



Adult education philosophies and teaching styles of faculty at Ricks College
by Carol Lynn Hughes

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education
Montana State University

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Abstract:

Adult educators are attempting to meet learner needs in a multitude of educational settings. One of these unique environments is the college or university. Within this climate, many teachers are not particularly aware of their educational philosophies or teaching styles let alone actively trying to bring a consistency between the two. Yet, it is awareness of beliefs and practices that can move educators toward improvement.

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) and the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) were used in this study to determine the educational philosophy orientations and teaching styles of Ricks College faculty members. Ricks College, located in Rexburg, Idaho, is owned and operated by The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon). Preferences of faculty were examined in relation to demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training in educational methodologies. Favored philosophical orientations and teaching styles were analyzed to find a possible correlation to the college's academic divisions. A relationship and interaction between teaching style and educational philosophy was investigated. One hundred sixty-seven teachers completed the surveys between.

The respondents on the PAEI showed a preference for the Progressive philosophy followed closely by the Behaviorist. Scores on PALS showed a strong preference for a teacher-centered style of instruction. In several areas there were significant differences found when analyzing demographic variables in the college's divisions. Discriminant analysis revealed a significant relationship of style to philosophy was found as well as a significant difference between the philosophical schools in relationship to teaching style. The determining factor was shown to be teacher directedness.

This study concluded that faculty at Ricks College have a learner-centered educational philosophy preference which is consistent with the college's stated mission; however, overall teaching style indicates they prefer teacher-centered modes of instruction which shows there is an inconsistency between teachers' educational beliefs and classroom actions. It was also concluded that teachers with formal training in educational methodologies tend to be less teacher centered than those educators with little or no such formal classes. Further, teachers in the areas of the natural sciences were found to be the least likely to accommodate individual students and their unique needs and learning styles. Recommendations were made to administration and faculty which include establishing an instructional development and incentive program to enrich fulfillment of the Ricks College Mission Statement.

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OF FACULTY AT RICKS COLLEGE**

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Carol Lynn Hughes

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree**

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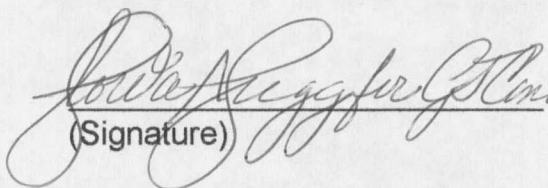
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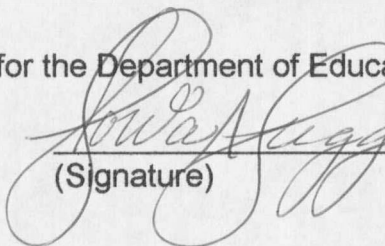
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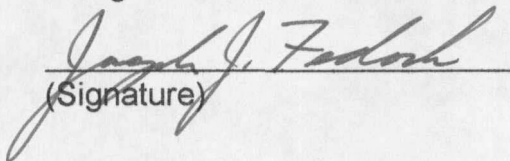
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More than to give information, a teacher needs to help guide a student's mind to think, and even beyond that, to help him shape his character. Giving information is easy. Forming a thinking mind is hard. And shaping a strong character is hardest of all, partly because it must be shaped mostly from within. Giving information is only the beginning of a teacher's responsibility; the end is to stimulate, excite, motivate, lift, challenge, inspire. --Bruce B. Clark

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ABSTRACT

Adult educators are attempting to meet learner needs in a multitude of educational settings. One of these unique environments is the college or university. Within this climate, many teachers are not particularly aware of their educational philosophies or teaching styles let alone actively trying to bring a consistency between the two. Yet, it is awareness of beliefs and practices that can move educators toward improvement.

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This study concluded that faculty at Ricks College have a learner-centered educational philosophy preference which is consistent with the college's stated mission; however, overall teaching style indicates they prefer teacher-centered modes of instruction which shows there is an inconsistency between teachers' educational beliefs and classroom actions. It was also concluded that teachers with formal training in educational methodologies tend to be less teacher centered than those educators with little or no such formal classes. Further, teachers in the areas of the natural sciences were found to be the least likely to accommodate individual students and their unique needs and learning styles. Recommendations were made to administration and faculty which include establishing an instructional development and incentive program to enrich fulfillment of the Ricks College Mission Statement.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

A great deal of research has shown that the world of the adult learner is diverse and unique. Familiarity with adult education concepts can help educators meet the particular needs of adult learners. Also, when teachers have a basic understanding of educational philosophies, they can have a rationale for their own working philosophy. As they examine what they believe, they can question their personal teaching style. Awareness can lead to changes and improvements for adult educators. It is this knowledge and action

That distinguishes a professional educator from a para-professional or a beginning teacher. True professionals know not only what they are to do, but are also aware of the principles and the reasons for so acting. Experience alone does not make a person a professional adult educator. The person must also be able to reflect deeply upon the experience he or she has had. In this manner the professional adult educator is more like the person of art who creatively combines experience and theory in the activity of teaching. (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 9)

Adult educators are often given considerable latitude in deciding the parameters of their instruction and the methods they choose to most effectively meet needs of learners in various educational settings. Certainly these practitioners want to make the best decisions possible. But what determines how such selections are made?

Zinn (1991) found that many such programmatic choices were influenced by factors of affordability, availability, appearance of instructional resources, popularity of a teaching method, or even stated objectives of a funding agency. She wondered if there was not some internal set of beliefs or values that might guide these important educational preferences (p. 39).

Philosophy of education is applying philosophical ideas to problems within education while practicing education also leads to a refinement of philosophical ideas (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, p. x). When one views educational philosophy in this way, it includes not just looking at ideas, theories, and concepts but using them wisely. "A philosophy of education becomes significant at the point where educators recognize the need to think clearly about what they are doing" (p. x).

In many disciplines and areas of life there is a relationship between someone's beliefs and values, or philosophy, and the behavior that person exhibits. What one believes provides a framework for life. The Bible tells us, "As [a man] thinketh in his heart, so is he" (Prov. 23:7). Within the field of education a person's philosophy may not be verbalized and yet such beliefs and attitudes provide a base for instructional and programmatic decisions. "Adult educators make decisions and act according to what they believe to be appropriate" (Zinn, 1991, p. 41).

Even though such educational philosophical orientations are a part of every educator, probably a large number of educators have never recognized these beliefs and values or actively moved to make them consistent with their own actions. This is one reason, according to Conti (1991), that as a group

teachers do not seem to articulate their beliefs regarding education and learning (p. 79).

A teacher's behavior is crucial to the learning environment because it is the teacher who adds the "human connection between the content and the environment and the learners" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 109). The unique and consistent qualities that a teacher uses in the educational realm is one's teaching style (Conti, 1991, p. 80). An educator's teaching style, reflected by teaching decisions and classroom behavior, is connected with educational philosophy (p. 89).

Zinn and Conti and other respected adult educators address the benefits of reflecting on one's educational philosophy and one's teaching style. It is understandable that because style is the outward sign of an inward philosophy, there is a strong relationship between the two. If educators can ascertain their educational philosophical orientation and teaching style, reflect on them, and strive for a consistency between the two, those practitioners will find themselves articulating through practice that which is most highly valued and believed. This process can create a better adult educator who can more effectively encourage successful and satisfying adult learning experiences. This process which begins with an introspection can lead to an improvement in actual teaching practices. Educators never "arrive," but true professionals will continue the journey moving toward becoming masterful teachers.

Both educational philosophy orientations and practiced teaching styles can be measured objectively. When schools of philosophy are categorized, it is

possible to determine the degree of adherence to a philosophical system. An assessment of a person's preference for a teaching style mode can be accomplished by measuring a teacher's classroom practices within categories based on current educational techniques.

Two instruments have been developed to help adult educators in this personal assessment. One deals with philosophy, and the other addresses teaching style. The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI), developed by Dr. Lorraine Zinn in 1983, has been proven to be an effective tool for an educator to use to identify a personal philosophical orientation within the area of adult education. The inventory can indicate to the respondent a clear primary philosophical orientation or a combination of two. By taking the inventory, teachers can clearly identify personal preferences and find some answers to why they do what they do as teachers. While this will not make a person a philosopher, "it might help [one] to be a better adult educator" (Zinn, 1991, p. 56).

The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), developed by Dr. Gary Conti in 1978, measures teaching style in adult education and has been successfully used in many research studies. "PALS is based on the principles that are advanced in the adult education literature" (Conti, 1985a, p. 8), and the "total score [will give] an indication of a practitioner's overall preference for teaching behavior in an adult education setting" (p. 8).

Some research has been done in various adult education settings to find whether the teacher centered or learner-centered teaching style is more conducive to student achievement. Conti (1985a, p. 8) has shown that "teaching

style can affect student achievement" (p. 8). One research study found that it is not necessarily a question of the "best" teaching style but a matter of consistency on the part of the teacher that is most critical (Conti, 1989a, p. 15). Further studies have been done to link teacher learning style preferences to teaching styles. In one of these studies it was found that "junior college educators tend to teach the way they prefer to learn" (Galbraith & Sanders, 1987, p. 169). Still another research study has employed the PAEI, PALS, and the Educational Orientation Questionnaire (EOQ) with 111 adult education graduate students to see if there is a link between philosophy and practice. It was concluded that the instruments can "affirm the philosophy-to-practice nexus" (Rachal, DeCoux, Leonard, & Pierce, 1994, p. 23) and can help educators articulate what they believe and then develop a rationale for what they do (p. 23).

Although both instruments measure philosophical concepts that are central to the teaching-learning transaction, no published research to date has linked PALS and PAEI by using a population of college or university faculty. The college setting is a unique one because "college instructors are rarely taught to teach" (Lowman, 1984, p. 222). It is as if meeting requirements for a masters' or doctoral degree gives one sufficient expertise to teach others. "Only in higher education is it generally assumed that teachers need no preparation, no supervision, no introduction to teaching" (Becker, 1987, p. 147).

Beyond their own disciplines, college teachers need to have an awareness of how they think about and how they react to adults in their classes. The PAEI and PALS instruments potentially can help these teachers relate concepts of

teaching style and philosophical orientation leading to introspection and subsequent decisions for future practice. College teachers can then ponder on why they do what they do within their classrooms.

In addition, information related to the varying philosophical orientations and teaching styles within a college's various academic divisions is limited or nonexistent. Do teachers within natural sciences tend to be more teacher centered or learner centered in their approaches to teaching? Are instructors in the humanities keyed in to meeting the individual needs of their students? Answers to such questions could lead to more focused staff development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the adult education philosophies and practiced teaching styles of faculty members in a two-year college. Participants in this study were faculty members from Ricks College in Rexburg, Idaho, which is a two-year private religious institution. The study involved two major components. First, the study identified the individual educational philosophies of college teachers; compared scores by grouping participants by the demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training; and investigated the relationship of philosophical orientations within academic divisions. Second, the study identified the individual teaching styles of college teachers; compared scores by grouping participants by the same demographic variables; and investigated any relationship in teaching styles of teachers within academic divisions.

Research Questions

The following research questions directed this study:

1. Using PAEI, what are the preferred adult education philosophies of faculty members at Ricks College?
2. What is the relationship of educational philosophy as measured by the philosophy of adult education inventory and the demographic variables of age, gender, or formal training in educational methodologies?
3. What is the relationship between philosophical orientations using the PAEI and working within the divisions at Ricks College?
4. Using PALS, what are the preferred teaching styles of faculty at Ricks College?
5. What is the relationship of teaching style as measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale and the demographic variables of age, gender, or formal training in educational methodologies?
6. What is the relationship between teaching styles using the PALS and working within the divisions at Ricks College?
7. What is the interaction between philosophical beliefs and teaching style?
8. Is there an interaction of philosophical beliefs and teaching style?

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the researcher made several assumptions.

The first assumption was that the PAEI instrument is able to indicate the adult educational philosophies of teachers within the selected two-year college setting and that the PALS instrument is able to denote a predominant, preferable teaching style for teachers in this same setting. Both of these instruments,

particularly PALS, have been used in a number of adult education environments; however, to date, neither has been linked in the specific setting of this study.

The second assumption was that teachers use their identified teaching style in any teaching setting and that their teaching style is a reflection of internal beliefs and values. This premise rests on the idea that a teaching style remains constant with an educator no matter what the educational setting may be.

A third assumption was that because the administration supported the study and encouraged faculty to participate, respondents would answer honestly. The study was self-reporting, and there was no way to validate that respondents would answer to the best of their ability.

Limitations

The study was limited by the quantitative data collection nature of the PAEI and PALS instruments. These surveys allow for no qualifications in responses. Participants circle their numerical answers and are not able to explain or elaborate on their choices even though they might wish to furnish an explanation.

Another limitation of this study is its reliance on self-reporting of data. Although faculty members were encouraged to help with this study, they were not required by administration to participate. When those who indicated they would help with the study received the surveys, they decided individually if they would actually participate.

Finally, respondents may have viewed the instruments as promoting certain educational practices although efforts were made to assure voluntary participants there were no "right" or "wrong" answers. For example, review of literature in adult education shows a movement toward a collaborative teaching mode. On one item of the PALS instrument it states, "I use lecturing as the best method for presenting my subject material to adult students." Many teachers may prefer lecturing yet might respond more in light of what they think they should be doing in the classroom.

Delimitations

This study identified the adult education philosophical orientations and teaching styles of faculty at Ricks College using the PAEI and PALS instruments. It was confined to those educators employed at Ricks in December 1996. A list of these educators was provided by the office of the academic vice president for instruction and included primarily full-time faculty, a limited number of part-time faculty, and a very few instructional staff members whose primary responsibilities during the time period of the study were not teaching. Examples include the director of continuing education and the media services manager who have taught extensively but whose dominant duties were administrative at this time.

Definition of Terms

Adult learner: Refers to a person who is engaged in self-directed learning who has reached a level of maturity which involves assuming responsibility for

himself or herself and may involve assuming responsibility for someone else (Hiemstra, 1976; Seaman & Fellenz, 1989, p. 2).

Adult education: "Adult education is a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills" (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 9).

Educational philosophy: Refers to the beliefs, values, and attitudes one holds in principles of education which involve purposes, curriculum, methodologies, the teaching-learning process, and relationship between education and society (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 5).

Higher education: In this study is limited to public or private two-, four-year, and graduate colleges and universities.

Teaching style: The consistent qualities and traits displayed by an educator in the classroom (Conti, 1989, p. 3).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Educators in adult education settings need to have an understanding of concepts within the realms of adult learning, educational philosophies, teaching styles, and adult learners. Reflective consideration within these areas can lead to an active process of becoming the "master teacher" that Apps refers to again and again in his writings.

Adult Learning

"The need to learn throughout life is imperative because change is the only constant in our society" (Apps, 1992, p. 7). In the past few years adult education, along with the concept of lifelong learning, has come into its own. Even though education of the entire human race has concerned man for millennia, adult education has received much less emphasis in developed nations than the teaching of children and young people.

As Knowles (1990) points out, after World War II there began to materialize an interest in the adult's specific learning characteristics. However, it has only been in the last few decades that the uniqueness of adult learners has "evolved into a comprehensive theory of adult learning" (p. 28). Knowles (1980)

popularized the term "andragogy" in the United States when he used it to refer to a "concept of a unified theory of adult education" (p. 51) as opposed to pedagogy which is considered to be the conventional way of education for children and has its roots in Europe.

Knowles (1990) based much of his adult learning theory on the research of Eduard Lindeman who published *The Meaning of Adult Education* in 1926 and who was greatly influenced by John Dewey's educational philosophy (p. 29). Lindeman laid the foundation of Knowles's theory by positing his main assumptions about adult learners. He maintained that motivation for adult learners stems from their needs and interests, that adults see their learning as an integral part of their lives, that the best resource of adult learners comes from their own experiences, that adult learners need to direct their own learning endeavors, and that as people grow older they increase their differences one from another (p. 31).

In the 1960s Cyril Houle's *The Inquiring Mind* became part of a movement of research designed scientifically and covering the adult's internal learning processes. Allen Tough, who was a student of Houle, studied the natural process of adult learning which he concluded followed a somewhat similar sequence of steps with most adults (Knowles, 1980, p. 42).

During the 1960s, various psychological and other social science disciplines furthered knowledge of adult learning in North America and Europe through their research which lent credence to the intuitions of earlier teachers. At this point theorists were able to draw from these various sources and begin to

piece together what became a more complete and comprehensive theory of adult learning (Knowles, 1980, p. 42).

It was adult educators from Europe who coined this comprehensive theory "andragogy" from a Greek word meaning "man, not boy." Knowles learned of the new term in the mid-sixties from a Yugoslavian adult educator and is given credit for bringing the term "andragogy" to America and into his own extensive research (Knowles, 1980, p. 42). Originally Knowles saw the term as a way to distinguish adult learning from child/youth learning principles. However, as Knowles worked on his own research, he concluded the two terms, andragogy and pedagogy, to be models of assumptions about any learning, two ends of a spectrum, rather than to refer specifically to child- or adult-centered learning (p. 43).

From the research of the 1960s by clinical psychologists as well as developmental and social psychologists and scholars within the areas of philosophy and education, Knowles developed his andragogical model of adult learning, widely accepted among authorities today. His theory assumes that adult learners must perceive a reason to know something before they begin to learn it. Next, adults have a need to be self-directing and responsible whereas the pedagogical model sees the learner as dependent. Further, adults bring to their learning environment a wealth of knowledge and experience upon which they may draw as a resource. Pedagogy sees experience as of little benefit to the area of learning, which is a transmittal of knowledge. Next, adults are usually ready to learn what is important to them at particular times in their lives. In contrast, pedagogy sees learning as encompassing a set curriculum appropriate

for all learners. Then, adults approach learning tasks with the desire that their learning be applicable and beneficial to them in their everyday lives and with their day-to-day problems. On the other hand, pedagogy categorizes learning in curricular-based subjects, containing knowledge which will be useful at a later time. Finally, Knowles sees adults as intrinsically motivated to learn; that is, their most important motivations are internal and reflect their desire to be happy and improve the quality of their lives. Pedagogy sees learner motivation more as the arrival at a goal, such as the advancement to a higher grade or a diploma which marks the end of formal, organized education. In other words, education is a means to an end. These assumptions indicate that pedagogy is much more teacher centered and teacher-dependent within the educational realm than andragogy, which emphasizes the learner and personal responsibility. (Knowles, 1990, Chapter 3)

Many other educational researchers corroborate Knowles's conclusions and elaborate on them. Smith, Darkenwald and Merriam, Kidd, Knox, and Apps are a few who also maintain that stages within adult life provide motives for their lifelong learning pursuits, that adults desire immediate application of what they learn, that past experiences influence present learning, and that adults seem to prefer self-directed learning endeavors (Brookfield, 1986, p. 31). Such conclusions "constitute a catechism familiar to educators and trainers of adults, as well as to learning theorists" (p. 31).

William Draves (1984) is another educator who feels that generalizing characteristics of adult learners can help educators be more effective by

pinpointing the "ideal teacher of adults" and the skills one should have to meet the shared characteristics of these learners such as common emotional characteristics. Many adults have had negative experiences in their schooling when they were children or youth. Vestiges of the punishment principle are still consciously or unconsciously present in many classes and educational settings. The key is to create a positive emotional climate to counteract the natural feelings of inadequacy and of growing older that so many adults share (p. 9).

Adults also share the fact that they are declining physically, that everyone is aging, and that physical states affect the capacity to learn. Because of such shared characteristics of the adult learner, the adult educator needs to meet such needs as good lighting, adequate hearing level, and large enough visuals (Draves, 1984, p. 9).

Although adults may come to the learning situation with bodies not always in prime shape, adults are generally eager to learn. Mostly, they are ready to learn with the natural growth process; because of this, their learning must be more problem-centered and adaptable to current needs and interests. They often want to learn to solve or address a particular problem and are satisfied when their learning is practical (Draves, 1984, p. 10). Because increasingly as one gets older time becomes less expendable and more limited, so adults prefer what can be learned today or in the near future to what can be learned over a longer period. Their interest in solving problems makes them more concerned with specific topics of relevance rather than broad, generalized, abstract subjects. A readiness to learn, problem orientation, and specific time perspective

contribute to an internal motivation to learn. The adult learner, with an abundance and variety of life experiences, requires a different teaching methodology than children or youth (p. 11).

This concept is also developed by J. R. Kidd (1973). He addresses adult learner characteristics within the affective domain citing Gardner Murphy who says that "the adult has not *fewer* but *more* emotional associations with factual material than do children" (p. 95). He discusses the change that learning causes and that such change means a disturbance. Also he talks about the myriad of emotions and feelings that are a constant influence upon an adult's learning (p. 97) and concludes that an adult's learning depends upon security and stimulus, both dependence and independence, previous experience, relevance of relationships, achievement of satisfaction through focus, and expression of one's interests and attitudes (p. 120-121).

Some authorities have criticized such pervasive research of shared characteristics of adult learners lending themselves to adult learning principles. Brookfield (1986), for example, questions many of the broad generalizations about such learning principles (p. 33). He believes that such accepted principles, particularly within self-directed adult learning, are based on homogeneous sampling of middle-class Americans, who are the largest category of participants in continuing education programs in the U. S. He cautions against blanketly accepting such a high degree of generalizability within an American society which is constantly becoming more and more heterogeneous (p. 33).

Brookfield's concerns can be well taken. However, "generalizations about adults as learners may reinforce" (Knox, 1986, p. 15) knowledge and give insights which prove helpful to adult educators. It is the diversity within the field of adult education that makes generalizations useful--"not for individualizing [one's] instruction to respond to all the differences but, rather, for helping [one] decide what options to provide" (p. 20). Knox explains that generalizations concerning adult learners are useful most importantly to guide the practitioner's understanding of the individuals in educational programs. The reason for this, he asserts, is that for effective teaching to take place, the adult educator must be responsive to each learner in each program and not to adults in general (p. 38). A more overall and fundamental perception of adults and their learning characteristics can enable the practitioner to "enhance their motivation, achievement, application, and continued inquiry" (p. 39). At the same time Knox recognizes there exists the changing nature of adults in different stages of their lives in areas such as learning ability, learning style, motivations, ego development, moral development, character development, interpersonal style, time perspective change, and physical changes (p. 24). In fact, adults become even more individually diverse as they age because of "specialized circumstances, abilities, and experiences" (p. 29). Basically he concludes that by understanding overall adult learner characteristics, the adult facilitator can help participants do a lot of their own individualizing within available educational settings (p. 39).

Brookfield (1992) addresses and refutes many of the accepted adult learning principles in his writings. Where Knowles and others would generally agree that adult learners find their educational pursuits enjoyable because they are learning what they are motivated to learn, Brookfield expresses his beliefs that adult learning can be painful because immersion back into the educational realm means change and a movement out of one's comfort zone. However, it "may well be that such discomfort is the prelude to, and necessary accompaniment of, significant learning" (p. 12).

Further, where Knowles and other adult educators and researchers have often concluded that adults are inherently self-directed learners, Brookfield feels the majority of adults are used to traditional kinds of learning and are uncomfortable and even confused by the learner-centered teaching environment that other researchers and practitioners say is a natural for the adult learner (1992, p. 13).

Additionally, Brookfield argues against a uniquely adult learning style where learning styles, activities, and experiences of adults are by no means parallel to younger learners. "It is misleading to talk about adult learning as a generically distinct phenomenon" (1992, p. 13). Adults vary greatly in their preferred learning styles, as do children, and learning is much too complex and puzzling to say that any exclusive categories of learning exist in either children or adults (p. 14). "Variables other than chronological age are of at least equal importance in explaining the cognitive structures, interpretive frameworks,

mediatory mechanisms, and perceptual filters people develop to make sense of their worlds" (p. 14).

Brookfield (1986) does believe that the facilitator's role in adult learning is unique to the adult form of teaching and learning. Because adults are adults, he believes that many of their needs can best be met by helping them be more critically reflective as they participate in various learning situations. His ideas broaden his views that learning for adults can be painful when they are immersed in it. Facilitators need to meet the unique aspects of adult learners by helping them open up new horizons in their lives, aiding them in adding to their knowledge, and helping them challenge their values and behaviors. In other words, adults need to reach an awareness that is necessary for them to then move toward altering their present circumstances; they need opportunities to expand and grow. Learners need to become critically reflective; "teaching involves presenting alternatives, questioning givens, and scrutinizing the self" (p. 125). This type of learning should be reserved for adults who are ready for it because this readiness is not shared by all adult learners (p. 125). Children and young learners need a sense of security and stability in their lives, and so this form of education is unique to adults (Chapter 6).

Brookfield (1986) makes reference to several adult education authorities, such as Beder and Darkenwald, Gorham, Dubin and Okun, Mackie, Even, Moore, Pratt, Wilson, Solomon and Miller, McKeachie, to show that in the past, research has concentrated on analyses of adult learning theory, on instructional effectiveness factors, and qualities of effective teachers of adults. He

emphasizes that, because of the great diversities found in adult learners, there is no single method of teaching that will apply equally well to all situations and all learning styles (pp. 128-131).

Mezirow (1990), as Brookfield, speaks of the several development stages of adults and says that the adult facilitator must be able to offer different kinds of educational interventions to fit the many diversities found in adults. This calls for a high degree of creativity on the part of the educator to meet such individuality. Mezirow explains that to meet these diverse needs and to have adult education at its best, the adult educator must create and facilitate dialogic experiences which will furnish insights and validations to eventually yield transformative learning. This learning needs to be accompanied with new convictions that translate themselves into action. Such a learning process goes outside of the classroom by moving the adult learner to praxis, an application of knowledge or skills; Mezirow states that such learning is the business of all adults through adult educators. New perspectives can move adult learners into action that can take many forms but comes from the challenge to their established values and beliefs (Chapter 18).

There is also much diverseness of adults as revealed in the learning environment, but according to Apps (1991), it is understanding the generalizations that helps the adult educator become most effective. To become a master teacher, one is required to "understand adults as learners" (p. 43). An adult's personal history influences perceptions (p. 39). Since each person's background is different, the way in which each person understands something

will likely be different. A further characteristic of adults is that their lives are busy and they have many responsibilities including family, work, and social roles to fill. These often necessitate the need for flexibility in educational program offerings.

