

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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EDITOR'S PREFACE

I have been privileged to serve as the editor for **New Horizons in Adult Education** since 1992 when it moved from Syracuse University to Nova Southeastern University. This is the last issue I will be editing. However, I am pleased that this historic journal and the Adult Education Network (AEDNET) will be continuing to serve the field throughout the world. You may recall a notice that was sent in the fall requesting interested universities to submit a proposal to continue the journal and the AEDNET listserv. A number of inquiries and proposals were submitted. Within a few weeks you will receive information regarding the continuing service for both of these programs.

In her article **Overlooked in Academe: What Do We Know About Immigrant Students in Adult and Higher Education** Mary Alfred presents important aspects to help adult educators understand and serve effectively diverse immigrant students in adult and higher education. These learners come from many different regions of the world with a range of experiences, cultures, and perspectives on education. The concepts of transnational migration and the role of cultural models are explored, providing new insights to educators as they shape learning experiences for these and all learners.

A Model for Promoting Self-regulated Learning by Joseph Moran provides an insightful discussion of how this concept can be used by adult educators and learners. He distinguishes self-regulated learning from self-directed learning, emphasizing that self-regulated learning is "learning that is planned, assessed, and analyzed by the person doing the learning." Examples of these three self-regulating processes are provided that are helpful to both teachers and students. Adult educators have written much about the importance of helping adults to become competent independent learners in formal education and training programs, but also in the workplace and in other areas of adult life. Moran's model provides a comprehensive approach and specific strategies to involve the learners themselves in this process.

Readers are invited to make these articles "interactive" by responding on AEDNET (the Adult Education NETWORK) and sharing their comments. (Directions to guide this discussion are given in this issue on page 27). Readers also are encouraged to submit an article for consideration by the editorial board of New Horizons on a related topic or other topic relevant to adult education philosophy, research, and practice.

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**OVERLOOKED IN ACADEME: WHAT DO WE KNOW
ABOUT IMMIGRANT STUDENTS IN ADULT AND HIGHER EDUCATION?**

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Abstract

Immigration continues to be a powerful force shaping this country's demographic landscape. The majority of today's immigrants are not drawn from Europe but from the nations of the third world. This ethnic shift creates urgency for higher and adult education to transform culture and pedagogy to meet the educational needs of these newer minorities. The purpose of this paper is to make visible some of the sociocultural contexts of migration and how they influence learning among immigrant adults. It explores the concept of transnational migration as it relates to today's new comers and examines the role of cultural models in shaping the learning experiences of immigrant adults.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, immigration to the United States continues to be a powerful force shaping the country's demographic landscape. However, unlike past waves of migration, the majority of today's immigrants do not come from Europe, but predominantly from the developing nations of the third world. As a result, the American population is becoming more nonwhite and more diverse than ever before (Schuck, 1998). This dramatic shift in the composition of today's population speaks to the urgency for educational institutions to address the needs of the ever-increasing number of newly arrived minorities in the United States. However, before educators can effectively educate these new comers, they must first gain insights into the demographic characteristics of today's immigrant Americans and become aware of their experiences in United States adult higher education. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to make visible some of the sociocultural contexts of migration and how they influence learning among immigrant students in adult education. I begin with a demographic profile of today's foreign-born population and the characteristics of the various immigrant groups; then I explore how agency, culture, and structure interact to influence the learning experience for immigrant groups; and finally, I discuss a cross-national or pluralistic approach for creating a more inclusive adult education environment.

Demographic Profile of America's Foreign Born

According to Schmidley (2002), the estimated foreign-born population of the United States was 32.5 million, representing 11.4% of the United States population. This number is an increase of 13.5 million or 47% over the 1990 census figures. This increase is primarily the result of immigration from Asia and Latin America (Camarota, 2002). As of 2002, 52% of the U.S.

immigrants were from Latin America and 25% from Asia (Schmidley, 2002). The Latin American countries with the highest representation of immigrants were Mexico, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and El Salvador. On the other hand, the Asian countries with the highest immigrant rates were China, the Philippines, India, Vietnam, and Korea (Camarota, 2002). In contrast, only 14% of the foreign-born population came from Europe, a significant shift from the 62% recorded in 1970.

Overall, according to current population reports, the largest wave of immigrants arrived between 1985 and 1990 (Schmidley, 2002).. Seventy-five percent of the Salvadorian immigrants, along with more than half of the immigrants from Korea, Vietnam, and China, together with nearly half of the Mexican and Filipino immigrants arrived during that period. As a result, the racial and ethnic composition of the foreign-born population has shifted to more than 75% people of color.

Moreover, many of the newcomers speak a language other than English in the home. In fact, over 95% of Mexicans, Cubans, or Salvadorians speak Spanish in the home, and 95% of the immigrants from China, Korea, the Philippines, and Vietnam speak an Asian language (United States Bureau of the Census Report, 2003). In addition, about 80% of those from Italy and 58% of those from Germany spoke a language other than English. Also worth noting is the fact that over 43% of foreign-born immigrants fall between the ages of 25 and 44. Of those, 67% are likely to have graduated high school. The highest percentage of high school graduates was found among Asians (83.8%) and Europeans (81.3%), compared to those from Latin America (49.6%). Immigrants from Latin America, particularly those from Mexico, have the lowest rate of high school completion at 37.3% (United States Bureau of the Census Report, 2003).

