

**Principles from Adult Learning Theory, Evidence-Based Teaching, and  
Visual Marketing: What are the Implications for Toolkit Development?**

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## **Principles from Adult Learning Theory, Evidence-Based Teaching, and Visual Marketing: What are the Implications for Toolkit Development?**

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In 2001, SAMHSA and the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation supported the first national evidence-based practice (EBP) demonstration project to develop toolkits for the dissemination of six EBPs for adults with severe mental illness. The purpose of these toolkits was to create comprehensive implementation guides to standardize the practices for widespread uptake that would be consistent and adhere to the fidelity of an evaluated model. This project was part of the movement to bridge the gap between science and service by giving the field the information to adapt their services to what is known to be effective. The target audience was multiple: consumers, families and supports, practitioners, program leaders, and mental health authorities.

Each toolkit was initially packaged in a three-ring binder that included: a user's guide, articles on the specific practice and on implementation of evidence based practices; specific information for the different target populations; a fidelity scale and a guide for its use; a training workbook for practitioners and clinical supervisors; and two training videotapes, one a general introduction to the practice, and the other being a practice demonstration. Through an eight state demonstration program, the toolkits were piloted in the field.

One of the negative findings from the pilot was that the toolkits were not optimal learning tools because the content was too academic and the structure and format in which it was presented was burdensome. Implementers stated that reading through such a large manual was time consuming and that it did not provide detailed information specific to their efforts, barriers they faced, or enough tools to assist in implementation. The most popular and widely used part of the toolkit was the video which was not as academic or dense as the manual. (Based on the pilot experience, the format of these materials is being revised.)

The pilot also uncovered that the infrastructure needed to support implementation typically did not exist at the state, local or provider level. Administrators and providers could understand the practice itself, but had difficulty setting up the financing, training, management and data

collection systems that support the practice. They also struggled with the fundamental issue of how to change clinician behavior from the usual way of doing business.

For development of the second generation of toolkits, a literature review was undertaken to assist in producing an effective learning tool that is appealing to its intended audience was explored. Since the fundamental purpose of the Implementation Resource Kits (IRK) is to develop new knowledge and skills, understanding how adults learn was examined. The IRKs are also being marketed, thus understanding basic marketing principles for maximum appeal and use was also examined. This review is based partially on the provided bibliography (2005) by Mary Ann Meyers, Ph.D. of Westat.

This literature review was not meant to be a comprehensive review of adult learning or marketing; many reviews already exist. The purpose of this paper was to cull together these existing reviews to ensure that the IRK development was not inconsistent with theory and empirical findings. The result was the identification of common principles and tested components in these fields that can guide how to frame the focus and content of the toolkit.

The common principles presented in the third section of this paper are basic elements of adult learning. These principles are:

- Audience must be engaged by understanding how learning the new material will be beneficial;
- Establishing learning objectives first, then outlining content to achieve those learning objectives;
- Utilizing the limited, but evidence-based, teaching principles to facilitate the learning.

The challenge becomes reconciling these principles to create a comprehensive and in-depth IRK with the available resources.

Understanding the basic implementation process and core components of implementation may further pinpoint the focus of the IRK. As outlined by Fixsen and colleagues (2005) the transition of an evidence based practice to routine use by a clinician resulting in positive consumer

outcomes is a complex and time and labor intensive process. In its most simplistic, the process requires multiple activities by various actors to set up an infrastructure with trained, skilled staff to implement the practice and embark on quality assurance activities. The stages of implementation are outlined as follows:

- Exploration and Adoption
- Program Installation
- Initial Implementation
- Full Operation
- Innovation
- Sustainability

Considering the complex set of activities outlined above, what tools and resources can be produced and distributed to states, providers, consumers, and family members to facilitate the implementation process? Understanding what can be accomplished through a particular medium, establishing practical learning objectives, and following established teaching techniques, is imperative for the effective creation of the next generation of IRKs. This paper is organized to 1) provide a foundation of knowledge from the literature as to historical and current theories defining how adults learn, evidence base for teaching professionals in the health field, and visual marketing techniques; 2) outline a decision making guide using the common themes and principles to define the focus and audience, content, and format for the IRK.

## ***I. Adult Learning Theory and Evidence-Based Teaching Models***

### Adult Learning Theory

Adult learning theory and evidence-based teaching outline a variety of components demonstrating how adults learn which provides some guidance on how to structure and deliver new information for optimal uptake and mastery. The theories and research reviewed do not point to a specific model or models that are recommended. Many ideas about how learning may take place can be used as a foundation to think through the audience, content, and format of the IRK. Appendix A lists the various psychological and educational models of adult learning with

a description of the model, the associated research and evidence, and key components are highlighted for quick examination. This appendix will be referenced throughout this review.

Adult learning theory first focused on distinguishing adult learning from that of children in a formal education system. In the 1970's, several books were influential in specifying these distinctions for adult learners. Examples include Houle's The Design of Education (1972), Kidd's How Adults Learn (1978), and Knowles' The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species (1973, 1998). Knowles' work was the most influential because it outlines six principles of adult learning (Table 1). Knowles' theories focus on the adult learner as one who is independent and has a need to understand how the learning something new will benefit them, how it fits into their existing knowledge, and reinforces their autonomy to learn in a way that works for them. Knowles' model does not have clear evidence to support it as a whole and is criticized as being more predicative than descriptive. However, as this literature review moves through other theories and models, these basic themes are the basis of models currently under evaluation.

**Table 1 Knowles' Principles of Adult Learning**

1. Need to Know – Adults need to know why they should learn something, meaning the reason they need to learn something or how it will benefit them.
2. Self-Concept – adults fight against others imposing their wills on them, but having been conditioned through the national schools system of a dependant learner, they need to be moved into a self-directed learner where they are responsible for their own learning and the direction it takes.
3. Role of Experience – Adult's experience should be used in their new learning and the technique should include ways to include the adult's knowledge as a tool that they can draw upon and also provide engagement by acknowledge them for their experiences.
4. Readiness to Learn – Adults seek out learning as a way to better with real life tasks and problems.
5. Orientation to Learning – the new learning should clearly define how the new learning will apply to their life in some fashion.
6. Motivation to Learn – internal motivators are important than the external motivators that adults may receive for more learning. These internal motivators can come in the form of increased job satisfaction, self-esteem, and quality of life.