Adults have different learning styles, different ways of processing information, different ways that they feel and behave in various learning situations (Apps, 1991, 40). Adults may need to learn by a hands-on approach, primarily by visual or auditory means, by problem solving, by an analytical method, through a step-by-step fashion, through intuition, or combinations of different ways (p. 40). However, a preference may come as a result of the fact the adult has experienced learning mainly through only one method in the past such as lecturing; in such cases, the adult may need encouragement to try other ways of learning. This discovery may show the adult really prefers another learning method (p. 41). It is true that a learner of any age has an individual preferred learning style; however, the adults have usually been taught as children and young people in limited ways and are therefore often unaware of the diversity of ways to learn.

Several factors influence the adult's motivation to learn: a triggering life event, job requirement or enhancement, movement into a new developmental phase in life, or personal interest in the learning topic (Apps, 1991, p. 38). Adults often lack in their self-confidence, perhaps because of less than satisfactory experiences in the past. They prefer early feedback indicating their level of performance. Further, as people age, they experience physical changes in such abilities as seeing, hearing, learning quickly, and memorizing. Adults prefer

present application of their learning to their everyday lives; however, many adults also want to study in areas with no immediate application but the desire to learn (pp. 42-43).

In summary, an awareness of characteristics of adult learners is helpful for teachers of adults. Knowledge of generalizations such as high motivation, wealth of experience, wish for pragmatic education, and the desire for self-directing learning activities can help adult educators meet the needs of this unique population.

Educational Philosophy

There is no perfect approach to education; there never will be (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, p. xii). Philosophical thought from its beginnings has always influenced education and will continue to do so. Every educator needs to gain an understanding of philosophical ideas related to education, sift through all the rhetoric and varied opinions, and seek to comprehend the impact these concepts have on what practitioners think and do (p. xiii). With this foundation, educators will not need to accept blindly what others do and recommend but can come to their own decisions and rationale for chosen beliefs and practices.

Aristotle said, "Now each man judges well the things he knows and of these he is a good judge. And so the man who has been educated in a subject is a good judge of that subject" (Bondeson, 1981, p. 355). He continues this idea by saying that a person needs age and experience to delve into philosophical thought (p. 355). Plato agreed and prescribed many years of "living and education

as the necessary prerequisite for any kind of philosophical inquiry" (p. 355). If it is assumed that Aristotle and Plato were right, educators do not need to become full-fledged philosophers; however, the process of philosophical reflection does not require a long life of wisdom and living and is valuable to educators. Methods of philosophy can be learned and practiced at any age level (p. 356).

One way to approach philosophy is to categorize its fields which include areas such as the philosophy of law, religion, science, medicine, or education (Bondeson, 1981, p. 360). Almost any discipline has a set of views that can be called its philosophy. Through the years, those using philosophical principles have considered many topics: Is education an indoctrination? What is education's role in society? What part should values play in educational practices? How does education relate to other disciplines (p. 360)? It becomes the job of educational philosophy to examine knowledge of educational principles, assumptions, and values, and "critically analyze the process of education in order to make these all the more evident" (p. 360).

One danger of philosophy has always been that it is too abstract and that it has no meaning or real value beyond contemplation (Bondeson, 1981, p. 360). Philosophy, however, has an important use in bridging the way educators understand their world and how they relate that understanding to their everyday work (p. 361). That world, or the philosophical foundations of education, is based on certain assumptions about human nature, the purpose of education, and the roles of the instructor and learner.

Philosophy in adult education has too often been used as a rationale for established practice in the classroom rather than seen as a means to critique options (de Chambeau, 1977, p. 308). For years the major attention of educators has focused on psychological and sociological factors (the what and how) in education; however, the philosophical starting point has been neglected, especially in adult education. The "why" educators do what they do in the educational setting must become as important a question for adult educators as the "what" and "how" (p. 308).

In order to increase their success, educators need to have a foundation in educational philosophy (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 37); this is the "why of education" (p. 37). Silberman many years ago said:

If teachers make a botch of it, and an uncomfortably large number do, it is because it never simply occurs to more than a handful to ask *why* they are doing what they are doing, to think seriously or deeply about the purposes or consequences of education.
(Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 38)

There is an interrelationship between philosophical theory and action and knowledge of educational philosophy that "gives direction to practice" (p. 38).

Elias and Merriam (1995) have provided a systematic overview of the basic philosophical foundations of adult education. By doing this, they have provided the adult educator with information for developing a rationale for one's personal philosophy. Philosophy of education is concerned with the educational principles of "aims and objectives of education, curriculum or subject matter, general methodological principles, analysis of the teaching-learning process, and the relationship between education and the society in which education takes

place" (p. 3). These authors label six educational philosophies in this way:

Liberal, Progressive, Behaviorist, Humanist, Radical, and Analytic. Each of the philosophies is a product of its time and environment.

The Liberal (more often known as Idealistic) philosophy of education in the Western world is the "oldest and most enduring" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 13). It is concerned with the expansion of the mind by amassing organized knowledge in areas such as languages, religion, and fine arts. It had its basis in ancient Greece with philosophers such as Socrates and Plato and lives on in many arenas today. Adler's Great Books Program, a study of classical thinking, is an example. This philosophy seeks truth, development of moral character and spiritual vision, acquisition of knowledge which leads to wisdom, and appreciation for the beautiful in life.

The Progressive philosophy, developed to refute traditionalism (Idealism or classical philosophy), has a basis in American pragmatism. It is experience-centered and at its crux is the desire for social reform. John Dewey's ideas found a home in this philosophy (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 48).

John Watson is considered the original founder of Behaviorism; however, B. F. Skinner, who followed Watson, added significant contributions to the modern views of Behaviorialism. This philosophy asserts that one is understood through behavior. Behaviorism is applied in education through programs such as competency-based, behavior modification, behavioral objectives, and accountability (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 105).

The whole person is of prime importance in Humanism, which can be traced to Aristotle. This stream of thought, found in the broader theory of Existentialism, maintains that each person is unique and that learner needs should be met through a student-centered educational environment. Knowles's andragogy is based on the desire to bring about the humanist concept through development of the whole person (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 133).

Radical movements of the past three hundred years such as Marxism, socialism, and the Freudian left are the basis of adult Radical (commonly called Reconstructionist) philosophy that seeks significant changes in society. This movement questions the rightness of state-run schools and even forms of government. Freire's ideas for adult literacy fall under this philosophy as do John Holt's ideas of the 1960s (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 11).

The most recent philosophy is Analytic, and its purpose is to "concentrate upon the analysis of language" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 176) rather than to apply any specific educational practices. As it continues to develop, this way of thinking, which is not presently accepted by all authorities as a "philosophy," may become the base for a new contemporary philosophy within the field of adult education (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 201).

Ozmon and Craver also elaborate on philosophical foundations in their work *Philosophical Foundations of Educations* (1981). They say the purpose of philosophy is to get people thinking about what they are doing. To think philosophically is to reflect on who we are, what we do, why we do it, and how we

justify all of this. Philosophy helps educators gain a wider and deeper perspective on human existence (p. xi).

Because of Ozmon and Craver's considerable work in classifying and describing philosophical orientations and how education has changed over the years as a result of prevailing philosophies, it is important to include views of the philosophical orientations as these authors see them. They hold somewhat similar views as Darkenwald, Merriam, and Elias. Ozmon and Craver categorize philosophies as Idealist (Liberal), Realist, Pragmatist (Progressivist), Reconstructionist (Radical), Existentialism (Humanist), Behaviorist, and Analytic.

Idealism has its roots from Plato and concerns the power and eminence of reasoning in the search for truth. Augustine added a religious aspect to Idealism. In more modern times proponents of Idealism have included Descartes, who is well known for his statement "I think; therefore I am," Kant, and Hegel. This philosophy professes concern for the individual, the teacher as a guide, and importance of moral values in education. Learning should be holistic, thus broad and liberal, and include an understanding of the world. The classics should be taught to disciplined students. Teaching is systematic with a high level of cognitive knowledge essential; Idealism promotes cultural learning and character development (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 1).

Realism is identified with Aristotle. He advocated the idea of the importance of observation to go along with the reasoning process for a much more complete picture of the universe and its phenomena. Later Bacon experimented with methods of inquiry. Whitehead and Russell were later Realist

philosophers. As a philosophy of education, Realism is varied and complex. It contains both secular (scientific realists) and religious (higher realms of thought) realists. It posits the importance of a return to the basics in a strong academic setting, teaching of values, accountability through evaluation, and the practicality of education. It also espouses systematic teaching, encourages specialization, and uses the scientific method of problem solving. Others associated with Realism include Rousseau; Pestalozzi, the father of elementary education; Froebel, the creator of kindergartens; and Montessori (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 2).

Bacon is also associated with the Pragmatist philosophical orientation through his inductive approach to inquiry. This philosophy maintains that experience is paramount. John Dewey was the philosopher who expanded Pragmatism into such areas as education and politics. Pragmatism is concerned with human problems and solutions. In the United States Pragmatism has often been tied to Radicalism (or Reconstructionism) because of its desire for social reform, but Dewey criticized this comparison and the excesses that were a part of this philosophy. The aim of education, according to Pragmatists such as Lindeman, is growth. Pragmatism is translated into education by way of methods such as the whole language approach, integration of the curriculum, problem-solving techniques, experimentation, and discovery of new truths or insights. School is seen as the fundamental method of social progress and reform (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 3).

Dewey's pragmatist philosophical ideas were largely responsible for the drastic change toward learner-centered educational theory and practices which began in America in the 20th century and have continued to develop to the 1990s. He spoke of the need to understand the differences between Progressivism's approach to education and the traditional approach. With the "old" pedagogy, pupils are docile and obedient, teachers are agents to communicate knowledge and skills, adult standards are imposed, and strict subject matter and methods are dictated. Learning comes mainly from texts. Dewey felt these beliefs and practices were autocratic. He felt a democratic approach to education was much more conducive to a better quality of life (1938, Chapter 1).

Dewey wanted teachers to set the environment of learning as an outgrowth of student needs and interests. Educators would survey the capacities and needs of learners and then arrange conditions which would provide content for their experiences. "Everything depends upon the quality of the experience which is had" (1938, p. 16). Experience is crucial because education is an internal development. He felt that the new direction of schools should be to provide a coherent concept of experience that would give a forward direction to selecting and organizing the best educational methods and materials for students (Chapter 2).

It is a teacher's responsibility to set the environment for learning. Teachers can best utilize learners' surroundings to help them build positive experiences which lead to growth. Experience is a moving force which can be

good or bad (Dewey, 1938, Chapter 3). "Attentive care must be devoted to the conditions which give each present experience a worth-while meaning" (p. 51). Because it is the present that determines tomorrow, the teacher has the responsibility to create conditions for present experiences that favorably will affect the future (p. 52).

Dewey promoted the concept of the self-direction of learners which traditional education tended to ignore. There should be a cooperative relationship between teacher and students where the teacher's suggestions are only a starting point in the learning process (Chapter 4). Teachers need to stimulate new ways for learners to observe and judge which will expand their experience. This process is ongoing and always with a eye toward future direction. Such progressive ideas necessitate more than a single course of study but rather connection with experiences of life. Educative experiences expand outward and are not restricted with teacher objectives and textbooks (Chapters 5-7).

Dewey is considered by many to be the greatest philosopher of education since Plato, and there is no doubt about his massive contribution to American Progressive education (Wilshire, 1990, p. 175). However, many subsequent scholars question Dewey's theories in light of our changing world. Bruner (1963) said that "between Dewey's first premises and [a more modern] day, there bristles a series of revolutionary doctrines and cataclysmic events that change the very character of [philosophical] inquiry" (p. 40). He speaks of the need for a reappraisal of premises in a philosophy of education. With the ongoing

technological revolution, the challenge is to think more critically about not only enriching society but enriching the individual by providing "alternative views of the world and a strengthening of the will to explore them" (p. 42). A teacher must meet the challenge of opening new perspectives and "must embody in his or her own approach to learning a pursuit of excellence" (p. 45). What matters most is to give learners not a succession of studies but "informed powers of mind and a sense of potency about copying" (p. 47). These treasures will span time and circumstance (p. 47).

If school must be life itself and not just a preparation for life as Dewey stated, then education must reflect the changes all about us (Bruner, 1963, p. 49). The insights "developed on the frontiers of knowledge" (p. 49), whether they be in the sciences, politics, social life, the arts, or business and industry, must all find their way into classrooms. Change in all disciplines is apparent, and with change, we learn (p. 49).

Dewey said education must be a source of constant refreshment and changing of curriculum (Bruner, 1963, p. 51). Such a refreshment can come when scholars, scientists, artists, sociologists, and other professionals who are seeking an understanding and mastery of new problems share their wisdom and try to enliven and inform not only the student but the teacher as well (p. 51). Then education truly can be life itself.

Reconstructionism is another educational philosophy that claims society must and can be constantly changed and improved and that education is the medium to accomplish this. Modern Reconstructionism is largely humanistic and

uses the scientific method of inquiry. It is almost a purely social philosophy because it is concerned most with man's social and cultural existence.

Proponents include educational and social activists such as Freire and Brameld. They believe that students should be agents of change and educators, social activists. Students should play a part in setting the curricula and become involved in community change which can lead to societal change (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 4).

Existentialism is complex and sees mankind as alienated humans caught up in an unfortunate existence where people must fashion their own meaning. Sartre, Carl Rogers, and Maslow are identified with this philosophical orientation. Existentialism stresses individuality and the understanding of self. An example of this is found in the nondirective approach in existential psychiatry. This is where Maslow's hierarchy of needs falls. He believes an individual's first and foremost needs are physical, and the last or highest need is that of self-actualization. The existentialist frame of reference deals with individual differences and variations where people make their own decisions. Education should create involvement through action, according to this philosophy. It postulates there should be no grades or formal exams and that students' needs are met through allowing learners choice and diversity in their education. The teacher, therefore, is a facilitator giving learners opportunities to explore any possibilities (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 5).

Behaviorism is often called a theory rather than a philosophy according to Ozmon and Craver. Names associated with it include Watson and Skinner. It

maintains that behavior is understood by studying it; if change is desired in individuals or cultures, behavior must be changed. That can be accomplished by conditioning methods such as behavior modification. Methods part of this modification include reinforcing behaviors to achieve desired results and giving immediate feedback to learners (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 6).

The Analytic philosophy is the most recent and is often called Linguistic Analysis. It concentrates on language, concepts, and methods. Its foundation is that the true role of philosophy is critical clarification, that language needs to be precise and clear. It tries to arrive at clarified principles, agreements, and conclusions (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, Chapter 7).

Understanding how philosophy has influenced education in the past can help develop the tools educators need to deal with current and future problems (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, p. xiv). These tools are developed when there is created a connection between philosophical beliefs/theory and actual practice/methods within the classroom. Without this linking, philosophers become "web spinners of thought engaged in mere academic exercises" (p. IX). Conversely, practitioners are found "tinkering with educational methods without serious thought [which] results in practices that have little substance of meaning" (p. IX).

Basic questions raised by Dewey, Kilpatrick, Counts, Bode, and many others are inescapable. What is education's aim? What should be the foundation of educational programs? What should be taught? How should it be taught? The answers to these questions must be faced again by each new

generation of educators, and possible solutions must be considered in light of the present society (Till, 1963, p. 72). Dewey would be the first to admit that much remains to be done to implement his ideas about education. He touched on part of the whole which is the overall philosophy of education (p. 71).

Such age-old questions regarding education continue today in a time of massive technological advancement, explosions in the knowledge base, and "in a time when all of our traditional and customary attitudes and values are crumbling around us, when the sense of community often seems nothing but a memory of the past" (Poznar, 1995, p. 7). Today, perhaps more than ever, there is the challenge to educate people for a mature and full life in "not abstract principles but realities intricately interwoven into the very fabric of [life]" (p. 6).

"There is usually a continuous reassessment and reevaluation of one's value system, social mores, authority constructs, and educational beliefs" (Ozmon & Craver, 1981, p. 270) when a person engages in philosophical introspection and activity. This internalization process helps educators readjust and modify and can become part of professional development aimed at improvement within the classroom. Philosophy, then becomes not part of "a separate and exclusive search, but is part of human life and education" (p. 280).

Other adult educators reach some of the same conclusions regarding the practicality of philosophical theory. Spencer Maxcy (1980) believes that realizing one's personal philosophical orientation can help adult educators specifically by (a) sensitizing them to interactions between themselves and their learners, between learners and learning content, and between this subject matter and the

world; (b) aiding them in the decision-making process so ongoing in education; and (c) offering a better understanding as to how the adult educator's work relates to the larger picture of society (p. 8).

Maxcy quotes Thoreau who wrote that being a philosopher is much more than thinking or loving wisdom; it involves solving problems not only by theory but by practicality (1980, p. 8). In utilizing one's philosophy of education in a practical way, the adult educator can confront three current areas in adult education: the changing nature of the adult learner, the selection of what is the best information to be taught/learned, and the question of how adult education can help prepare the learner to face our changing, diverse American culture (p. 8). An adult educator's philosophy can be an effective tool to help solve critical questions within the adult educational realm (p. 9).

White and Brockett (1987) concur with Darkenwald, Elias, Merriam, Ozmon, Craver, Maxcy, and others that philosophy is an extremely valuable practical tool for adult educators (p. 11). Everyone has a working philosophy which includes one's values, experiences, and lifestyle. However, not everyone can articulate it. Philosophy can help educators understand themselves (p. 12). Apps also talks of the importance of articulating one's working philosophy so that such beliefs can give a rationale for educators' decisions (1985, p. 16). Philosophical analysis can lead the way to alternate approaches in education, help educators learn how to apply values and ethics into their practice, and help them gain an independence of thought (p. 16).

It is necessary for professional teachers to examine what they believe and to develop this "working philosophy" to which Apps (1991, p. 27) refers. "The techniques of teaching that one uses will undoubtedly reflect one's philosophy of teaching" (McKeachie, 1994, p. 4). Elias and Merriam's as well as Ozmon and Craver's explanations and a related scale by Zinn (1991) allow educators to categorize beliefs and values. Through this process, they can gain an understanding of why they teach as they do. This can provide insights into their teaching style. This is a task of the master teacher (Apps, 1991, p. 27).

What is the purpose of education is perhaps the most critical philosophical question of education (Campbell, 1995, p. 469). It has been the concern since Plato's day. All educators must answer that question for themselves in a process of critical reflection. For Dewey the goal was more education. A teacher can start a learner on the path of lifelong learning, but each person's quest is personal and never finished (p. 469).

What is required of a philosophy of education today is a theory and practice of values for this brilliant age in time. An adequate philosophy will reflect not only

The social order in which it arises but will also serve to criticize and redirect it. Civilizations may be evaluated from many points of view. None can lead to more fruitful and satisfying results than an educational point of view which recognizes and cherishes diversity of interests and personality, lavishes an equality of concern upon their cultivation, and aims at excellence of achievement in whatever the human brain or hand turns to. If freedom is to have a future, our philosophy of education must help sustain a passion for it by the arts of intelligence and imagination. (Hook, 1963, p. 53)

Each teacher has the privilege and responsibility to define an individual philosophy of education through critical reflection and to put it into practice in the classroom through a consistent teaching style.

Teaching Style

There are many definitions of "teaching style" and many ways to classify it. An understanding of teaching style is related to an educator's personal growth (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). The process of moving toward an internal consistency, critical to an educator's desire for improvement, begins with three steps (p. 3).

The first step is exploration which is the stage of gathering information such as beliefs one holds as a teacher and actual teaching behaviors. Methods might include naming, listing, and describing, but no type of value is placed on any of the accumulated information (p. 4). Reflection is the next step and requires examination of information about one's beliefs and behaviors. The purpose is to compare theory with practice by techniques such as questioning, comparing, experimenting, and assessing to provide a link between an educational practitioner's knowledge and competence (p. 4). Finally comes application. Because reflection has opened up possible new actions, these can now be incorporated into one's teaching. It is the reconciliation of belief with behavior that leads to application; the procedure can be described as "cyclical and dynamic" (p. 4).

This growth process, developed through self-reflection, is absolutely linked to the concept of teaching style. Heimlich and Norland say that teaching style has many definitions and point out several of them: a hypothetical construct; a classroom mode; a pattern composed of classroom behaviors; a complex of personal attitudes, traits, and behaviors, and the media used to transmit data; and "overall traits and qualities that a teacher displays in the classroom and that are consistent for various situations" (p. 6). Such definitions show that teaching style is "something multidimensional, dynamic, and containing a planned logic of organization" (p. 7).

Many researchers have developed various classification systems for teaching styles. Most are based on personal characteristics of teachers (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 43). Lenz in 1982 theorized on two broad styles, proactive and reactive. She felt these came from the psychological bases of learner centered and teacher centered (p. 41). Conti has elaborated on these two categories by expressing that although each teacher has a unique style, a prevailing view of teaching styles offers these two broad categories. Teachers may run anywhere along the continuum from one to the other in their practice of these styles (Conti, 1989b, p. 311). Both of these approaches find their roots in the philosophies of adult education (p. 311).

The teacher-centered approach holds that the teacher is the center of the classroom environment (Conti, 1989b). At the far end of this approach is the passive student whose learning is dependent on the teacher's actions in the classroom. The teacher is the manager of the learning environment and

determines learning objectives, develops activities to meet these objectives, and decides on evaluative criteria. Usually student evaluation will include some type of norm-referenced or criterion-referenced testing that provides the measurable means to indicate fulfillment of course objectives (p. 314). This "teacher-centered approach is currently the dominant approach throughout all levels of education in North America" (p. 314).

In the learner-centered classroom, it is the learner and his/her needs which are most important. The learner-centered approach assumes that learners are proactive, are self-directed and self-motivated, and have unlimited potential to develop. The teacher is a facilitator who tries to meet individual needs as perceived by the students. The teacher serves more on a level equal with the student, acts as a resource, and trusts learners to pursue their own educational goals (Conti, 1989b, p. 315). Curriculum is based on problems and actual situations within a student's own life and not on a predetermined course with specific information to be absorbed (Conti, 1985a, p. 7). Evaluation is not formal as with the teacher-centered style but is accomplished more through self-evaluation and constructive, informal feedback from the teacher. The adult education literature supports the collaborative approach (Conti, 1989b, p. 314).

"Philosophical beliefs are translated into action in the classroom through the teacher's individual teaching style" (Conti, 1989, p. 4). Teachers enter their professions with their own teaching styles which are the actual classroom behaviors that apply what they value and believe (Conti & Welborn, 1986, p. 20). These beliefs are "related to various philosophical schools of educational

thought" (Conti, 1989, p. 313). Therefore, a person's "educational philosophy will be a crucial factor" (Conti, 1985a, p. 8) in determining teaching style. As part of his continuing research into teaching styles, Conti has developed the Principles of Adult Learning so that the adult education teacher can assess his/her teaching style in line with the teacher-centered and learner-centered categorization.

Other scholars also classify teaching style by teacher characteristics. Boone, for example, believes that it is a teacher's philosophy that defines style and that that philosophy would be based on the teacher's personal beliefs, values, goals combined with his/her professional beliefs, values, goals (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 43). Ryans held a similar theory that the background of the educator is what contributes to teaching style. If a teacher came from an middle- or upper-class environment, that teacher would have higher levels of originality and imagination (p. 44). Other personal factors may affect teaching style, such as an educator's previous experience, needs for such things as dominance and achievement, social roles, and personal goals (p. 44).

Jarvis describes three teacher styles (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). The didactic would be the teacher-controlled far end of the continuum; the area around the center would be the Socratic method with teacher direction but more student response; and the facilitative at the other end of the continuum where the student carries the responsibility to selection of learning content and ensuing learning (p. 45).

Hardy and Dressel identify four teacher styles, according to what is the "center" of the classroom: (1) discipline centered which is a formal, scholarly-type

setting where the professor is seen as the authority, he/she imposes the standards, and lectures are most common; (2) instructor centered where content is based on the instructor's preferences, assignments reflect his/her interests, students are seen as the "audience," and the professor is recognized as the authority; (3) student-centered cognitive where the goal is intellectual maturation of the student, the content is interesting and stimulating; and methods such as Socrataic dialogue, discussion, experiments, lectures, and demonstrations are designed to force students to think; participation is encouraged, and the teacher encourages student emulation; and (4) student-centered affective which sees the personal, social, and intellectual development of the learner as primary and where intensive interaction is encouraged and students evaluate themselves (Dressel & Marcus, 1982, p. 2).

Dressel and Marcus (1982) maintain that most teaching styles are made unconsciously or by "conscious imitation of former teachers and colleagues and influenced by fortuitous circumstances and various institutional pressures" (p. 4). They also postulate that teachers generally do not fit in one main category but shift in teaching style as content, course levels, and students change (p. 12). Their purpose in describing their categorizations are the same as for Heimlich and Norland: "To improve teaching and learning by making teachers more conscious of their stances" (p. 13) so they can critically assess their practices, their underlying values, and reduce the tendency to imitate actions of other professionals or fall into the same patterns of teaching which may be used repeatedly (p. 13).

Apps (1991) speaks of the many approaches one can use to become a master teacher which include keeping current within one's area of expertise, continually organizing teaching materials, improving on feedback procedures, utilizing more effective time management skills. However, he reminds the practitioner that even more than these is needed; thinking as a teacher is required and an important segment of this is teaching style. He refers to teaching style as "the sum of everything you do as a teacher" (p. 23) which would include simple things such as use of hands/voice and interaction with learners. He explains that one's teaching style is part of a person's beliefs and values and is unique to each individual, like fingerprints. He clarifies that a master teacher is always trying to improve one's teaching style to become a more effective educator whether that might mean trying to do more individualizing to accommodate various learning style of adults, striving to more fully meet the needs of various cultural groups of learners, gaining more of a resource of current knowledge, or whatever else it might take to search for better ways to enhance the realm of education (p. 23).

