

Methods and techniques that utilize learners' previous experiences, link conceptual foundations to practice, and encourage reflection are pivotal to the learning process.

Experiential Learning: Past and Present

Linda H. Lewis, Carol J. Williams

In its simplest form, experiential learning means learning from experience or learning by doing. Experiential education first immerses adult learners in an experience and then encourages reflection about the experience to develop new skills, new attitudes, or new ways of thinking.

During the last decade experiential learning has moved from the periphery of education to the center. No longer supplemental to the acquisition of content, experiential approaches are considered fundamental to meaningful learning. What accounts for this shift in perspective?

First, there has been a dramatic change in our conception of learning. We have moved away from behaviorist notions of teachers as purveyors of knowledge and learners as passive receivers. Current cognitive, humanistic, social, and constructivist learning models stress the importance of meaning formation. Therefore, models of good practice in adult education must utilize learners' previous experiences in order to enhance their current and future learning.

Second, in the last few decades, higher education has experienced an unprecedented influx of adult learners. Adult learners bring to the learning setting a wealth of prior experience and are eager to draw upon their background and previous learning in the classroom. Responsive teachers are able to capitalize on the prior experience of their students as a catalyst for new learning.

Third, in today's rapidly changing environment there is an increased demand for flexibility and the capacity to leverage previous knowledge and experience in new and different ways. Educators are being held accountable for what learners know and are able to do. The pressure for accountability has caused educators to design competency-based measures of learning and experiential techniques for assessing learner outcomes. The corporate sector, too, has called for greater accountability to justify the large sums of money spent on education and training, as it has been difficult to assess the transfer of train-

ing to the job. Experiential approaches appear to be more effective in developing skills that employers seek, such as communication skills, the ability to work in teams, and workplace literacy.

In this chapter, we begin by tracing the origins of experiential learning theory. We then move to an examination of theories that view experience as the key to meaningful learning and learning as the key to personal development. Giving special attention to higher education and workplace learning, we provide examples of current applications and conclude by examining the benefits and challenges of experiential approaches. Throughout this chapter, we demonstrate ways in which experiential learning theory provides a valuable framework for strengthening the critical linkages that can and must be developed among education, work, and personal development (Kolb and Lewis, 1986).

Historical Background

The experiential learning movement of the mid-nineteenth century represented an attempt in the United States to shift from formal, abstract education, where teachers present information and hope that students will later apply the knowledge, to more experience-based approaches. Laboratory sciences, applied studies, and clinical experiences were introduced on college campuses at that time. Early in the twentieth century, cooperative education, which referred to various kinds of off-campus experiences, was introduced as a complement to classroom instruction. During this time, John Dewey published *Experience and Education*, offering a justification for learning by doing.

Dewey stressed that the creation of new knowledge or the transformation of oneself through learning to perform new roles was more fundamental than simply learning how to do something. For him, experiential learning meant a cycle of “trying” and “undergoing” by becoming aware of a problem, getting an idea, trying out a response, experiencing the consequences, and either confirming or modifying previous conceptions. This process has the potential to result in a person’s cognitive reconstruction of experience and significant personal learning such as overcoming one’s biases. Such ongoing meaning-making over time leads to learning to learn experientially.

David Kolb’s 1984 book on experiential learning is one of the more influential works linking theory to actual practice. Kolb proposes learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. In his model, true learning is depicted as a four-part process. Learners have *concrete experiences*; then they reflect on the experiences from a variety of perspectives. From these *reflective observations* learners engage in *abstract conceptualization*, creating generalizations or principles that integrate their observations into theories. Learners then use these generalizations as guides to engage in further action, called *active experimentation*, where they test what they have learned in other more complex situations. This in turn leads to *another set of concrete experiences* and another round of learning at a more sophisticated level. Kolb theorizes that learning increases in complexity

through this process, and thus the learning cycle is transformed into a learning spiral of ever-increasing complexity.

Kolb posits two opposing ways of grasping or taking in information (concrete experience versus abstract conceptualization) and two opposing ways of transforming or processing that information (reflective observation versus active experimentation). The combination of preferred means of grasping and transforming information represents a learning style; however, Kolb considers any one learning style to be an incomplete form of processing information. For meaningful learning to occur, that is, learning that fully transforms one's understanding, all four stages of the cycle must be negotiated by the learner. To Kolb, an experience that is not reflected upon is unrealized learning.

