>, the majority (62.5%) of respondents who do not work in educational institutions consider themselves guides, that is, they do not necessarily give students all the answers, but rather indicate where to find the answers they require. On the other hand, among those teachers who feel their practice is limited by institutional rules and guidelines, most of them consider themselves either as subject experts or motivators. The results offer some indications that institution-independent respondents, acting as guides, show students the way, but let them struggle to achieve the outcomes by themselves. To a certain extent, they promote students' self-direction.

The sample in this study show a predominant tendency to a teacher-centered approach. This tendency is shown to be affected by <u>age</u>, as older teachers tend to share less responsibility with their learners. A possible explanation for this fact is that older teachers are more familiar with traditional teaching methods, while younger teachers were more exposed and had more contact with methodologies that are more student-centered, and therefore tend to reproduce this approach with their own students.

Another factor that is found to influence the way teachers share responsibility with their students is the existence of <u>institutional guidelines</u> and rules. The results from the survey show that institutionalized learning settings seem to limit the space teachers give to learners' self-direction, which is aligned with the concept presented in Section 3.4.2. It also confirms the historical account presented in Section 2.3.1, about the traditional role of the teacher.

It is interesting to note that the respondents who do not agree with the institutional rules they have to comply with, are the ones with the highest responsibility scores. It is then reasonable to conclude that these respondents would potentially present lower scores, closer to a more student-centered teaching method, if they had the opportunity to do so. It supports the idea that self-direction is strongly limited in institutionalized settings.

Indeed, the idea of the teacher as the absolute authority in the classroom was conceived along with the idea of educational institutions, which were created to control the population, and to make sure children learned and complied with the established norms of society. From this point of view, institutionalized learning settings and self-directed learning is an improbable match. This is attested by the fact that teachers who reported to have total freedom within their institutions had practically the same responsibility scores as those who feel constrained by institutional rules. This may indicate that these allegedly "free" respondents have internalized and adopted the institutions guidelines to such an extent that these guidelines and rules became undistinguishable from the respondents' personal beliefs regarding how to conduct their practice. So when they claim to have total freedom in the classroom, they are actually reproducing what their institutions tell them to, without being aware of it. However, without more specific information about these respondents, it is not possible to draw further conclusions.

It seems that Adult Education institutions must find a way to be more flexible, and allow learners to have more responsibility during their learning process, to ensure a learning experience which is more engaging, more meaningful and more rewarding for all.

The results regarding teachers who work in formal and non-formal education are also significant for understanding how learning goals are defined in Adult Education. In formal settings, approximately 5% of teachers let their students take primary responsibility for defining their learning goals, while in non-formal education this number is over five times

larger: 26%. Taking into consideration teachers who share this responsibility equally with their students, they represent 7% of those who work in formal education, and 29% of those working in non-formal settings. This finding confirms Mocker and Spear's theory on self-directed learning (see Section 2.2), which distinguishes it from formal learning, where learners have no control over their learning objectives or means, and from non-formal learning, where learners control the learning objectives, but not the means.

The <u>level of education</u> respondents are involved in is another factor that influences how teachers share responsibility for the learning decisions. The lower the level, the less responsibility is transferred to students. Literacy students are given less responsibility than high school students, who, in turn, have less responsibility than university students. This may indicate that students at lower educational levels may be considered not prepared, or without the necessary conditions, to exercise their self-direction. Or this may be a result of their teachers' more or less qualified opinions. However, it was not within the scope of this research to investigate whether teachers promote and motivate students' self-direction. Some theorists believe self-direction can be developed (see Section 2.2), and it would be interesting to find out if this gradual increase in self-direction is a result of an active effort from teachers, or if it is merely a matter of students becoming more "mature" learners and knowledgeable about their own learning preferences and styles, as they move up the educational ladder.

Included in the "level" variable was the option "open courses". Open courses shall be understood as courses that have no admission requirements regarding the minimum educational level individuals must have to attend such courses. These include, for instance, courses related to complementary activities, sports, leisure or hobby activities, such as languages, painting, dancing, and playing the guitar. Due to their nature, open courses are generally less formalistic, especially in terms of the content to be covered and the assessment

of learning outcomes. Therefore it comes as no surprise that open course students are the ones with the highest scores on self-direction, above university students.

6. CONCLUSIONS

This research project intended to explore how teachers of adults view their role in Adult Education, and how they deal with self-directed learners regarding different aspects of their learning process. This was an attempt to contribute to a better understanding of how these professionals work, which can enable the improvement and optimization of the resources employed in Adult Education, thus ensuring a higher quality education for adults.