Apps (1991) has an interesting approach for a teacher to find his/her teaching style and that is to draw a picture of oneself working as a teacher. He says that the picture will usually fall into these categories: (a) a lamplighter who tries to illuminate a learner's mind; (b) a gardener whose goal is to nourish, enhance, remove, and watch; (c) a muscle builder who attempts to exercise minds; (d) a bucket filler who sees a teacher's goal as dispensing of needed information; (e) a challenger who continually questions learners to develop critical

thinking abilities; (f) a travel guide who facilitates learners along the educational path; (g) a factory supervisor who consistently supervises the learning process; (h) an artist who turns the learning process into an aesthetic experience; (i) an applied scientist who see the scientific research process as the basis for teaching; and (j) a craftsperson who uses a variety of teaching skills and incorporates into teaching/learning an artistic degree (pp. 23-24). Apps elaborates on some of the "problems" associated with these terms but concludes that he believes a master teacher is a challenger, travel guide, gardener, craftsperson, or a combination of these (pp. 24-25).

The above categories can be considered as styles based on teacher characteristics, but Heimlich and Norland also cite styles that are based on characteristics of learners. Dunn and Dunn, for instance, maintain that an educator should adapt one's teaching style to the learning styles of the students. However, this seems to be a contradiction of what is meant by style since it is unique and belongs to a teacher (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 45). Rather than change personality because of students, teachers can adapt methods and techniques more consistent with their individual teaching styles (1994, p. 45).

Heimlich and Norland (1994) have determined from their research what many other scholars have concluded regarding teaching style. They believe that a teacher's style is implementing one's philosophy (p. 40). It comes from many facets of a person's life: experiences as a teacher, a learner; one's formal education; a person's likes and dislikes; and someone's background and environment—everything that makes a person a unique individual. What they

purport is that, no matter what style an educator has, consistency and clarity in using that style are what are important (p. 40).

Heimlich and Norland agree that there is no consistent definition which comes out of researching the literature of what teaching style really is. They concur with Conti (1985) that no one style is better than another and with Conti and Fellenz (1988) that "an educator with a well-defined style of any sort creates the best environment for learning" (p. 44).

An awareness of teaching style can help an instructor become a better educator (Conti, 1985a). Knowledge of one's style will help the teacher understand what has contributed to instructor behavior in the classroom (p. 8). Identifying one's teaching style can uncover areas where the teacher is strong and areas which may be weak but can be improved in future practice (Conti, 1985a, p. 8). Adult educators who are aware of their teaching orientations are also in a better position to adjust their styles to meet the needs of adult learners (Stickney-Taylor & Sasse, 1990, p. 78). "Why do I do what I do?" is a critical question which can lead not only to understanding but to change. Such introspection can move a person toward becoming a professional teacher, one who not only enjoys what he or she does, but also understands why it is done and is committed to enhancement. Improvement can result because teaching styles can be modified and changed (Galbraith & Sanders, 1987, p. 171).

Heimlich and Norland echo these ideas. They specifically talk of two types of growth that can come about by examining one's teaching style. First is movement toward congruence which is aligning one's beliefs and values with

behavior or the consistency alluded to above. This alignment is internal coming from introspection and moves one to the next type of growth, that of expansion or a "stretching beyond current beliefs, skills, abilities, habits, and preferences toward a more desired state" (1994, p. 8). Expansion is external because it involves comparing one's characteristics with current and desirable attributes practiced by other adult educators. Of course, expansion points to "purposeful change" (p. 8) and is ever enlarging because one must work toward change and improvement for the rest of life (we never arrive!) (p. 17).

Adult educators who do not allow their behavior to represent their values and attitudes undermine the potential for their style to become more than the sum of the parts. Teachers who uncover their underlying beliefs, recognize their own behaviors, and work to make the two congruent will experience a freedom that allows them to explore, reflect, apply, and grow in ways that they may never have experienced before. (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 11)

"Teaching style" as such may appear to be complex in light of all the research and writing which has been done on it; however, it seems clear that coming to understand teaching style and its ramifications can open up an ever-enlarging opportunity for improvement and growth of the adult educator.

Adult Learners in Higher Education

Adult learners are found in a plethora of environments. Apps (1992) attempts to categorize the diverse educational programs available to adult learners, who range from those still in their teens to those beyond their 80s. Offerings include programs for literacy, job-related improvement, general community interest, and degrees. Providers vary and include such diverse

organizations as cooperative extension agencies, libraries, museums, service groups, correspondence schools, technical college, colleges, and universities; the list could easily be enlarged (p. 20). The majority of adults are continuously engaged in adult education which takes many forms and settings (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 119). "There are...no limits to the 'curriculum' of adult education" (p. 123) because it is "intimately connected to real life" (p. 124). Adult reasons for learning include desires to increase one's knowledge, to advance in occupation skills, to improve citizenship, to meet others, to become a more effective individual in one's personal life. Classes, then, are subsequently found wherever the adult is found: "On computer trains, submarines, and luxury liners; ...in hotels, museums, libraries, factories, churches...homes...hospitals, office buildings, community centers, stores, and a host of other settings" (p. 126).

Various scholars attempt to categorize adult education learning environments. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) term "classroom scenes" (p. 22) as formal settings and use four classifications of Knowles in their discussion of adult learning institutions: (1) independent organizations which include community-based groups, (2) educational institutions which would involve public colleges and universities, (3) quasi-educational organizations such as museum educational opportunities, and (4) noneducational organizations like business and industry training programs (p. 23). They explain that in using these formal designations, they consider them to be to a high degree "instructor designed and directed" (p. 26).

Apps (1992) cites a categorization done by the U. S. Department of Education which divides adult education into nine categories:

- 1) four-year colleges and universities;
- 2) two-year community colleges, junior colleges, and technical institutes;
- 3) vocational, trade, and business schools including hospitals;
- 4) elementary and high schools;
- 5) other schools;
- 6) private community organizations such as churches, synagogues, YMCA, and Red Cross;
- 7) governmental agencies;
- 8) labor organizations and profession associations and
- 9) tutors, private instructors, and others (p. 19)

Once again, this classification does not include what have come to be wide self-directed learning settings for adults.

Apps (1992) has defined his own system to group adult education providers: (a) those which are tax supported, (b) those which are nonprofit, (c) providers which are for profit, and (d) non-organized educational opportunities (p. 19). He omits self-directed learning because he states this can be incorporated within any of his four classes (p. 20).

Certainly, the category of higher education falls within any system which categorizes adult education offerings. Higher education with its two-, four-year, and graduate level programs in college and university environments makes a wide variety of educational opportunities available. These include offerings not only on-campus but also through other means of transmission which include correspondence courses (through U. S. mail); interactive computer courses; satellite video; teleconferencing; and continuing/extension education programs which involve credit and non-credit courses, workshops, conferences, and other

avenues to reach the needs of communities and business and industry (Apps, 1992, p. 20) The trend has been and remains a much "greater flexibility in where and how adults can earn college and university degrees" and other educational offerings (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 164). This discussion will concentrate on campus degree-offering learning opportunities for adults of any ages from 18 up.

The college "culture," unique to universities, can be quite different from the environments of other adult education provider settings. For one thing, universities make particular requirements of their teachers. Most college instructors have regularly scheduled classrooms and periods with a minimum number of contact hours required for earned credit. Further, most college teachers are required to grade learners throughout the course and submit those grades for formal records (McKeachie, 1994, p. 6).

Each college, as well, has its unwritten rules not covered by formal regulations (McKeachie, 1994, p. 6). These rules differ from one institution to another and depend on such things as who operates the college or university. There may be certain limits upon class discussion in various subject areas. Also there may be limits as to the type of materials which are approved for use and which teaching methods are encouraged or mandated. So, there are certain boundaries within which instructors must work (p. 5) and which affect the way adult learning principles can be applied. Therefore, the college or university environment is unique from many other adult education learning environments and varies with different colleges. The philosophical position of an institution

which forms its personality makes each college unique. These positions are the basis for a university's creation and greatly "can set one institution apart from another" (Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1987, p. 4).

McKeachie also cites the limitations which may be imposed on students. Beyond what may be required in the way of entrance requirements, once admitted to a higher education facility, students must show certain levels of competency to remain and must show evidence of completion of various requirements to be admitted into certain disciplines and programs.

Knowles (1980) acknowledges the uniqueness of the higher education setting when he summarizes needs of the individual student, the instructor, and the institution (Chapter 6). Each has fundamental demands that should be addressed to meet the particular purposes and goals of any specific higher education environment as is evidenced by McKeachie's research cited above.

When scholars refer to groups as the student, the instructor, and the institution, they refer to the actual collegiate setting. Other researchers give various inputs into the college climate or environment. Eble (1972) cites the Gaff-Wilson study which identified three general aspects in the college environment: (a) nature of students, (b) character of faculty, and (c) policies/practices of the institution (p. 145). Increased diversity of the student body, not only in terms of age but in terms of races and cultures, means that teachers must face such issues by meeting varied needs of their wider range of students and drawing them all into the learning process which has moved for years toward interactive teaching (pp. 146-147). When he addresses the faculty,

he writes of the steady drift to specialization which has weakened the bonds within college departments and divisions. Also, faculty have many professional responsibilities beyond teaching, which include such things as service, community activities, and discipline-related research (pp. 154-155). In the third portion of the college environment, the institution, there is a lack of administrative support in areas such as teacher development where faculty, usually considered extensively trained in their academic disciplines, often do not receive any exposure to theory and practice of higher education through professional development opportunities (p. 160). Again, his discussion and views corroborate some unique aspects of institutions, faculty, and student body within the college setting.

It is important here to consider what are regarded by some to be the various purposes of higher education. Dressel and Marcus (1982) are succinct in their discussion of the purposes of higher education, that the sole purpose is to "inspire and assist learning that enables students to deal more effectively with personal and societal problems and that lends meaning to their world" (p. 202). They explain that learning's goal in the college setting is to make a learner independent so he/she knows how to become a lifelong learner with self-directed learning pursuits (p. 202). They see learning taking place through a developmental and maturation process aimed at independent, original, interpretative, understanding, communicating, analyzing, organizing, and prioritizing activities in their lives during, and even more so following, their formal college educations (pp. 25-27).

Eble (1983) is one authority who expounds greatly on such purposes when he says that, traditionally, the aims of American higher education have included: (a) developing civic responsibility, (b) expanding knowledge into practical application, (c) fostering cultural awareness and appreciation, and (d) teaching moral and ethical responsibility. He speaks of the first purpose as encompassing endorsement of democracy and embracing the importance of cooperation and group effort. Students need to learn that working together can be productive and satisfying, and that there are many dimensions to one's social responsibility. The practical aim of a college education is the avenue it provides toward moving the learner into an interesting, profitable, satisfying career which draws upon one's skills, attitudes, and knowledge gained in the college experience. Within the third purpose would fall the ideal of a lifelong positive impact that would come from going to college. Eble says this involves a fusing of learning with living and a development of the affective side of a learner where he/she learns to perceive, value, and discriminate; this aim is often connected with the humanities (Chapter 9).

A quote by John Adams in 1780 speaks of the softening of the lines of American culture through our history:

I must study politics and war that my sons may have liberty to study mathematics and philosophy. My sons ought to study mathematics and philosophy, geography, natural history and naval architecture, navigation, commerce and agriculture, in order to give their children a right to study painting, poetry, music, architecture, statuary, tapestry, and porcelain. (quoted in Eble, 1983, p. 152)

Although many would see this quote as countering the cognitive domain as time marches forward, it is noteworthy because it stresses the importance of the humanities moving mankind toward a refinement or civilizing process.

The last traditional purpose for higher education is that of students learning moral and ethical responsibilities (Eble, 1983, p. 154). Most American college teachers are uncomfortable with accepting any obligation to teach moral responsibilities, and yet generating such values plays a big part in developing persons who are fully functioning. "Genius without character is nothing; character without genius is nearly everything" (p. 154). A renowned scientist, Rene' Dubos, in 1981 said:

It may prove difficult to give young people the education that would prepare them for ways of life in which community spirit and some measure of self-sufficiency are as important as is now the acquisition and accumulations of money...In future societies, the most valuable people might be, not those with the greatest ability to produce material goods, but rather those who have the gift to spread good will and happiness through empathy and understanding. Such a gift may be innate in part but could certainly be enhanced by...education. (p. 156)

The aims of higher education are many. The challenges facing college instructors to meet such purposes are indeed great. It is also true "that an increasingly diverse learner population requires that higher education diversify its goals, methods, and curriculum in order to meet the needs of this population" (Greenberg, 1980, p. 103). The ultimate way to see whether the purposes of college education are met is to somehow evaluate teaching through the criterion of student learning (McKeachie, 1994, p. 313). McKeachie quotes John Dewey

who once said, "Teaching is like selling; you can't have a sale unless someone buys. You haven't taught unless someone has learned" (p. 313).

The importance of learning within the college setting cannot be overestimated. Dressel and Marcus (1982) believe "that cultivation of the intellect is the primary concern of education" (p. 9). Therefore, it follows that the adult student's learning be as effective as possible. "The success of teaching must be determined by whether and what the students learn" (p. 13). "Effective teaching depends on being responsive to the learners in the program, not to adults in general" (Knox, 1986, p. 38). This idea is recognized by Dressel and Marcus who say that "students emulate, assimilate, and learn in individual ways and often in ways not well understood by either the teachers or the students" (1982, p. 14).

A multitude of research has been done to prove that adult learners have various styles of learning. Thus, it follows that a good teacher will try to meet student needs with a variety of techniques to address many learning styles. Meeting such diverse needs suggests a learner-centered teaching style which comes from andragogical principles.

Besides all of the diverseness in adults, colleges and universities, specifically, are finding that the "traditional" student is no longer 18-22. About half of higher education students are 25 and older, so that there is a need for higher education to be more aware of adult learning principles (Apps, 1992, p. 20). As Dressel and Marcus maintain, difference in ages of adult learners means sharply different backgrounds and purposes for engaging in educational

programs in colleges. "If the teacher accepts responsibility for the students' learning, these differences among students must be taken into account. Learning objectives, instructional materials, and teaching methods should be adapted to individual differences in motivations and goals" (1982, p. 16). They comment that there are many professors who consider that teaching is going before a relatively homogeneous group of students in a classroom and "administer[ing] a carefully predetermined dose of information" (p. 16). However, not all students will learn with the lecture method and such a technique is not the best for undergraduate courses at colleges; active doing should be made more a part of a teacher's daily activities (Chapter 1). "Participation of learners [is] essential to learning and significant teaching" (Dressel & Marcus, 1982, p. 205). However, sometimes lecturing is necessary (p. 205).

Sweeney (1988), for example, emphasizes that because of the variety adults bring to higher education, the classroom instructor often moves from professor to facilitator, back and forth as is necessary. The teacher will act as a facilitator to provide a questioning and critical thinking environment yet will become a professor when the need arises to provide timely concepts and add to the learners' knowledge base within a particular discipline. Then the professor may move back into the facilitator mode as he/she uses methods which focus on principles of andragogy (pp. 9-10).

A college professor has the immense but rewarding challenge of finding ways to provide a climate that will support adult learning principles. This is accomplished by surveying concepts supporting andragogy in course design. To

review the basic principles of learner centered, more self-directing learning, andragogy supports a more informal and supportive climate; allows for learners to participate in decision-making, diagnosing needs, and setting goals; designs, cooperatively, learning content in terms of readiness; encourages experimental and inquiry projects as well as independent study; and offers mutual assessment/evaluation (Sweeney, 1988, p. 10).

These adult learning principles suggest several considerations for the higher education practitioner: involving students in choosing the learning approach, incorporating self-directed learning into learning activities, using few lectures and emphasizing discussion, trying interactive methods like case studies and role playing, making sure that content and resources fit assessed needs, allowing necessary time for completion of learning activities, including application for relating activities to daily lives, promoting affirming of learners' experience, giving learners a reason to be involved in the learning activities, promoting interpersonal associations among students, diagnosing and prioritizing needs and preferences as an ongoing process, making learner evaluation self-directed, using small discussion groups to provide readiness for whole classroom interchange, and providing for cognitive and affective activities and chances for behavioral change (Sweeney, 1988, pp. 11-12). At a teaching effectiveness symposium in 1988 one scholar suggested that at higher education institutions professors should take a good look at their pedagogy and ascertain if they are using teaching methods and techniques that meet the learning needs of adults who are a part of the college setting (Jones & Woodcock, 1985, pp. 100-101).

It would seem evident that with the diversity of adult learners who are enrolled in higher education programs, every higher education professional should not only take a good look at methodological approaches to their teaching but also consider adult development and other adult education principles. Such reflection and subsequent movement toward improvement seem a positive way to benefit and approve adult learners within the higher education settings.

It is not that professors should not hold to elements of the lecture for it serves a vital purpose in the dissemination of theoretical concepts and expansion of the knowledge base of students. However, if they are indeed professionals, they should try to enhance their teaching by applying various methodologies which will support the unique learning needs and learning styles of adult students within the college culture.

Community and Private Colleges

The United States has one of the largest systems of higher education in the world. It has long invested heavily in the private sector of education; in fact, both its impressive public colleges and universities and those institutions that are privately owned and operated have long stood side by side (Geiger, 1986, p. xi).

Many private colleges began as two-year schools and eventually became publicly supported as the need for education in America increased in the late 1800s (Ratcliff, 1994, p. 7). Such community or two-year colleges evolved from several movements in educational innovation: (a) local community supporters, (b) increase in university research, (c) growth and reorganization of the public

educational system, (d) professionalism of teacher education, (e) movement toward vocational education, (f) public access to higher education, and (g) the rise of adult and continuing education programs (p. 4). Such colleges have contributed greatly to America's adaptiveness and pragmatism (p. 3). There has been a "wide variation in mission, governance, finance, and structure of two-year colleges in the United States" (p. 4).

Throughout America's history, community colleges have been diverse and difficult to understand because of so many sources for funding and control (Ratcliff, 1994, p. 5). The confusion came from their diversity in types, roles, and missions (p. 5). In the 1800s it was sometimes hard to distinguish between the public and private community colleges. It was common for all of the citizens in a community to come together to help build an institution. For example, if the majority of people were Lutheran, the college would likely affiliate with that religion (p. 6). If there was no religious majority, the school was usually a public facility. By the late 1800s many smaller colleges began pragmatically to restrict their course offerings because of limited resources, and the American university, with research as its primary purpose, was restructured (p. 7).

Until 1951 private colleges and universities enrolled more students than public ones. However, after the war, there was a much greater need and desire for higher education (Geiger, 1986, p. 161). Two-year colleges began to reach full stature following World War II when such community services as education were promoted (Ratcliff, 1994, p. 14). When the baby boomers became of college age in the 1960s, there was an even greater avalanche of enrollments (p.

161). The 60s and 70s saw the community college move more from junior colleges, which were lower-division branches of private universities and two-year colleges under the auspices of churches and other private organizations, to institutions in the national spectrum with "community orientation[s], open-door admission, and comprehensive program[s]" (Bogart, 1994, p. 60).

The overall mission of the public two-year college is to meet the educational needs of the community and the curriculum derived "from a continuing assessment of the educational needs of the people in the community" (Gleazer, 1994, p. 19). There is a tremendous variety in our country's community colleges, however, and their mission statements vary greatly (Bogart, 1994, p. 61). Mission statements are crucial documents because they reflect the explicit and focused purpose of a college (p. 63).

Whether stated formally in writing, articulated informally in conversations, or simply understood implicitly, the mission and philosophy of a community college shape the context for decision-making. When members of the organization share compatible philosophies and hold clear understandings of institutional mission, decisions are more readily arrived at than in places where fundamental differences about philosophy and conflicting understandings of mission exist among leaders and others in the organization. (Fryer & Lovas, 1990, p. 28)

Comprehensive community college mission statements generally include (a) career education, (b) compensatory education, (c) community education, (d) collegiate function, and (e) general education (Bogart, 1994, p. 64).

Private junior colleges have usually been established to emphasize narrow and specific educational objectives (Blocker, Plummer, & Richardson, 1965, p. 39). They attempt to distinguish themselves to reflect ideas of their sponsors and

attract students they want to serve. When colleges have a religious affiliation, they function with direction from that church (p. 39). "Church-related colleges are organized and operated with the avowed purpose of propagating the faith and preparing future leaders for the organization" (p. 40).

The private college can be much narrower in its mission than most public schools of higher education which aim first to meet the needs of all citizens (Geiger, 1986, p. 235). Typical purposes might include emphasis on a religious conviction, critical thinking, high scholarship, and cultural development (Blocker, Plummer, & Richardson, 1965, p. 40). Enrollment requirements and course offerings can be geared to specific private institutions which have been founded on certain philosophies or purposes critical to their individual missions (Eble, 1972, p. 157). In order to maintain themselves, these private schools must define their missions and fulfill their tasks effectively (Geiger, 1986, p. 235). Governance and decision-making influence mission and vice versa (p. 64).

The American private sector in higher education is the world's largest and also the most complex (Geiger, 1986, p. 161). Some 440 of the 1,408 two-year colleges in America are termed private schools (Bogart, 1994, p. 61). These institutions, though perhaps not the force they were in the 1800s and early 20th Century, offer many alternatives in the pursuit of advanced education (Geiger, 1986, p. 241). Their existence benefits the society they serve. In America privately controlled institutions of higher learning "enhance freedom and openness" (p. 254).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Design

This descriptive study utilized a case study design. A case study is but one way to investigate a problem in a systematic way. As one type of nonexperimental research, it is descriptive research where treatments or subjects are not manipulated (Merriam, 1988, p. 7). In one form it can examine a certain phenomenon like a program or institution.

A case study represents a workable and pragmatic method to address a specific experience in a selected environment, and this can yield worthwhile interpretation and understanding (Merriam, 1988, p. 20). A case study "offers a means of investigating complex social units consisting of multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon" (p. 32). Through specificity a case study can add general information to a field's base of knowledge. Particularly conducive to education, case study research brings understanding which can improve practices in teaching and learning (p. 32). If a case study can answer the researcher's questions, its practical application moving toward improvements in practice is a significant reason to choose this method.

The case study approach has been a valuable design to use for this study at Ricks College because Ricks is a unique educational institution, the largest private two-year college in America. Using this method is appropriate in that it has allowed investigation of specific beliefs and practices at Ricks which may illuminate a problem existing in other institutions of higher learning. A significant reason for this study is the enrichment of adult learning at Ricks College through faculty improvement. A case study is an excellent way to improve educational practices, and what can benefit this facility can do the same for others.

History of Setting and Population

One might say that Ricks College began with the first Mormon incursion into Idaho in 1855 when Brigham Young sent missionaries to the Indians at a site near what is now Salmon, Idaho (Roundy, 1975, p. 1). Two years later when some 200 Indians attacked the Mormon settlement, a rescue party of 150 men were sent to help the Salmon River colony. Among them was Thomas E. Ricks (see Figure 1) who at that time had his first look at the Snake River Valley, would later return to colonize, and whose name would be given to a college (p. 2). However, it was not until 1883 that Ricks, along with other pioneers, chose the site of present-day Rexburg, Idaho, for a town (p. 5). The influx of Mormon settlers brought the need for educational institutions of which Ricks College became a part (p. 7).

The establishment was not an easy one, however. The Idaho Test Oath Act was passed by the territorial legislature, resulting in disfranchisement and



Figure 1. Thomas E. Ricks, founder and chairman of the school's first Board of Education.

denying any rights in running public schools to this religious group of settlers (Roundy, 1975, p. 12). Out of a long struggle emerged a system of private academies where religion could be interspersed with secular subjects. A full-fledged academy was established in a log cabin in Rexburg, Idaho, in 1888 (see Figure 2) and named Bannock Academy (p. 25). The curriculum, though aimed at the elementary grades, shifted to high school level instruction in 1898 when the state began to accept responsibility for elementary education of its children (p. 59).

In the early 1900s Ricks Academy made the move from a high-school curricula to an institution offering college work (see Figure 3). This shift allowed the academy to survive yet another round of closures for other church educational facilities that could not compete financially with the state (Roundy, 1975, p. 81). Ricks Academy became Ricks Normal College in 1917, and the state of Idaho granted certification to allow graduates to teach school (p. 93). Due to added emphasis placed on college courses, Ricks Normal College became Ricks College in 1923 and retains that name today from Thomas E. Ricks, early church settler and leader in southeastern Idaho. With accreditation Ricks began to show signs of a mature junior college and participated in debates and athletic competitions (p. 108).