*Note:* From Fidishun, Dolores (n.d). Andragogy and technology: integrating adult learning theory as we teach with technology [Electronic version]. Retrieved September 16, 2005.  
<http://www.mtsu.edu/~itconf/proceed00/fidishun.htm>.

Another commonality from many of the early models was learning as an individual task. The early psychological models including behaviorism, cognitivism, cognitive constructivism, and humanistic psychology (Appendix A) determined that learning was an individual process of changing behavioral patterns, or increasing or altering mental models and processes (Tusting, 2003). The definition of behaviorism outlines that learning is a trained response through rewards, while the theories of cognitivism and cognitive constructivism outline a more complex cognitive process where new learning builds on the person's existing knowledge and that the learner should be allowed to develop their own style and follow their own interests. Humanistic psychology points out that individuals strive to improve themselves and have unlimited potential to do so. Knowles theory as outlined in Table 1 is based on humanistic theory. However, all of the theories addressed still focus on the individual learning process that occurs without consideration of context; learning is seen as being independent of the person's social setting,

position or culture. The early psychological learning models are based largely on classic psychological models including those by Skinner, Bandura, Piaget, Bruner, and Maslow.

The idea that age is a key marker for the difference in learning and that it is solely an individual process are questioned and expanded upon with current theories and models. Hanson, in her book entitled The Search for a Separate Theory of Adult Learning: Does Anybody Really Need Andragogy?, asks if the distinctions of learning are due to age, because little evidence exhibits a clear difference, or it is a difference in individual characteristics, setting and social context. Brookfield reinforces the notion that “learning is a collective process involving cultural formation and reproduction of symbols and meaning perspectives. It should not be understood or researched as if it were disconnected, idiosyncratic and wholly autonomous.” (Brookfield, 1995)

This alternative paradigm that houses theories such as developmental theory, activity theory and social constructivism, situated cognition, brain science, and cross-cultural learning are specifically grounded in how the interaction between the learner and their social context work in conjunction to facilitate and reinforce the learning process. Developmental theory places learning as socially and culturally contingent in terms of social roles and positions of the individual. Conducting learning through interaction with others who are at the same level of learning while understanding that mediational and artifacts of learning play an important role is the crux of activity theory and social constructivism. Situated cognition states that those social practices in which the learner is comfortable can be a starting point for education. In the medical field of neuroscience, researchers are now developing theories that suggest the neuron pathways are formed during the individual’s interaction with the outside world. All theories have undergone evaluation, but it is limited and non-conclusive. The brain science research is the most concrete with the hard scientific evidence, yet still in early stages of research. Developmental theories and situated cognition have had the most evaluation and work compared to the others.

Research is also being conducted on other models that show how an individual’s behaviors and practices influence the formal learning process (self-directed, informal learning), a non-traditional approach to the classroom (distance learning) and models that focus not on the

transfer of particular knowledge, but teaching adults how to learn in a complex and changing environment (learning how to learn, practical theorizing).

- Self-directed – Can be an individual characteristic or an instructional method. It is a process of setting educational goals, locating resources, determining methods, and evaluation. The research is limited and considered too narrow and of poor quality.
- Informal Learning -- Informal learning outside the classroom does occur, which has an impact on learning in the classroom. Several studies document this phenomenon, such as Livingstone's Canadian telephone survey (Tusting, 2003, 25).
- Distance Learning – Refers to learning in a setting not based in the classroom or in proximity to the instructor, but over a distance. Educational themes of empowerment, critical reflection, experience and collaboration can inform distance-learning activities. Little research has been done that proves its effectiveness. The more extensive use of the Internet as a medium for distance learning is making this approach more widely available and evaluated.
- Learning how to Learn – The learner seeks to understand their learning experience, how they learn best, and what they can do to gain control over their learning. The ideal is to be able to learn in a range of situations. The research in this area is limited.
- Practical Theorizing - Practitioners learn new theories to guide their practice. The new theories are integrated with the practitioners' current theories, both formal and informal. The practitioner then evaluates their actions through the lens of these theories. Research is limited to one study.

The most extensively evaluated model of learning is Problem Based Learning (PBL) ( e.g., Experiential Learning and Critical Reflection are models). The hallmark is that learning is facilitated through experience and hands-on techniques such as simulations and case studies. This model has been used extensively throughout international education practices. Early studies of this approach support its effectiveness over the more traditional didactic models, but Stuart and colleagues (2004) point out that those articles are dated with methodological problems such as non-comparable sample groups, single-group post-test design, and non-objective outcome measures without reliability and validity. Current research, including randomized control trials

and systematic review of studies registered with the Cochrane/Campbell collaborations are underway. Initial findings from these reviews do not show overwhelming evidence regarding the effectiveness of PBL in different contexts with different student groups (Stuart, et al. 2004). In their article, Stuart and colleagues list problem-based learning as a component of evidence-based teaching.

With so many theories and models, the question remains: is one superior to the other or which one should be followed? Hanson (1996) proposes that even focusing on one model for a population of diverse learners in different settings who are learning different things may not be the correct focus. The concept that not one model exists for all learners in all situations is aligned with the post modern social theory which states that when creating an explanation that one must take diversity and fragmentation into account. Using a single explanation can be one way to silence and impose power over dissenting voices and is not a representation of truth. There may not be a single model, but one may need to be created that is conducive to the contexts and practices in which the learning takes place.

In fact Knowles' later work refocuses his idea of adult learning as the sole model for every situation. He changed his model and stated that when a learner is completely new to a subject, pedagogy (theory of learning for children) may be the most appropriate model. After which, his adult learning components may be the sustaining model.

As Tusting and Barton summarize, "Most of the models of adult learning developed from within adult education move beyond examinations of learning as a decontextualized process to address questions relating to the meanings of, and motivations for, learning in people's lives. This may be in terms of self-direction, reflection, autonomy, problem-solving or transformation and recalls, from a different perspective, the intrinsically socially-situated nature of learning that emerged from the review of the psychological literature. The key point to take from this is that learning for adults is always related to their real lives, their real problems and their real issues, and that we therefore need to try to understand and make links with these." (Tusting, 2003, 32).