Other writers interested in adult learning also stress the pivotal role of experience. Mezirow (1981, 1990) introduced the ideas of Habermas (1972), positing that emancipatory knowledge fosters critical reflection. Through critical reflection people become aware of the cultural and psychological assumptions that have influenced the way they see themselves and the way they structure their lives.

Freire (1970) as well believes the goal of education is to raise the critical consciousness of learners by means of experiential encounters with the realities of their culture. Both Freire and Mezirow believe in transformational learning. In Mezirow's view, transformational learning is directed toward personal development, while Freire conceives of transformational learning as social change. Feminist scholars have also added to the dialogue on emancipatory education, stressing that women's learning experiences should integrate subjective personal knowledge with objectively obtained knowledge in order to promote independent thinking (Tisdell, 1993).

Over the past fifty years, each of the aforementioned theorists and practitioners has made a significant contribution to our understanding and acceptance of experiential learning. From the foundation they have laid, new experiential approaches continue to evolve, enabling us to respond and adapt to dramatic and unanticipated changes. Now, with a greater commitment than ever before, both the public and private sectors are incorporating innovative experiential approaches to ensure relevance and to meet the needs of diverse groups.

Current Applications of Experiential Learning in Higher Education

There are three distinct applications of experiential learning in higher education: field-based experiences, prior learning assessment, and experiential applications for personal development and classroom-based learning. Each is described below.

Field-Based Experiential Learning in Higher Education. Field-based experiences, the oldest area of interest, have been common in higher education since the 1930s. Internships and practicum assignments help prepare students for careers in medicine, clinical psychology, education, and social

work. Cooperative education, in which students alternate periods of full-time, off-campus employment with periods of full-time study, has been popular in the last several decades.

Another variation, service learning, in which students perform community service for others, is currently popular on college campuses. The concept expands upon the idea of volunteerism by including a reflective component, by emphasizing the transfer of learning between server and those served, and by encouraging students to view problems in a larger societal context. Service learning provides students with opportunities to analyze social problems, identify community resources, and take responsibility for helping to address societal problems.

Credit for Prior Learning. Credit for prior learning, a second major strand of interest in experiential learning, reflects the recognition by the higher education establishment that meaningful learning can and does occur in informal settings. Principles and procedures for evaluating prior learning at the undergraduate level have been evolving since the 1970s. The American Council on Education (ACE) has been a pioneer in developing credit recommendations for noncollegiate instruction such as in the military and more recently in large corporate training programs.

One widely recognized mechanism for evaluating prior learning is the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) of the College Board. A less standardized process for documenting prior learning has been encouraged and supported by the Council for Adult and Experiential Learning (CAEL). A large number of colleges now provide for individual evaluations of previous learning, using a portfolio created by the learner and evaluated by appropriate faculty.

Institutions known as "external degree" programs help students take advantage of nontraditional forms of learning. Such programs have no traditional campus, but rather serve as clearinghouses to document prior learning, credit previous coursework, and certify mastery in prescribed areas. Examples of these institutions include Empire State College and Thomas Edison College (Rose, 1989).

Experiential Applications for Personal Development and Classroom-based Learning. A third area of interest within higher education has been classroom-based experiential learning. During the 1980s, reformers of education looked to experiential education as an antidote for traditional education, which was under attack for being passive and concerned solely with transferring already assimilated knowledge from teacher to student.

Experiential learning in the classroom was given a boost when Chickering and Gamson (1987) recommended "active learning" as one of the seven "principles of good practice" for excellence in undergraduate education. Active learning in the classroom requires that students do more than just listen. To qualify as active, educational practices must involve students in doing things and thinking about what they are doing.

Role plays, games, case studies, critical incidents, simulations such as "in box" exercises, socio-drama, and values clarification exercises are some of the

many forms of experiential learning techniques currently in use. In experiential classrooms, students can process real-life scenarios, experiment with new behaviors, and receive feedback in a safe environment. Experiential learning assignments help students relate theory to practice and analyze real-life situations in light of course material.