During the 1920s, financial strain on the church precipitated a movement to give its junior colleges to their respective states for operation (Roundy, 1975, p. 110). Church colleges in Utah and Arizona did turn their schools over to state governments; however, in Idaho legislators repeatedly refused to vote in favor of

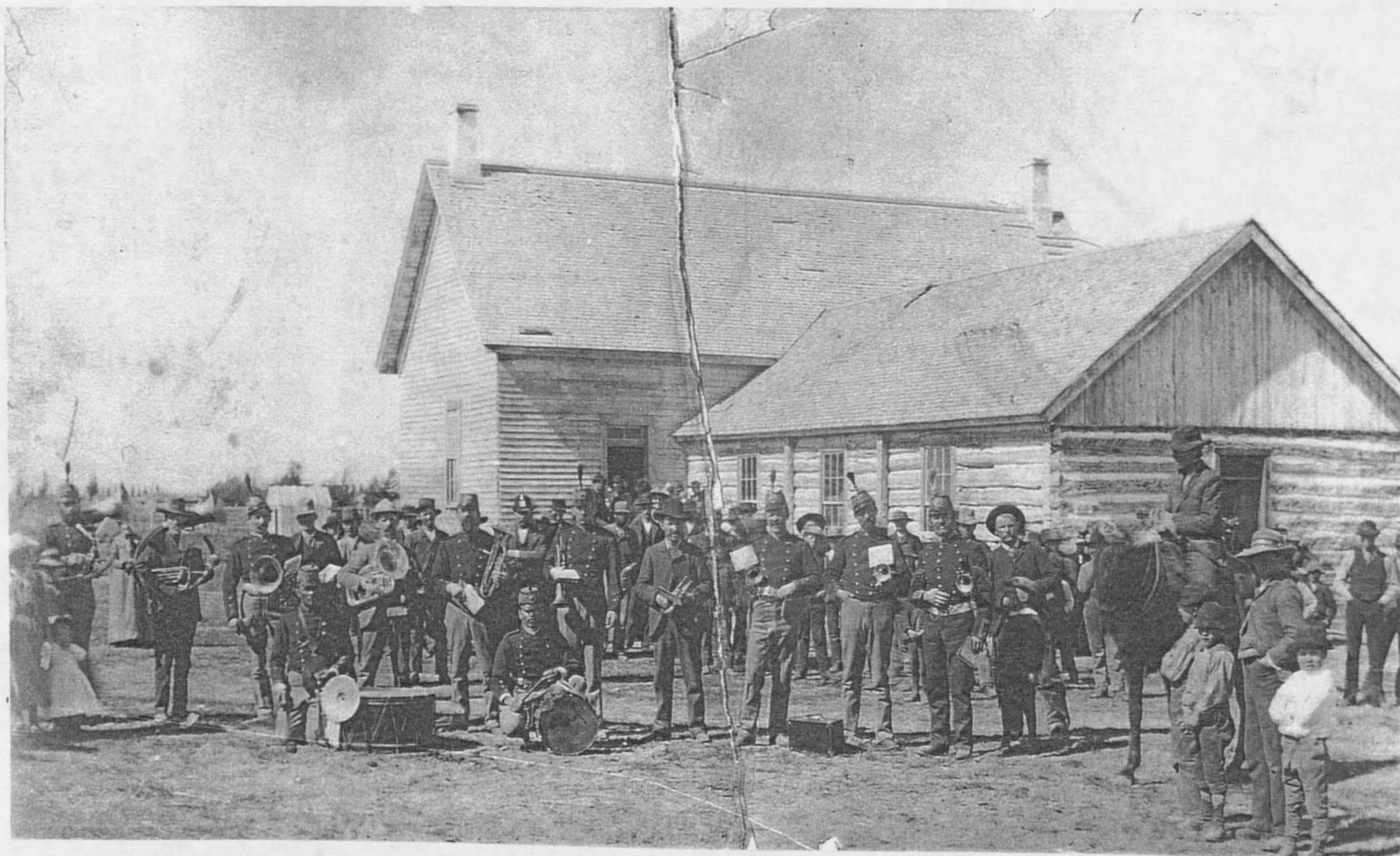
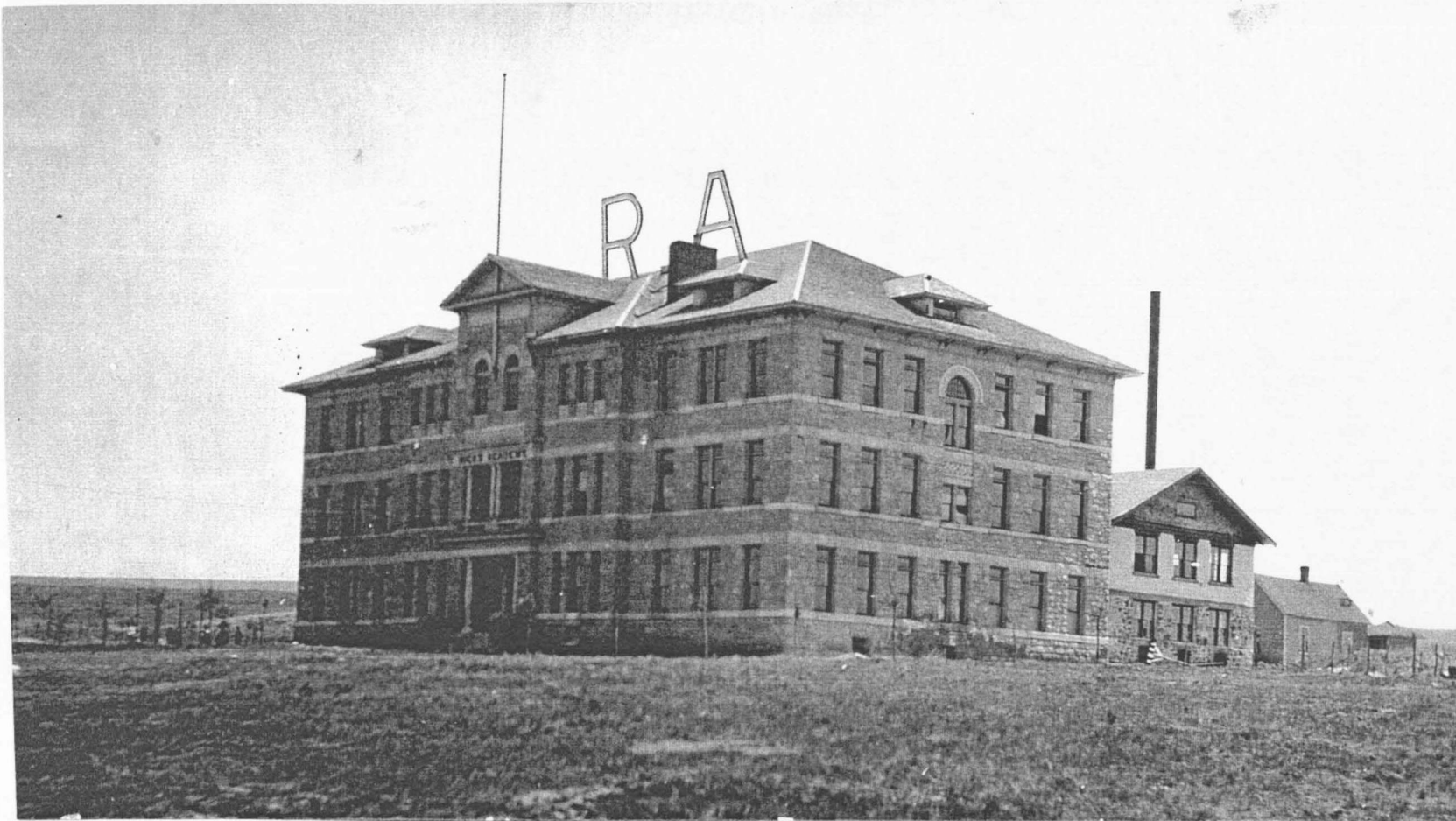


Figure 2. The first "campus" in 1888.



65

Figure 3. Ricks Academy (1916) with illuminated "RA" which could be seen throughout the valley.

receiving such a donation. One main reason for this was likely that Idaho State College (now Idaho State University) at Pocatello was seeking four-year status at the time and competition for future growth and appropriations was viewed as a possible problem (p. 122). Another reason was that there was a financial depression in Idaho and the nation during this period; many legislators felt the state could not add to public expenses (p. 124).

The battle over the state's acceptance of Ricks College as a donation from The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon) continued for many years. During this critical time, it was the presidency of the church, the generosity of the general board of education, the faculty, administration, and local patrons working together who kept it open and operational. The final defeat in the attempt to turn the school over to the state came in 1937 as the senate once again voted not to assume operation of Ricks (Roundy, 1975, p. 149). By this time, however, a new spirit of support to keep Ricks running as a church school seemed to pervade: Ricks had become fully accredited by the Northwest Accrediting Association, the state board of education, and other universities; athletic teams were posting good records; enrollment was up; church leaders were showing support for the school. All of this had Rexburg citizens euphoric (p. 150).

By 1938 Ricks was considered a church college rather than an area academy; a new administration placed Ricks directly under the church's commission of education and the general church board in Salt Lake City (Roundy, 1975, p. 154). For several years during the 1940s and until 1956,

Ricks operated as a four-year college. However, in 1956 it was changed back to its two-year status because of what might seem to be a competition between Ricks and the church's Brigham Young University at Provo, Utah. At this time major building programs were in progress in Provo, and it was not the church leaders' desire to draw any more heavily upon the financial resources to escalate the growth of Ricks beyond a two-year institution (Roundy, 1975, p. 183).

Another traumatic period in the college's history followed the movement of Ricks back to junior college status. During the 1950s, rumors were rampant that Ricks would be moved some 30 miles south to Idaho Falls (Roundy, 1975, p. 187). Rexburg citizens felt this would be the last straw in their ongoing battle to keep and support the church school. Much of the struggle that ensued was emotional; the complete story of this time frame cannot be written since official records of the general board of education of the church are closed to public view (p. 188). Building construction was put on hold, rumors escalated, and the community banded together to fight for what they had built and supported since pioneer times (p. 190). Several years passed and finally in 1962 president of the church, David O. McKay, announced further college building projects for Ricks which seemed to cement Rexburg as its permanent home (Roundy, 1975, p. 247).

Today Ricks College, operated by The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, is located in Rexburg, Idaho, a city of 14,298, and is the largest private two-year college in the United States (see Figure 4). It has a comprehensive liberal arts, vocational, and scientific curriculum consisting of



Figure 4. A 1997 aerial view of the Ricks College campus, Rexburg, Idaho.

approximately 1,000 courses, 150 majors, and 40 career programs. The college offers 86 associate degree programs in arts and science, 40 associate degrees in specialized disciplines, seven one- or two-year certificate programs, a three-year interior design program, and a baccalaureate degree in nursing. With an ongoing enrollment ceiling of 7,500 full-time students, all 50 states and approximately 40 foreign countries are represented in the student body.

The mission statement of Ricks College (see Appendix D) makes it a unique institution of higher learning. Its mission is to: (a) build testimonies of the restored gospel of Jesus Christ and encourage living its principles; (b) provide a quality education for students of diverse interests and abilities; (c) prepare students for further education and employment, and for their roles as citizens and parents; and (d) maintain a wholesome academic, cultural, social and spiritual environment.

The college has approximately 335 full-time faculty members; ninety-two percent of these have either masters degrees or doctorates. Approximately another 25 are part-time faculty members. The office of the academic vice president for instruction provided a list of full- and part-time faculty members; the total population of full- and part-time instructors (approximately 360) was contacted and asked to participate in this study. The sample for this study consisted of the 167 respondents who returned the instruments (see Table 1).

Table 1. Distribution of Respondents by Demographic Variables.

Age	Frequency	Percent
To 39	34	20
40-49	50	30
50-59	56	34
over 60	27	16
Gender	Frequency	Percent
female	47	28
male	120	72
Education Classes	Frequency	Percent
4 + classes	81	48
2-3 classes	40	24
1 class	16	10
no formal classes	30	18
College Division	Frequency	Percent
Other (ag, bus, eng.)	15	9
Behavioral/Soc. Sci.	11	7
Education	25	15
Humanities	48	29
Natural Science	36	22
Performing/Fine Arts	15	9
Religious/Fam. Living	17	10

Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory

Description

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI), developed by Zinn, was used to determine faculty members' philosophical orientations (see Appendix A). It includes 15 items with 5 responses for each or a total of 75 responses and takes about 20 minutes to complete. The inventory is self-administered. Each of the 15 major items begins with an incomplete sentence which is followed by five possible sentence completions, Likert-scaled. Each sentence completion has a Likert-scale response which ranges from 1 to 7 on a continuum of Strongly Disagree to Neutral to Strongly Agree. The respondent circles the number which corresponds to the degree of agreement with each sentence completion. The highest score on any of the philosophies indicates a preference for that orientation (Zinn, 1995, p. 60). Each sentence completion is characteristic of one of the five adult education philosophies labeled and expounded by Elias and Merriam as Liberal, Behaviorist, Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical.

In scoring the PAEI, item numbers are added for a score in each orientation. The highest score shows a philosophy choice that is closest to a person's beliefs, and the lowest score will reflect a philosophical orientation farthest from a person's preference. Zinn indicates that a total score of 95-105 indicates a strong preference for a philosophy; a score of 15-25 shows a strong disagreement for that school of thought. A score midway at 55-65 usually means

neither a strong agreement or disagreement with one of the educational philosophies (Zinn, 1991, pp. 74-75).

Validity

Validity can be defined as the degree to which a test will measure what it is designed to measure. This process enables suitable interpretation of scores (Gay, 1996, p. 138). Content validity concerns the measure of an intended content area. It requires item validity, which is whether test items represent a measure within the intended content area, and sampling validity, which concerns whether the test appropriately samples the total content area (p. 139). Content validity is judged by experts who review the process used to develop the test and judge how well items represent the intended content area (p. 140).

The content validity of the PAEI was established through the testimony of a jury of experts who were considered knowledgeable in adult education philosophy. The statistical analysis of their responses showed a high content validity for the PAEI through separate item analysis (Zinn, 1983, pp. 145-146). Individual response options confirmed representation of particular philosophies as assigned by Zinn (p. 146).

Construct validity is a measure of the intended hypothetical construct; a construct is a nonobservable trait (Gay, 1996, p. 140). A test of a construct is validated by "testing hypotheses deduced from a theory concerning the construct" (p. 141). Usually many independent studies are required to establish credibility of a construct test (p. 141).

A factor analysis procedure was used to statistically test construct validity (Zinn, 1983, p. 148). Individual response items showed a majority "had a moderate to high common factor variance ($> .50$), indicating that they were both valid and reliable measures for the inventory" (p. 150). This data confirmed the findings of the select jury that the PAEI is a valid way to identify a person's adult education personal philosophy (p. 150).

Reliability

Reliability is much easier to assess than validity (Gay, 1996, p. 14). It refers to how well a test measures what it is expected to measure. There are several kinds of reliability such as test-retest which evaluates score consistency over time and equivalent-forms validity that consists of two identical tests except for the actual items (pp. 146-147). A high coefficient shows high reliability (p. 145).

The reliability measures for the instrument were designed to determine if the PAEI is an accurate measurement of adult education philosophy and if similar scores would be evident if the instrument was retaken under same or comparable conditions (Zinn, 1983, p. 151). Zinn reported confirming reliability by correlating each item to the total score for each philosophical scale. One hundred and ninety-four respondents in various areas of adult education, including administrators, teachers, consultants, program coordinators, and graduate students, provided responses which tested reliability through a test/retest method (p. 151).

In summary, testing showed the PAEI to be a "valid and reliable instrument that can be used to identify one's personal philosophy of adult education and compare it with prevailing philosophies" (Zinn, 1983, p. 154) and that the instrument can help adult educators reflect on their philosophies and subsequent actions (p. 155). The instrument was designed to stimulate exploration that might lead to improvement in the field's areas of instructional content, teaching and learning objectives, instructional materials, interaction between teacher and learner, and educational outcomes (p. 155).

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

Description

Teaching style in adult education was measured with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) (see Appendix A). It is self-administered, has 44 items, and can be completed in about 10 minutes. Each of the 44 statements is answered by circling a number from 0 to 5 which corresponds as follows: 0--Always, 1--Almost Always, 2--Often, 3--Seldom, 4--Almost Never, and 5--Never. The items comprise seven factors: Learner-Centered Activities, Personalizing Instruction, Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, Climate Building, Participation in the Learning Process, and Flexibility for Personal Development (Conti, 1991, pp. 84-85). A high score on PALS indicates a preference for the learner-centered teaching style; conversely, a low score indicates a preference for a teacher-centered style (Conti, 1991, p. 83).

In scoring the PALS inventory, the total score is a sum of all item responses. Factor scores are the sum of the value of all responses in that factor. Scores range from 0 to 220 with scores above the mean of 146 indicating support of a learner-centered approach. Most scores are between 126 and 166. Those below 146 show support of a teacher-centered mode. High scores for any specific factor show support for principles of a learner-centered style (Conti, 1991, p. 83).

Validity

The construct validity of PALS was established by the testimony of two juries. After a jury of three local adult educators had reviewed the instrument, it was analyzed by a national jury composed of 10 adult education professors. Seventy-eight percent of these jurors found the concepts of each of the 44 items to be congruent with adult education learning principles supportive of the collaborative mode (Conti, 1982, p. 141). The construct validity of PALS has also later been confirmed by factor analysis (Conti, 1983, p. 66).

The content validity of PALS was established in two phases from field testing done in public adult basic education programs. Data and information led to instrument improvement. To confirm that each individual item contributed to the overall score, each item was correlated to the total score. Pearson correlations showed that "25 items were significant at the .001 level, eight at the .01 level, seven at the .05 level, and four at the .10 level. Of these 44 acceptable items, 24 were positive and 20 were negative" (Conti, 1982, p. 141).

Comparing instrument scores with "one or more external criteria which are considered to provide a direct measure of the characteristic or behavior in question" (Conti, 1978, p. 55) is the demonstration of criterion-related validity, a relationship of scores on an instrument with an independent external measure (p. 55). Criterion-related validity was accomplished by identification of initiating and responsive actions in PALS's items and comparing these to scores of Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (Conti, 1982, p. 142). High correlations confirmed PALS's ability to differentiate among divergent views concerning initiating and responsive constructs (p. 142). This validity testing also showed consistent existence of a significant level of "congruency between professing to support a teaching-learning mode on PALS and actually practicing behaviors characteristic of the mode in the classroom" (p. 142).

Reliability

The reliability of PALS was established by the test-retest method with a group of adult basic educators. The reliability coefficient for the group was .92 (Conti, 1982, p. 142). Social desirability scores were also examined (p. 142). Social desirability concerns the way in which a respondent might answer items on an attitude or personality survey. If a person gave responses based on what other people might find acceptable, the scores would not measure content and would be biased (Conti, 1978, p. 69). Various interview settings were employed which indicated intended interpretation for the 44 items (p. 143).

Thus, PALS is a valid and reliable instrument that is easy to complete and which can be used as a diagnostic tool to measure one's teaching style in relationship to the adult education literature. Since its creation in 1972, PALS has been utilized in numerous research studies and training mediums which further show the "descriptive statistics produced...are stable and can be used for interpreting individual scores on PALS" (Conti, 1982, p. 143). It can be used successfully in research studies and as a basis for individual and group inservice training activities aimed at the improvement of adult education (Conti, 1982, p. 145).

Research Procedures

The staff and administration of Ricks College were involved in planning this study and supporting it. Initially, the proposal for this study was discussed with the Ricks College academic vice president who enthusiastically received the idea and referred the researcher to the assistant academic vice president for instruction, responsible for instructional development of the faculty. He was extremely supportive and hopeful that this research could be used by the college for instructor development programs and for the next accreditation. He suggested the researcher get approval from the faculty association representative who likewise was supportive. The assistant academic vice president for instruction presented the overall concept of the project to division chairpersons of the college so they would be aware of the study and supportive of its eventual benefits to individual faculty and the institution as a whole. The

researcher received approval for and subsequently wrote an article for the campus-wide faculty and staff bulletin further explaining the study, addressing its possible benefits to the college, and asking for support.

The office of the academic vice president for instruction provided a list of full- and part-time faculty members to the researcher who prepared an introductory letter of explanation requesting support in completion of the inventories (see Appendix B). There was a section of the letter to be returned to the researcher which would identify the volunteers willing to participate in the project. Each faculty member who responded positively was sent a mailing of the two inventories plus a personal data sheet requesting information on age, gender, formal classes of teaching methodologies completed, and areas of teaching experience (see Appendix A).

The campus mailing system was utilized. Social security numbers were requested on the inventories to later allow a possible merging of the data with the college's faculty database for further studies by the administration. Chronological tracking numbers were assigned to instruments; those numbers were utilized only for questionnaire mailing, tabulations, and follow-up purposes. Participants were assured of confidentiality. Three weeks following the initial letter, a follow-up letter was sent to those faculty members who had not responded either positively or negatively to the first. A follow-up letter was also utilized for those participants who had been mailed the instruments but had failed to return them by the suggested date (see Appendix B).

Of the 196 who were sent instruments, 167 persons returned them by the requested date of March 21, 1997. Data was entered into a computer database to calculate responses.

Following this, the researcher conducted two workshops for faculty where individual printouts of instrument scores were provided to participants. A general summary of the research data and explanation of its significance were given in a PowerPoint demonstration. The researcher also talked to the groups about the value of utilizing the information disseminated for classroom improvement. Discussion was valuable and feedback was positive (see Appendix C).

Summary

This investigation was accomplished using a case study approach to ascertain adult education philosophical orientations and teaching styles of Ricks College faculty using two reliable and validated instruments, the PAEI and PALS. A case study is a practical approach which can yield understanding of an improvement in current practice in a specific setting with replication possible in many other adult educator environments. Descriptions of Zinn's and Conti's surveys and information on their validity and reliability show them to be useful and accurate instruments to give the information desired.

Ricks College, located in Rexburg, Idaho, is a unique educational institution because it is the largest private two-year college in America, owned and operated by The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints with a mission to teach academic subjects under a religious influence. The educational

institution has existed over one hundred years and has weathered a history of many struggles to achieve its status today. Its enrollment ceiling of 7,500 full-time students has recently been lifted to allow for some additional enrollees. Approximately 1,700 qualified persons applying for the fall semester of 1996 were denied admission due to the previous limits. Semester enrollments for 1997 and 1998 are expected to reach 8,200. Ricks presently is experimenting with various distance learning technologies to attempt to meet the needs of its present students and potential students.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This study investigated the preferred adult education philosophies and teaching styles of Ricks College faculty members when grouped by demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training in teaching methodology. Further, it examined the relationship of philosophical orientations and of teaching styles to the nine divisions at Ricks College.

Educational Philosophies

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) which classifies respondents into the five philosophical orientations of Liberal, Behaviorist, Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical, was used in this study. The first research question asked for the preferred education philosophy of faculty members at Ricks College which can be determined by utilizing the PAEI.

In scoring the PAEI, a score is calculated for each of the five philosophical classifications. A person's highest score of the five indicates the philosophy nearest to the person's beliefs, whereas the lowest score shows the philosophical orientation least preferred by the respondent. Zinn explains that a score of 95-105 would indicate a strong preference for a philosophy; a score of 55-65 would indicate neither a strong agreement or disagreement with a

philosophy; a score of 15-25 would show a strong disagreement with a particular school of philosophy (Zinn, 1991, pp. 74-75).

Because of the way the PAEI is scored, scores for the various philosophical preferences are not standardized. One person's score for the most preferred area may differ greatly from that of another person. Therefore, in order to compare scores among all individuals in the sample and in order to identify the most preferred philosophy, scores for each philosophical school were converted to a percentage to indicate the amount that the score represented of the individual's total score (see Table 2). To complete this procedure, a total score on the PAEI was computed for each individual by adding the individual's scores for each of the five philosophical areas. The score for each philosophical school was then divided into the total score to produce a new score which was a percentage of the total score. The new percentage scores were on a standard scale and were used for comparing individual preferences. Progressivism differed in the following percentages: Liberal--4%, Behaviorism--2%, Humanism--4%, and Radical--4%. Behaviorism differed in the following percentages: Liberal--3%, Progressivism--2%, Humanism--6%, and Radical--6%. Liberal differed as follows: Progressivism--3%, Behaviorism--2%, Humanism--7%, and Radical--6%. Humanism differed in this way: Liberal--5%, Behaviorism--3%, Progressivism--1%, and Radical--4%. Finally, Radical differed in the following percentages: Liberal--5%, Behaviorism--2%, Humanism--2%, and Progressivism--1%.

For the 167 participants completing the PAEI, the mean scores showed the Progressive philosophy (nearly 50 percent) to be the preferred orientation of Ricks faculty, followed by Behaviorist (see Table 2). If these two preferences are combined, 73.6 percent or almost three-fourths of the participating faculty favor these philosophies. The Progressive philosophy sees the learner with unlimited potential to be developed through education. The teacher is an organizer who guides learning and seeks to teach problem-solving skills so that knowledge can become of practical good within a society. Lifelong learning is encouraged and social responsibility advocated as seen in the writings and beliefs of Dewey and Lindeman (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

Table 2. Preferred Philosophy of Participants.

Philosophy	Frequency	Percent	Average	Standard Deviation
Progressive	76	45.5	84.9	8.7
Behaviorist	47	28.1	81.8	9.3
Liberal	15	9.0	75.4	10.6
Humanistic	13	7.8	70.6	11.6
Radical	4	2.4	70.9	11.5

Twelve participants (7.2%) showed no predominant philosophy but rather had two scores tied for a preference. Seven were Progressive and Behaviorist, three were Liberal and Progressive, one was Liberal and Behaviorist, and one was Behaviorist and Humanistic.

The raw scores displayed a wide range in each philosophical school. The ranges were as follows: Progressive, 61-105; Behaviorist, 49-101; Liberal philosophy, 44-98; Radical, 28-99; and Humanistic, 43-98. Most of the philosophical schools had a range of approximately 50 points with the largest range being in the Radical school. The range of scores for each philosophical school when the scores are grouped by quartiles is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of PAEI Scores by Philosophical Schools.

Range	Frequency
Progressive	
61-78	42
79-85	37
86-90	48
91-105	40
Behaviorist	
49-75	39
76-81	44
82-88	42
89-101	42
Liberal	
44-68	39
69-75	43
76-82	40
83-98	45
Radical	
28-64	44
65-71.5	42
72-78	43
79-99	38
Humanist	
43-61	39
62-70	45
70.5-78	43
79-98	40

Age

The second research question asked how participants differ on the PAEI when grouped by the demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training in educational methodologies. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to address these variables. ANOVA is a statistical procedure "used to determine whether there is a significant difference between two or more means at a selected probability level" (Gay, 1996, p. 479) when the participants are grouped on an independent variable that may influence the dependent variable.

In conducting this research study, participants were divided into four age categories: 39 and below, 40-49, 50-59, 60 and over. Fewer Ricks College faculty respondents fell into the younger ages than in those 40 and over, so those teachers in their 20s and 30s were grouped together for a total of 34 respondents. Large numbers of teachers fell into the 40s and 50s with 50 and 56 respondents respectively. There was also a sizable number of teachers who fell into the age of 60 and over represented by 27 respondents. An ANOVA showed no significant differences in philosophical orientations among these age groupings (see Table 4).

Gender

The participants were also grouped by gender and compared on each philosophical scale; 120 males and 47 females completed the PAEI. No significant differences were found in the Liberal and Behaviorist philosophies. Noticeable differences were evident in the Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical

schools (see Table 5). The mean for the 47 female respondents on the Progressive philosophy was 88 as compared to 83.6 for males. Within the

Table 4. ANOVA of PAEI by Age.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>Progressive</u>					
Between	3	310.64	103.55	.92	.43
Within	163	18433.83	113.09		
<u>Behaviorist</u>					
Between	3	271.37	90.46	1.05	.37
Within	163	14104.80	86.53		
<u>Progressive</u>					
Between	3	8.21	2.74	.04	.99
Within	163	12566.51	77.10		
<u>Humanistic</u>					
Between	3	557.76	185.92	1.40	.25
Within	163	21712.06	133.20		
<u>Radical</u>					
Between	3	345.44	115.15	.87	.46
Within	163	21676.22	132.98		

Humanistic philosophy, the mean for females was 74, and it was 69.3 for males. For the Radical philosophical orientation, females had a mean of 74.2, and males had 70. These scores indicate that females favor the Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical philosophies more than male instructors at Ricks College. In all three of these philosophical orientations, the learner is seen as paramount and the teacher as an organizer, a facilitator, and/or coordinator rather than a manager and controller (Zinn, 1991, p. 76).