### Evidence-Based Teaching (EBT)

The drawback to EBT is the lack of empirical evidence that supports it. As Stuart, et al points out, the lack of research is due to under-funding, education funds targeted at children, lack of interest, and methodological issues (random assignment, control of confounding variables, maintenance of fidelity, generalizability). Some of the theories outlined in Appendix A do have limited supporting evidence. The bottom line is that “adult learning theory and related approaches are well grounded theoretically, their evidence base is limited and they are perhaps best thought of as models or sets of assumptions about learning.” (Stuart et al, 2004)

Stuart and colleagues (2004) suggests another approach is to focus on teaching models. They make the point that learning is different from teaching. Teaching must be based on practices empirically tested to change the practice and knowledge of the learner while exhibiting positive outcomes on the person receiving the new service. Their paper outlines broad domains of learning, a teaching-learning process, learning outcomes, and what evidence-based teaching components and models currently exist. Since the goal is for behavioral health practitioners to implement health practices with an evidence-base, they should be taught about these practices in an evidence-based way. The teaching practices with supporting research come from the medical field which are extrapolated to the behavioral health care field due to similarities in the type of dissemination and change in practice sought through the teaching. (Association for Medical Education in Europe initiative cited later in paper)

Stuart and colleagues (2004) outline three domains of learning: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. The traditional focus of learning has been on cognitive (mental capacities and processes), while in the behavioral health field, affective (values and attitudes) may be the most challenging to change. Practitioner beliefs, attitudes and values are strongly ingrained, yet as research shows that attitudes and belief can be a predictor of behavior, the most necessary to affect. Psychomotor (perceptual skills) are also important in developing the clinicians therapeutic skills.

Once the type of learning to be achieved is identified, the specific outcomes of the learning must be outlined (Table 3). The teaching-learning model in Table 4 takes the type of learning and the outcomes of each and focuses on how the teaching can facilitate the individual to receive, learn,

and master the new knowledge. The focus is on the learner as opposed to the traditional focus on the teacher.

**Table 3: Outcomes**

- Learner’s reaction
- Modification of attitudes/perceptions
- Acquisition of knowledge/skills
- Change in behavior
- Change in organizational practice
- Benefits to patients/clients

**Table 4: Dimensions of the teaching-learning model**

- Identify the provider of education
- Identify the target audience
- Identify the desired outcome
- Identify the content that needs to be learned
- Understand what will facilitate the learning of the identified content
- How will one know that the content has been mastered by the learner?
- Understand the impact of the learned competencies on patient healthcare outcomes

*Note:* Table 3 from Hammick, M. (2000). Interprofessional education: evidence from the past to guide the future. *Medical Teacher*, 22(5), 461-467.

Table 4 from Stuart, Gail et al. (2004). Evidence-based teaching practice: implications for behavioral health. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*. 32(2), 112.

In 1999, the Association for Medical Education in Europe asked medical teachers to start an initiative that collected and promoted “best evidence medical education.” The idea was to cull together practices that were grounded on the best evidence available and continue to build on that knowledge. This initiative also continues in conjunction with the Cochrane Collaboration in evidence-based medicine. From review of the research, the following teaching points are noted:

- Teaching in isolation and requiring students to “cram” and memorize for examinations should be eliminated. Such programs tend to reinforce short-term knowledge and a surface approach to learning. Unused knowledge rapidly decays over time.
- The learning and the application environments should be as similar as possible (known as “context-specific” learning). Knowledge acquisition and application should preferably occur at the same time.
- Exercises in the application of knowledge should be repeated in numerous and varied situations.

- Less is sometimes more. While there is often an assumption in education that the more one teaches, the more students learn, this is erroneous and has been disproved by empirical research (Van Der Drift & Vos, 1987; Gijsselaers & Schmidt, 1995). Optimum learning appears to be achieved when approximately 40% of the time available for learning is dedicated to teaching activities, and the remaining 60% is reserved for self-study. Beyond this level of teaching activity, learning actually begins to decrease, a finding that has significant implications for professional training programs which tend to emphasize extensive, formal instructional activity.
- Teachers should focus on PBL (as outlined earlier) since acquiring knowledge through a professional problem or situation leads to more accessible knowledge.

A review of available literature states that the following continuing education strategies show efficacy towards changing provider behavior and sometimes have positive effects on the status of the client's health.

- *Interactive sessions* encourage the active involvement of the healthcare provider in the educational process. Studies show that participation in the educational process produces greater changes in the learner's behavior. Effective strategies include role playing, discussion groups, and experiential exercises that focus on problem solving.
- *Outreach visits or academic detailing* involves the convention of experts with a provider in their work setting. The experts offer information to assist in the shaping of practice patterns. For example, "detailing" is one practice that is extensively used by the pharmaceutical industry to influence physician prescribing practices. "Academic detailing" is a modification of "detailing" and is used by academia to shape clinical decision-making, quality of care, and cost-effectiveness of treatment.
- The *reminders* approach prompts learners to give a clinical intervention. Such prompts may include reminders to perform a screening, offer preventive service, or schedule follow-up visits. Computerized delivery is the most effective method used to communicate the reminders, but manual delivery may be used in lieu of electronic communication.
- The *audit and feedback* approach involves giving feedback to providers after conducting periodic audits or reviews of a provider's professional practice. Feedback is often given

in the form of peer comparison or as a provider profile, which may be accompanied by recommendations to help guide future clinical practice.

- *Opinion leaders* are often influential peers who inform colleagues and influence their practice patterns. Studies suggest that the effectiveness of this strategy is unclear; therefore more research in this area is needed.
- *Patient mediated interventions* are sometimes referred to as “enabling interventions” that require indirect efforts to shape a professional’s behavior by contacting his patients. The contact is made by an individual as opposed to the provider being influenced. The content of such contacts may focus on the provision of educational materials or on the collection of patient information that is then given to the provider to guide the provider’s approach to the patient.
- *Social marketing* is an educational strategy that involves an attempt to identify and anticipate the barriers to change in provider behavior. The initial step of this process is to interview potential “students” to identify possible barriers and sources of resistance to planned teaching efforts. Ensuing teaching and training then incorporates detailed interventions that are intended to address anticipated resistance and barriers to changes in both learning and behavior. Appendix B outlines the key components of social marketing and provides an example of those components for a social marketing campaign.