It is a promising result that none of the respondents claimed to be figures of authority. The fact that very few consider themselves counselors shows that teachers view their role as more technical, that is, closely related to educational issues, such as motivation and content, rather than related to broader matters, such as personal and social development. Whether teachers consider themselves motivators, guides or subject experts, depends mainly on their teaching experiences, both with adults and with children. These results may contribute with information that employers and trainers of Adult Education professionals may consider important when analyzing the professional background of applicants against the ideal kind of professional they prefer, for example.

In terms of self-direction, teachers of adults tend to hold the primary responsibility for their students' learning process, but some variations were found in connection to age, educational settings, and educational levels they teach. These results provide an interesting map of self-directed learning in Adult Education, and can help educational authorities and institutions identify improvement opportunities associated with allocation of resources and employment of the available teaching and learning methods for the development and the quality of education.

All things considered, despite the difficulty in obtaining a general, yet accurate, portrait of educational practice, due to the various cultural and individual variables that

influence it directly and indirectly, further research is necessary for expanding the current

knowledge of Adult Education practice. The results presented here indicate some tendencies;

however, more far-reaching surveys are fundamental not only to confirm these results, but

also to amplify the database available for a more comprehensive understanding of this

complex but fascinating phenomenon called lifelong learning.

7. REFERENCES

Biemer, P. P., & Lyberg, L. E. (2003). *Introduction to Survey Quality*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Booth, M., & Schwartz, H. L. (2012). We're all adults here: clarifying and maintaining boundaries with adult learners. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 131*(Fall), 43-55. doi: 10.1002/tl.20026

Boud, D., & Bridge, W. (1974). *Keller Plan: A Case Study in Individualized Learning*: Institute of Educational Technology, University of Surrey.

Brattset, H. (1987). *Voksenpedagog søkes?* Trondheim: Norsk Voksenpedagogisk Institutt.

Brockett, R. G., & Hiemstra, R. (1991). *Self-Direction in Adult Learning: Perspectives on Theory, Research and Practice*. London and New York: Routledge.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). *Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning*. Suffolk: Open University Press.

Brookfield, S. D. (1990). *The Skillful Teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Byrne, D. (2002). *Interpreting Quantitative Data*. London: Sage.

Candy, P. C. (1991). *Self-Direction for Lifelong Learning. A Comprehensive Guide to Theory and Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chené, A. (1983). The Concept of Autonomy in Adult Education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 34*(1), 38-47.

Cottingham, L. A. (1977). *A Classification System for Independent Learning*: University of New Mexico.

Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (2005). *Designing surveys: a guide to decisions and procedures*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Pine Forge Press.

de Vaus, D. A. (2002). *Surveys in social research*. London: Routledge.

Della-Dora, D., & Blanchard, J. (1979). *Moving toward self-directed learning*. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and Internet Surveys* (2 ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Galbraith, M. W. (2004). The Teacher of Adults. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Adult Learning Methods* (3 ed., pp. 3-21). Malabar: Krieger Publishing Company.

Gibbons, M., Bailey, A., Comeau, P., Schmuck, J., Seymour, S., & Wallace, D. (1980). Toward a Theory of Self-Directed Learning: a Study of Experts Without Formal Training. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 20*(2), 41-56. doi: 10.1177/002216788002000205

Hiemstra, R. (1989). Self-Directed Learning. In C. Titmus (Ed.), *Lifelong Education for Adults. An International Handbook* (pp. 427-433). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Homan, R. (1991). *The ethics of social research*. London: Longman.

Illeris, K. (2004). *Adult Education and Adult Learning*. Malabar: Krieger Publishing Company.

Jarvis, P. (1995). *Adult and continuing education: theory and practice*. London: Routledge.

Johannessen, A., Tufte, P., & Christoffersen, L. (2010). *Introduksjon til Samfunnsvitenskapelig Metode* (4 ed.). Oslo: Abstrakt Forlag.

Jones, D. (1992). The Genealogy of the Urban Schoolteacher. In S. J. Ball (Ed.), *Foucault and Education* (pp. 55-77). London: Routledge.

Kerka, S. (2002). Teaching Adults: Is It Different? *Myths and Realities*. Columbus: Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Knowles, M. S. (1970). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*. New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-Directed Learning*. New York: Association Pres.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (1998). *The Adult Learner: the definite classic in adult education and human resource development* (5 ed.). Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). Andragogy and Self-Directed Learning. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.), *The New Update on Adult Learning Theory. New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education* (pp. 3-13). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2004). The changing landscape of adult learning theory. In J. Comings, B. Garner & C. Smith (Eds.), *Review of adult learning and literacy: Connecting research, policy, and practice* (pp. 199-220). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: a comprehensive guide*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mocker, D. W., & Spear, G. E. (1982). Lifelong Learning: Formal, nonformal, informal and self-directed. Columbus: Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Ohio State University.