Table 5. ANOVA of PAEI by Gender.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>Progressive</u>					
Between	1	638.38	638.38	8.82	.01
Within	165	11936.34	72.34		
<u>Humanistic</u>					
Between	1	758.58	758.58	5.82	.02
Within	165	21511.24	130.37		
<u>Radical</u>					
Between	1	738.20	738.20	5.72	.18
Within	165	21283.45	128.99		
<u>Behaviorist</u>					
Between	3	271.37	90.46	1.05	.37
Within	166	14104.80	86.53		
<u>Liberal</u>					
Between	3	310.64	103.55	.92	.43
Within	166	18433.83	113.09		

Formal Training in Education Methodologies

In the area of formal training in education methodologies the following divisions were used: four or more formal classes--81 respondents; two to three formal classes--40 respondents; one formal class--16 respondents; and no formal methodology classes--30 respondents.

No significant differences were noted in the categories of Liberal, Behaviorist, and Progressive philosophies. Significant differences were found in the Humanistic and Radical schools (see Table 6) where participants preferring these philosophies indicated they had more formal training classes than those preferring the other three philosophies. The mean score for the Humanistic philosophy for those who have completed four or more formal classes was 72.8;

for those teachers with no formal education methodology classes, the mean was 66. This implies that those with the greatest number of methodology classes also preferred the philosophies which are learner centered and where the teacher promotes but does not direct the learning environment. These philosophies see learners as highly motivated, self-directed, and able to take responsibility for their own learning. Teachers encourage varied group

Table 6. ANOVA of PAEI by Formal Training in Education Methodologies.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>Radical</u>					
Between	3	2586.33	862.11	7.23	.01
Within	163	19435.32	119.24		
<u>Humanistic</u>					
Between	3	1073.19	357.73	2.75	.04
Within	163	21196.64	130.04		
<u>Liberal</u>					
Between	3	366.23	122.08	1.08	.36
Within	163	18378.24	112.75		
<u>Behaviorist</u>					
Between	3	415.60	138.53	1.62	.19
Within	163	13960.57	85.65		
<u>Progressive</u>					
Between	3	530.03	176.68	2.39	.07
Within	163	12044.68	73.89		

discussions, experiential learning, and problem-solving activities and follow the concepts of adult educators such as Rogers, Maslow, Knowles, Holt, and Freire (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

College Divisions

Research question three asked for a relationship between philosophical orientations using the PAEI and working within the divisions of Ricks College. The 167 participants were asked to indicate their teaching department. There are nine divisions at Ricks College. In order to have sufficient numbers for a statistical analysis, these nine divisions were placed into seven groups. The groupings and their size were as follows: Applied disciplines of agriculture, business, and engineering technology--15 respondents; behavioral and social sciences--11 respondents; education--25 respondents; humanities--48 respondents; natural science--36 respondents; performing and fine arts--15 respondents; and religious and family living--17 respondents.

An ANOVA indicated significant differences in all philosophies except Progressive (see Table 7). A post-hoc analysis using the Tukey technique indicated that within the Liberal orientation there was a marked difference between faculty in the humanities and natural sciences divisions. The natural science division indicated a higher preference toward the Liberal school than the humanities division and had a mean of 78.3 compared to 71. This indicates that faculty within departments such as biology, chemistry, geology, math, physics, and nursing prefer a more teacher-centered learning environment where the instructor is the transmitter of knowledge and where the lecture is a dominant method of presentation. Faculty in the humanities division who teach in such areas as communications, English, and foreign languages prefer a more learner-centered educational environment.

Table 7. ANOVA of PAEI by Ricks College Divisions.

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Behaviorist</u>					
Between	6	1482.14	247.02	3.07	.01
Within	160	12894.02	80.59		
<u>Humanistic</u>					
Between	6	2212.35	368.72	2.94	.01
Within	160	20057.48	125.36		
<u>Liberal</u>					
Between	6	1663.14	277.19	2.60	.02
Within	160	17081.33	106.76		
<u>Radical</u>					
Between	6	1853.62	308.94	2.45	.03
Within	160	20168.03	126.05		
<u>Progressive</u>					
Between	6	810.42	135.07	1.84	.10
Within	160	11764.30	73.53		

The Behaviorist philosophical orientation showed a significant difference between the education division and religious and family living division. The education division with a mean of 85.1 indicated a stronger preference toward this school than did the religious and family living division with a mean of 76. Those faculty members who teach in education classes and prepare students to be teachers themselves, therefore, favor the Behaviorist philosophy over teachers who direct religion courses and classes in areas such as child development, dating and marriage, and parenting. The Behaviorist school, favored by education teachers, encourages learners to take an active role in their learning and sees the purpose of adult education as seeking behavioral change.

The teacher is a manager who directs learning outcomes, uses practice and reinforcement, encourages trial-and-error and skill training, and follows the ideas of Skinner and Thorndike (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

Within the Humanistic philosophy, faculty in the humanities division had a mean of 74.9 over 66.3 for the natural science teachers. Therefore, teachers within English, communications, and foreign language disciplines preferred the concepts of the Humanistic orientation to faculty within chemistry, geology, biology, physics, and nursing. The Humanistic school supports learner-centered education by accepting adults as motivated to assume responsibility for their own learning. The teacher is seen as a partner who promotes but does not direct learning. The environment is interactive and open, and the facilitator encourages discovery, cooperation, groups tasks, and experiential learning. Proponents of this philosophy include Rogers, Maslow, Knowles, Tough, and McKenzie (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

Finally, the scores within the Radical philosophy indicated a significant difference between the humanities and natural science divisions. Humanities teachers of courses in English, communications, and foreign languages showed a preference for the Radical orientation with a mean of 75.5 over 67 for the natural science teachers of courses in biology, chemistry, geology, mathematics, and physics. These figures show that humanities instructors have a higher preference for the learner-centered Radical or Reconstructionist philosophy which seeks to bring about societal change in areas such as economics, politics, and education. The teacher is a coordinator who suggests the direction of

learning but does not determine it. There is an equality in the learning process between the teacher and students. Critical thinking, which can move to application in society, is encouraged. Discussion groups, dialogue, and problem solving are used to motivate learning (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

Teaching Style

The fourth research question asked for the teaching styles of the Ricks College faculty. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale, PALS, was used to measure styles with teacher centered and learner centered being opposite one another. Scores could range from 0 to 220. The established mean score for PALS is 146 with a standard deviation of 20. On the standard, bell-shaped curve 68.3% of the scores will be within 126 and 166. Scores above 146 show a preference toward a learner-centered approach; scores below show support for a teacher-centered style. The second deviation of 20 to 40 points above or below the mean of 146, 166-186 or 106-126, would indicate a very strong support for one of the two extreme teaching styles; 27.2% of scores would fall within this deviation. Faculty at Ricks had a mean of 127, 19 points below the established mean, indicating a strong teacher-centered mode of instruction. The highest percentage of teachers fell within the half-standard deviation of 116-125 (see Table 8).

The total PALS score is a general one, and there are seven factors which make up PALS. Each contains items that comprise a major component of a person's teaching style. Factor names are consistent with the learner-centered

teaching style. High scores in each factor represent a preference for that concept.

Table 8. Distribution on PALS by Half-Standard Deviation Groups

Scores	Frequency	Percent
86-95	6	4
96-105	12	7
106-115	25	15
116-125	42	25
126-135	30	18
136-145	31	19
146-155	12	7
156-165	7	4
166-175	2	1

The first factor is Learner-Centered Activities with 12 negative instrument items. A low score on factor one indicates a teacher-centered style with preference for formal evaluation methods, teacher control in the classroom, belief in one main teaching method, and a similar style of learning for all adults. A high score would show more of a learner-centered teaching style in these areas where students are basically encouraged to control their own learning (Conti, 1991, p. 84). The established mean for this factor is 38. Although faculty at Ricks scored 19 points below the mean on the overall PALS score, on Factor 1 they scored 38.6 and .07 standard deviations above the norm (see Table 9).

Factor 2 in PALS is Personalizing Instruction with six positive and three negative items. A high score would support the learner-centered style and show a preference for personalizing instruction to meet student needs. Objectives and methods would be dictated by individual learners. A low score shows preference for a teacher-centered style and for more control of the environment, objectives, and materials (Conti, 1991, p. 84). The established mean for this factor is 31; faculty at Ricks scored much lower at 21.7. This is 1.37 standard deviations below the norm (see Table 9).

Table 9. Distribution of PALS Scores by Factor.

Factor	Mean	SD	Ricks Mean	Ricks SD	Relation to Norm
1	38	8.3	38.6	5.5	+.07
2	31	6.8	21.7	5.2	-1.37
3	21	4.9	19.0	4.5	-.41
4	14	3.6	12.4	3.4	-.44
5	16	3.0	13.0	2.6	-1.00
6	13	3.5	9.0	3.8	-1.14
7	13	3.9	12.3	3.9	-.18

Factor 3 is Relating to Experiences and has six positive items. A high score points to an instructor who encourages learners to use their prior experiences as a basis for their learning; learners are encouraged to ponder the nature of society through their own experiences and move toward independence

(Conti, 1991, pp. 84-85). The mean on this factor is 21 with faculty at Ricks scoring 2 points lower, at 19 and .41 standard deviations below the norm (see Table 9).

Factor 4 within PALS is Assessing Student Needs and has four positive items. A high score shows a preference for valuing the individual needs of a learner, for learning student goals, for diagnosis of present levels, and for development of education goals. The established mean is 14; Ricks faculty had a mean of 12.4 which is .41 standard deviations below the norm (see Table 9).

Factor 5 is named Climate Building with four positive items. A high score here indicates the preference for an informal learning environment. Discussions are encouraged, errors are accepted and offer feedback to aid learning, risk taking is desirable, and problem-solving and experimentation are encouraged (Conti, 1991, p. 85). A low score would indicate the opposite of these learner-centered concepts. The established mean score for Factor 5 is 16, and Ricks faculty had a mean of 13 which is 1 standard deviation below the norm.

Factor 6, with four positive items, is called Participation in the Learning Process where adult learners are involved in evaluating their own performance levels and determining the nature of materials and topics used within the educational setting. A high score indicates preference for these ideas through support of the learner-centered style (Conti, 1991, p. 85). The established mean is 13; Ricks faculty had a score of 9 which is 1.14 standard deviations below the norm (see Table 9).

Factor 7 is Flexibility for Personal Development and has five negative items. A low score indicates a rigid teacher-centered style where the instructor is viewed as a knowledge provider who sets the objectives early in a program with little or no flexibility, controversial discussion topics are discouraged, and a well-disciplined learning environment is seen as positive; views contrary to this, as indicated by a high score, show a preference for a learner-centered atmosphere (Conti, 1991, pp. 85-86). The established mean for Factor 7 is 13, and Ricks faculty showed a mean score of 12.3 which is .18 standard deviations below the norm (see Table 9).

Ricks faculty scores on Factors 3-7 fell below the mean as did the overall PALS score of 127. However, on Factor 1 the faculty scored slightly above the mean of 38. Factor 1 is Learner-Centered Activities and relates to formal test evaluation and comparison of students to outside standards. This higher score indicates that Ricks faculty may be more learner centered in this factor. In contrast to their overall teacher-centered position, on this factor they slightly preferred an approach which would rely on diverse teaching methods to meet the varying learning styles of students in their classes. They would allow learners to participate in determining educational objectives and would encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning (Conti, 1991, p. 84). However, on Factor 2 Ricks teachers fell 9.3 points below the mean of 31. This shows a marked preference for a teacher-centered approach for the factor called Personalizing Instruction. This indicates a reluctance to personalize learning to meet individual needs. Objectives are teacher-controlled, competition is

encouraged, and the lecture is used as the preferred instructional mode (Conti, 1991, p. 84).

Age

Research question five asked if participants differed on PALS scores when grouped by demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training in educational methodologies. ANOVA was used to address these variables.

The 167 respondents were grouped into four age categories: 39 and below, 40-49, 50-59, 60 and over. These categories were natural divisions because the majority of teachers at Ricks are over 40 years of age. PALS scores showed no significant differences in the total PALS score or in the first six factors. However, in Factor 7, Flexibility for Personal Development, the youngest group scored higher than the two older groups (see Table 10.) Those 39 and younger had a mean of 14.1; ages 50-59 had a mean of 11.7; 60 and over had a mean of 11.3. The high score for the youngest respondents indicates they prefer a learner-centered environment where they act as facilitators with flexibility in setting learning objectives and discussion topics. These respondents are more likely to adjust the environment and program content to meet personal growth goals of students (Conti, 1991, pp. 85-86).

Gender

Participants were gender grouped with 120 males and 47 females. PALS factor scores showed no significant difference on the total PALS score or on

Table 10. ANOVA of PALS by Age.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>Factor 7</u>					
Between	3	163.13	54.38	5.76	.01
Within	163	1539.68	9.45		
<u>Factor 1</u>					
Between	3	148.63	49.54	1.67	.17
Within	163	4819.68	29.57		
<u>Factor 3</u>					
Between	3	99.66	33.22	1.66	.18
Within	163	3252.84	19.96		
<u>Factor 2</u>					
Between	3	79.43	26.48	.98	.40
Within	163	4392.48	26.95		
<u>Factor 6</u>					
Between	3	21.59	7.20	.49	.69
Within	163	2406.04	14.76		
<u>Factor 5</u>					
Between	3	5.48	1.83	.26	.85
Within	163	1127.01	6.91		
<u>Factor 4</u>					
Between	3	3.71	1.24	.14	.96
Within	163	1913.28	11.74		

Factors 1, 6, and 7. However, Factors 2, 3, 4, and 5 showed females to have higher learner-centered styles in each case. Factor 2, Personalizing Instruction, showed female and male means at 23.9 and 20.9 respectively, indicating females prefer personalizing instruction to meet student needs (see Table 11).

Table 11. ANOVA of PALS Scores by Gender.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>Factor 2</u>					
Between	1	310.38	310.38	12.32	.01
Within	165	4161.53	25.22		
<u>Factor 3</u>					
Between	1	103.07	103.07	5.23	.02
Within	165	3249.43	19.69		
<u>Factor 4</u>					
Between	1	48.69	48.69	4.30	.04
Within	165	1868.29	11.32		
<u>Factor 5</u>					
Between	1	26.26	26.26	3.92	.05
Within	165	1106.23	6.70		
<u>Factor 6</u>					
Between	1	26.18	26.18	1.80	.18
Within	165	2401.45	14.55		
<u>Factor 7</u>					
Between	1	25.56	25.56	2.51	.12
Within	165	1677.25	10.17		
<u>Factor 1</u>					
Between	1	.14	.14	.01	.95
Within	165	4968.18	30.11		

Factor 3, which is Relating to Experience, showed the means of female respondents higher than males, 23.9 to 20.9 (see Table 11). Females more than males at Ricks College, therefore, tend to encourage learners to use prior knowledge as a base for new learning and want students to ponder on society's nature and move toward their own independence.

On Factor 4, Assessing Student Needs, the female respondents had a mean of 13.2 compared to the male mean of 12.0 (see Table 11). Both scores are below the established mean of 14, but female Ricks faculty members may show a greater preference for valuing a learner's individual needs, learning a student's goals, diagnosing a student's present levels, and helping the student set individual educational goals.

Factor 5 is Climate Building. This factor yielded the mean of females at 14.1 and males at 13.2 (see Table 11). The higher mean for females indicates the female respondents are less teacher centered than male, but both remain below the norm of 16 on this factor.

Formal Training in Education Methodologies

The demographic variable of formal training in education methodologies was divided into the four categories of four or more formal classes, two to three formal classes, one formal class, and no formal methodology classes. Of the 167 respondents, no significant difference was found by ANOVA in Factors 1, 3, 4, 5, and 7 (see Table 12).

However, the overall PALS scores showed a significant difference between respondents with four or more formal classes and those with no formal methodology classes (see Table 12). Respondents who had taken four or more classes had a mean of 130.4 while respondents with no formal classes had a mean of 119.8. These means indicate that those teachers who had taken no formal classes in education methodologies are more teacher centered in their

Table 12. ANOVA of PALS by Formal Training.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>PALS Total Score</u>					
Between	3	3132.17	1044.06	3.75	.01
Within	163	45401.35	278.54		
<u>Factor 2</u>					
Between	3	484.38	161.46	6.60	.01
Within	163	3987.53	24.46		
<u>Factor 6</u>					
Between	3	157.48	52.49	3.77	.01
Within	163	2270.15	13.93		
<u>Factor 4</u>					
Between	3	85.48	28.49	2.54	.06
Within	163	1831.50	11.24		
<u>Factor 3</u>					
Between	3	143.15	47.72	2.42	.07
Within	163	3209.35	19.69		
<u>Factor 1</u>					
Between	3	159.19	53.06	1.80	.15
Within	163	4809.12	29.50		
<u>Factor 7</u>					
Between	3	42.72	14.24	1.40	.25
Within	163	1660.09	10.18		
<u>Factor 5</u>					
Between	3	157.48	52.49	3.77	.01
Within	163	2270.15	13.93		

approach to education than those with four or more formal classes. They tend to take most of the responsibility for student learning.

Factor 2, Personalizing Instruction, indicates that teachers with the most formal training in education methodologies, had a mean of 23.5. This shows these respondents have less preference for a teacher-centered style than do

those with two to three classes and no formal classes who had means at 20 and 19.7 respectively (see Table 12). Even though all groups were below the mean score for this factor, the lower means show these groups have a strong dislike for allowing and encouraging individualizing instruction.

The final PALS factor which showed a noticeable score difference in respondents grouped by formal training is Factor 6, Participation in the Learning Process. There was a marked difference between respondents with the most formal training with a mean of 9.9 and those with no training who had a mean of 7.7 (see Table 12). Both means are below the norm of 13, but respondents with the most formal training in education methodologies, four or more classes, are less teacher centered and may be more inclined to give their students some voice in the learning process than those teachers who have had no formal training.

College Divisions

In order to have the necessary numbers to do a statistical analysis by college divisions utilizing PALS, as asked in research question six, divisions were grouped as follows: Applied disciplines of agriculture, business, and engineering technology--15 respondents; behavioral and social science--11 respondents; education--15 respondents; humanities--48 respondents; natural science--36 respondents; performing and fine arts--15 respondents; and religious and family living--17 respondents. An ANOVA indicated significant differences in the overall

PALS scores for college divisions and also for all factors except Factor 5, Climate Building (see Table 13).

Table 13. ANOVA of PALS Scores by Ricks College Divisions.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
<u>PALS Total Score</u>					
Between	6	9032.00	1505.33	6.10	.01
Within	160	39501.54	246.88		
<u>Factor 6</u>					
Between	6	459.74	76.62	6.23	.01
Within	160	1967.89	12.30		
<u>Factor 3</u>					
Between	6	489.18	81.53	4.56	.01
Within	160	2863.32	17.90		
<u>Factor 2</u>					
Between	6	601.19	100.20	4.14	.01
Within	160	3870.72	24.19		
<u>Factor 7</u>					
Between	6	174.80	29.13	3.05	.01
Within	160	1528.01	9.55		
<u>Factor 4</u>					
Between	6	186.78	31.13	2.88	.01
Within	160	1730.20	10.81		
<u>Factor 1</u>					
Between	6	427.84	71.31	2.51	.01
Within	160	4540.47	28.38		
<u>Factor 5</u>					
Between	6	81.78	13.63	2.08	.06
Within	160	1050.71	6.57		

The overall PALS scores showed a marked difference in education and natural science divisions, humanities and natural science divisions, and the applied and humanities divisions. The natural science division had a significantly

lower mean of 116.1 than the education division which had a mean at 128.4.

This indicates that those adult educators preparing students to be teachers were less teacher centered than teachers in classes such as chemistry, geology, math, and biology (see Table 13). Teachers in English, communications, and foreign languages in the humanities division had a mean of 135.8 while the education division had a mean of 128.4. These figures show that humanities teachers were less teacher centered than education teachers (see Table 13). The humanities division had a mean of 135.8 on PALS over the division of applied technologies with a mean of 120.7. Thus, teachers within the humanities division and teaching classes in English, communications, and languages, were less teacher centered than the applied division practitioners who teach agriculture, business, and engineering courses (see Table 13).

For Factor 1, Learner-Centered Activities, there was a significant difference between the education division with a mean of 36.2 and the humanities division with a mean of 40.2. Therefore, the humanities division teachers were less teacher centered than the teachers within the education division (see Table 13). Factor 1 is the main PALS factor where a higher score indicates favoring informal evaluation techniques, not encouraging students to accept middle-class values, using more than one teaching method, and accepting diversity in adult learners.

Factor 2, Personalizing Instruction, showed significant differences between the education and natural science divisions, the humanities and natural science divisions, and between the natural science division and the religious and

family living division. The education division with a mean of 22.9 scored higher than the natural science division with a mean of 18.7. Since the norm is 31 for this factor, Ricks faculty who prepare future teachers were less teacher-centered in their style than faculty in the natural sciences (see Table 13).

Factor 2 also yielded scores which showed a marked contrast between the humanities division, with a mean at 23.1, ranking higher than the natural science division, with a mean of 18.7. Ricks faculty who teach in the humanities areas were less teacher centered and favored personalizing instruction to meet individual needs more than teachers within the natural sciences (see Table 13).

Finally, within Factor 2, there was a significant distinction between the natural science division with a mean at 18.7 and the religious and family living division which had a mean of 23.6. Teachers of courses such as child development, dating and marriage, and parenting were more learner centered and prefer personalizing instruction in methods, materials, and assignments more than teachers in natural sciences (see Table 13).

Factor 3, Relating to Experience, showed important distinctions between the humanities division and the performing and fine arts division, humanities and the applied divisions, and the humanities and natural science divisions. The teachers within the humanities division, with a mean on Factor 3 of 19.6, were more learner centered than the performing and fine arts division with a mean of 15.7. This indicates humanities teachers prefer to encourage learners to relate new learning to their previous experiences more than teachers within classes of music, dance, and acting (see Table 13).

Scores on this same factor showed the humanities division differs distinctly from the applied division. The humanities division had a mean of 20.9; the applied technologies division scored at 17. The humanities group, therefore, were more learner centered with more of a preference for encouraging students to relate learning to former experiences to help them solve problems in everyday living, although both means were below the norm of 21 (see Table 13).

Statistics on Factor 3 also displayed a variation between the humanities division that had mean of 20.9 and the natural science division with a mean of 17.9. This contrast indicates that teachers in the humanities were less teacher centered than the natural science teachers on Factor 3 (see Table 13).

Contrasts on Factor 4, Assessing Student Needs, were found between the humanities division and religious and family living division and the division of performing and fine arts and the division of religious and family living. The humanities teachers had a mean of 13.2 while the religious and family living teachers scored a mean of 10. This implies that religious and family living teachers, therefore, were more teacher centered. They may prefer to treat students less as adults than humanities instructors and are not inclined to individual conferencing and counseling (see Table 13).

On Factor 4, Assessing Student Needs, there was also a meaningful contrast between the performing and fine arts division with a mean at 13.5 and the religious and family living division that had a mean of 10. These scores suggest that teachers of music, dance, and theater were less teacher-centered in

areas of meeting individual needs through helping students assess present levels and set short- and long-range goals (see Table 13).

Factor 6, Participation in the Learning Process, showed three major distinctions between teachers in the education and natural science divisions, humanities and natural science divisions, and between applied technologies and humanities divisions. The education division had a mean of 10.4 on this factor; the natural science mean was 6.6. Both scores are below the norm of 13 for this factor, but education teachers were less teacher-centered in the classroom in the selection of content material and in determination of how evaluation will take place than educators in the natural sciences (see Table 13).

Within Factor 6 where humanities teachers had a mean of 10.8 and natural science teachers had a mean of 6.6, there is a meaningful distinction indicated. Humanities practitioners, therefore, were less teacher centered in this factor than those in the natural science division (see Table 13).

Factor 6 also indicates there was a vital difference between the humanities division with a mean of 10.8 and the applied division of agriculture, business, and engineering technology that had a mean score of 7.5. Teachers of applied courses were more teacher-centered in the educational process more than instructors in courses such as English, foreign languages, and communications (see Table 13).

Factor 7 of PALS is Flexibility for Personal Development; this factor implied a meaningful contrast between the humanities division with a mean of 13.6 and the natural science division with a mean score of 11.1. The humanities

teachers, therefore, were less teacher centered and appeared more likely to embrace the concepts of flexibility and sensitivity in working with individual students. The educators in the humanities were more likely to see personal fulfillment as a central aim of education and to prefer adjusting the classroom environment to meet the changing needs of adult learners. Natural science teachers were more teacher centered and tended to reject these ideas and showed they prefer to provide knowledge by lecture, rigidly stick to the teacher-set curriculum and objectives, and endorse a well-disciplined learning environment (see Table 13).

Teaching Style and Philosophy

Research questions seven and eight address the relationship and interaction between educational philosophies and teaching styles by utilizing the PAEI and PALS instruments. This relationship was examined by using an ANOVA and a discriminant analysis.

ANOVA

Question seven addressed the relationship between teaching style and educational philosophy. An ANOVA was used to address this issue. For purposes of this analysis the participants were grouped according to preferred educational philosophy. A category was added for a mixed group where participants had equal high scores in two or more areas. Teaching style was the dependent variable. This analysis showed there was a significant difference

between groups (see Table 14). A Tukey post hoc analysis showed there were two groupings based on means. One group consisted of Liberal (113.7), Mixed (114.7), and Behaviorist (119.4). The other group consisted of Progressive (132.2), Humanistic (138.5), and Radical (150.0). The Liberal, Behaviorist, and mixed group scored significantly lower on PALS than the group consisting of the Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical philosophies.