The use of distributive technology is emerging as an important teaching strategy and is considered a new frontier. Practices such as computer-based learning, online learning, e-learning and distance learning are growing in popularity. Technology is seen as a tool that has the ability to enhance the teaching and learning processes. These tools provide benefits in cost-effectiveness, convenience, self-pacing, learner-control, interactivity, and also promote a global community. The principles outlined above can be used through distributive technology.

Some fundamental questions of how technology should be used to support adult learning are outlined by Imel (2001) who reviewed the literature on how technology is being used in adult education. The overarching question is: should technology be used for technology’s sake or should it be used to enhance and create opportunities that currently do not exist? Some basic questions and assumptions are outlined:

- Technology is not just a delivery system, but one that can create an environment that facilitates learning.
- Technology plays a supporting role to learning, and no one type of technology should be used, but rather used as a means to structure and take into consideration the different learning styles and contexts.
- Technology may not be neutral. Those who design the technology may shape the learning environment in invisible ways; therefore each type has its own inherited bias.
- Not all learners have the same access to or experience with technology. Some view that increased use of technology will contribute to inequities in education while others do not; again depends on the learner. A few studies show that those who understand and are comfortable with technology have better learning encounters and that the technology affects the participation in ways that can not always be predicted or understood.
- The constructivist learning theory outlined above that includes self-direction, transformative learning and situated cognition is not dependant on technology, but can be enhanced and supported by technology.

### Staff Training and Coaching Principles

Fixsen and colleagues (2005) reviewed the literature related to staff training and in their summary concluded that training by itself is ineffective, yet there are “functional components” that appear to be key to changing the desired behavior. These functional components follow theory presented earlier of by including that the learner has knowledge of the program and practice, demonstrates key skills, and conforms to practice criterion of key skills. The knowledge and skills are not just for the clinician, but for all actors in the infrastructure including trainers, coaches, evaluators, and administrators. They also state that training for trainers and behavioral rehearsal leaders and confederates are effective.

Part of the training includes staff coaching to assist in the training process. The core components of staff coaching are teaching and reinforcing evidence-based skill development and learning how to adapt and craft skills to the personal style of the practitioner. Support during stress times may also be important.

## ***II. Visual Marketing***

Marketing strategies have long been used to sell products and services. Extensive research has gone into developing strategies, including how to package a product for the most effective appeal and consumption. These strategies include basic psychological principles as well as the use of color, fonts and language. Any type of “product,” including the IRK, can use these principles to help make the tool more appealing. The following information provides a brief overview of strategies to consider when marketing a product. For a more thorough list of suggestions, see Appendix B.

At first glance the product needs to generate interest with the consumer. Several approaches have been found effective at doing this. To capture attention immediately, the use of high contrast and textures is recommended. For a cleaner appearance on the cover, a dark-colored font, such as red, black or navy blue, should be set against a light colored background. The IRK’s headline should be written in a sans serif (“without feet”) font, as this type of font is easier to read from a distance (*Psychology Color Marketing*, 2005). To maintain this interest, and make a lasting impression with the consumer, visual repetition is important; although it is also important to keep in mind that the space should be used to convey the message, as needless graphics only distract the consumer. (Jones, 2005).

When marketing a product, it is important to relate directly to the consumer. This strategy encourages persuasion. This can be accomplished through the tone of the document, as well as through visual images placed strategically on the page. According to a study conducted at Oklahoma State University, photographs are more effective at changing minds; viewers are more able to identify with pictures because it is easier to relate to the subject. These pictures should be placed on the left side of the page, with accompanying text to the right. It is easier for people to understand the entire message when formatted this way. (Jones, 2005).

The use of language is important in forming an individual’s attitude towards a product. Areni and Sparks found, for both print and video modalities, that the use of powerless language gave a negative attitude towards the pseudo product with which they were marketing. Powerless

language is defined as the use of 1) nonverbal hesitations (e.g. umm, ehh), 2) verbal hesitations (e.g. you know, I mean), 3) deictic phrases (e.g. that man there), 3) formal language (e.g. yes sir, therefore), 4) tag questions (e.g. that's how it happened, isn't it?), 5) hedges (e.g. I guess, sort of), 6) intensifiers (e.g., he really did, it was very, very, dark). The study shows that when powerless language is used in the video, recipients view the product and the speaker more negatively as opposed to when powerful language is used. In print format, when powerless language is used, the recipients of the message think more positively about the speaker and have more negative attitudes about the product. (Areni, 2005).

### ***III. Considerations for the Implementation Resource Kit Development***

The information presented throughout this review can help to think through the process of deciding the audience, content, and format during the development of the IRK. The principles are basic and not in-depth, but keep the learner in mind to maintain a practical approach to the objectives to be achieved. Stuart and colleagues (2004) suggest following a four-step decision making process to structure a learning process that entails the use of the best known teaching practices to achieve the identified learning objectives. The four step process is:

1. Frame the teaching-learning question including what outcomes are to be achieved;
2. Search for and assess evidence that bears on the question;
3. Apply the evidence through creation of the teaching model;
4. Evaluate the change in practitioner behavior and client outcomes.

Below are specific questions to aid in framing the teaching-learning questions. By following this process, the toolkit will better focus on what learning objectives are to be achieved and by whom. In addition, the content and format can be structured to facilitate the learning goals.

#### *Audience*

The literature is clear that in order for the audience to become engaged, the individual must understand why they should participate in the learning. The specifics of answering why are:

1. The reason the individual needs to learn and how it will benefit them.
2. Expectation of the individual taking responsibility for their learning.

3. Knowing the new learning will be based on the learner's experience and expand their knowledge base and outline how the new knowledge will apply to their job.
4. How the new knowledge will solve current job problems.

**Issue:** The original and current set of toolkits had multiple audiences. With the understanding that the audience must be engaged, what is the best approach to target these audiences given the limited resources available? Are there specific audiences that should receive priority?

### *Content*

The content is the most important aspect of the IRK because it provides the new information and develops the skills necessary to fulfill the identified learning objectives. The content should take into consideration the diversity of culture and social context in which the learning will take place. The guiding questions are the learning objectives which frame the focus and get to the main purpose of the IRK.