Moore, G. W. (1983). *Developing and evaluating educational research*. Boston: Little, Brown.

Musinski, B. (1999). The Educator as Facilitator: A New Kind of Leadership. *Nursing Forum, 34*(1), 23-29.

Nesbit, T., Leach, L., & Foley, G. (2004). Teaching Adults. In G. Foley (Ed.), *Dimensions of Adult Learning* (pp. 74-95). Berkshire: Open University Press.

Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Palmer, P. J. (1998). *The courage to teach: exploring the inner landscape of a teacher's life*: Jossey-Bass.

Presser, S. (2004). *Methods for testing and evaluating survey questionnaires*. Hoboken, N.J.: Wiley-Interscience.

Ringdal, K. (2013). *Enhet og mangfold: samfunnsvitenskapelig forskning og kvantitativ metode*. Bergen: Fagbokforl.

Rogers, A. (2002). *Teaching Adults*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Rønning, W. M., & Grepperud, G. (2011). Undervisning av voksne - en arena for amatører eller profesjonelle? In L. Aarsand, E. Håland, C. Tønseth & S. Tøsse (Eds.), *Voksne, Læring og Kompetanse* (pp. 172-196). Oslo: Gylendal.

Shor, I., & Freire, P. (1987). *A Pedagogy for Liberation*. Westport: Bergin and Garvey.

Tøsse, S. (2011). *Historie, praksis, teori og politikk: om kunnskapsgrunnlaget for voksnes læring*. Trondheim: Tapir akademisk forl.

UNESCO. (1976). *Recommendation on the development of adult education*. Nairobi.

UNESCO. (1985). Final Report - Fourth International Conference on Adult Education. Paris.

UNESCO. (2010). *Belém Framework for Action*. Belém.

UNESCO. (2013). 2nd Global Report on Adult Learning and Education. Hamburg: UIL.

Vella, J. (2002). *Learning to Listen, Learning to Teach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wahlgren, B. (2004). Fokus på voksenlæreren. In J. M. Stenøien, A. M. Laginder, T. Mørkved, K. Rubenson & S. Tøsse (Eds.), *Utfordringer for voksnes læring*. Trondheim: Vox Mimer.

Wiersma, W. (2000). *Research methods in education: an introduction*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Wood, M. (2003). *Making sense of statistics: a non-mathematical approach*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE[5]

NTNU
Kunnskap for en bedre verden

Teachers of Adults

INTRODUCTION / INNLEDNING / INTRODUÇÃO

This is a survey research project for a master degree in Adult Education. Participation is voluntary, and all information shall be treated confidentially. Please choose your language to start.

Denne er en undersøkelse for et mastersgradsprosjekt i Voksnes Læring. Deltakelse er frivillig, og alle informasjoner skal bli behandlet konfidensielt. Velg ditt språk for å starte.

Este é um projeto de pesquisa para a obtenção de título de mestre em Educação de Adultos. A participação é voluntária, e todas as informações obtidas serão tratadas de forma confidencial. Escolha seu idioma para começar.

Choose your language.
Velg ditt språk.
Escolha seu idioma*

-- Please Select -- ▾

To move to the next page, click "Neste". To go back to the previous page, click "Tilbake". At the end of the questionnaire, please click "Ferdig" to register your answers.

Para passar para a próxima página, clique em "Neste". Para retornar para a página anterior, clique em "Tilbake". Ao fim do questionário, por favor clique em "Ferdig" para registrar suas respostas.

---

[5]Although the questionnaire was designed in both English, Norwegian, and Portuguese, only the English version is included here.

TEACHERS OF ADULTS

Request for participation in the research project "Teachers of Adults and Their Self-Direct Students"

Background and goal
The goal is to study how adult educators involved in different institutions, contexts and subjects carry out their activities regarding students' self-direction. It is a survey research project for a master's degree in Adult Education at the Department of Adult Education and Counselling (IVR), Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology Management (SVT), Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU).

What does participating in this study entail?
Survey data is collected from adult educators through an electronic questionnaire. Questions regard educators' professional experience and practice related to their adult students.

What happens to the information provided by the respondents?
Participation is voluntary, and all information will be treated confidentially. Data will be anonymized by the end of the project period, no later than by the end of 2014.