Table 14. ANOVA of Philosophical Groups.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between	5	13041.42	2608.28	11.83	.0001
Within	161	35492.09	220.45		

Discriminant Analysis

Research question eight asked if there is an interaction of philosophical beliefs and teaching style. A discriminant analysis was used to address this research question.

Discriminant analysis is a statistical technique which allows the investigation of the differences between two or more groups in relationship to several variables simultaneously (Klecka, 1990, p. 7). In discriminant analysis as with other multivariate techniques, the emphasis is upon analyzing the variables together rather than singly; the purpose of multivariate procedures is to examine the interaction of the multiple variables (Conti, 1993).

Discriminant analysis is concerned with the grouping of people and with analyzing the interrelationship of multiple variables to determine if they can explain a person's placement in a specific group. Unlike univariate analyses which examine individual

variables separately and allow them to be disassociated from the total person who is a synergistic composition of these various variables, discriminant analysis examines people on a set of variables to determine if any of them interact in a combination that can explain the person's placement in the group. (p. 91)

Discriminant analysis can be used either to describe the way groups differ or to predict membership in a group. In this study, discriminant analysis was used to investigate if educational philosophies could be used to identify the ways groups differed in teaching style at Ricks College.

Two criteria were used for judging if it was possible to discriminate between those in the teaching style groups using the discriminating variables related to educational philosophy. The first criterion was that the discriminant function produced by the analysis had to be describable using the structure coefficients with a value of .3 or greater (Conti, 1993, p. 93). The second criterion was that the discriminant function had to correctly classify at least one-half of the cases beyond the chance placement than might occur in the group.

Discriminant analysis produces a discriminant function regardless of the meaning or the statistical significance of the function. Therefore, established criteria are needed for determining if the function can be "judged as good and useful" (p. 93). The first criterion accomplished this by examining the structure matrix produced in the analysis. The structure matrix shows the correlation between the individual discriminating variables and the overall discriminant function (Klecka, 1990, p. 31). If several of the variables do not have a coefficient of at least .3, it is impossible to discern the meaning of the function. In analyses which use a large number of variables, it is possible to get functions which have

high predictive ability but which correlate with so many of the variables that it is impossible to decipher the meaning of the function (Hill, 1992). Thus, this criterion requires that the discriminant function must have clarity in order to be judged good and useful.

The second criterion requires the discriminant function to account for a significant amount of variance before it can be judged good and useful. "The percentage of cases classified correctly is often taken as an index of the effectiveness of the discriminant function. When evaluating this measure it is important to compare the observed misclassification rate to that expected by chance alone" (Norusis, 1988, p. B-13). Chance simply refers to the probability of the person randomly being placed in the group. "The probability of occurrence of any one of a set of equally likely events is one divided by the number of events" (Roscoe, 1975, p. 140). This probability is expressed in percentages when referring to the classification rate for a discriminant function. The criterion that was used in this study was that in order for the discriminant function to be judged as useful, it had to correctly classify not only those possible by chance but also an additional 50% of that number. For example, in a two-group analysis, the discriminant function had to correctly classify 75% of the cases; this represents the 50% due to chance place and an additional 25% which is one-half of the 50% chance placement.

Together these two criteria require that the results of a discriminant analysis be good and useful before being accepted to describe the differences in the groups. These criteria were necessary because analyses which use a large

number of variables can produce functions which have high classification percentages but which offer no clear descriptive power. Other analyses produce functions which can be clearly described but which have low classification power. Therefore, the combination of these two criteria requires that the function be both clearly descriptive and highly accurate in order to be used.

Discriminant analysis was used to describe the combination of educational philosophy variables that could be used to distinguish the Ricks College instructors when they were grouped according to teaching style. For purposes of analysis, the 167 instructors were placed in two groups. Participants were grouped using the score of 126 which is one standard deviation below the mean for PALS. One group contained the 87 instructors who scored 126 and below on the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). The other group was made up of the 80 teachers who scored above 126 on PALS.

The set of discriminating variables used to predict placement in these groups consisted of the percentage educational philosophy scores for each instructor. Since the scoring for the original Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) scores does not provide for a standardized scoring format, the scores for each educational philosophy were converted to a percentage of the total PAEI score for each individual. The five separate variables in this set were the educational philosophies of Liberal, Behaviorism, Progressivism, Humanism, and Radical Adult Education.

The pooled within-groups correlations are the correlations for the variables with the respondents placed in their groups of either above or below one

standard deviation from the mean score for PALS. The pooled within-groups correlation matrix of discriminating variables was examined because interdependencies among variables is important in most multivariate analyses. In order for multiple variables to be included in an analysis, they should not be sharing variance. A high correlation indicates that variables are accounting for the same variance. The within-groups matrix reveals how the discriminant function is related to the variables within each group in the analysis. The examination of the 10 coefficients in this analysis showed that 6 were at .2 or below, 1 was between .4 and .5, and 3 were between .5 and .6. Thus, while the distribution of the variance was adequate to retain all of the variables in the analysis, some common variance was being shared by four variables of Liberal, Behaviorist, Humanistic, and Radical.

Stepwise selection was used to determine which variables added most to the discrimination between the teaching style groupings. Stepwise procedures produce an optimal set of discriminating variables. Wilks's lambda was chosen for this analysis because it takes into consideration both the differences between the groups and the cohesiveness within the groups. Because of its approach to variable selection, Wilks's lambda is commonly used in discriminant analysis studies in education. As a result of this stepwise procedure, three variables were included in the discriminant function. The following discriminating variables and their corresponding Wilks's lambda values were selected: Radical--.67, Progressivism--.69, and Humanism--.75. The other two educational philosophies did not account for enough variance to be included in the discriminant function.

Standardized discriminant function coefficients are used to determine which variables contribute most to the discrimination between the groups. The standardized coefficients indicate the relative importance of each variable to the overall discriminant function. The standardized coefficients for this function which discriminated the group of instructors that was above one standard deviation below the mean on PALS from those lower than one standard deviation below the mean on PALS were as follows: Humanism--.91, Progressivism--.56, and Radical--.34. Thus, Humanism is highly correlated to the overall discriminant function and is nearly identical to it. Progressivism contributes about half as much to the discriminant function as Humanism, and Radical Adult Education contributes about one-third as much.

The percentage of cases correctly classified shows how accurate the discriminant function was in grouping the respondents. This discriminant function was 78.4% accurate in classifying cases. It correctly placed 69 (79.3%) in the teaching style group scoring one standard deviation below the mean on PALS and 62 (77.5%) in the group scoring above one standard deviation below the mean on PALS. Thus, the discriminant function is an 28.4% improvement over chance in predicting group placement and was above the judgment criterion which required a 75% accurate placement. Consequently, it demonstrates that the groups above and below one standard deviation below the mean on PALS can be distinguished on the basis of their educational philosophy preferences.

The discriminant function which was used to classify the cases into these groups was as follows:

$$D = .41 (\text{Progressivism}) + .44 (\text{Humanism}) + .16 (\text{Radical}) - 20.08.$$

The group centroid for the group below one standard deviation below the mean on PALS was -.68, and it was .74 for the group above one standard deviation below the mean on PALS. The canonical correlation is a measure of the degree of association between the discriminant scores and the groups and was .58 for this study. When this is squared, it indicates that the groups explain 33.5% of the variation in the discriminant function.

The structure matrix contains the coefficients which show the similarity between each individual variable and the total discriminate function. The variables with the highest coefficients have the strongest relationship to the discriminant function and are used to name the discriminant function because they show how closely the variable and the overall discriminant function are related. In descriptive studies such as this, this is the most important information related to the accepted discriminant function, and interpreting the structure matrix results in naming the process that distinguishes the groups from each other. Since the overall purpose of discriminant analysis is to describe the process that discriminates the groups from each other, interpreting the structure matrix is central and critical to the whole process. In this interpreting process, variables with coefficients of approximately .3 and above are generally included in the interpretation.

Four variables had sufficient coefficients to be included in the interpretation of the meaning of the discriminant function. They were Humanism (.81), Liberal (-.79), Behaviorism (-.62), and Radical (.35). The signs for the

coefficients indicate that scores were in opposite directions for Liberal and Behaviorist in contract to those for Humanistic and Radical. The philosophies of Liberal and Behaviorist assume that the learner is passive and that the teacher has a responsibility for creating and directing the learning environment so that the learner can be guided toward the learning objectives which the instructor has predetermined. On the other hand, the philosophies of Humanism and Radical Adult Education assume that the learner is active and that the teacher has a responsibility for facilitating a learning environment that supports the learner's personal development and pursuit of learning objectives. Therefore, this discriminant function was named Teacher Directedness.

Thus, a discriminant analysis was calculated to investigate the research question that it was possible to use educational philosophies to discriminate between those above and below one standard deviation below the mean on PALS. Based on the high percentage of variance explained by the discriminant function between groups and the high percentage of accuracy of prediction into the groups by the discriminant function, it was determined that the process that discriminates between groups categorized by teaching style is Teacher Directedness.

By looking at groups that are distinctly different from the classification variable and by having a buffer zone between them, chances of finding meaningful differences are increased (Yabui, 1993). Therefore, further analyses were conducted to determine if the percentage of correct placement in groups and the amount of variance accounted for could be increased. In each of these

analyses, the teaching style groups were formed so that a buffer group existed between the two groups that were being analyzed. When the groups were formed so that they represented those one standard deviation below the mean (126) and those above one-half standard deviations below the mean (136), approximately one-half of the sample was in the low group and slightly less than one-third of the sample was in the high group. Those in the buffer group were not included in the analysis. In this analysis with the groups slightly reconfigured from the original analysis, the discriminant function was 79.9% accurate in placing the instructors in the groups, and it accounted for 37.4% of the variance in the groupings. When the groups were formed so that they included the one-fourth of the sample with the lowest scores on PALS and the one-fourth with the highest score on PALS, the groups included those with a score of below 115 and those with a score above 138. With these groupings, the discriminant function was 86.4% accurate in placing the instructors in the groups, and it accounted for 51.2% of the variance in the groupings. When the groups were formed so that they included the 10% of the sample with the lowest scores on PALS and the 10% with the highest score on PALS, the groups included those with a score of below 106 and those with a score above 146. With these groupings, the discriminant function was 92.3% accurate in placing the instructors in the groups, and it accounted for 66.6% of the variance in the groupings. While each of these regroupings which provided more homogeneous groups increased the accuracy of the classification into groups and increased the amount of variance which was explained by the discriminant function, the variables and their relationship in the

structure matrix did not change. In each of the analyses, the structure matrix indicated a process of Teacher Directedness. Thus, Teacher Directedness is a stable concept which describes the process that distinguishes the various groups of instructors at Ricks College by teaching style when grouped by PALS scores.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SummaryPurpose and Design

Research supports that adult learners are diverse and unique. The adult educator, therefore, is faced with the singular challenge and responsibility of most effectively helping each adult student learn within a multitude of educational environments.

If adult educators have an understanding of andragogical principles and of their own beliefs about education, they are in a better position to actively meet learner needs. With such a knowledge practitioners can examine their personal teaching styles because the literature supports awareness of beliefs, values, and teaching concepts can help educators improve their effectiveness in providing an optimum educational experience for their learners.

Many educators do not take the opportunity to examine their beliefs and values, let alone take the next step of moving toward a consistency between what they believe and what they practice. Experience will not necessarily make an educator a better one, but reflection of what one does in the classroom and why can move a teacher to improvement. "Know thyself" was said long ago by

Plutarch, but this truth is an eternal one. Adult educators need to recognize what beliefs they internally value and act upon what is recognized and internalized.

Educators in grades K-12 are required to take a broad program of education classes in teaching techniques and methodologies as preparation to meet state requirements to teach young people. Adults are just as diverse, or more so, as children and yet how many adult educators are able to articulate their educational philosophies or have learned how to teach effectively?

The college or university is a unique adult education atmosphere. College teachers are generally extremely knowledgeable in their own academic disciplines and yet most are not trained in principles of adult education or in methodologies of how to teach. Does a masters degree in English or a doctorate in chemistry guarantee that one can successfully transmit knowledge in ways that will meet the needs of the adult learner? Higher education teachers usually learn theory and practice on the job if they ever learn it (Eble, 1972, pp. 160-161). Usually professors are viewed as authorities in their disciplines, responsible to disseminate "a defined segment of [their] discipline to students, each of whom is assumed to be motivated to acquire an understanding of it" (Dressel & Marcus, 1982, pp. 4-5).

College teachers are required to make many important educational decisions as they choose content and methods to meet the diverse needs of learners in the university setting. Reflection on an internal set of philosophical concepts can help a teacher recognize values and beliefs and move to create a consistency between these and actions in the classroom. Such reflection can

help an educator make more effective decisions. As adult educational practitioners learn their preferred adult education philosophical orientations and teaching styles, they begin a process which can help them progress toward becoming master teachers.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the adult education philosophies and practiced teaching styles of faculty members at Ricks College in Rexburg, Idaho, which is a two-year private religious institution. The study involved three major components. First, the study identified the individual educational philosophies of college teachers; compared scores by grouping participants by the demographic variables of age, gender, and formal training; and investigated the relationship between philosophical orientations within academic divisions. Second, the study identified the individual teaching styles of college teachers; compared scores by grouping participants by the same demographic variables; and investigated any relationship between teaching styles within academic divisions. Third, the study investigated a relationship and interaction between teaching style and philosophical beliefs.

To accomplish the purpose of this study quantitative data was gathered from full- and a small number of part-time Ricks College faculty. One hundred and ninety-six teachers of the approximately 360 employed showed an interest in helping with this study; 167 participants actually completed the information requested: A sheet of demographic information plus the Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI), which objectively determines an educator's preferred philosophical orientation, and the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), an

objective instrument which indicates a favored teaching style. The 167 respondents represented 46% of the 360 Ricks College teaching faculty and 85% of those who were given the instruments to complete. Responses were entered into a computer database; information resulting from this study was shared at two faculty workshops for teachers who were given individual printouts of their instrument scores.

Findings

This study indicated preferred educational philosophies and predominant teaching styles of Ricks College faculty and grouped scores according to demographic variables of age, gender, formal training in education methodologies, and within academic disciplines. The PAEI showed the highest preference for the Progressive adult education philosophy with a score of 84.9 and standard deviation of 8.7. Perhaps most important is that analysis indicated nearly 50% of participating faculty preferred Progressivism. Therefore, many faculty members at Ricks support Dewey's concepts of American education.

The Progressive school of philosophy has had a "greater impact upon the adult education movement in the United States than any other single school of thought" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 45). Basic principles which come from Progressivism include individual needs and interests, the scientific method of inquiry, and techniques of problem solving. The importance of experience to learning, pragmatic and useful goals, and the concept of an educated person's social responsibility are part of this school of thought. Dewey called for an

education which was not only liberal but practical and lifelong: "Real education comes after we leave school" (p. 55).

Because so many Ricks teachers preferred this philosophy, these educators accept the potential of the individual who is unique and has unlimited capacity for development and growth (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 57). They prefer to be learners themselves and to provide environments conducive to learning by organizing, stimulating, instigating, and evaluating according to student needs (p. 62). They see the practical value of education to the betterment of individuals and society while respecting "the freedom of individuals to be true to their own convictions and commitments" (p. 68).

The faculty's orientation for Progressivism was followed by the Behaviorist philosophy with an average score at 81.8, a standard deviation of 9.3, and with 28% of the respondents favoring this school of thought. This philosophy also encourages the learner to take an active role in learning which is accomplished through trial-and-error methods, behavior modification, and skills training on the part of the student. The teacher acts as a manager to encourage desired behavior changes (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 88). Organization is an important part of this philosophy where the teacher as controller may use programmed instruction, contract learning, computer-assisted instruction, and practice and reinforcement to fulfill behavioral objectives and help ensure growth and survival of the society (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77).

Further analysis showed that when PAEI scores were analyzed with the faculty grouped by demographic variables, there were no significant differences

in age categories. However, when gender was considered, it was found that females tended to prefer the more learner-centered styles of the Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical philosophies. Scores on these philosophies indicated a preference to focus on individual learners, to help them move toward self-actualization, and to encourage them to make meaningful and beneficial changes to society (Zinn, 1991, pp. 76-77). Male teachers preferred self-directedness, classroom interaction, cooperation, critical thinking, and praxis at a lower rate than female teachers at Ricks College.

When grouped according to formal training of Ricks College teachers in education methodology classes, the study showed that those educators with teacher training preferred philosophies more centered to learners and their needs. In fact, with more formal training classes completed, the more the practitioners gave up control to learners to be self-directed in their educational pursuits, and the more these facilitators encouraged many different kinds of teaching methods, techniques, and activities in their classrooms. Those with more training in how to teach had philosophical beliefs in the more learner-centered orientations of Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical.

When respondents were grouped by college divisions of (a) applied disciplines of agriculture, business and engineering technology; (b) behavioral and social sciences; (c) education; (d) humanities; (3) natural science; (f) performing and fine arts; and (g) religious and family living, analysis of data connoted that the Behavioral, Humanistic, and Radical learner-centered education philosophies were favored by education and humanities division

teachers while natural science educators showed an endorsement of the more teacher-centered Liberal philosophy. Instructors of courses within the natural science discipline such as biology, chemistry, physics, and geology tended to see teachers as authorities in their areas of expertise who have the responsibility to disseminate information using a limited number of teaching techniques, preferring the lecture.

The PALS instrument gave evidence that the 167 participating faculty members of Ricks College have a strong overall preference for a teacher-centered style. Their mean of 127 was 19 points below the established mean of 146 with a standard deviation of 20.

Since literature shows a strong relationship between a person's educational philosophy and their teaching style, the 127 score seems to show that Ricks faculty, in preferring an overall teacher-centered mode of instruction, would be more likely to favor a philosophical orientation emphasis on the teacher as the provider of knowledge and the controller of the environment. However, they scored higher in the Progressive school than on any of the other four philosophies.

The individual PALS factors show this inconsistency between preferred educational philosophy and teaching style holds true in six of the seven areas, Factors 2-7: Personalizing Instruction, Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, Climate Building, Participation in the Learning Process, and Flexibility for Personal Development. In all of these factors, Ricks faculty scores were below the standard deviations; Personalizing Instruction, Factor 2, showed

the greatest score below the established mean of 31 compared to the Ricks mean of 21.7 which indicates that faculty do not like to personalize instruction to meet the needs of students and generally see lecturing as a good method of presenting information.

The one individual factor which did not show a preference for a teacher-centered mode of instruction was the main factor, Learner-Centered Activities. The established mean is 38 for this factor, and Ricks faculty scored at 38.6. Ricks faculty have less of a preference for the teacher-centered style in this factor than in Factors 2-7. They fall about halfway between the teacher- and learner- centered styles in areas of formal evaluation and teaching methods.

When PALS scores were grouped by age, it was only Factor 7, Personal Development, which showed that the youngest showed less a preference for the teacher-centered aspects included in this factor. This group was comprised of the 20% of respondents under the age of 40.

Gender differentiation evidenced that females, who comprise 28% of responding faculty members, tend to prefer less of a teacher-centered mode of instruction in Factors 2-5 than do male teachers. These factors include Personalizing Instruction, Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, and Climate Building.

When analysis was done on formal training in teaching methodologies and scores on PALS, the total score and scores of Factors 2 and 6, Personalizing Instruction and Participation in the Learning Process, gave evidence that the

more classes faculty have in education methodologies, the less teacher centered they are in their approach to teaching.

When PALS's scores are related to divisions in which faculty teach, total scores show that humanities teachers are the least teacher centered and the natural science educators the most teacher centered in their styles of teaching. Findings further evidence this same trend within Factors 1 through 7.

Significant differences indicated that in Factor 1, Learner-Centered Activities, the humanities division was less teacher centered in their style than the education division. In Factor 2, Personalizing Instruction, the least teacher-centered divisions were humanities over natural science, education over natural science, and religious/family living over natural science. Factor 3, Relating to Experience, found humanities teachers again less teacher centered than the division of applied courses, natural science, and performing and fine arts. Significant variations in faculty scores showed the humanities division with a lesser teacher-centered style than the division of applied areas of instruction, natural science, and performing and fine arts. Factor 4, Assessing Student Needs, found the humanities and performing and fine arts divisions higher for learner centered than religious and family living. Factor 6, Participation in the Learning Process, indicated humanities and education divisions less teacher centered than natural science and humanities and more attuned to student needs than the applied division. Finally, scores on Factor 7, Flexibility for Personal Development, have humanities less likely to favor a style of a teacher-centered orientation than the natural science division.

When a standardization procedure was performed to compare PAEI and PALS scores to investigate the relationship between an individual's philosophical beliefs and teaching style, analysis indicated a significant relationship. Those participants in the Liberal, Behaviorist, and Mixed schools scored significantly lower on PALS than those in the Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical schools. Further analysis showed the interaction of philosophical beliefs and teaching styles to be separated by teacher-directedness.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Numbers indicated by the respondents' PAEI and PALS scores have a variety of uses for administration personnel and faculty members. These uses may range from hiring activities to teacher inservice improvement needs.

<u>Conclusion #1:</u> The PAEI and PALS are useful tools for facilitating reflective practice.

Seaman and Fellenz (1989) cite four important needs in the teaching/learning process of adult education: (a) needs of the learner, (b) needs of the teacher, (c) situational needs, and (d) content needs (p. 8). The PAEI and PALS instruments are an effective way to address one of these elements: needs of the teacher, which are important and have not been given adequate consideration (p. 8).

Teachers should think about why they teach. Is it for personal prestige, for the pride of accomplishment, to strengthen self confidence, to do something worthwhile for others, or to express their personality or for some other reason? (Seaman & Fellenz, 1989, p. 8). As teachers face their needs, they come to know themselves and their motives (p. 8). "To know others, we have to know ourselves first" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 20). As important as it is to help adult learners view themselves as able and valuable individuals who have the capacity to be self-directing, it is just as critical for teachers to view themselves the same way (p. 21).

To do this, we have to really know who we are: What are our values, beliefs, attitudes, philosophies, and behaviors? How are they congruent? Where do they come from? Do we approve of them? If not, what do we do to change them? (p. 21)

To start the critical reflection process educators need to ask themselves such questions as these: "What is [my] view of the nature of the learner? What is the purpose of the curriculum? What is [my] role as a teacher? What is [my] mission in education?" (Conti, 1991, p. 79). The answers to these questions will help teachers move toward knowing the *why* of what they do in the classroom. The PAEI can help educators compare their beliefs and values with concepts of five philosophical schools: Liberal, Behavioral, Progressive, Humanistic, and Radical.

As teachers desire to improve their performance, they need to know their own personal teaching philosophy and "the degree to which their actions reflect this set of beliefs" (Conti, 1989a, p. 15). PALS has been proven to be a useful

tool to assess teaching style and also to point out areas where inconsistencies are evident (p. 15). The adherence to a specific style is not as important as examining the "internal consistency of each teacher's actions" (p. 15), and as teachers consistently apply their own styles, their adult learners will benefit.

When teachers complete both instruments, they can then examine their scores for congruence. This process of congruence, along with expansion, can "provide a lifetime of inward self-discovery and outward movement" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 8). Congruence involves introspection and then moving toward positive change (p. 8). Expansion comes when an educator examines many possibilities and chooses to try a new belief with an accompanying behavior (p. 12). Movement toward consistency in beliefs and behavior is synergistic by working on separate, possibly deficient, parts of the whole and combining them toward a new whole (p. 9). By "examination and meshing of values, beliefs, attitudes, and behavior" (p. 9), a positive teaching style evolves which works for the individual educator.

The needs of the teacher must also be considered along with the situation or the institution in which the instructor is working. Conti's question, "What is my mission in education?" must correlate with the overall mission of the school if both are to meet their goals. Stephen Covey (1989) addresses the importance of both individual and organizational mission statements. A mission statement is based on a person's values and beliefs and on one's behavior, and it reflects uniqueness of a person or organization (p. 106). Self-awareness is a critical first step (p. 109).

As we go deeply within ourselves, as we understand and realign our basic paradigms, we create both an effective, empowering center and a clear lens through which we can see the world. We can then focus that lens on how we, as unique individuals, relate to that world. (p. 128)

A mission statement can follow an identification of one's philosophical base in education and is a "solid expression of your vision and values. It becomes the criterion by which you measure everything else in your life" (p. 129). Covey talks of the effectiveness that can come when a person aligns behavior with beliefs: "As you do, other people begin to sense that you're not being driven by everything that happens to you. You have a sense of mission about what you're trying to do and you are excited about it" (p. 129).

Whether a person's or an organization's mission statement is actually a written document, both exist and are "vital to successful organizations" (Covey, 1989, p. 139). An organization's mission is a living part of the people who make up the *situation*, which is another important element of the four needs within the teaching and learning process as discussed by Seaman and Fellenz (1989). Although in reality a mission statement may not be a perfect match for what an organization actually does, every organization has a purpose or mission, and it is up to the adult educator to reflect on the institution's mission in relation to what that educator is trying to accomplish in the classroom (p. 13).

The Ricks College Mission Statement is very definitive. First of all, the college is committed to its religious Christian ideals which seek continual progression through problem solving and behavioral change so that church members can practice what they believe and value. The Mormon Church

believes that all people have unlimited and eternal potential to develop themselves. They are encouraged to learn all they can, to be lifelong learners, and to apply good principles in their daily living. They feel a social responsibility to give service and try to meet the needs of others. They maintain the importance of the individual and that person's relationship to Christ. All of these concepts except specifically the religious aspects align with the Progressive philosophy (Zinn, 1991) and with the college's mission statement (see Appendix D). This mission statement mentions the diverse interests and abilities of its students and aims to meet those needs as well as to prepare students to go forth into the world as fill their roles as citizens and parents.

Because of the beliefs of the Mormon Church to which all Ricks College teachers belong and because of the Ricks College Mission Statement, it is imperative that faculty members assess their own educational philosophies and their classroom teaching styles and critically reflect upon the congruence between the two. They need individually to ask themselves what kind of congruence exists where philosophy and behavior are concerned. This kind of examination can address the second element in the teaching/learning process which Seaman and Fellenz express (1989).

Recommendations for Administration

1. New teachers who are hired at Ricks College could be encouraged to take the PAEI and PALS instruments to begin the critical reflective process that leads to becoming better educators.