Together with the educational, racioethnic, and linguistic differences, the conditions and the experiences of migration are also diverse. Today's new comers arrive as labor migrants, professional migrants, entrepreneurial migrants, international students, refugees, or asylees, and these conditions signify a broad array of educational experiences, from low literate to professional adults. These diverse experiences determine the education needs of the foreign born students, and these range from literacy education to professional education. To provide an environment where students can have a positive experience with learning, it is important for one to be aware that immigration today is being reconceptualized from an assimilations to a more transnational perspective. This perspective calls for educators to design programs that would help the new comers to maintain their dual orientation between the home and host countries.

A Transnational Perspective of Migration

Immigration scholars (such as Glick Schiller, Basch, & Blanc-Szanton, 1992; Glick Schiller, 1999; Kearney, 1995) are beginning to recognize the transnational orientation of today's immigrants and are contesting the view of immigrants as people who have uprooted themselves from their country to settle permanently and assimilate in a new land. Instead, they call attention to the fact that a significant proportion of today's immigrants who settle in the United States still maintain strong ties with their home country and, therefore, resist assimilating into their new culture. Many of today's newer immigrants maintain a dual orientation as they traverse back and forth among the nations they call "home." To capture the essence of the back and forth

movement across national borders, the term “transnational migration” or “transnationalism” (Glick Schiller, 1999) is preferred to characterize the bicultural identities of these immigrant groups. According to Glick Schiller, “Transnational migration is a pattern of migration in which persons, although they move across international borders and settle and establish social relations in a new state, maintain social connections with the polity from which they originated. . . . Persons literally live their lives across international borders and establish transnational social fields” (p. 96). In other words, transnational migrants maintain a dual-place orientation (Sutton & Chaney, 1994) and acculturate rather than assimilate into the new culture.

As an example, Monkman's (1997) study of learning among Mexican American immigrants in California clearly demonstrates the transnational dynamics that shape some immigrant people's lives in a new nation. The study revealed that the Mexican immigrants had strong ties with networks both at home and in the host country, and these cultural interactions shaped their identities as transnational immigrants. Monkman reported that many of them spoke of life in Mexico and in California in dual terms, and even while in California, their networks included friends and family members from Mexico. As a result of these transnational social fields, they continued to maintain Mexican culture and traditions while they participated in United States cultural systems.

Other studies (Alfred, 2003; Basch, Glick Schiller, & Blanc-Szanton, 1994) have found that the identities of migrant populations continue to be rooted in their nation states. For example, Alfred's (2003) study of Anglophone Caribbean immigrant women in the United States supported the bicultural orientation of transnational migrants. The study found that the women navigated the borders of the home and host countries, maintained strong social and family networks in both cultures, and participated in the cultural traditions of both nations. When asked to define who they were in terms of their cultural identity, many participants had trouble separating their Afro-Caribbean cultural identity from their American cultural identity. As one participant noted, "I am an American with Caribbean roots; I am active in both worlds, and they both continue to influence me. . . . I look forward to going home [to the Caribbean] every year or so, but I always look forward to coming home [to the United States]. Today, I am a product of both worlds and a citizen of both" (Alfred, p. 249).

It is no surprise, then, that immigrants continue to maintain membership in the nation state from which they originated while they live and work in the new nation. To that end, an understanding of the voluntary immigrant experience must be situated within the context of transnational migration. However, the traditional approach to education tends to be defined and organized within national boundaries (Monkman, 1997) rather than from a more global or transnational perspective. Not surprisingly, courses in adult education are no exception. As Monkman observes,

The content of courses in most regions of the world are reflective of the cultural, social, and political values and relations at the national level, sometimes with an effort to reflect the realities of particular groups within a country, but rarely acknowledge the issues relevant to transnational individuals and families. . . . These courses are focused on facilitating the transition of the immigrants to life in the US, with little attention to how transnational issues are experienced. (p. 26)

This view of immigrants as transnational nomads who maintain cultural traditions of the home and host countries must be considered, as adult educators plan and deliver educational programs that speak to the bicultural identities of today's demographic population. For as Bennett (2001) cautions, "When predominantly White campuses serving culturally diverse population take a business-as-usual or assimilations approach, they allow institutional and cultural racism to persist" (p. 674). Therefore, taking a more transnational approach to the planning and delivery of educational programs can assist foreign-born students in affirming their ethnic identity as well as fulfilling their need to survive and cope within the new environment. In that sense, the school experience can become meaningful and relevant to the new comers who seek to embrace both cultures. In order to become fully aware of the schooling experiences of immigrant adults, we must first understand how cultures, institutional structures, and personal agency intersect to inform that experience.

Agency, Culture, Institutional Structure, and Learning

For immigrant students in adult and higher education, the learning institution is not simply a site where they demonstrate old knowledge and create new forms of knowing. Rather, it is seen as a place where there is dynamic interplay between cultures, institutional structures, and agency--where learning takes place within the contexts of home and host cultures, mediated by a learner's sense of personal agency (Foner, 1999). Clearly, the myriad of structural constraints that immigrants confront in their new environment shape their motivation for learning, the activities in which they participate, and the perception of their experiences within the context of the learning environment. They enter specific schools whose immediate contexts, histories, memories, and commitments shape their organizational practices (Olneck, 2001). These practices are mediated by day-to-day routines and by the meanings participants give to them. Over time, members internalize these practices as norms, thus institutionalizing them as a part of the culture. Olneck sees these cultural practices to be highly consequential for constructing and maintaining solid or permeable boundaries between immigrant students and instructors and students of the host culture. Overall, these practices contribute to learning environments that are either welcoming or alienating to the newly-arrived immigrant.