Some practitioners are currently advocating the use of Kolb's model to guide instructional design for college classrooms. Claxton (1990) describes a variety of teaching techniques that will foster each of Kolb's learning modes. Concrete experiences can be evoked by recalling past experiences, through role play, or via case studies; reflective observation is cultivated by group discussions, reflective papers, and journals; abstract conceptualization is stimulated by lectures, print sources, and films; and active experimentation is often encouraged by means of problem-solving exercises such as mock proposals or role plays. Claxton recommends that instructional designs include all four kinds of learning, which in turn help to ensure a complete cycle of learning with the capacity to elicit changed behavior at a more complex level of functioning.

Kolb's experiential model, by encouraging the four different modes of learning, is also more likely to engage gender-related learning style preferences (Claxton, 1990). Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule's (1986) book *Women's Ways of Knowing* supports this notion by contrasting two different ways of knowing. What they call *separate knowing* emphasizes previously articulated knowledge and requires a separation of the knower from the object of study. In contrast, *connected knowing* requires a personal acquaintance with "the thing" being studied. The authors recommend that educational practice integrate both ways of knowing. Claxton (1990) finds a parallel between Kolb's concrete experience and the concept of connected knowing, and between abstract conceptualization and separate knowing. Thus, the teaching methodology recommended by Belenky and others, and the instructional design extrapolated from Kolb, are congruent and offer the possibility of more efficient and complete learning.

A growing number of professionals consider adult, continuing, and higher education responsible for prompting the development of students and preparing them for lifelong learning. By stretching the learner's ability to deal with moral complexity, experiential learning becomes a vehicle for adult development by helping learners reach new levels of cognitive, perceptual, behavioral, and symbolic complexity. Chickering (1981, p. 2) refers to adult development as "the unifying idea" of higher education. As we have noted, theorists who believe in the transformational power of learning view critical reflection on experience as the key to development.

Great potential for meaningful learning is inherent in experiential learning. However, learning goals have not always been clearly articulated nor learning outcomes assessed by educators. In higher education, experiential learning exercises often are not integral to course goals and thus are not evaluated. Further, students' incidental learning, which can be significant, is often not recognized or valued in formal classroom settings. The current emphasis on experiential learning in continuing higher education and the move toward

assessing student outcomes provide a beneficial climate for refining experiential approaches.

Similar attention is now being focused on experiential strategies within the corporate sector. Notions of the learning organization and total quality management have given rise to a myriad of training programs designed to embed such concepts throughout entire organizations. Unlike colleges and universities, corporations are usually less confined by convention and are more willing to experiment with promising experiential approaches.

The following section details examples of state-of-the-art strategies currently in place in leading-edge companies and forward-thinking organizations. Each should be scrutinized by practitioners, educators, and administrators alike as possible templates for the development of similar experiential learning opportunities in a variety of learning environments.

Current Applications of Experiential Learning in the Workplace

Each year the government and employers in private for profit and private non-profit sectors make a significant monetary commitment to training and employee development. Organizations with 100 or more employees spent over \$45 billion on formal training in 1992. Estimates of U.S. employers' actual total training investment including informal and on-the-job training are estimated to be in the \$200 billion range (Lee, 1992).

These expenditures are fueled by ever-increasing demands for employee accountability and a need to document how training influences bottom-line results. Employers dedicate a substantial portion of training investments to developing managers, spending approximately 1 percent of revenues for management education (Bolt, 1987). While many of these programs are subject-matter-centered and focus on specific objectives, there is also a heavy emphasis on experiential learning that presents intellectual, psychological, and even physical challenges.

Experiential models are being applied more widely than ever before in business and industry because experiential learning legitimizes acquiring self-knowledge. Learners now have a mandate to see, learn about, and examine their own unique situations in action as they interact with others at work.

Three popular forms of experiential learning—action learning, future search and outdoor education—are described in the following sections. Each of these current applications requires learners to engage in the four types of learning specified by Kolb: (1) get involved fully and openly in new experiences; (2) reflect on and interpret these experiences from different perspectives; (3) create concepts and ideas to integrate their observations logically; and (4) use their learning and newly derived theories to make decisions, solve problems, and meet new challenges.