- What domains of learning do we want to affect? Cognitive, Affective, Psychomotor?
- What outcomes are expected?
  - Learner's reaction
  - Modification of attitudes/perceptions
  - Acquisition of knowledge/skills
  - Change in behavior
  - Change in organizational practice
  - Benefits to patients/clients

*Note:* Table 3 from Hammick, M. (2000). Interprofessional education: evidence from the past to guide the future. *Medical Teacher*, 22(5), 461-467.  
Table 4 from Stuart, Gail et al. (2004). Evidence-based teaching practice: implications for behavioral health. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*. 32(2), 112.

What little evidence exists does tell us that after these important questions are answered the content should incorporate the following:

- Interactive learning that is based on experiential learning that includes group or other type of activities so that the learning is not in isolation.
- Learner should be able to directly apply the new learning as soon as possible and practice consistently.

- The ratio of teaching to self study is 40 % teaching to 60 % self study.
- Visitation by expert, audit and feedback, reminders, and opinion leaders to reinforce learning needs to be included and may be in the form of supervision.
- Educational piece for consumers that describe the practice and give them information as to what to expect from the provider.
- Training should include not only the knowledge of the practice and skills but demonstration and practice. Coaching should be part of this training process.

*Issue:* Ideally, resources would be available for interactive learning systems and to provide ongoing support and technical assistance. Discussion of these components overlaps with discussions on format issues raised in the next section. Planning content should occur simultaneously with what format the content should take.

#### *Format*

The IRK can and should utilize different formats for different learning goals. Written materials (i.e., hard copy in a binder or as downloadable PDFs) and an interactive web site, DVD or other uses of technology should be available for clinicians and providers. For example, the written material could give background information while the DVD could focus on practice exercises. The point is to use the best format to facilitate the particular learning to take place while providing individuals different tools to accommodate various learning styles. Visual presentation strategies should be followed when creating the different formats.

Even though current resources in the contract do not provide for multiple formats, the toolkit development process could anticipate the availability of resources in the future for such purposes. An issue regarding format is how to optimize this component to meet the demands of different audience needs and objectives and how to structure the existing content so that different levels of information can be accessed through various media so that the information provided is both comparable and consistent.

#### ***IV. Summary***

A major thrust of this review is to provide insight for use, and develop materials and tools that are “evidence-based.” Creating an effective learning tool for individual use is a challenge when the target audience is a group of diverse learners in diverse settings. The objective of the review is to be helpful in outlining key questions and components that can logically guide development of the implementation resource kit, despite the lack of strong evidence. The decision making model presented was formulated to take a step-by-step approach through ensuring the audience is engaged, the content is optimal for new learning, and the formats are diverse to facilitate knowledge uptake.

As with the first round of toolkits this new phase of IRKs will not only need pilot tested for readability and understandability, but also field-tested for effectiveness. This step is crucial to continue the evolution of what works best for the transfer of new knowledge and skills in the behavioral health field. As the project moves forward, reconciling the ideal with available resources will be the challenge.

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## Appendix A

Model	Description	Theoretical Support and/or Empirical Evidence	Key Points of Model
Behaviorism	<p>Models of learning that imply it may be possible to train learners' responses using behavioral techniques – breaking complex behaviors down into simple chains and rewarding correct performance.</p> <p>Critique/Comment: Does not help the learner develop understanding of the information and autonomy.</p>	<p>-Skinner's theory of 'operant conditioning,' developed in 1974, uses reinforcement to gradually shape changes in behavior and is demonstrated to be most effective when used to modify destructive behaviors such as smoking, gambling and drinking. (Tusting, 2003)</p>	<p>-Train responses using behavioral techniques -Break complex behaviors into simple chains -Reward performance</p>
Cognitivism	<p>Models of learning that moved psychology from the reductionism of the behaviorist approaches to a better understanding of the mental complexities associated with learning. The important implications of these models lie in the importance of building on learners' existing knowledge, and in the need to find ways to ensure that learners have understood or made sense of what they are learning, rather than simply focusing on eliciting the required performances.</p>	<p>-Miller and Dollard (1941) conducted research on reinforcement when they observed subjects experiencing a stimulus-reward pattern after they observed other subjects experiencing stimulus-reward in similar situations. -Bandura's 1977 development of a 'social learning theory,' derived from his Bobo doll studies, acknowledged the existence of observational learning and drew attention to self-directing processes that are not directly observable. (Tusting, 2003). -Gange's theory (1985), derived from studies conducted in military settings, is progressive in that learners draw from previously learned skills when learning a new material – and that learning is based on a hierarchy of skills and knowledge. (Tusting, 2003). -Ausubel (1963) identified that new information needs to fit within existing cognitive structures</p>	<p>-Psychology from reductionism of behaviorist approaches to understanding mental complexities of adult learning -Build on learner's existing knowledge -Ensure the learner understands what they have learned</p>
Cognitive Constructivism	<p>Theories that state it is important to allow learners the choice and autonomy to develop learning in their own way by giving them space to follow their own individual interests and understandings, and by recognizing that this process will be different for each learner. Learning is an integration of the new information based on how the learner views the experience and elaborates on the new information with what the person already knows, and then tests the new knowledge until satisfied it is correct.</p>	<p>-Piaget's developmental model of learning suggests that cognitive structure in children develops through a series of distinct stages and that children's development occurs through active interaction with the environment. (Tusting, 2003). -Bruner's 'spiral curriculum' suggests that the basic principles of any subject can be grasped very early on in its study if the learner can identify the underlying cognitive structure of the subject in a manner that ignites their imagination and fits with</p>	<p>-Allow choice and autonomy to develop own style -Allow learner to follow own interests -Combine new and old information -Adapted for each learner</p>