Also at play are the cultural understandings, meanings, and symbols that immigrants bring with them from their home society. These concepts are critical to our understanding of immigrant people's behavior in new cultures. Obviously, immigrants do not always reproduce their old cultural patterns when they move to a new country, but these patterns continue to have a powerful influence in shaping new values, norms, and behavior in the new environment (Foner, 1999). Similarly, as immigrants participate in educational activities, they interact with members of the culture who bring their own values, norms, and behavior into the learning situation. Therefore, the learning experiences of the immigrant student must be understood within the context of these dynamics.

Furthermore, Olneck (2001) asserts that these interactional dynamics that take place among the immigrant students, peers, and instructor within a particular learning environment are influenced by the culture and structure of the school; by perceptions key players have of one another and of themselves; by the diverse meanings each player assigns to schooling; by tacit as

well as explicit pedagogical, curricular, and administrative practices; by the degree of discontinuity between immigrant and school cultures; and the structural characteristics and cultural practices of immigrant communities (p. 315). While Olnek made these observations in reference to immigrant students in K-12 education, they have implications for adult education. Together they speak to the role of culture and early socialization in shaping the immigrant experience in academic discourse communities. To that end, Lee and Sheard (2002) suggest that cultural models constitute a lens through which we can more closely examine and further understand the learning experiences of foreign-born students in United States academic institutions.

How Cultural Models Influence Learning

Researchers within the contexts of K-12 education have advocated for educators to consider the role of cultural models in designing culturally responsive approaches to teaching and learning. Such philosophy has implications for adult education. As Ogbu (1990) explains, a cultural model is an understanding that people have of their universe—social, physical, or both—as well as their understanding of their behavior in that universe (Ogbu, 1990). According to Ogbu, cultural models help members of a culture organize the knowledge of their culture, interpret events within that culture, and know how to act in given situations. Therefore, an individual's behavior in the classroom must also be understood within the contexts of these cultural values.

For example, Wan's (2001) study of the learning experiences of Chinese students in American universities revealed how the cultural models of schooling acquired in the home country influenced their learning experiences in the host country. According to Wan, Chinese students come to the United States expecting structure, formal rules, and the hierarchical arrangement of teachers and students. Instead, they encounter creative and flexible teaching arrangements, collaborative engagements, and are often disillusioned with the process of having to be self-directed and having to be co-constructors of knowledge. Also discomfoting are the casual relationships that often exist between teachers and students, as they are quite in contrast to the hierarchical relationships and formal arrangements that exist in the home country.

Moreover, foreign-born students in American classrooms often lament at the challenges they face when it comes to speaking in class and contributing to classroom dialog (Alfred, 2003; Lee & Sheard, 2002; Monkman, 1997; Wan, 2001). Specific to Alfred's study, a few of the participants perceived that American fellow students and teachers viewed them as being "stupid" and "dumb" because of their silence in the classroom. As one of them noted, "I think there is a general perception that people have, in that, if you don't speak in class, then you are not a bright student, and they ignore you until you prove to them that you are smart. There is the feeling that because you are different, you are a foreigner, you cannot be as good as they" (p. 252).

This perception supports Olnek's argument that the assumptions students and teachers have of one another significantly shape the degree, quality, and consequences of interactions between immigrants, their fellow students, and teachers (2001). These assumptions also influence immigrants' views of themselves as learners. The actions and behaviors resulting from these assumptions and cultural differences often result in social distance and marginality for

immigrant students, even in the absence of malice or ill intentions. Furthermore, the effects of these interactions can have negative consequences for learning in a multicultural classroom environment.

Indeed, just as natives have assumptions about immigrants, immigrants, too, arrive with images about higher education cultures, and some are often both surprised and dismayed at what they meet in the new country. The first surprise that most recounted is the lack of visible hierarchy between the instructor and the students. Related to this difference are the accompanying jokes and chatter in the midst of a serious discussion that are part of the classroom culture. Immigrant students who have been socialized to learn from the traditional lecture mode often find it difficult at first to block out what they see as inconsequential. Eventually, they learn to filter the classroom discussions to be able to participate meaningfully. However, prior to making that transition, many remain in a position of silence as they participate in the process of learning.

Understanding this period of silence is critical to understanding immigrant learners and their behaviors in the classroom. During this period, students are learning the skills of sorting out what's relevant in classroom discussions, figuring out how to transition to other forms of epistemology, learning the codes of how to disagree and challenge existing knowledge, and learning how to reevaluate their own prior schooling socialization (Swaminathan & Alfred, 2003). This period is actually a time of intense activity and inner dialogue as students negotiate the old and new structures of schooling and adopt a style that is congruent with the culture of the classroom without giving up the discourse that is important to their own cultures.

Cultural models not only influence students' learning, but they also influence approaches to teaching, as well as the assumptions held about different groups. Moreover, through personal introspections, adult educators are recognizing the importance of identifying, their own cultural backgrounds, as well as the beliefs and values that inform their practice. Identifying the cultural models that guide their practice helps them to understand potential sources of conflict between cultural models, and then to devise intervention strategies that are consistent with culturally competent teaching.

Conclusion and Recommendations

As noted, the United States has seen several important demographic changes since the last Immigration Act of 1965. These changes, in turn, hold consequences that are highly relevant to adult and higher education institutions that provide services to immigrant students. Perhaps, most importantly, is the significant shift from earlier decades when immigrants arrived primarily from Western Europe, making diversity an issue of little concern to educators. Today's new comers are highly diverse and originate from a wide variety of educational traditions that are often substantially different from the ones they encounter in the United States. Immigrants also bring a large array of needs and educational aspirations, as well as achievements and qualifications to adult and higher education. These diverse qualities create a challenge for instructors to structure learning activities so as to make the experiences of the foreign-born student more visible and to use these experiences as opportunities for learning. One way to create

change would be to introduce a cross-national or pluralistic perspective in the curriculum when appropriate, and a second way would be to promote diversity as an asset and not as a deficit.