Action Learning. In today's business world training for training's sake is an unaffordable luxury. As a result, leading-edge companies are turning to

action learning, a hybrid technique that allows participants to use what they learn to tackle priority problems within their companies under actual work conditions. Action learning is a social process for resolving the difficulties managers increasingly confront, where history offers no solution.

At its heart, action learning is a systematic process that increases participants' organizational learning in order to help them respond more effectively to change. Originated by Reg Revans (1983), action learning is based on the underlying premise that there is no learning without action and no action without learning. Action learning is inextricably linked with action science. Action science (Argyris, Putnam, and Smith, 1985) provides a conceptual framework and a methodology for facilitating action learning, while Revan's work establishes the actual form. The following processes of action science are implicit in action learning:

Critical reflection: bringing underlying assumptions to consciousness; testing those assumptions to determine if they are appropriate for attaining the desired goal

Reframing: altering assumptions that don't accomplish desired goals

Unlearning and relearning: developing new sets of learned skills based on reframed assumptions; replacing old with new skills until new ones are automatic.

Action learning methodology has three main elements: problems that people identify; people who accept responsibility for taking action on a particular issue; and colleagues who support and challenge one another in the process of resolving the problems. Using real tasks as the vehicle for learning, individuals, groups, or teams develop management and leadership skills while working on organizational problems and testing their assumptions against real consequences. By taking a real problem, analyzing it, and implementing solutions derived with colleagues, individuals monitor results and can be held accountable for their actions. Revans believes that if we are to cope with accelerating and turbulent change, then we must place our confidence in the lived experiences and insights of others in order to be successful.

Certain criteria characterize action learning. First, there must be a real and urgent need to solve an unfamiliar problem that is not necessarily amenable to an expert solution. For example, how can the organization be redesigned to eliminate waste and allow managers to run the business as if it were theirs? Under the auspices of a sponsor who nominates participants, as well as a client who defines the problem, participants diagnose, offer solutions, and implement action plans.

Action learning is much more ambiguous than standard classroom-based experiences. Instead of being able to rely on experts for answers, individuals must engage in just-in-time learning—opportunities to develop knowledge and understanding at the appropriate time based on immediate felt needs. This requires strong internal support and the ability to ground training in business requirements. Participants must identify and access different stakeholders and

internal functional experts throughout the process. In addition, formal training modules are delivered by topic specialists. However, most critical to the process is involvement by a facilitator—someone who can act independently of the corporate culture to assist teams in reflecting on their own actions and resolving conflicts. Internal strife sometimes occurs within organizations as individuals are affected by resolution of a problem.

Multiple benefits accrue from action learning. Participants not only gain self-understanding and skills but also uncover the real reasons underlying existing problems. As organizations, institutions, and businesses seek to manage constant change, action learning should be considered as a significant intervention that has limitless potential.

Future Search. While standard approaches to professional development often consist of attending traditional business conferences or listening to charismatic speakers or best-selling authors, Future Search is a highly participatory process that helps individuals and organizations respond to the psychological stresses of accelerated change. Dating back to the early 1960s, the strategy grew out of an actual managerial dilemma posed by a pending merger (Weisbord, 1992). Through collaborative inquiry, a group of managers undertook an intense, week-long marathon dialogue on the changes confronting them, both in the world, their industry, and their own company. As a result, managers made crucial choices and invented new ways of doing business.

Today, in its most commonly applied format, a Future Search Conference is a three-day event, involving up to 60 participants from the same organization. Attendees collaborate to create a common vision by drawing on history, identifying desirable and undesirable practices, and defining the values for a desired future (Weisbord, 1992). The Future Search process is not about problem solving, but rather an exercise in developing insights, understanding, learning from one another, reducing misunderstandings, raising commitment, and uncovering new possibilities.

Throughout the process, individuals engage in a series of structured tasks. A cross-section of individuals with a stake in the sponsoring organization's future are drawn from as many functions and levels as feasible. The greater the diversity of views, experience, and knowledge, the greater the likelihood of creative solutions.

Initially, people examine their collective past, recalling and recording significant events and milestones using memorabilia such as photos, awards, and brochures that capture the organization's history. Through reflection, people identify good and bad trends, discover guiding principles, and highlight the values and actions that shaped the organization's earlier directions and previous practices.