Sometimes it is difficult to take time out from "doing" adult education, in order to think about *why* you do what you do. However, a little effort in this direction from time to time can reap valuable benefits. (Zinn, 1991, p. 56)

New teachers need to begin their educational journey by realizing the value to be found in relating beliefs to actions. Many college teachers have never had formal classes in adult teaching methodologies. By taking these instruments, educators can understand what concepts they believe about education. This awareness may make them more attentive to their actions in the classroom.

2. Before they begin their teaching assignments, new teachers could be asked to attend a workshop where they are given their individual scores on the two surveys. Engaging the new teachers in some practical activities may help them understand how philosophy and teaching style relate. Teachers could be grouped according to their teaching style scores and then given a teaching situation to discuss. One person from each group could be asked to summarize the group's problem-solving method and the conclusions that were reached. This is one activity where the educators may see the different ways to approach situations within the classroom.

Each new teacher could be given a framed copy of the Ricks College Mission Statement (see Appendix D), and the mission statement could become a living part of a teacher's educational experience. It could provide a philosophical statement in line with the aims of the college and needs to be visible to the practitioner and students.

The workshop director could share principles of adult education with the teachers. Elements could include the learning climate, planning, diagnosis of needs, setting goals, designing a learning plan, a variety of learning activities, and evaluation methods.

Few college teachers would probably be able to discuss in detail concepts of accepted educational philosophies. A handout could be given which summarizes these various philosophical schools. The workshop leader could share these ideas using a variety of presentation methods to help the new teachers understand different approaches. Teachers could leave this workshop with a basic knowledge of each of the philosophies and ideas for techniques that blend well with the Ricks College Mission Statement.

3. The teachers could immediately become part of the college's ongoing inservice instructional development program discussed below under Conclusion #4. From the beginning of their teaching experience, they can feel the college's desire for constant improvement and the administration's commitment to faculty development. The workshop and further training could encourage the setting of goals toward such improvement.

4. Teachers already employed at Ricks could be encouraged to take the PAEI and PALS inventories. These surveys have been found to be extremely beneficial in helping the adult educator define and investigate philosophical orientation and teaching style. "In every phase of life, people believe certain things about the activities they perform. The act of

'philosophizing' is an attempt to express such beliefs, whether for one's own clarification or to communicate more clearly with others" (Zinn, 1991, p. 44).

A myth seems to exist among practitioners of many service-oriented fields that philosophy is the exclusive domain of a few select academicians. However, the application [of philosophical thought] to real-life situations depends on how willing practitioners are to reflect on why they do what they do. (White & Brockett, 1987, p. 11)

The teachers could be given a list of benefits of clarifying one's personal philosophy and teaching style. These include (a) providing a consistent basis for making decisions and for judging educational practices; (b) helping separate the most important from the trivial; (c) developing techniques of critical reflection; (d) expanding one's vision and enhancing personal meaning in one's life; (e) assisting in realizing and settling conflicts between beliefs and actions; (f) providing awareness into relationships that exist between a teacher and a student, the student and course content, and course content and the world; (g) clarifying how one's work as an educator relates to the problems of society and individuals; (h) helping one ask and answer more appropriate questions about educational programming; and (i) helping the educator become more self-directed, more able to resolve problems, and assume leadership (Zinn, 1991, p. 45). Administration could begin the inservice faculty improvement program discussed in Conclusion #4 below by encouraging all teachers to take these surveys since the results will form an important part of the program.

5. Present teachers could be encouraged to attend a workshop where they are given framed copies of the mission statement and the same information,

handouts, and activities as those given to new teachers. The educators could be given specific time in this workshop to interactively try out some of the techniques of teaching styles which match well with the mission statement of the college.

6. An ongoing inservice instructional development program that will address adult education principles, educational philosophies and teaching styles and their relationship with each other, and application of learner-centered methodologies could be given; see recommendations under Conclusion #4 below. It is important to get a buy-in from teachers by explaining to them the benefits of such a program and how it will be specific to their particular divisions so that they can interact with those who teach in similar areas.

7. Administration could offer instructors an incentive for attending the workshops developed for this recommended program. This incentive could be a monetary one in the form of a merit raise or allotment. It might also involve a special certificate for completion of certain blocks of the program, a faculty dinner honoring participants, or a monetary amount to purchase educational materials. It is recommended that a faculty committee with members from each of the divisions be formed to solicit incentive ideas from the faculty at large. These ideas could then be brainstormed at a meeting where the representatives have the responsibility to decide the motivation that they feel would be most beneficial and accepted by the largest number of teachers.

Recommendations for Teachers

1. Teachers could be encouraged to complete the PAEI and PALS inventories and take advantage of workshops which will elaborate on the Ricks College Mission Statement and the relationship between educational philosophies and teaching styles. It is up to the administration to give the most advantageous explanation to the faculty for reasons to complete these surveys and attend the workshops which will explain the faculty development program.

2. Teachers could be encouraged to begin the critical reflection process and set individual goals to help them become more effective teachers. As faculty members attend the workshop which will explain the inservice plan, they may come to understand the importance of critical reflection and could be encouraged as part of the inservice program to set individual goals and perhaps departmental goals as well. This recommendation may be accomplished as the faculty program moves forward.

3. Teachers could be encouraged to attend inservice opportunities offered by the college's academic instructional personnel. As they become involved in this program and are offered incentives for their support and participation, they may be more willing to give their time to attend the workshops and discussion groups which could form a part of the program. Because many of these meetings will be held by divisions, teachers could work with other educators who teach in related fields. They may use these occasions to personalize the faculty improvement program to benefit them and their own circumstances.

Conclusion #2: Formal training in educational methodologies can contribute to teachers adopting an approach to meet the individual needs and learning styles of students.

When faculty participants' scores on the PAEI were analyzed, they indicated those teachers who had formal training in educational methodologies tended to be less teacher centered in their approach to education than those with little or no formal training. Trained teachers were more likely to have an approach designed to meet learners' needs in the classroom. On scores of PALS, participants who had several formal classes in education methodologies were less teacher centered than those instructors who had little or no formal training in teaching. Therefore, it was concluded that training in educational methodologies and techniques of teaching encourage educators to make more of an effort to meet the individual needs of students.

Recommendations for Administration

1. Ricks College teachers could be given an incentive for attending formal courses in adult education principles and teaching methodologies. Many college teachers have doctorates in their specialties. These doctoral programs are content oriented and therefore do not contain any provisions for teaching people how to teach. Nevertheless, many people from these content-oriented

programs end up at colleges and universities in the teaching profession.

Consequently, it becomes important that they be taught how to teach.

The Ph.D. is now the prime educational requisite for entering the [college teaching] profession, and very few Ph.D. programs make any provision whatsoever for the development of teaching skills. Compared to the prestige and recognition, monetary as well as intangible, attaching to scholarly attainment, the few awards for distinguished teaching are pathetic. (Knapp, 1965, p. 298)

Incentives can be a positive way to reward teachers for their involvement in faculty improvement. As discussed in Conclusion #1 and Recommendation #7 above, it is recommended that faculty representatives from each division be asked to represent all teachers and gather ideas for incentives to which teachers would be most receptive. Teachers could be given merit pay increases when they complete a certain number of credit courses in teaching methodologies similar to pay ladders for elementary and secondary educators.

2. Information regarding availability of such courses at other institutions, particularly summer courses, could be distributed to the faculty. This could be disseminated by administration in the faculty and staff bulletin which goes regularly to all personnel. These courses could be in philosophical, psychological, and methodological foundations and in the professional subject matter of college and higher education. The college could pay for textbooks or part of the tuition costs as an incentive.

3. A good avenue to offer helpful inservice credit classes which could easily and profitably benefit college faculty would be to utilize the continuing education division and its distance learning capabilities to transmit and receive

satellite teaching courses. Classes could be taught from the Ricks campus; videotapes could be made available to those who might be unable to attend the live broadcasts. Classes from other universities, particularly Brigham Young University, which will share a transmission link in the future with Ricks, could also be taken by faculty members. Since Ricks has begun to experiment with this teaching medium, it would be a good opportunity to utilize the technology and also help the inservice program.

4. When division chairpersons are in the process of hiring new teachers, they could be encouraged by academic administration personnel to screen for applicants who have had formal training in teaching methodologies. Applicants could be required to list formal courses which they have completed that deal with adult education philosophies, psychology, and teaching methods. Too often in practice, "a teacher gets a position on a college faculty not because he can teach, but by demonstrating that he has been taught" (Knapp, 1965, p. 300). All applicants who are interviewed could be placed in a classroom where they will teach a concept in their area of expertise. Their teaching ability could be observed by chairpersons who will make hiring decisions. Newly hired teachers who do not have training in teaching methodologies could be provided with a mentor from the same department who is considered an outstanding teacher. This mentor might receive a stipend for this service and could be a professional asset to the incoming teacher.

5. Newly hired teachers who can show proof of formal training in education methodologies could be given a small increase in the beginning salary

level over teachers with no such training. Again, this pay increase could be calculated according to a pay ladder instituted at the college like those which are in place in many elementary and secondary schools.

Recommendations for Teachers

1. Teachers could be encouraged to attend formal courses in adult education principles and teaching methodologies to enlarge their knowledge base. If teachers have a voice in incentive decisions and are motivated in this way by the college's administration, they may be more encouraged to put forth the time and money necessary to complete educational classes.

2. Teachers could be encouraged to create opportunities to share with one another their knowledge and experience of teaching principles. "Colleagues are an extremely important part of the teaching environment" (Eble, 1972, p. 148). Studies have shown that teachers who are interested in teaching are the best teachers (p. 148). "Good teachers talk to other good teachers" (p. 148).

Colleagues are in a strong position to affect the teaching performance of other colleagues. The superior teacher does not just assume his role when he steps into the classroom. The superior teacher can talk about and exemplify many of the particulars of his teaching. Given the right contexts [which do not come into being by natural processes], superior teachers might exercise more influence on their colleagues than they now do. (p. 149)

Eble talks about developing a community of scholars in the interest of improvement of teachers. Such a community would involve close personal relationships cultivated among and between faculty members, administrators,

and learners which is necessary for a college to function as a neighborhood for teaching-learning (p. 150).

Division and department chairpersons may take the opportunity to make time available for peer discussions and interactions, perhaps as part of their regularly scheduled faculty meetings. An adult education principle or an interactive classroom activity could be shared each month by a teacher and then discussion could be encouraged.

3. Teachers could be encouraged to keep current with adult education concepts and read articles and books which will increase their understanding of educational theory and practice. "Faculty members should be aware of general developments in higher education, especially developments directly related to teaching and learning" (Eble, 1972, p. 160). Department chairpersons could be responsible to make articles and books available which can enhance teaching practices. The "Teaching for Success" series, which is now available to Ricks College faculty members, could be reviewed each month by a different department faculty member and one of the strategies explained and enlarged upon at monthly faculty meetings.

Conclusion #3: Ricks College faculty who teach in the natural science areas are extremely teacher centered in their educational approaches and practices and therefore may not be making accommodations for individual student needs.

Recommendations for Administration

1. A small number of natural science division faculty members to include division and department chairpersons could be encouraged to attend specific university courses in teaching methodologies and adult learning principles. These teachers might be given sabbatical time for this purpose; they could receive a monetary incentive and have some of the costs paid by Ricks College. These teachers should be carefully selected and be practitioners who are open minded to new methods and techniques, eager to try them, and enthusiastic about sharing their expanding knowledge and experiences.

2. These trained teachers could then become mentors for the other natural science division faculty to help them develop new methods and techniques that will encourage more variety in their interactions with students. "Professional development facilitators find that staff gain much more from interactions with colleagues...than they do simply from words on paper" (Lindquist, 1981, p. 745).

3. Types of mentoring could be discussed at a brainstorming/discussion session for the natural science division so they may have a voice in this plan. Synergism is an important part of this mentoring program. Those who participate in the brainstorming meeting could be encouraged to give their opinions and ideas which may be valued by the group and acted upon. This acceptance may help provide a buy-in from these teachers. Department chairpersons may lead these sessions.

4. Such an improvement program could be encouraged by way of incentives which might be discussed at the brainstorming session. As teachers come together, they may find they have many ideas on incentives and motivations. The department head may be able to ascertain possible problems or opposition to such a program and also those who are eager to participate and might be used to encourage others. Department heads could then be the liaisons between teachers and the division chairperson to discuss actions and concerns to be addressed.

Recommendations for Teachers

1. Natural science teachers could be encouraged to complete the PAEI and PALS instruments and begin the critical reflection process by setting worthwhile goals for improvement. This procedure might be initiated within the college as a whole at the outset of the faculty improvement program. It is important to get the support of the department heads and the division chair who may also take these surveys and become part of the development plan.

2. These teachers could seek out the trained mentors within their division and be willing to experiment with different teaching approaches and techniques. The educators who have taken training in educational methodologies could be allotted time to work with teachers in their departments. Ideas which have been generated from the brainstorming sessions could be implemented to encourage the mentor strategy.

3. Teachers in the natural sciences could be encouraged to participate in their division's instructional development training program. Strong leadership from the department heads in this division can be a positive force in encouraging participation of these teachers. Also, incentives which are meaningful and provide motivation may be helpful in advancing this undertaking.

Conclusion #4: Ricks faculty tend to be inconsistent in their most preferred educational philosophy, Progressive, and their subsequent teaching style, teacher centered.

Analysis of participating faculty scores indicated almost half of the teachers have a Progressive adult education philosophical orientation on the PAEI and a strong teacher-centered style on PALS. The discriminant analysis showed that it is teacher directedness that is the determining factor separating the groups of Ricks College instructors between philosophy and teaching style. This investigation revealed an inconsistency between beliefs and actions.

Recommendations for Administration

1. Because the literature supports the uniqueness of adult learning principles, a specific inservice instructional development program could be implemented in a fall semester. This training could begin at sessions where there is a discussion of the college's mission, history, curriculum, and teaching.

Faculty could be taught concepts of all major educational philosophies and encouraged to reflect on them and what they imply in the field of education.

2. Within this instructional development program there could be provision for dissemination of information and activities in adult learning principles and in a variety of teaching methods and techniques to give faculty the option of trying different approaches in their classrooms.

In order to enhance the learning experience of the adult student, the university professor faces the challenge of seeking ways of providing an environment that supports [the art and methods of teaching]. This can be achieved by examining the principles of adult learning and incorporating these concepts into course design. (Sweeney, 1988, p. 10)

Such training can encourage a more learner-centered approach to education, consistent with the Ricks mission statement and the principles in the adult education literature. Interactive teaching could be done at these meetings by a teacher who is enthusiastic and trained in the most current adult education principles.

3. The program could be organized for, and separately presented to, each division so that what is shared may be most useful to faculty members teaching in related academic areas. It is anticipated that the participation would be a large enough percentage of the faculty that it would be profitable to hold these individual workshops by division. Some divisions could be combined to be sure that money and time are used wisely.

4. The inservice instructional development program could vary somewhat from division to division to meet the needs of these teachers based on

analysis of data from this study. For example, this study found that on PALS Factor 3 teachers in the applied technology areas showed a strong teacher-centered preference for Relating to Experience. Adult learning principles suggest that these instructors could benefit from instruction and activities that help them consider students' prior experiences and that encourage learners to relate new learning to their previous experiences. Learning activities could be encouraged to help students solve everyday problems. Also, students could be urged to ask basic questions about society and move from teacher dependence to a more independent position (Conti, 1991, pp. 84-85).

5. Some type of incentive could be given to teachers for attending this development program. This has been discussed previously. The recommendation was made to hold brainstorming sessions within departments so that faculty members may have a voice in the selection of incentives which would be most motivating and meaningful to them.

6. The training could be developed on an annual basis. After the winter semester, there could be a well-planned evaluation by division to assess results and to make goals for what will be the focus of the next year's program. It is recommended that faculty representatives from each department be part of the evaluation process and part of the planning procedures to keep the program ongoing. These representatives could be the contact people for other faculty members within their specific academic areas.

7. Part of this organized training could be instruction based on the seven individual PALS factors which are components founded on literature in

adult education which supports the collaborative teaching approach to education. The PALS survey will already have identified scores for each faculty member so each will be aware of which factors are most valuable for instruction. Individual scores will highlight areas where there are inconsistencies. Conti (1991) states that

Critical reflection is called for in areas that are inconsistent. Such reflection may lead to changes in either your educational philosophy or to a restructuring of your general life philosophy. (p. 89)

Teachers may feel encouraged to complete the PAEI and PALS instruments if they realize that much of their faculty improvement training will be based on these items.

8. Another component of the training is important to help teachers have the motivation to support the program. This area deals with striving for a consistency between one's educational philosophy and teaching style. There is a correlation between what we profess to value in our lives and our subsequent behavior. People have life philosophies that provide a framework by which they live and act. This concept relates well to the teachings of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints whose members try to make actions consistent with their beliefs and values. Emphasizing a correlation between this life philosophy and one's educational philosophy will be a positive motivation for faculty to support and participate in this development program.

9. The administration could utilize the demographic data from this research to do further analyses by using personnel information on faculty

members' teaching experience and completion of formal education classes in connection with responses from students' teacher evaluations.

Recommendations for Teachers

1. Teachers could be encouraged to attend their division's specific instructional development training program. Again, a voice in some of the parameters of the program and in the selected incentives may help the faculty to be part of this improvement plan. It is advantageous for teachers to realize that "professional development is in essence adult development" (Lindquist, 1981, p. 732) and not only are they "developing adults but *aid* in the development of other adults--their students" (p. 732). "If academics are seen as developing adults who aid the development of other adults, it becomes clear that professional development is critical to the renewal of the American college" (p. 732).

2. Teachers could be encouraged to strive for a consistency between their preferred educational philosophy orientation and their teaching style. "The goal should be to have congruency among the basic assumptions upon which [one's] philosophy is built" (Conti, 1991, p. 89). Conflict, or an inconsistency in the teacher's classroom behavior

Can send confusing messages to students, undermine the student's ability to predict teacher actions, and demonstrate the lack of a comprehensive understanding of an education philosophy as an organizing force for a personal credo to direct classroom behaviors. (Conti, 1985a, pp. 9-10)

The process of developing "internally compatible assumptions...which communicate consistent patterns of teacher behavior to expectant students" (p.

11) can take place as Ricks educators participate in this inservice instructional development program and learn how to critically reflect on what they believe, value, and practice. "This reflection-in-action approach to professional practice is a problem-solving process" (Conti, 1991, p. 80). Research is emerging which "reinforces the need for teachers to assess their style and to reflect upon the implications which that style has for their learners in the classroom" (p. 80).

Conclusion #5: The scoring of the PAEI makes it difficult to use in quantitative comparisons of the type done in this study.

While the concepts of the PAEI and PALS are conceptionally compatible in suggesting a correlation, the scoring method of the PAEI makes it difficult to do a statistical comparison. The scores are not standardized, and the instrument does not necessarily indicate a strong preferred philosophy but may indicate a preference for more than one philosophical school because the participant has equal scores for two or more philosophies. In this study it was necessary to convert PAEI scores to percentages to complete a procedure where an individual's scores for each of the five philosophical areas could be compared to each other and then to scores on the PALS survey.

1. It is recommended that norms be set up on the PAEI instrument so that comparisons can be accomplished more easily. Standardization would aid in the defining of a specific preferred philosophical stance.

2. It is recommended that the philosophy of Realism be added to the PAEI or included in a new survey of adult education philosophical concepts. This important educational philosophy is not included in the PAEI instrument because Zinn follows the categories given by Elias and Merriam (1995). Its inclusion would provide for a better scale in determining one's preferred adult education philosophy.

Summary

It is not surprising with Ricks College's religious orientation and mission statement that those teachers participating in this study show a preference for the Progressive, more learner-centered adult education philosophy which supports this mode. However, when teaching style is considered, these educators indicated they use a more teacher-centered educational style in the classroom. This portrait of inconsistency is a starting point where teachers can be encouraged to become reflective practitioners and where administrators can take steps for specific educational training and improvement as the faculty progress on their journey to becoming master teachers.

The creation of an ongoing inservice instruction training program to eliminate what are considerable inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and practices is seen as being a valuable consideration for Ricks College administration. At the very least, the college should examine the feasibility of creating an instructional guide for every faculty member which contains the PAEI and PALS instruments, information on adult education principles and teaching

styles, details on the correlation of educational philosophies and styles with life philosophies and styles, alternate methods and techniques, examples of interactive activities, questions to be considered in discussions and meetings with peers, and ways to meet individual student needs.

Ricks College is a unique institution for higher learning with a definitive mission. It cannot afford not to be the best it can be, to be a light on a hill, and to let that light shine.

Your students deserve more than your knowledge. They deserve and hunger for your inspiration. They want the warm glow of personal relationship. This always has been the hallmark of a great teacher. (Gordon B. Hinckley, personal communication with L. B. Warnick, June 5, 1997)

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
INSTRUMENTS

PHILOSOPHY OF ADULT EDUCATION INVENTORY

Lorraine M. Zinn, Ph.D.
August 1983

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INSTRUCTIONS FOR INVENTORY COMPLETION

Each of the fifteen (15) items on the Inventory begins with an incomplete sentence, followed by five different options that might complete the sentence. To the right of each option is a scale from 1 to 7, followed by a small letter in parentheses. Ignore the letters; use only the numbers on the scale.

To complete the Inventory, read each sentence stem and each optional phrase that completes it. On the 1 - 7 scale, **CIRCLE** the number that most closely indicates how you feel about each option. The scale goes from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with a neutral point (4) if you don't have any opinion or aren't sure about a particular option.

Continue through all the items, reading the sentence stem and indicating how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the options. Please respond to every option, even if you feel neutral about it.

As you go through the Inventory, respond according to what you generally believe, rather than thinking about a specific class you may be teaching. **HAVE FUN!**

		Strongly Disagree			Neutral		Strongly Agree		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1.	In planning an educational activity, I am most likely to								
•	identify, in conjunction with learners, significant social and political issues and plan learning activities around them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
•	clearly identify the results I want and construct a program that will almost run itself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
•	begin with a lesson plan that organizes what I plan to teach, when and how.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
•	assess learner's needs and develop valid learning activities based on those needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	©
•	consider the areas of greatest interest to the learners and plan to deal with them regardless of what they may be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
2.	People learn best								
•	when the new knowledge is presented from a problem-solving approach.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	when the learning activity provides for practice and repetition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
•	through dialog with other learners and a group coordinator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	when they are free to explore, without the constraints of a "system".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)
•	from an "expert" who knows what he or she is talking about.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
3.	The primary purpose of adult education is								
•	to facilitate personal development on the part of the learner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
•	to increase learners' personal awareness of the need for social change and to enable them to effect such change.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
•	to develop conceptual and theoretical understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
•	to establish the learner's capacity to solve individual and societal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	©
•	to develop the learners' skills competency and mastery of specific skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
4.	Most of what people know								
•	is a result of consciously pursuing their goals, solving problems as they go.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	they have learned enough through critical thinking focused on important social and political issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	they have learned through a trial-and-feedback process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
•	they have learned through self-discovery rather than some "teaching" process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)
•	they have acquired through a systematic educational process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)

		Strongly Disagree			Neutral		Strongly Agree		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.	Decisions about what to include in an educational activity								
•	should be made mostly by the learner in consultation with a facilitator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
•	should be based on what learners know and what the teacher believes they should know at the end of the activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
•	should be based on a consideration of key social and cultural situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
•	should be based on a consideration of the learners' needs, interests, and problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
•	should be based on careful analysis by the teacher of the material to be covered and the concepts to be taught.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
6.	Good adult educators start planning instruction								
•	by considering the end behaviors they are looking for and the most efficient ways of producing them in learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
•	by identifying problems that can be solved as a result of the instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	by clarifying the concepts or theoretical principles to be taught.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
•	by clarifying key social and political issues that affect the lives of the learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	by asking learners to identify what they want to learn and how they want to learn it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)
7.	As an adult educator, I am most successful in situations								
•	that are unstructured and flexible enough to follow learners' interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
•	that are fairly structured, with clear learning objectives and built in feedback to the learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
•	where I can focus on practical skills and knowledge that can be put to use in solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
•	where the scope of the new material is fairly clear and the matter is logically organized.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
•	where the learners have some awareness of social and political issues and are willing to explore the impact of such issues on their daily lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
8.	In planning an educational activity, I try to create								
•	the real world — problems and all — and to develop learners' capacities for dealing with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	a setting in which learners are encouraged to examine three beliefs and values and to raise critical questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	a controlled environment that attracts and holds the learners, moving them systematically towards the objective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)

		Strongly Disagree			Neutral		Strongly Agree		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8.	(continued) In planning an educational activity, I try to create								
	• a clear outline of the content and the concepts to be taught.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
	• a supportive climate that facilitates self-discovery and interaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)
9.	The learners' feelings during the learning process								
	• must be brought to the surface in order for learners to become truly involved in their learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
	• provide energy that can be focused on problems or questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
	• will probably have a great deal to do with the way they approach their learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
	• are used by The skillful adult educator to accomplish the learning objective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
	• may get in the way of teaching by diverting the learners attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
10.	The teaching methods I use								
	• focus on problem-solving and present real challenges to the learner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
	• emphasize practice and feedback to the learner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
	• are mostly non-directive, encouraging the learner to take responsibility for his/her own learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)
	• involve learners in dialog and critical examination of controversial issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
	• are determined primarily by the subject or content to be covered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
11.	When learners are uninterested in a subject it is because								
	• they do not realize how serious the consequences of not understanding or learning the subject may be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
	• they do not see any benefit for their daily lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
	• the teacher does not know enough about the subject or is unable to make interesting to the learner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
	• they are not getting adequate feedback during the process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
	• they are not ready to learn it or it is not a high priority for them personally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
12.	Differences among adult learners								
	• are relatively unimportant as long as the learners gain a common base of understanding through the learning experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
	• enable them to learn best on their own time and in their own way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(l)

		Strongly Disagree			Neutral		Strongly Agree		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. (Continued)	Differences among adult learners								
•	are primarily due to differences in their life experiences and will usually lead them to make different applications of new knowledge and skills to their own situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	Arise from their particular and social situations and can be minimized as they recognize common needs and problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	will not interfere with their learning if each learner is given adequate opportunity for practice and reinforcement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
13.	Evaluation of instructions								
•	is not of great importance and may not be possible, because the impact of learning may not be evident until much later.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(e)
•	should be built into the system, so that learners will continually receive feedback and adjust their performance accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
•	is best done by the learners themselves, for their own purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
•	lets me know how much learners have increased their conceptual understanding of new material.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
•	is best accomplished when the learner encounters a problem, either in the learning setting or in the real world, and successfully resolves it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
14.	My primary role as a teacher of adult is to								
•	guide learners through learning experiences with well-directed feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(g)
•	systematically lead learners step-by-step in acquiring new information and understanding underlying theories and concepts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(f)
•	help learners identify and learn to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(h)
•	increase learners' awareness of environmental and social issues and help them learn how to have an impact on these situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(j)
•	facilitate, but not to direct, learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(i)
15.	In the end, if learners have not learned what was taught,								
•	the teacher has not actually taught.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(a)
•	they need to repeat the experience, or a portion of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(b)
•	they may have learned something else which they consider just as interesting or useful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(d)
•	they do not recognize how learning will enable them to significantly influence society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)
•	it is probably because they are unable to make practical application of new knowledge to problems in their daily lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(c)

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

After completing the Inventory, go back to your responses and find the small letter in parentheses to the far right of each rating scale. This is a code letter for scoring the Inventory. Transfer each of your numbers from the rating scales to the SCORING MATRIX in the right-hand column. For example, for item #1, if you circled a 5 for option (a), write the number 5 in the box for 1(a). Note that item #1 has five different responses: a, c, d, f, h. *Record all five of your responses for item #1*, then continue with #2 - #15 (which also have five different responses each). When you finish, there will be numbers in *every other square* in the SCORING MATRIX (like a checkerboard).