A Cross-National Approach to Adult and Higher Education

Institutions of higher education are beginning to recognize and acknowledge the interdependence of our present global society (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 1998a). Students need to understand global issues and their local effects and to be able to communicate effectively with people from different parts of the world. One change made by several universities in trying to prepare students to live in a global world has been an attempt to internationalize the curriculum by changing syllabi to reflect not merely local concerns, but global issues (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 1998b). Similarly, adult education must focus its attention on internationalizing the curriculum so that foreign-born students can find a more democratic and inclusive environment in the United States classroom, one that is not entirely focused on local issues and cultures. Taking a pluralistic approach would necessitate the acknowledgment that learning about another culture as well as one's own adds a new dimension to the classroom and a different way of thinking. The primary goal would not be to make students experts in another culture, but to model possible types of analyses, learn to question what one takes for granted in one's own culture, and understand the behaviors and practices of groups who are different from them (Swaminathan & Alfred, 2003).

The advantages of using a cross-national or pluralistic approach are varied. First, it promotes campus communities where students and faculty of different cultural and racial background feel welcomed and are encouraged to reach their fullest potential (Bennett, 2001). According to Bennett, research on K-12 desegregation shows that good race relations, high standards of academic achievement, and personal development among all students are most likely when school policies and academic curricula take a more pluralist or integrated rather than an assimilations or business-as-usual approach. A second advantage to taking a cross-national approach is that it creates opportunities for all students to learn about various social behaviors and practices and the particular cultures that gave rise to them. Third, students learn to challenge their own assumptions about other cultural groups. Fourth, immigrants in the classroom will learn about and question their assumptions regarding American culture. Finally, all students will learn to examine inter-group stereotypes while promoting intercultural communication (Swaminathan & Alfred, 2003).

Many of those advocating for change in higher education regard curriculum reform as the best way to proceed (Bennett, 2001). Bennett further notes, "A systematic and cohesive expansion of the curriculum to include multicultural perspectives will require the participation and renewal of most faculty on predominantly White campuses. This renewal can become part of the university's overall mission" (p. 679). Overall, a transnational approach to education should begin with the institutional culture for long-term sustenance. In the meantime, adult educators can begin to educate themselves about the various groups represented in their classrooms and design opportunities whereby each one can experience full membership in the learning community.

Recommendations for Adult Education Practice

Whether facilitating learning within the context of adult basic education, adult higher education, the workplace, the community, or continuing professional education, adult educators and trainers should assume immigrant students will likely be participants of such programs. Therefore, instructors must begin with a compassionate understanding of these students and recognize and build on the identity and knowledge they already possess. To be effective, they need to be mindful of the following:

1. Foreign-born students have histories and experiences with education that may be quite different from what they encounter in the American classroom, which is particularly true of the newly-arrived immigrants who encounter learning environments in which the language, institutional culture, and practices are different from those in their home lands. As a result, students often feel uncomfortable and, to some degree, marginalized within the learning environment. To minimize the alienation that students experience, instructors can acknowledge their presence, dialog with them in and out of class, discuss and analyze issues of difference and assumptions about such differences as they relate to power and conflict. Similarly, instructors can encourage students to use class projects to share their own experiences with living in the home country and to use the opportunity to educate members of the host country about the cultural models that shape their behaviors. In that way, adult educators acknowledge the diversity amongst us and promote it an asset rather than as a deficit. This approach demonstrates a personal commitment to assisting all students construct knowledge about their life world (Welton, 1995), while promoting a cross-cultural approach to adult education.
2. A lack of proficiency with the English language is one of the greatest problems immigrant students encounter, particularly those who come from countries where English is not the first language. As a result, navigating the curriculum and meeting classroom expectations often become a challenge. Additionally, because of the way they were socialized to learn in the home country, some will demonstrate classroom behavior that may be perceived as passive. One way to help new immigrants integrate into the classroom milieu is through participation in formal and informal group activities. This concept of participation moves learners into cooperative learning relationships with each other and also with the instructor (Deshler & Grudens-Schuck, 2000). Care should be taken, however, to help members enter groups that are welcoming and whose members are open to different ways of knowing and being.
3. Knowledge construction systematically benefits some while excluding others. As a result, Deshler and Grudens-Schuck (2002) call for adult educators to be cognizant of power issues as they play out in learning communities. They caution that instructors should consider three main questions as they facilitate knowledge construction in adult education communities: For whom is the knowledge constructed? Whose knowledge construction counts? Who should construct knowledge? These questions have particular significance for collaborative groups, particularly those that include marginalized populations. Because new immigrants, as a marginalized population, are often reserved when they first enter the American classroom, a deliberate effort must be taken to include them so that their knowledge is represented. The local knowledge that they bring, if tapped, can serve as a springboard for new explorations that enrich everyone's learning.

Walqui and Ed (2000) note that in effective classroom, teachers and students together construct a culture that values the strengths of all participants and respects their interests, abilities, languages, and dialects. Adult educators, therefore, must strive to model such effective learning environments.

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A MODEL FOR PROMOTING SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

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Abstract

Self-regulated learning is defined as learning that is planned, assessed, and analyzed by the person doing the learning. The benefits of self-regulated learning are detailed in a review of the literature. A three-stage model for the instructional process that promotes self-regulated learning in adult learners is presented: (a) instructing learners about the thinking, feeling, and behaving patterns that enhance learning; (b) instructing learners about the processes for self-regulating their thinking, feeling, and behaving; and (c) assigning activities that involve learners in self-regulating their learning. Several examples of implementation of the model are provided.