Thereafter, attention is on the present. The focus is on external events and trends currently affecting the future. Participants generate a list of "prouds" and "sorries"—the things that are going on in their organizations about which they feel good or bad. As individuals vote for their proudest "prouds" and saddest "sorries," an appreciation of strengths and needs as well as an admission of

weaknesses and mistakes emerges. These activities enable participants to gain new insights as they share perspectives, identify common themes, and conceptualize new behaviors.

In the final stage participants generate future images by imagining the most desirable and attainable future with a five-year horizon. People reflect on what they have learned and suggest actions for themselves, their work units, and the whole organization.

This process is successful because it involves people in creating their own future, taps their own experiences, and allows them to plan present actions by working backwards from what is really desired (Weisbord, 1992). The ability to make strategic choices, grounded in life experiences, fosters commitment. Future Search is an event for getting whole systems together in one room, and its success is predicated on a highly participative process for discovery learning. Whether the need is to reposition a business or to downsize, people tend to commit to plans they help to develop.

Outdoor Education. Many organizations, anxious to build teamwork, turn to outdoor physical challenge activities as a way to promote risk-taking, improve communication, and increase the productivity of intact work groups. Sometimes referred to as executive challenge or outdoor management training, outdoor experiential learning is driven by process, not content. In 1991, major market employers spent more than \$277 million on outdoor programs in the hope of developing better managers (Laabs, 1991).

Because individuals and groups often behave the same way whether in the wilderness or in the office, outdoor education becomes a metaphor for organizational behavior. By analyzing what goes wrong during an outdoor experience, individuals gain insights as to what may be impeding progress back at their offices. Guided by an experienced facilitator, participants analyze, interpret, and gain new understandings from the strong emotional experiences they encounter through challenge activities. As the power of these experiences comes from the insights drawn from them, sponsors and facilitators must be clear about the objectives and goals to be accomplished through such programs. Unless there is agreement initially on what problems the program is to address, facilitators can process any aspect of the experience and miss important elements related to the group's unique organizational issues.

Throughout the process, a facilitator is responsible for introducing content into the program as appropriate and for helping participants analyze, interpret, and gain new insights through debriefing sessions. Teamwork and valuing of diverse viewpoints are fostered. For example, if a team has difficulty traversing a stream to rescue a colleague, a problem-solving model could be introduced to evaluate performance or structure future behavior and actions. Second and third attempts to solve similar challenges then provide practice opportunities to actively experiment with the newly found problem-solving skills and models.

A comprehensive study of six companies and over 1,200 employees suggests that the success of such programs is not related to the amount of time

spent outdoors or to the particular setting, but rather to the process that facilitates behavior changes (Wagner and Roland, 1992). While expectations of personality transformation are unrealistic, participant reports consistently show significant improvement in the overall functioning of a work group but no significant changes in individual behavior after attending a program (Wagner and Roland, 1992).

The implicit assumption underlying outdoor programs is that team members will apply their new learning upon returning to the job. Skepticism about the long-term effectiveness and payoffs of these very costly programs emanates from the fact that without ongoing facilitation and debriefing back in the work environment, individuals revert to old ways of interacting. Since there is a dearth of hard evidence on the effectiveness of outdoor programs in general, it is essential that designers, deliverers, and purchasers work together to assess which specific goals can be reached through this approach.

Final Reflections

All of the experiential techniques described in this chapter share several characteristics. Each is intended to encourage investigation and open-mindedness and to promote practice with important, previously identified skills and behaviors. Each mode inspires questions and encourages viewing issues from various perspectives based on others' input. Yet the practical applications to real-life situations are considered the responsibility of the learner.

Action learning, Future Search, and outdoor education integrate thought and action with reflection. However, while reflective practice influences professional growth, experiential strategies are often costly, time-consuming, and involve varying degrees of personal risk. As learners engage in ambiguous and complex learning situations, they confront conflicting values and gaps between theory and practice. Their personal feelings, philosophy, and even their professional practices are called to question. In addition, potential disruptions and the uncertainty about which course of action to take often deter even experienced professionals from using experiential strategies.