<b>Model</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Theoretical Support and/or Empirical Evidence</b>	<b>Key Points of Model</b>
Humanistic Psychology	<p>Following Rogers and Maslow theories that individuals have unlimited potential to improve themselves for continued self-fulfillment. Individuals have an intrinsic drive towards growth and self-direction. This group of theories include Knowles' model of androgogy.</p> <p>Critique/Comment: Knowles model is more an ideal state for learners; it is prescriptive rather than descriptive. It does not take into consideration context and culture of the person or the learning situation.</p>	<p>their existing mode of thinking. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Underlying Knowles' model are other humanistic theories of personal development, including those of Rogers and Maslow. (Tusting, 2003). -Rogers' theory is built around the idea that there is a single force of life known as the 'actualizing tendency.' From this he developed a client-centered approach to therapy based on avoiding directiveness and helping the client to reflect on his or her experiences. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Follows Rogers and Maslow theories -Unlimited potential for improvement -Learners have a drive toward growth</p>
Developmental Theories	<p>Adult development is not a single linear process with fixed goals. Adult development is socially and culturally contingent. Rather than trying to impose a single model of development, need to know learners' current social roles and positions and the practices they engage in, and come to an understanding of the role of how what is being taught fits within these.</p>	<p>-Piaget's cognitive theory of child development provides conclusive evidence to support developmental theories in adult education. (Tusting, 2003). -Perry's study (1970) based on college students suggests that thought processes typically develop along a continuum of nine positions -King and Kitcher (1994) identify seven stages in the process of developing reflective judgment -Belenky et al.'s study, 'Women's Ways of Knowing' (1986) suggests that women's thought develops in five stages -Baxter Magolda's work in 1992 followed a co-ed group of college students over 5 years and noticed a progression in developing epistemological reflection. (Tusting, 2003). -Kohlberg's work focused on moral development, asserting that there are six phases of moral development through which people must pass. (Tusting, 2003). -Levinson et al conducted a study to focus on the impact of the learning processes and developed a theory of a life cycle consisting of four eras of approximately 25 years each. Erikson conducted a comparable study with similar conclusive evidence. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Socially and culturally contingent -Understand learners' current social roles and positions</p>

		<p>-Neugarten also identifies life-cycle stages but points out that every society has expectations about age-appropriate behavior (socially constructed rather than absolute). (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Riegel developed understanding of human development as consisting of four dimensions and noted that when these dimensions conflict, there is potential for change. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	
Activity Theory and Social Constructivism	A sociocultural understanding of adult learning that suggests learners need interaction with others at the right level for their own stage of development, and appropriate mediational tools and artifacts play a crucial role in the learning process.	<p>-Vygotsky and Wertsch support the Soviet school of sociocultural theory or activity theory which examines how the human mind develops in the context of action and interaction with other people (social constructivism as opposed to cognitive constructivism). (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Leont'ev and Luria conducted studies to further develop activity theory as it relates to human action and learning in terms of activity systems. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Sociocultural understanding</p> <p>-Use of mediation and artifacts</p> <p>-Tailor to individual needs</p>
Situated Cognition	Need to understand the social practices that learners want or need to participate in, and offer opportunities that enable them to learn through engaging in these practices. Implies that learners already engage in sophisticated forms of social practice in their everyday lives, in ways that the practices of the classroom may hide. Acknowledges adults' competence in engaging in practice in their everyday lives, and uses this as a starting-point for education, is a powerful antidote to some prevailing deficit models of adult basic education.	<p>-Lave reports of a math study done that shows that adults performed very differently in experimental settings as opposed to their normal everyday activities. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Tennant and Pogson draw on the work of Robert Sternberg by outlining common differences between typical test problems and real-life problems. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Evans conducted research with adults on the relationship between mathematical thinking and emotion and developed a model of transfer which acknowledges its complexities. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Wenger enhanced the concept of the 'community of practice' in more detail. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Singleton collected studies from Japan which shows similar processes at work in the way people were trained in theatre, calligraphy and martial arts. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Situational</p> <p>-Allow learner to learn during social practices that they are already comfortable with</p> <p>-Engaging</p> <p>-Social practice</p>

<b>Model</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Theoretical Support and/or Empirical Evidence</b>	<b>Key Points of Model</b>
Brain Science	<p>With the advent of sophisticated imagining tools such as the PET and MRI, neuroscientists are no longer focusing on specific areas of the brain as independent areas, but how the brain continually forms and recombines pathways that crisscross and recursively interaction with one another in response to information obtained through the persons interaction with the world.</p>	<p>-Cohen and Leicester describe how new scientific techniques have allowed us to develop a better understanding of how the brain works and are now looking at the brain as a whole of interconnecting parts versus parts of a whole. (Tusting, 2003).            -Stewart and Cohen suggest that the brain is physically formed by the process of interaction between ‘intelligence’ and ‘extelligence.’ (Tusting, 2003).            -Gee developed a model of the mind based on theories of neural networks. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Technology identified interconnectivity of brain            -Understanding interconnectivity with interactions in the world</p>
Cross – Cultural Learning	<p>The literature base in this area is scarce, however there are indications that the variable of ethnicity is being taken with increasing seriousness. Literature in this area identifies that framing discussions around a simple split between white and non-white populations greatly oversimplifies the complex reality. It should be noted that among ethnic groups themselves there is a large amount of intra and inter-group friction. For example, as seen in the United States, Black, Hispanic and Asian workers experience tension between each other, and even within each group there exists a myriad of overlapping rivalries.</p> <p>Critique/Comment:            Early research suggests that adult educators from dominant western cultures, such as the United States and Europe, will need to examine some of their assumptions, inclinations and preferences about “natural” adult learning and teaching lifestyles. When educators drawn from their ethnic communities teach adults, they tend to feel more comfortable and tend to perform better. Ethnocentric theories and assumptions regarding adult learning styles emphasize the need for mainstream adult educators to research their own practice with native peoples.</p>	<p>-The majority of research done in this field was conducted by Smith who led an international team to work on the theory of development in Cross-Cultural Learning. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Learning style and process across cultures is not the same.            -Intra and inter-group friction should be taken into account.</p>