Introduction

In the last decade researchers have gained several insights into modes of thinking and learning. Among the most important from the standpoint of adult educators may be the concept of self-regulated learning. Self-regulated learning is learning that is planned, assessed, and analyzed by the person doing the learning. Because self-regulated learning is a relatively new term in the literature, I would mention its relationships with two related terms. First, Gourgey, (2001) has defined metacognition as controlling one's learning and that is virtually synonymous with the definition of self-regulated learning that I offered in the previous paragraph. However, Lefrancois (2000), and Sternberg and Williams (2002) have specifically limited metacognition to mean controlling one's thinking. Therefore, I have followed the lead of Zimmerman (2001) and used the term self-regulated learning instead of metacognition in order to be consistent with my interest in highlighting the capacity of learners to use strategies to influence not only their thinking, but also their feelings, and behaviors in ways that improve their learning. Second, self-regulated learning is distinct from and yet complementary to self-directed learning. Knowles (1986) conceived of self-directed learning as an individual learner deciding what to learn (philosophy, carpentry, or other field), how to learn it (a continuing education class, and learning contract, or other method), what to produce as evidence of successful learning (a book, a bookcase, or nothing at all), and when it had been learned. On the other hand, self-regulated learning refers to strategies for reaching learning goals regardless of whether those goals are chosen by the learner or someone else—teacher, state examining board, and so forth. It refers to planning how to process information (Should I use mnemonic techniques, brainstorming, or some other strategy for this assignment?), how to assess learning progress (Am I completing intermediate goals on schedule? Would I make better progress if I were to collaborate with someone in class?), and reflecting on learning (I did reasonably well to brainstorm a solution to the problem, but I could have done better if I had reserved the time to revise my paper before I

submitted it.). In practice, self-regulated and self-directed learning are complementary processes because self-regulating learning skills facilitate self-directed endeavors.

Adult educators might be expected to be interested in self-regulated learning because it is consistent with the core values of adult education, including the value placed upon empowering learners. However, they find their interest is heightened by Schraw's (2001) conclusion to a review of the literature on children and college students that self-regulating actions are so important that they rival the influence of intelligence on learning. In light of the potential benefits of engaging in self-regulated learning, I have prepared this paper in hopes of assisting adult educators in helping their learners capitalize on what is known about self-regulated learning. I will present a model to summarize the literature on self-regulated learning and to help educators devise ways to promote self-regulated learning among their learners. Although there is little research on self-regulated learning in such aspects of adult education as basic education, continuing education, human resource development, and continuing professional education, the research on learners in higher education is relevant and instructive. I will try to derive from that literature a model to serve as a set of guidelines for teachers of adults to follow in order to promote self-regulated learning in ways that facilitate knowledge acquisition and higher order thinking.

A Model For Self-Regulated Learning

Silverman and Casazza (2000) include a review of self-regulated learning in their book on learning and development in adult and higher education. They noted that self-regulated learning is associated with higher levels of academic achievement in higher education. They also point out that all students self-regulate their learning to some extent, but that high-achieving and low-achieving learners self-regulate in different ways. Compared to low achieving learners, high achievers spend more time planning how to identify material that is so important that it is likely to appear on tests. In addition, low achievers concentrate on remembering information and high achievers concentrate on understanding information.

Silverman and Casazza (2000) concluded their review by positing that because few undergraduates are proficient at self-regulated learning, promoting self-regulated learning should be an important goal for a college curriculum. It seems inescapable that promoting self-regulated learning is also an important goal for all learners. Therefore, we now turn to a model for promoting self-regulated learning with adult learners. The model has three components: (a) instructing learners about the thinking, feeling, and behaving patterns that enhance learning; (b) instructing learners about the processes for self-regulating their thinking, feeling, and behaving to enhance their learning; and (c) assigning activities that involve learners in self-regulating their learning.

At this point, I want to state my opinion that teachers should conduct their instruction in all aspects of self-regulated learning within their ongoing content-based learning activities. I have three reasons for holding this opinion. First, self-regulated learning refers to a process that is performed on content and it is difficult to describe self-regulated learning without using examples from specific content areas. Second, teachers always have more credibility when they are teaching in the content of their expertise and they lend credibility to their instruction in self-

regulated learning when they connect the two. Third, effective instruction in self-regulated learning improves the achievement of learners, and the improved learning is reinforcing for both the teacher and the learners, strengthening their commitment to self-regulated learning.

Factors That Enhance Learning

Schraw (2001), Hartmann (2001), and Zimmerman (2001) have listed many of the factors that enhance learning and are particularly relevant to self-regulated learning. I will not attempt to recapitulate all of that information here. Instead, I will attempt to describe the smallest number of these factors that are necessary to explain the model for promoting self-regulated learning.

Thinking Domain

It is useful to categorize the factors that influence learning into the domains of thinking, feeling, and behaving. I will provide one example from each domain of how teachers can integrate teaching self-regulating learning skills into ongoing instruction. The key concept in the thinking domain is the cognitive strategy for processing information. Figure 1 presents some samples of the kinds of cognitive strategies that teachers might provide their learners in order to promote learning at various levels in the cognitive domain of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives. It is not a comprehensive account of what processing strategies are most appropriately connected to each level in the cognitive domain. It is intended to present some samples and to encourage teachers to generate their own lists of cognitive strategies that their learners need for processing information at various levels in their disciplines.