Because the nature of work is changing so radically and rapidly, a paradigm shift from a training to a learning emphasis is essential so that people are equipped to deal with new, unspecified challenges. More than ever before it is important to implement experiential designs that encourage individuals to become continuous learners, to extract meaning from their experiences, and to pass the learning along in collaborative contexts.

Requiring learners simply to engage in experience is not enough. Experiences, whether field-based, simulated, or on the job, must be processed through reflection and debriefing in order to maximize their value. There is also an ongoing need for better research about experiential learning. Most published articles on experiential learning are descriptive accounts. Few offer evidence that learners actually acquire targeted skills. Only programs that have clear objectives, skilled facilitation, and credible evaluation will be effective

and respected. And only if educators can demonstrate meaningful learning will the corporate sector be willing to invest in expensive experiential learning programs. Those programs that have been successfully utilizing experiential learning for a number of years must be identified as exemplary models. A new approach to experiential learning, such as that described in this volume, can serve as an alternative framework for others to adapt.

It is becoming increasingly important that adult learners know how to learn and assume responsibility for their own learning. The rapid pace of change today demands lifelong learning. People can become better learners by acquiring a repertoire of attitudes, skills, and understandings that allow them to become more effective, flexible, and self-organized learners in a variety of contexts.

In the chapters that follow, the contributing authors to this volume expand upon the experiential models presented herein. Each recognizes the unlimited potential that exists for developing innovative, yet highly relevant experiential approaches to a variety of learning environments for adults. The challenge for practitioners is to experiment and continue to search for new and better ways of encouraging reflection in action.

References

- Argyris, C., Putnam, R., and Smith, D. M. *Action Science*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.
- Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., and Tarule, J. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind*. New York: Basic Books, 1986.
- Bolt, J. F. "Trends in Management Training and Executive Education: The Revolution Continues." *Journal of Management Development*, 1987, 6 (5), 5-15.
- Chickering, A. W. "Introduction." In A. W. Chickering and Associates (eds.), *The Modern American College: Responding to the New Realities of Diverse Students and a Changing Society*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.
- Chickering, A. W., and Gamson, Z. F. "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education." *AAHE Bulletin*, 1987, 3-7.
- Claxton, C. S. "Learning Styles, Minority Students and Effective Education." *Journal of Developmental Education*, 1990, 14 (1), 6-8, 35.
- Dewey, J. *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier Books, 1971. (Originally published 1938.)
- Freire, P. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press, 1970.
- Habermas, J. *Knowledge and Human Interests*. Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann Educational Books, 1972.
- Kolb, D. A. *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1984.
- Kolb, D. A., and Lewis, L. H. "Facilitating Experiential Learning: Observations and Reflections." In L. H. Lewis (ed.), *Experiential and Simulation Techniques for Teaching Adults*. New Directions for Continuing Education, no. 30. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1986.
- Laabs, J. J. "Team Training Goes Outdoors." *Personnel Journal*, June 1991, 70, 56-63.
- Lee, C. "The Budget Blahs." *Training*, 1992, 29 (10), 31-38.
- Mezirow, J. D. "A Critical Theory of Adult Learning and Education." *Adult Education*, 1981, 32 (1), 3-24.
- Mezirow, J. D. "Conclusion: Toward Transformative Learning and Emancipatory Education." In J. Mezirow and Associates, *Fostering Critical Reflection in Adulthood: A Guide to Transformative and Emancipatory Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990.

- Revans, R. W. *The ABC of Action Learning*. Bromley, England: Chartwell-Brathl, 1983.
- Rose, A. D. "Nontraditional Education and the Assessment of Prior Learning." In S. B. Merriam and P. M. Cunningham (eds.), *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1989.
- Tisdell, E. J. "Feminism and Adult Learning: Power, Pedagogy, and Praxis." In S. B. Merriam (ed.), *An Update on Adult Learning Theory*. New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, no. 57. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1993.
- Wagner, R. J., and Roland, C. C. "How Effective is Outdoor Education?" *Training and Development Journal*, July 1992, 46, 61-62.
- Weisbord, M. R. *Discovering Common Ground*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 1992.

LINDA H. LEWIS is vice president of corporate education for Travelers Companies, Hartford, Connecticut.

CAROL J. WILLIAMS is associate dean of the School of Continuing Education at Eastern Connecticut State University.