Model	Description	Theoretical Support and/or Empirical Evidence	Key Points of Model
Self-directed	<p>Can be viewed both as an instructional method and a dimension of personality. Adults have their own motivation to learn and engage in autonomous learning. It also exists within the broader social context in which they engage. It is a process of setting learning goals, locating the resources, deciding on the method, and how to evaluate their progress.</p> <p>Because the research surrounding this method is so widespread, it justifies an annual international conference that is devoted to research and theory in the area.</p> <p>Critique/Comment:            Criticisms of this research area include the fact that the sample group used in these studies was too narrow, consisting of mostly middle-class subjects; the quality of the studies has been overlooked; and that the method itself is treated as though there were a disconnect from broader social and political forces. Another issue of controversy regarding self-direction is that adults may deny the importance of collective action, common interests, and their basic interdependence in favor of focusing solely on one's self. Researchers are still trying to understand how various factors affect the adult's decision to learn in this manner with regard to past experience and current political ethos.</p>	<p>-Tough (1979) studies of adult learning projects in which, through interviews with a wide variety of people, discovered that most adults had engaged in a specific learning project in the previous year, even though most had not been engaged in formal education. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Brockett and Hiemstra draw attention into the confusion that has surrounded the term. (Tusting, 2003).</p> <p>-Candy (1991) provides a comprehensive survey of the field. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Dimensions of instructional and personality</p> <p>-Setting goals, locating resources, determining methods and evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Studies too narrow</li> <li>✗ Studies lack emphasis on quality</li> </ul>
Learning How to Learn	<p>Reflection for the learner on their experience of learning, how they learn best, and what can be done to gain control over their own learning. Becoming skilled at learning in a range of different situations and through a range of different styles.</p> <p>Studies in this area have been conducted with a range of adult groups in a variety of settings, such as adult basic education, the workplace, and religious communities.</p> <p>Critique/Comment:            Compared to the theories of self-direction, critical reflection and</p>	<p>-Smith, the author of 'Learning How to Learn: Applied Learning Theory for Adults,' is the leader in this field. Since this book, he has led empirical research in the field. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Learner reflect on experience</p> <p>-Identify how to gain control over own experience</p> <p>-Skilled at learning in a range of situations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Least successful at capturing imagination</li> <li>✗ No follow-up research</li> <li>✗ Lacks formal definition</li> </ul>

	<p>experiential learning, learning to learn has been the least successful in capturing the imagination of the adult educational world and has not prompted a dynamic program of follow-up research. The research that has been conducted has been faulty in its emphasis on college students' meta-cognition and by its lack of attention to how the process manifests itself in the diverse contexts of adult life. Another criticism of this learning approach is that it lacks a formal definition and is thought of as more of a blanket term for any adult attempting to develop insight into his or her own habitual methods of learning.</p>		
Informal Learning	<p>Learners will probably engage in learning outside the classroom as well as within the provision of current formal learning and this informal learning should be taken into account. Research on the amount of unplanned or incidental learning in a variety of settings also suggests that much of the learning, even within a formal classroom, is not under the teacher's control. Recognizing this as something valuable, rather than as something to be avoided, is an important step.</p> <p>Learners engage in learning outside the classroom.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Coffield wrote a report in 2000 on the ESRC's 'The learning society: knowledge and skills for employment' research program entitled, 'The Necessity of Informal Learning.' (Tusting, 2003).</li> <li>-Livingstone conducted a nationwide Canadian telephone survey in 2000. (Tusting, 2003).</li> <li>-McGivney conducted a DfEE study which explored the role of community-based informal learning in widening participation. (Tusting, 2003).</li> <li>-Foley conducted work that identifies a link between learning and a commitment to transform power relations through an account of the many forms of incidental learning that take place when people become involved in social and political activities. (Tusting, 2003).</li> </ul>	-Informal learning outside the classroom will occur.
Critical Reflection	<p>The work of Dewey and Kolb highlights the central importance to reflective and experiential learning of finding solutions to real-world problems. In both of these models, this process involves a variety of different types of thinking and modes of adaptation to the world. While the idea of identifying different students' preferred learning styles has become influential in adult education, for Kolb and Dewey it is the integration of multiple learning styles or ways of thinking in an ongoing process that is most important.</p> <p>In all of these models, reflection arises from a problem or an issue people encounter in their real lives (again contextualized nature of adult learning). Learning needs to be related to the real issues that arise for people and lead them to engage in learning in the first place.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Dewey's research, which is displayed in his book 'How we Think' (1933) looks at the relationship between reflective thinking and education. (Tusting, 2003).</li> <li>-Brookfield has done studies regarding critical reflection, taking evidence from developmental psychology. (Brookfield, 2001).</li> <li>-Boud, Keogh and Walker also see reflection as part of Kolb's cycle. (Tusting, 2003).</li> <li>-Mezirow conducted work which focused on women returning to higher education and the idea of perspective transformation. (Tusting, 2003).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Follows the work of Dewey and Kolb</li> <li>-Reflection arises from a problem or an issue people encounter in their real lives</li> <li>-Cyclical process</li> </ul>

	<p>It is also important to recognize the cyclical nature of this reflective process, and the fact that there are not necessarily any algorithms or systems that can be followed to ensure a successful reflection takes place. Each person's process of reflective learning will be based on and driven by the complexities of their own experience, and will therefore be unique to them.</p> <p>This method focuses on three interrelated processes: the process by which adults question and subsequently reframe or replace an assumption that had previously been accepted as common sense; the process through which adults take alternative perspectives on previously-held common ideals; and finally, the process by which adults recognize the dominant aspect of widely-held cultural values and begin to understand how the natural state of the world actually strengthens the voice of misleading minorities.</p> <p>Critique/Comment: More consideration is needed regarding how people experience episodes of critical reflection viscerally and cognitively. Understanding this would allow educators to respond to fluctuating rhythms of denial and depression. It also remains unclear to what extent critical reflection is associated with certain personality characteristics.</p>		
<p>Experiential Learning</p>	<p>According to Lindeman, "experience is the adult learner's living textbook," and that adult education is "a continuing process of evaluating experiences." Emphasis on experiential learning is imperative to the concept of andragogy internationally. Adult educators cite that experience is crucial and provides a valuable educational resource, and that the steady accumulation of experience throughout life is the chief difference between learning in adulthood versus learning during earlier stages of the lifespan. The use of games, simulations, case studies, psychodrama, role-playing and internships are all mediums through which adults can gain useful experience.</p> <p>Critique/Comment: Two perceivable hazards exist with regards to experiential learning; the first is that experience is subject to bias because experience is shaped by our culture, and second that the quantity of or length of</p>	<p>-Kolb has also conducted research in the field. His book 'Experimental Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development,' (1984) is set up as a 'systematic statement' of the theory of adult learning and its applications to education, work and adult development. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Learning through engaging in the practice that is being taught.</p>