Levels of knowing	Sample associated Teaching Methods	Sample Associative Cognitive Strategies
Knowledge	Drill	Mnemonic techniques
Comprehension	Lecture	5 R's of note-taking
Application	Simulation	Brainstorming
Analysis	Open forum	Outlining
Synthesis	Case study	Reasoning by analogy
Evaluation	Discussion	Rubrics

Figure 1. Levels of knowing in the cognitive domain, associated teaching methods, and associated cognitive strategies.

Let us consider one example of how a teacher might instruct learners about cognitive strategies for improving learning within a unit on the teacher's content. Suppose a teacher were covering historical material such as the American Revolutionary War. The teacher might concentrate on having the learners comprehend the material, and therefore, the teacher would select methods to cover the material in ways that would promote comprehension. These methods might well include assigning readings from textbooks and delivering brief lecture type presentations followed by question and answer sessions.

The teacher might very well integrate into the lecture presentation instruction on using the SQ3R strategy for reading a textbook because this is a formal method for promoting comprehension of written material. The SQ3R stands for **S**urvey, **Q**uestion, **R**ead, **R**ecite, **R**eview. The SQ3R method is implemented in the following way. First, learners survey the chapter they are about to read in order to get a general idea of its contents. They might conduct the survey by examining the title, headings, figures, and summary. Second, they create a list of questions from the items that they surveyed. For example, if the title of the chapter were Causes of the Civil War, the reader might place on the list of questions: What were the causes of the Civil War? Third, they read the chapter with an eye towards answering all the questions on the list. Fourth, they recite the answers to the questions. Finally, they review all that they have done, checking on the answers to any questions that they are not comfortable with and making connections between the contents of the chapter and other information such as class notes.

Schraw (2001) in particular has stressed that successful self-regulated learning is dependent upon knowing about the factors that enhance learning, as well as knowing when and how to apply that knowledge. Therefore, the next step for the teacher who has instructed learners about the SQ3R method in the manner described in the previous paragraph is to instruct the learners in when to apply their knowledge of the SQ3R method. The teacher would probably explain that the SQ3R method is a good tool for comprehending material that is highly structured nonfiction prose, especially if the material includes headings, figures, charts, stated objectives at the beginning of chapters, and questions at the end of the chapters. It is not well suited for other types of reading. For example, it is not well suited for comprehending poetry.

The final step in the instruction in the SQ3R method is to develop the skills of the learners in how to use the method. Most likely, the teacher would give learners repeated practice, and provide corrective feedback. For example, a teacher might review and suggest changes in the questions that the learners generate for themselves prior to reading their assigned passages. Teachers might also conduct discussions in which learners share with one another the ways they have refined their use of this study method and the ways in which they believe it has helped them.

Teachers might also specifically reward learners for using this method. The reward might take the form of verbal praise. Alternatively, they could construct graded or ungraded quizzes around questions that would be answered correctly by a learner using the SQ3R method.

Feeling Domain

Teachers can expect to spend a great deal of time instructing learners in strategies for processing information and they can expect to see immediate improvement in the achievement of their learners who use these strategies. They must not neglect to instruct learners in ways of influencing their feelings, especially feelings that relate to motivation to engage enthusiastically in learning activities. It is beyond the scope of this paper to address the many ways feelings impinge on learning. I will, however, offer an example of how teachers might provide instruction regarding feelings.

I begin with a reminder that teachers should instruct learners about strategies for influencing their feelings in positive ways, when to apply those strategies, and how to apply them skillfully. They can provide didactic instruction about seeking social support (Moran, 2001) and setting goals (Desimone, 2002) as two important methods for influencing one's learning. They can continue with didactic instruction such as lectures and guided discussion to explain when to use these strategies: (a) seek social support when you are feeling overwhelmed by and assignments, and (b) set goals for yourself when you are feeling a lack of motivation for an assignments. Finally, they would teach learners how to implement these strategies successfully with different types of instruction. They can serve as coaches (Moran, 2001) or refer learners to various support services.

Behaving Domain

Although teachers can make use of much of what has been learned about behavior modification to help learners influence their study behaviors and positive ways, I want to suggest that teachers give consideration to covering time management and learning styles when they teach their learners about behaviors that enhance learning. I suggest these two because they seem to have immediate appeal to most adult learners and because they lend themselves to group instruction. Teachers can readily present the principles of time management and learning styles in lecture and print formats. Various discussion formats can help learners discover that they should use increasingly detailed time management schedules when their assignments consist of long-term projects and when they have several assignments to do within a short period of time and that they should apply their knowledge of their learning styles whenever they find their study behaviors are inefficient. Finally, teachers can instruct learners how to construct time management schedules and how to capitalize on their learning styles with practice and corrective feedback as part of their ongoing content-based learning activities.

Teachers can find additional information on the thinking domain and cognitive strategies suitable for use in adult learning settings as well as information about the feeling and behaving domains in many sources, including Lefrancois (2000), McWhorter (2000), Sotiriou (2002), and Sternberg and Williams (2002).

Three Self-Regulating Learning Processes

There is consensus that planning, assessing, and reflecting are the core components of self-regulated learning. Planning refers to what learners do to ensure that they will complete their assignments in accordance with the directions and specified standards of performance. Assessing refers to what learners do to gauge their progress towards completing their assignments satisfactorily and to the adjustments they make in their plans in order to ensure that they will complete their assignments satisfactorily. Reflecting refers to what learners do to gain insight into their past learning projects and becoming more efficient and effective learners.

Planning, assessing, and reflecting on learning always seem to involve making use of one's knowledge of the factors that influence learning from the thinking, feeling, and behaving domains. Therefore, teachers should describe the processes of planning, assessing, and reflecting in conjunction with those factors. Just as with the factors that influence learning, teachers need

to instruct learners not only about planning, assessing, and reflecting upon their learning, but also when and how to plan, assess, and reflect on their learning.