If you have any questions about this study, you can contact Master student Renata Kurimoto Marques at renatam@stud.ntnu.no or Supervisor Researcher Wenche M. Rønning at wenche.m.ronning@svt.ntnu.no. Additional information can also be obtained at https://sites.google.com/site/teachersofadults/home.

The Data Protection Official for Research, Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD AS) has been notified of the project.

Thank you for participating in this project.

Renata K. Marques
Masterstudent

Wenche M. Rønning
Researcher, Project Supervisor

Institute of Adult Education and Counselling, NTNU

ABOUT YOUR WORKING CONTEXT

This questionnaire aims to investigate your teaching practices in relation to your students' self-direction characteristic. In case you teach more than one subject, or in more than one school, please consider the context in which you are more experienced. If you prefer, you can answer more than one questionnaire, each of them regarding one educational context in which you work.

Which kind of education do you work in?

○ Formal, in which the students obtain a title, certificate or diploma formally recognized by the education authorities

○ Non-formal, in which the students do not obtain a title, certificate or diploma formally recognized by the education authorities

Which education level do you work in?

○ Literacy

○ Elementary School

○ General Secondary / High School

○ Vocational Secondary / High School

○ Higher Education - Undergraduate

○ Higher Education - Graduate

○ Open course

Which subject do you teach? In case of doubt, choose the last alternative ("Other") and provide the name of the subject you teach.

○ Formal/Physical sciences (example: mathematics, physics, chemistry, calculus, engineering, computer science, and others)

○ Life/Health (example: biology, medicine, nursing, physical therapy, among others)

○ Social/Human (example: language, literature, philosophy, psychology, education, law, history, geography, politics, and others)

○ Business (example: human resources, marketing, finance, and others)

○ Physical activities (example: sports, theater, dance, and others)

○ Manual/artistic activities (example: painting, handcraft, drawing, carpentry, welding, cooking, and others)

○ Creative (example: architecture, advertising, writing, design, and others)

○ Other, please specify

Which of the following models do you work in?

○ Face-to-face learning

○ Distance/online learning

○ Blended learning (partially face-to-face, partially distance/online)

In which country do you work as a teacher of adults?

ABOUT YOUR CLASSROOM PRACTICE

Regarding your practice as teacher/instructor of adults, mark the alternative which best represents how the responsibility over the following activities is shared between you and your students.

	students have full responsibility	more responsibility of the student than of the teacher	responsibility equally shared between teacher and student	more responsibility of the teacher than of the student	teacher has full responsibility
Identification of the learning needs of the student	○	○	○	○	○
Definition of learning goals	○	○	○	○	○
Selection of necessary materials/resources for the learning process	○	○	○	○	○
Selection of the teaching methods (related to the teachers' efforts)	○	○	○	○	○
Selection of the learning methods (related to the students' efforts)	○	○	○	○	○
Definition of the learning environment (place, space organization and time)	○	○	○	○	○
Selection of the activities involved in the learning process (e.g. lectures, exercises, presentations, seminars, group work, discussion, field work, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
Selection of the assessment methods, according to the goals previously defined	○	○	○	○	○
Performance of assessment	○	○	○	○	○

In your opinion, do institutional guidelines limit your classroom practice?

○ Not applicable, as I do not work under the guidelines of any institution

○ No, I have total freedom in the classroom

○ Yes, I must follow institutional guidelines, and I agree with them

○ Yes, I must follow institutional guidelines, but I do not agree with them; therefore, I would rather have the freedom to work in a different way.

How do you see your primary role as teacher/instructor of adults?

○ An authority, who tells the students what must be done, and how

○ A motivator, who encourages the students to learn

○ A subject expert, who is a knowledge source to the students

○ A guide, who shows students how to get the knowledge they want

○ A counselor, whom students may consult for any doubts they may have

ABOUT YOURSELF

Gender
○ Male
○ Female

Year of birth

How much experience do you have as teacher of adults, in years?

Have you taught children?
○ Yes
○ No

How is teaching adults different from teaching children?
Choose as many alternatives as you think appropriate.

☐ There is no difference between teaching adults and children
☐ Adults are more autonomous than children
☐ Adults present no discipline issues
☐ Adults are more motivated to learn than children
☐ Adults have many responsibilities and roles in life, and therefore are not so dedicated to their learning as children are
☐ Adults are more critical than children
☐ Adults' experience contribute to their learning process
☐ Adults are more aware of what they need to learn and why
☐ Other. Please specify:

How did you become a teacher of adults?