	<p>experience does not necessarily constitute quality of the experience. Another risk exists when experience is uncritically affirmed to the point where histories and stories are idealized and romanticized. “Experiences are neither innocent nor free from the cultural contradictions that inform them.”</p>		
<b>Model</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Theoretical Support and/or Empirical Evidence</b>	<b>Key Points of Model</b>
Practical Theorizing	<p>The way in which educational practitioners become critically aware of the informally developed theories that guide their practice. It originated in practitioners’ attempts to grapple with dilemmas, tensions and contradictions of their work. The actions of educators often appear instinctual; however these actions can be understood to be embedded in assumptions, readings and interpretations that practitioners have evolved over time to make sense of their practice.</p> <p>Practitioners become aware of these origins by comparing their emerging informal theories to those theories held by their colleagues. The practitioner is then able to use formal theory as a lens to which to view their own actions and the assumptions that inform these. Formal theory can also help educator’s nominally identify their practice by illuminating the general elements of what were once thought of as unique experiences.</p>	<p>-Usher focused on the means in which educational practitioners – including adult educators – become critically aware of the informally developed theories that guide their practice. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Learning new formal theories through comparing to informal theories used in everyday experiences.</p>
Distance Learning	<p>Being recognized as an important setting within which a great amount of significant adult learning occurs. Effective examples include weekend college formats; internet-based courses; multi-media experimentations and the educational possibilities of satellite broadcasting have come together to provide learning opportunities for millions of adults around the world. It is evident from case studies that educational themes of empowerment, critical reflection, experience and collaboration can inform distance-learning activities.</p>	<p>-Modra drew on the work of radical adult educators to use learning journals to encourage adults’ critical reflection in an Australian distance education course. (Brookfield, 1995) -Smith and Castle have also published a book in 1992 with the findings of their research in South Africa. (Tusting, 2003).</p>	<p>-Setting not based in the classroom or in proximity to the person, but over a distance.</p>

## Appendix B

### Appearance: Images and Fonts

- Create a logo for immediate recognition. (Clay, 2002).
- Place pictures of faces on the left side of the page, with accompanying text to the right. (Clay, 2002).
- Use emotional appeals. (Clay, 2002)
- Use high contrast and texture changes to capture attention. (Jones, 2005).
- Gain visual fluency through repetition. (Jones, 2005).
- Each page needs one graphic that is significantly larger. The viewer wants to see the big picture first and then continue looking at the item. (Jones, 2005).
- Space should be used to convey your message – needless graphics only distract the viewer. (Jones, 2005).
- Photographs are better than illustrations because viewers identify better with photographs. (Jones, 2005).
- Use no more than two different styles of fonts. (Jones, 2005).
- It is much easier for viewers to read text that is not all capitals. (Jones, 2005).
- Match font to your target audience (i.e. romantic script letters work well on gourmet products) (Jones, 2005).
- Readers feel more comfortable reading body copy in serif fonts (Serif, meaning *with feet*. Fonts such as Times New Roman and Bookman Old Style). (Jones, 2005).
- Sans Serif fonts are best to read from a distance and work well for headlines, as well as signage and in-store displays (sans serif, meaning *without feet*. Fonts such as Arial and Century Gothic). (Jones, 2005).
- Using two highly contrasting fonts can be visually disturbing. (Jones, 2005).
- Using fonts that are too similar make the viewer think that it is a mistake. If you like two very similar fonts pick one and use it. (Jones, 2005).
- When mixing fonts, be sure they are not too similar, nor too contrasting.

### Use of Color

- Light-colored backgrounds create a cleaner appearance (*Psychology Color Marketing*, 2005)
- Sometimes, dark backgrounds evoke a cozy feeling and a touch of rebellion – these often appeal to younger audiences (*Psychology Color Marketing*, 2005)
- Deep blues create a mysterious, enchanting feeling (*Psychology Color Marketing*, 2005)
- Be cautious with reds and oranges. These colors illicit strong emotions. Use deeper shades, and if necessary add black to tone the color down. (Jones, 2005).
- Limit the colors you use – sometimes less is more. Using more than three-color tones in a design can be distracting. (Jones, 2005).
- Keep your audience in mind (Clay, 2002).
- Color combinations easiest to read (Jones, 2005):
  - Green on white
  - Red on white
  - Black on white

- Navy blue on white
- Adults cross-culturally prefer blue to other colors. (*Psychology of Color*, 2005).
- Blue is a calming color. It is peaceful and seems to make the time pass more quickly. It also has negative attributes, it may seem tiresome in an energetic environment and it is a predictable color because it is used for so many things. (*Psychology of Color*, 2005).
- Yellow is a happy color. It brings thoughts of cheerfulness and joy. It can be used to promote optimism. It can also be the color of cowardice and deceit. (Munger, 2005)
- Orange is positive and enthusiastic. It can bring warmth to a person. It can also be superficial. (Munger, 2005)
- Green is most associated with a negative emotion, jealousy. It can also be positive, it can mean good luck, harmony and is linked with nature. (Munger, 2005)
- The color of royalty, purple connotes luxury, wealth, and sophistication. It is also feminine and romantic. However, because it is rare in nature, purple can appear artificial. (*Psychology of Color*, 2005).
- Black is a serious and conservative color. It is sophisticated and mysterious. It can also be mournful and lifeless. (*Psychology of Color*, 2005).
- White is a pure color. It is innocent, clean and fresh. (*Psychology of Color*, 2005).

#### Strategies for tone and persuasion

- Be consistent with the tone of content and the context in which it is presented. (Jones, 2005).
- Identify the beliefs the ad should encourage – people tend to remember them more (i.e. why practitioners should use the ideas set forth in this toolkit). (Clay, 2002).
- Emphasize the “bandwagon” approach. (Clay, 2002).

#### Examples of Powerful Language (Jones, et al. 2005):

- |             |             |
|-------------|-------------|
| • You       | • Fast      |
| • Benefits  | • Guarantee |
| • Money     | • Revealed  |
| • Why       | • Results   |
| • Discovery | • Sale      |
| • Health    | • Proven    |
| • Love      | • Secrets   |
| • Easy      | • Safety    |
| • Free      | • New       |
| • Startling | • Yes       |
| • Save      |             |