Teaching Learners About The Self-regulating Processes

The three self-regulating processes are so closely interrelated that I will discuss the methods for teaching learners about them in a single section and follow with analogous sections for when and how to use that knowledge. Figure 2 contains examples of some of the more common planning, assessing, and reflecting activities for the domains of thinking, feeling, and behaving.

Planning

Write down what you are required to submit for evaluation and specify the criteria for success. Draft a schedule for completing subtasks. (For example, conduct library search on Thursday, and write outline Friday.)

Thinking.

Name/describe the thinking strategies that you will use to help you complete each subtask. (e.g. brainstorming with a peer)

Feeling

Specify the feelings that will motivate you to work conscientiously on this task and how you will generate those feelings. (e.g. goal setting)

Behaving

Specify the study behaviors that will help you work efficiently on this task (e.g. joining a study group).

Write a project management memo, incorporating all of the above information and more as you think appropriate, for completing the entire learning activity. Give consideration to what you have learned from the previous occasions on which you reflected on your learning during a project like this one.

Assessing

Determine how well you are staying on schedule.
Note anything unexpected that has happened.

Thinking

Estimate how well the cognitive strategies you selected are working for you and make changes where appropriate.

Feeling

Identify the feelings and motivations that are helping and hurting your progress. Devise plans to modify your feelings as appropriate.

Behaving

Identify the specific behaviors that are helping and hurting your progress.

Update the project management memo.

Devise plans to alter your behavior as appropriate.

Reflecting

Identify the most successful and the least successful aspects of your learning products.

Identify what helped and what interfered with your efforts?

Decide if you planned, assessed, and reflected on your work according to schedule and in sufficient detail?

Thinking

Indicate what you learned about cognitive strategies and using cognitive strategies to facilitate your learning in the future.

Feeling

Indicate what you learned about your feelings and ways of influencing your feelings to enhance your learning in the future.

Behaving

Indicate what you learned about your behaviors and ways of influencing your behaviors to enhance your learning in the future.

Record what you learned about your patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving vis-à-vis your learning. Record what you learning about planning, assessing, and reflecting on your learning. Describe the control you have gained over your learning and your level of satisfaction with the control you have gained.

Figure 2. Examples of planning, assessing, and reflecting activities for the self-regulating processes.

I would like to make two comments about Figure 2. First, although there is a substantial amount of information in the figure, it would be easy enough to add a large amount of useful, meaningful material. For example, the initial planning might contain, "List available learning

resources." In fact, I kept the figure simple in order to keep the focus on the model for promoting self-regulate learning rather than on the relevant knowledge base. On the other hand, I recommend that each teacher add to this outline material that is particularly suited for his or her learners.

Second, and paradoxically, I would think a teacher would very rarely want to present this entire figure to learners. Doing so could overload students to the point where learning can be compromised (Silverman & Casazza, 2000). The recommended approach is for teachers to begin by distributing small sections of their customized versions of Figure 2. For example, a teacher might start with only the planning section. After learners have become proficient with that section, the teacher can introduce additional subsections later in a learning program.

Teaching Learners When to Self-regulate

In the light of Silverman's and Casazza's (2000) conclusions that teachers should strive to promote self-regulated learning without focusing so heavily on self-regulated learning as to interfere with learning course content, we should recognize that guidelines for achieving the benefits and avoiding the pitfalls of teaching to promote self-regulated learning are difficult to come by. In fact, I am aware of no research that helps us to arrive at guidelines for teaching learners when and to what extent they should deliberately engaged in self-regulation. My opinion is that teachers can strike a balance between the caution from Silverman and Casazza and my own sense that learners should regulate all of their learning by instructing learners to plan every task for at least the thinking domain in Figure 2 and to self-regulate more fully whenever they have a subjective sense that a learning task is proving difficult.

Teaching Learners How To Self-Regulate

Three methods are especially recommended for teaching learners how to self-regulate. They all involve integrating self-regulated learning with ongoing content-based learning activities.

Modeling. Modeling is an important means of motivating learners and of teaching skills so teachers should model self-regulated thinking as a way of teaching self-regulating skills. It appears that teachers generally seem to do a good job of modeling the way they plan their thinking for their learners. For example, teachers commonly make statements such as, "I thought that in order to make this information clear I would begin with some definitions and then give some examples." On the other hand, Hartman (2001) has urged teachers to build into their instruction, and call attention to, times when they model how to assess and reflect on their thinking. For example, teachers might end a discussion by saying, "Today we raised a number of points and some of those points seem to contradict one another. Let's see if we can bring everything together in a single generalization? Of course, I did not know what points would be raised so I am going to I suggest.... Let's see if that holds up.... It does not quite work because... I need to take another approach, but I am stuck. Would someone in class like to make a suggestion?"

Cooperative Learning. Hartman (2001) makes Hartman (2001) makes a related point when she suggests that learners be assigned tasks such as working in co-operative groups in order to create visual displays that organize information. The co-operative groups are in some

ways opportunities for students to observe their peers model planning, assessing and reflecting on how to think about information. The modeling should increase skill and motivation to self-regulate learning.