○ I planned to teach adults early in my teaching career

○ I did not plan to follow this career; I became a teacher of adults by chance

○ I decided to become a teacher later on my professional career

Have you gone through any kind of course or training to become an adult teacher?

	Yes	No
Specific training in the school I work or have previously worked in	○	○
Open teaching course	○	○
Undergraduate teaching course	○	○
Graduate teaching course	○	○

Do you have a degree in the subject(s) you teach?

	Yes	No
Vocational/technical level	○	○
Undergraduate level	○	○
Graduate level	○	○

Thank you for participating in our survey.

Takk for at du ville svare på spørsmålene!

Obrigado por sua participação!

APPENDIX B: COMMUNICATION WITH NSD

This research project was duly reported to the Data Protection Official for Research, at the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD AS). NSD is a resource center which, among other tasks, implements the statutory data privacy requirements in the research community, and assists researchers regarding data gathering, data analysis, and issues of methodology, privacy and research ethics.

Below are the statement issued by NSD in response to the obligatory research notification for the treatment of personal information, and an e-mail dated from July 11, 2014, where NSD confirms the extension of the research period until October 31, 2014.

Wenche Rønning
Institutt for voksnes læring og rådgivningsvitenskap NTNU

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 28.02.2014   Vår ref: 37472 / 3 / HIT   Deres dato: Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 04.02.2014. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

37472	*Voksne lærer og selvstyrte studenter*
Behandlingsansvarlig	*NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig	*Wenche Rønning*
Student	*Renata Kurimoto Marques*

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 30.06.2014, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal
                       Hildur Thorarensen

Kontaktperson: Hildur Thorarensen tlf: 55 58 26 54
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering
Kopi: Renata Kurimoto Marques renatam@stud.ntnu.no
Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

Personvernombudet for forskning

Prosjektvurdering - Kommentar

Det gis skriftlig informasjon om prosjektet og behandling av personopplysninger. Samtykke gis ved å fylle ut skjema. Personvernombudet finner informasjonsskrivet tilfredsstillende utformet i henhold til personopplysningslovens vilkår, såfremt veileders kontaktinformasjon tilføyes.

Innsamlede opplysninger registreres på privat pc. Personvernombudet legger til grunn at veileder og student setter seg inn i og etterfølger NTNU sine interne rutiner for datasikkerhet, spesielt med tanke på bruk av privat pc til oppbevaring av personidentifiserende data.

Prosjektet skal avsluttes 30.06.2014 og innsamlede opplysninger skal da anonymiseres. Anonymisering innebærer at direkte personidentifiserende opplysninger som navn/koblingsnøkkel slettes, og at indirekte personidentifiserende opplysninger (sammenstilling av bakgrunnsopplysninger som f.eks. yrke, alder, kjønn) fjernes eller grovkategoriseres slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes i materialet.

Subject **Prosjektnr: 37472 Voksne lærer og selvstyrte studenter**

From   <marianne.boe@nsd.uib.no>

To   <renatam@stud.ntnu.no>

Cc   <wenche.m.ronning@svt.ntnu.no>

Date   **2014-07-11 09:27**

Priority **Highest**

NTNU

BEKREFTELSE PÅ ENDRING

Vi viser til statusmelding mottatt 02.07.2014.

Personvernombudet har nå registrert ny dato for prosjektslutt 31.10.2014.

Det legges til grunn at prosjektopplegget for øvrig er uendret.

Ved ny prosjektslutt vil vi rette en ny statushenvendelse.

Hvis det blir aktuelt med ytterligere forlengelse, gjør vi oppmerksom på at utvalget vanligvis må
informeres ved forlengelse på mer enn ett år utover det de tidligere har blitt informert om.

Ta gjerne kontakt dersom du har spørsmål.

Vennlig hilsen,
Marianne Bøe - Tlf: 55 58 25 83
Epost: marianne.boe@nsd.uib.no

Personvernombudet for forskning,
Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
Tlf. direkte: (+47) 55 58 81 80

AFFIRMATION

Referring to status report received 02.07.2014.

The Data Protection Official has registered that the project period has been extended until 31.10.2014.

We presuppose that the project otherwise remains unchanged.

You will receive a new status inquiry at the end of the project.

Please note that in case of further extensions, the data subjects should usually receive new information
if the total extension exceeds a year beyond what they previously have received information about.

Do not hesitate to contact us if you have any questions.

Best regards,
Marianne Bøe - Phone number: 55 58 25 83
Email: marianne.boe@nsd.uib.no

the Data Protection Official for Research,
Norwegian Social Science Data Services
Phone number (switchboard): (+47) 55 58 81 80