Cooperative learning activities promote self-regulating learning in another way. In the assignment in which learners collaborate to produce a visual representation of how concepts relate to each other will present the participants with alternative ways of organizing the concepts and alternative ways of planning, assessing, and reflecting on the task. Learners will be especially able to profit from the contrasting approaches if teachers would set aside time for the learners to discuss what worked and what would have worked better in terms of completing the task. In this regard, I would like to share the comments of a graduate student in adult education who was participating in an asynchronous online discussion of critical reflection. The comments were made in response to another student and they were entered within a few hours of each other. Although they were not part of a co-operative learning activity, they do illustrate the power of having learners share their thoughts about their thinking:

1. Your comments regarding critical reflection are well stated. As I reflect on your thoughts, I'm wondering if I might achieve a higher level of learning if I structured my critical reflection process. Although I enjoy reflecting on the readings and our discussions, I'm not structuring the process and, consequently, often move on to the next thought before reaching a conclusion. Do you have techniques (structure) for keeping on track and reaching a conclusion?

2. After giving this further reflection, I tried a simple technique while reading an assignment. I'll call it the 4-C's: concept, critical thinking, conclusion, and connection. I placed the four headings in an Excel sheet and made notes as I read. When a particular concept struck me as important, I noted it; next, I wrote out a question (critical thinking) and then came to a conclusion. Finally, I identified a connection between this concept and another. It helped me stay on track (E. McNamara personal communication, October 19, 2003).

Before leaving the topic of co-operative learning, we should note that teachers need to instruct learners in techniques for regulating--planning, assessing, and reflecting on—their collaborations and they need to set aside time for learners to discuss with one another what worked and what would have worked better in terms of conducting their collaborations.

Classroom Assessment Techniques. Angelo and Cross (1993) developed Classroom Assessments Techniques as means for teachers to quickly collect and analyze information about the progress and the learning processes of their learners. One adaptation of their techniques is to have learners write journals about their planning, assessing, and reflecting on their learning. Teachers who ask students to address the items presented in Figure 2 can expect detailed journals with comments similar to ones quoted above. The diaries have several advantages. First, when students keep the journals, they are more likely to self-regulate their learning. Second, they can use their journals as the basis for discussing their self-regulating behaviors both inside and outside the classroom. Third, as learners share the contents of their diaries, they evaluate and experiment with the alternative approaches to self-regulating and incorporate what they see as

the most effective approaches into their self-regulating activities. Fourth, teachers can inspect the journals written by their learners in order to determine in what aspects of self-regulation the learners are proficient and in what areas they are ready for instruction.

Involving Learners In Self-Regulating Learning

This section is based on the premise that in order to become a self-regulating learner a person must come to place value on being a self-regulating learner and on continuously developing into a more and more skillful self-regulating learner. Teachers give learners the opportunity to incorporate these values when they incorporate self-regulation into their instruction and then have learners analyze their individual self-regulating tactics. At some point in the process, each teacher should stress that becoming a self-regulating learner is a cyclical, cumulative process. Figure 3 illustrates the cyclical features by pointing out that the insights that learners gain in reflecting on past learning become part of their knowledge base for planning future learning activities.

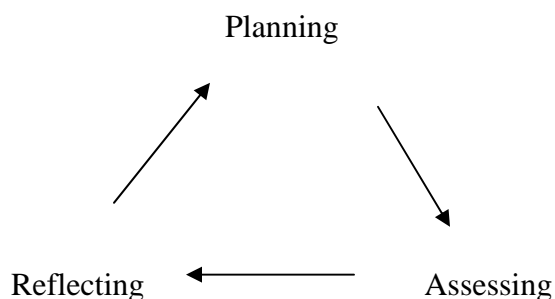


Figure 3. Self-regulating cycle.

A corollary recommendation is that teachers develop materials to help themselves incorporate instruction in self-regulating activities into their lessons/sessions. For example, most teachers follow a format for writing lesson/section plans that serves as a checklist and calls for them to specify long- and short-term objectives, instructional materials, instructional methods, homework assignments, and so forth. They would do well to place in that checklist a reminder to include instruction and practice in self-regulated learning in each lesson/session.

I would like to describe one final example of how to incorporate self-regulating activities into ongoing content-based learning. In this case, a cohort of learners is divided into cooperative learning groups. Each group submits a completed project as evidence of their learning. In addition, each learner submits a detailed description of his or her reflections on his or her learning, including comments regarding each of the six categories in Fink's (2003) taxonomy of significant learning:

- the knowledge base that they had acquired on the topic of the project,
- the more important critical insights they gained on the topic of the project,
- the more creative uses they see for the information they acquired during the project,
- the conclusions they reached about themselves, others, and working in groups,

- the aspects of their learning about the project they value most and least, and
- the ways they planned, assessed, and reflected on their learning that facilitated their learning and will help them become more effective learners in the future.

This example illustrates how teachers can expand for sophisticated learners the outline of self-regulating activities found in figure 2. It also illustrates how teachers can gain information about the learning of individuals who have completed a collaborative project. Third, it reminds learners of what are their more important objectives and that developing self-regulating learning skills is certainly one of them.

Summary

I have tried to advocate for three points in this article. First, self-regulated learning can be an important contributor to promoting academic achievement as well as a sense of personal empowerment. Second, it makes sense for all teachers of adults to incorporate instruction and practice in self-regulated learning into the majority, if not all of their learning activities. Third, the model for instruction in self-regulated learning involves the following: (a) instructing learners about the thinking, feeling, and behaving patterns that enhance learning, (b) instructing learners about the processes for self-regulating their thinking, feeling, and behaving to enhance their learning, and (c) assigning activities that involve learners in self-regulating their learning.

At this point, self-regulated learning has found useful applications in higher education, and it seems to have great promise for areas such as literacy, continuing education, human resource development, and continuing professional education. I look forward to seeing teachers and researchers explore ways to best adapt the principles of self-regulated learning in each of those areas.

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