YOUR TOTAL SCORES

Now, add all the numbers by columns, from top to bottom, so you have *ten* separate subtotals. None of these subtotals should be higher than 56; nor should any be lower than 7. For TOTAL SCORES, combine the subtotals from the columns on the Scoring Matrix, as indicated below. Note: TOTAL SCORES should be no higher than 105, nor lower than 15.

L (a + v) = _____ B (c + w) = _____ P (d + x) = _____

H (f + y) = _____ R (h + z) = _____

[PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT COLUMN
AND COMPLETE THE
SCORING MATRIX.]

Philosophy of Adult Education® SCORING MATRIX

ITEM	c	w	a	v	d	x	f	y	h	z
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										
8										
9										
10										
11										
12										
13										
14										
15										
SUB-TOTALS										
ADD	c + w		a + v		d + x		f + y		h + z	
YOUR SCORES	B =		C =		P =		H =		S =	

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

Directions: The following survey contains several things that a teacher of adults might do in a classroom. You may personally find some of them desirable and find others undesirable. For each item please respond to the way you most frequently practice the action described in the item. Your choices are Always, Almost Always, Often, Seldom, Almost Never, and Never. On your answer sheet, circle 0 if you always do the event; circle number 1 if you almost always do the event; circle number 2 if you often do the event; circle number 3 if you seldom do the event; circle number 4 if you almost never do the event; and circle number 5 if you never do the event. If the item *does not apply* to you, circle number 5 for never.

Always	Almost Always	Often	Seldom	Almost Never	Never
0	1	2	3	4	5

1. I allow students to participate in developing the criteria for evaluating their performance in class.
2. I use disciplinary action when it is needed.
3. I allow older students more time to complete assignments when they need it.
4. I encourage students to adopt middle class values.
5. I help students diagnose the gaps between their goals and their present level of performance.
6. I provide knowledge rather than serve as a resource person.
7. I stick to the instructional objectives that I write at the beginning of a program.
8. I participate in the informal counseling of students.
9. I use lecturing as the best method for presenting my subject material to adult students.
10. I arrange the classroom so that it is easy for students to interact.
11. I determine the educational objectives for each of my students.
12. I plan units which differ as widely as possible from my students' socio-economic backgrounds.
13. I get a student to motivate himself/herself by confronting him/her in the presence of classmates during group discussions.
14. I plan learning episodes to take into account my students' prior experiences.
15. I allow students to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class.
16. I use one basic teaching method because I have found that most adults have a similar style of learning.
17. I use different techniques depending on the students being taught.
18. I encourage dialogue among my students.
19. I use written tests to assess the degree of academic growth rather than to indicate new directions for learning.
20. I utilize the many competencies that most adults already possess to achieve educational objectives.
21. I use what history has proven that adults need to learn as my chief criteria for planning learning episodes.
22. I accept errors as a natural part of the learning process.
23. I have individual conferences to help students identify their educational needs.
24. I let each student work at his/her own rate regardless of the amount of time it takes him/her to learn a new concept.
25. I help my students develop short-range as well as long-range objectives.
26. I maintain a well disciplined classroom to reduce interferences to learning.
27. I avoid discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgements.
28. I allow my students to take periodic breaks during class.

29. I use methods that foster quiet, productive desk-work.
30. I use tests as my chief method of evaluating students.
31. I plan activities that will encourage each student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.
32. I gear my instructional objectives to match the individual abilities and needs of the students.
33. I avoid issues that relate to the student's concept of himself/herself.
34. I encourage my students to ask questions about the nature of their society.
35. I allow a student's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.
36. I have my students identify their own problems that need to be solved.
37. I give all students in my class the same assignment on a given topic.
38. I use materials that were originally designed for students in elementary and secondary schools.
39. I organize adult learning episodes according to the problems that my students encounter in everyday life.
40. I measure a student's long term educational growth by comparing his/her total achievement in class to his/her expected performance as measured by national norms from standardized tests.
41. I encourage competition among my students.
42. I use different materials with different students.
43. I help students relate new learning to their prior experiences.
44. I teach units about problems of everyday living.

Principles of Adult Learning Scale
Answer Sheet

	Always		Almost Always		Often		Seldom		Almost Never		Never	
	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
1.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
2.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
3.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
4.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
5.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
6.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
7.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
8.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
9.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
10.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
11.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
12.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
13.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
14.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
15.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
16.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
17.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
18.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
19.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
20.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
21.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
22.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
23.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
24.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
25.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
26.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
27.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
28.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
29.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
30.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
31.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
32.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
33.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
34.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
35.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
36.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
37.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
38.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
39.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
40.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
41.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
42.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
43.	0	1	2	3	4	5						
44.	0	1	2	3	4	5						

PALS SCORES FOR EACH FACTOR

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
2. _____	3. _____	14. _____	5. _____
4. _____	9. _____	31. _____	8. _____
11. _____	17. _____	34. _____	23. _____
12. _____	24. _____	39. _____	25. _____
13. _____	32. _____	43. _____	Total _____
16. _____	35. _____	44. _____	
19. _____	37. _____	Total _____	
21. _____	41. _____		
29. _____	42. _____		
30. _____	Total _____		
38. _____			
40. _____			
Total _____			

Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
18. _____	1. _____	6. _____
20. _____	10. _____	7. _____
22. _____	15. _____	26. _____
28. _____	36. _____	27. _____
Total _____	Total _____	33. _____
		Total _____

Factor	Factor Name	Average Score	Your Score	Difference
1	Learner Centered Activities	38	_____	_____
2	Personalizing Instruction	31	_____	_____
3	Relating to Experience	21	_____	_____
4	Assessing Student Needs	14	_____	_____
5	Climate Building	16	_____	_____
6	Participation in Learning Process	13	_____	_____
7	Flexibility for Personal Development	13	_____	_____

Negative Items

Item numbers 2,4,6,7,9,11,12,13,16,19,21,26,27,29,30,33,37,38,40, and 41 are negative items. For negative items, the following values are assigned: Always=0, Almost Always=1, Often=2, Seldom=3, Almost Never=4, and Never=5.

Missing Items

Omitted items are assigned a neutral value of 2.5.

Factor 1

Factor 1 contains item numbers 2,4,11,12,13,16,19,21,29,30,38, and 40.

Factor 2

Factor 2 contains item numbers 3,9,17,24,32,35,37,41, and 42.

Factor 3

Factor 3 contains item numbers 14,31,34,39,43, and 44.

Factor 4

Factor 4 contains item numbers 5,8,23, and 25.

Factor 5

Factor 5 contains item numbers 18,20,22, and 28.

Factor 6

Factor 6 contains item numbers 1,10,15, and 36.

Factor 7

Factor 7 contains item numbers 6,7,26,27, and 33.

Computing Scores

An individual's total score on the instrument is calculated by summing the value of the responses to all items. Factor scores are calculated by summing the value of the responses for each item in the factor.

Factor Score Values

Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	38	8.3
2	31	6.8
3	21	4.9
4	14	3.6
5	16	3.0
6	13	3.5
7	13	3.9

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Department: _____

Social Security Number (used only for tracking purposes):

Age:

_____ 29 and younger

_____ 30-39

_____ 40-49

_____ 50-59

_____ 60 and over

Gender:

_____ female

_____ male

Formal training in Education Methodologies:

_____ 4 or more formal classes

_____ 2-3 formal classes

_____ 1 formal class

_____ No formal methodology class

Teaching Experience (indicate by years):

K-12 _____

Jr. college _____

4-year college or university _____

APPENDIX B
FACULTY LETTERS

November 6, 1996

Dear Colleague:

I am writing this letter because I need the benefit of your years of experience in education! Authorities have concluded few teachers think deeply about why they are doing what they do in the classroom or about the purposes or consequences of education. Yet, knowledge of educational philosophy gives direction to practice. I am currently addressing this problem in a case study to determine the adult educational philosophical orientations and teaching styles of Ricks's faculty. This study can help individual faculty members reflect on their teaching philosophies and techniques and can benefit this institution and others as they continue to establish staff development programs.

Your help is needed to make this study possible. I am asking your assistance in completing two fully validated instruments which have been used nationwide: The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory and The Principles of Adult Learning Scale. Time involved for completion will be about 30 minutes. Your responses will be anonymous; social security numbers will be requested for a tracking system to make possible a correlation of my data with existing Ricks demographic information. At no time will your social security number be in the hands of anyone who would be able to match it with your name.

I will generate a summary of this analysis and individual scores back to you at a "brown bag lunch" session which will address ways these instruments can benefit you in improving your effectiveness in the classroom.

Ricks College administration has given permission and full support to this research study and is hopeful of using data to improve teaching practices at the college level. The faculty association has also given enthusiastic support.

I am asking you to return to me the bottom portion of this letter indicating your willingness to assist in this study. **Please return by Nov. 15!**

Let me express my thanks to you in advance for your valuable contribution in making this study credible and beneficial to the College.

Sincerely,

Carol Hughes
English Department

I am willing to participate in the philosophical orientation/teaching style study.Name _____ Zip _____
(please print)Return this portion to: Carol Hughes
English Department, zip 0820

December 2, 1996

Dear Colleague:

This is a follow-up letter to again ask for your cooperation.

Your experience in education is greatly needed to make a Ricks College faculty study credible and useful in the development of staff development programs.

You are asked to participate in completing two instruments which will determine your educational philosophical orientation and teaching style. Time involved will be about 30 minutes. Your responses will be anonymous; social security numbers will be requested for a tracking system to make possible a merging of data with existing Ricks demographic information.

Your individual scores will be returned to you at a "brown bag" lunch which will address how the information can help you improve effectiveness in the classroom.

Ricks College administration has given permission and full support to this research study and is hopeful of using data to improve teaching practices at the college level. Also, the faculty association has given its support.

Please return the bottom portion of this letter by _____ indicating your willingness to assist in this study.

Let me express my thanks to you in advance for your valuable contribution in making this study credible and beneficial to the College.

Sincerely,

Carol Hughes
English Department

I am willing to participate in the philosophical orientation/teaching style study.

Name _____ Zip _____
(please print)

Return this portion to: Carol Hughes
English Department, zip 0820

January 6, 1997

Dear Colleague:

Several weeks ago you agreed to participate in a case study to determine the adult educational philosophical orientations and teaching styles of Ricks's faculty.

A good response to this study is needed to make it credible. The Administration is hopeful of using some of this data to develop staff development programs and improve teaching practices at the College.

Will you please fill out the instruments that were mailed to you and return them to me by JANUARY 30? THANKS FOR YOUR HELP!

If you have misplaced them, please indicate below, and I will be glad to send another copy to you.

If you are positive you have returned the instruments to me, THANK YOU, and you may disregard this letter! ☺

Sincerely,

Carol Hughes
English Department

I need another copy of the philosophical orientation/teaching style instruments to complete.

Name _____ Campus Mail Zip _____
(please print)

Return this portion to: Carol Hughes
English Department, zip 0820

April 11, 1997

Dear Colleague,

We are sorry that you were unable to attend one of the brown bag lunch sessions April 10 and 11 where I discussed the Zinn and PALS instruments. Your scores are being returned to you along with information given to attendees.

The page with "YOUR SCORES" indicates that the average total score on PALS is 146. That "average" is taken from use of this instrument in various post-secondary settings over a period of nearly 25 years. (FYI: Ricks's faculty average came out 127.) Scores above 146 indicate a tendency toward the learner-centered mode of teaching (where students are considered active learners, the teacher is viewed as more of a facilitator and coach, and the students have a large say in what happens in the classroom). Scores lower than 146 imply support of more of a teacher-centered approach (where students are considered passive learners; the teacher assumes more control in the classroom; and he/she determines objectives, learning activities, etc.) Please keep in mind we are talking about the "extremes" of a learner-centered and teacher-centered continuum. You can use your PALS scores on each of the seven component factors (learning-centered activities, etc.) to see if your factor scores show you are consistent with your overall PALS score. There is information included in this handout to help you do that.

After the PALS's scores on "YOUR SCORES," you will find your Zinn scores (Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory). Most teachers either have a clear primary philosophical orientation or share two that are more prevalent than the others. Zinn says if your scores are fairly equal among all the categories, or spread out among three or more, you might want to work on clarifying your beliefs and looking for contradictions among them. Note the handout page which talks of the five philosophies of adult education. (In Zinn's instrument Ricks came out with the highest in the Progressive philosophy [mean of 85] with Behavioral [82] being a close second. Liberal was next with 75, followed by Humanistic and Radical at 71 each.)

Please be sure to read the last page of the handout and note that neither the teacher-centered or learner-centered approach is better! The purpose of these instruments is to give you the opportunity to become a reflective practitioner and take a look at why you do what you do in the classroom. The information contained in this handout can help you do that. Pondering on "why's" can help us become more effective and continue to improve as educators. Of course, we never will "arrive" totally (PERFECTION!) in this lifetime!!

Thanks so much for your help in completing these questionnaires! If you have questions, my office extension is 1416. I can most easily be reached at this e-mail address: hughes@srv.net.

Sincerely,

Carol Hughes

APPENDIX C
WORKSHOP MATERIALS

YOUR SCORES

Social Security Number

ID

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

Your Score		Average Score
<u>148.0</u>	Total PALS Score	146
<u>43.0</u>	Learning-Centered Activities	38
<u>28.0</u>	Personalizing Instruction	31
<u>16.0</u>	Relating to Experience	21
<u>14.0</u>	Assessing Student Needs	14
<u>16.0</u>	Climate Building	16
<u>13.0</u>	Participation in Learning Process	13
<u>18.0</u>	Flexibility for Personal Development	13

Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory

- 63---Liberal Education or Idealism
- 67---Behaviorist Education or Behaviorism
- 78---Progressive Education or Pragmatism
- 69---Humanistic Education or Constructivism
- 72---Radical Education or Reconstructionism

FIVE PHILOSOPHIES OF ADULT EDUCATION					
TOTAL SCORES	L = _____	B = _____	P = _____	H = _____	R = _____
	LIBERAL (ARTS) ADULT EDUCATION	BEHAVIORAL ADULT EDUCATION	PROGRESSIVE ADULT EDUCATION	HUMANISTIC ADULT EDUCATION	RADICAL ADULT EDUCATION
PURPOSE(S)	To develop intellectual powers of the mind; to enhance the broadest sense of learning; to provide a general, "well-rounded" education.	To promote competence, skill development and behavioral change; ensure compliance with standards and societal expectations.	To support responsible participation in society; to give learners practical knowledge and problem-solving skills.	To enhance personal growth and development; to facilitate individual self-actualization.	To bring about, through education, fundamental social, cultural, political, and economic changes in society.
LEARNER(S)	"Renaissance person"; always a learner; seeks knowledge; expected to gain and conceptual and theoretical understanding.	Learners not involved in setting objectives; master one step before another; practice behaviors/skills to get them right.	Learner needs, interests, and experiences are valued and become part of learning process; learner takes an active role in learning.	Learner is highly motivated and self-directed; assumes responsibility for learning; very involved in planning learning projects.	Learner and "teacher" are equal in learning process; personal autonomy; learner is empowered; voluntary participant..
TEACHER ROLE	The "expert"; transmitter of knowledge; teaches students to think; clearly directs learning process.	Manager, controller; authoritative; sets expectations; predicts and directs learning outcomes.	Organizer; guides learning process; provides real-life learning applications; helps learners work cooperatively.	Facilitator; helper; mutual participant in teaching-learning exchange; supports learning process.	Coordinator; convener; equal partner with learner; suggests but does not determine directions.
CONCEPTS/ KEY WORDS	Liberal arts; learning for its own sake; general and comprehensive education; critical thinking; traditional knowledge; academic excellence.	Standards-based; mastery learning; competence; behavioral objectives; performance; practice, feedback/reinforcement; accountability.	Problem-solving; practical learning; experience-based; needs assessment; transfer of learning; active inquiry; collaboration; social responsibility.	Freedom; autonomy; individuality; teaching-learning exchange; self-directedness; interpersonal communication; openness; authenticity; feelings.	Consciousness-raising; praxis; noncompulsory learning; autonomy; social action; empowerment; social justice; commitment; transformation.
METHODS	Lecture; reading and critical analysis; question-and-answer; teacher-led discussion; individual study; standardized testing.	Computer-based instruction, lock-step curriculum, skill training, demo & practice, criterion-referenced testing.	Projects; scientific or experimental method; simulations; group investigation; cooperative learning; portfolios.	Experiential learning; discovery learning; open discussion; individual projects; collaborative learning; independent study; self-assessment.	Critical discussion and reflection; problem-posing; analysis of media output; social action theater.
PEOPLE & PRACTICES	Aristotle, Plato, Adler, Rousseau, Piaget, Houle, Great Books Society, Paldeia Program, Center for the Study of Liberal Education, Chautauqua, Elderhostel.	Thorndike, Watson, Skinner, Tyler, Mager, vocational training, management-by-objectives, certification exams, military training, religious indoctrination.	Dewey, Whitehead, Lindeman, community college developmental studies, citizenship education, cooperative extension, university without walls, community schools.	Rogers, Maslow, Knowles, Tough, group dynamics, self-directed learning, I'm OK, You're OK; diversity education, credit for prior learning.	Holt, Freire, Illich, Kozol, Shor, Ohliger, Parellman, free school movement, Afro-centrism, voter registration/education, social justice education.

Write your score for each philosophy above the column that describes it. Your *highest* score reflects the philosophy that is *closest* to your own beliefs; your *lowest* score reflects a philosophy that is *least* like yours. For example, a score of 95-105 indicates a strong agreement with a given philosophy; a score of 15-25 indicates a strong disagreement with a given philosophy. If your score is between 55 and 65, it probably means that you neither agree nor disagree strongly with a particular philosophy. NOTE that there is no "right" or "wrong" philosophy. The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory is designed only to give you information about your own beliefs, not to make judgments about those beliefs. Use it to reflect on how your beliefs influence your actions as an educator.

L. M. Zinn, PAE(C) Rev. 1994. Lifelong Learning Options, 4757 W. Moorhead Circle, Boulder, CO 80303-6157

IDENTIFYING YOUR TEACHING STYLE WITH PALS

High scores on the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) indicate support for a learner-centered approach. Low scores reveal support for a teacher-centered approach. Scores in the middle range disclose an eclectic approach which draws on behaviors from each extreme.

Scores may range from 0 to 220. The average for PALS is 146 with a standard deviation of 20. Your score can be interpreted by relating it to the average score for the instrument. Your overall teaching style and the strength of your commitment to that style can be judged by comparing your score to 146. Scores above 146 indicate a tendency toward the learner-centered mode while lower scores imply support of the teacher-centered mode.

Standard deviations refer to positions on the standard, bell-shaped curve. Most scores will be within one standard deviation of the mean; they will be between 126 and 166. Movement toward these scores indicates an increased commitment to a specific teaching style. Scores that are in the second standard deviation of 20 to 40 points different from the mean indicate a very strong and consistent support of a definitive teaching style. Scores that are in the third standard deviation and are at least 40 points from the mean indicate an extreme commitment to a style.

While your overall score is useful for providing a general label for your teaching style, it does not identify the specific classroom behaviors that make up this style. However, the overall PALS score can be divided into seven factors. Each factor contains a similar group of items that make up a major component of teaching style. The support of the collaborative mode in adult education literature is reflected in the names for the factor titles. High scores in each factor represent support of the learner-centered concept implied in the factor name. Low factor scores indicate support of the opposite concept. Factor scores are calculated by adding up the points for each item in the factor.

The main factor in PALS is Learner-Centered Activities. This factor is made up of twelve items in the instrument. These items relate to evaluation by formal tests and to a comparison of students to outside standards. If you scored low on this factor, it indicates a support of the teacher-centered mode with a preference for formal testing over informal evaluation techniques and a heavy reliance on standardized tests. It indicates you favor exercising control of the classroom by assigning quiet desk work, by using disciplinary action when needed, and by determining the educational objectives for each student. You see value in practicing one basic teaching method and support the conviction that most adults have a similar style of learning. However, if you scored high on this factor, you support the collaborative mode and reject these teacher-centered behaviors. Your opposition to these items implies that you practice behaviors which allow initiating action by the student and which encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning. Your classroom focus is then upon the learner.

Factor 2 is **Personalizing Instruction**. This factor contains nine items. If you scored high on this factor, you do a variety of things that personalize learning to meet the unique needs of each student. Objectives are based on individual motives and abilities. Instruction is self-paced. Various methods, materials, and assignments are utilized. Lecturing is generally viewed as a poor method of presenting subject material to the adult learner. Cooperation rather than competition is encouraged.

Factor 3 is **Relating to Experience** and consists of six items. If you scored high on Factor 3, you plan learning activities that take into account your students' prior experiences and encourage students to relate their new learning to experiences. To make learning relevant, learning episodes are organized according to the problems that the students encounter in everyday living. However, this focus is not just on coping with current problems or accepting the values of others. Instead, students are encouraged to ask basic questions about the nature of their society. When this is screened through experience, such consciousness-raising questioning can foster a student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.

Factor 4 is made up of four items related to **Assessing Student Needs**. If you scored high in this area, you view treating a student as an adult by finding out what each student wants and needs to know. This is accomplished through a heavy reliance on individual conferences and informal counseling. Existing gaps between a student's goals and the present levels of performance are diagnosed. Then students are assisted in developing short-range as well as long-range objectives.

Factor 5 is **Climate Building**, and it contains four items. If you scored high you favor setting a friendly and informal climate as an initial step in the learning process. Dialogue and interaction with other students are encouraged. You attempt to eliminate learning barriers by utilizing the numerous competencies that your students already possess as building blocks for educational objectives. Risk taking is encouraged, and errors are accepted as a natural part of the learning process. In the classroom, your students can experiment and explore elements related to their self-concept, practice problem-solving skills, and develop interpersonal skills. Their failures serve as a feedback device for you to direct future positive learning.

The four items in Factor 6 related to **Participation in the Learning Process**. While Factor 2 focuses on the broad location of authority within the classroom, this factor specifically addresses the amount of involvement of the student in determining the nature and evaluation of the content material. If you scored high on this factor, you have a preference for having your students identify the problems that they wish to solve and for allowing them to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class. Encouraging an adult-to-adult relationship between teaching and students, you also involve the students in developing the criteria for evaluating classroom performance.

Factor 7 contains five items which concern **Flexibility for Personality Development**. If you scored low on Factor 7, you see yourself as a provider of knowledge rather than as

a facilitator. You determine the objectives for the students at the beginning of the program and stick to them regardless of changing student needs. A well-disciplined classroom is viewed as a stimulus for learning. Discussions of controversial subjects that involve value judgments or of issues that relate to a student's self-concept are avoided. If you scored high on this factor, you reject this rigidity and lack of sensitivity to the individual. You view personal fulfillment as a central aim of education. To accomplish this, flexibility is maintained by adjusting the classroom environment and curricular content to meet the changing needs of your students. Issues that relate to values are addressed in order to stimulate understanding and future personal growth.

NOTE: As a teacher, you do not randomly select your teaching style, and you do not constantly change your style. Instead, your style is linked to your educational philosophy which in turn is a subset of your overall life philosophy. Therefore, your spiritual, ethical, and political beliefs will provide clues to possible elements of your educational philosophy.

Rather than picking a teaching style and seeking to emulate it, you should strive for consistency within your natural style which stems from your life philosophy. After identifying your general style, look for consistency within the various factors that compose that style. Your individual factor scores from PALS can highlight areas of inconsistency. Critical reflection is called for in areas that are inconsistent. The goal should be to have congruency among the basic assumptions upon which your philosophy is built.

RESEARCH INDICATES NEITHER THE LEARNER-CENTERED OR TEACHER-CENTERED APPROACH IS MORE EFFECTIVE; HOWEVER, TEACHERS WHO ARE STRONGLY COMMITTED TO A DEFINITIVE TEACHING STYLE, BE IT ONE OR THE OTHER, SEEM TO BE MOST EFFECTIVE. IN THE CLASSROOM THESE TEACHERS CONSISTENTLY IMPLEMENT COMPLEMENTARY ELEMENTS OF A COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY.



*Adult Education Philosophies
and Teaching Styles at Ricks
College*

WELCOME!!



*What is YOUR philosophy of
education?*



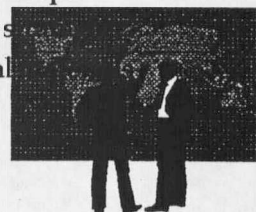
Let's consider four areas:

- ◆ Learner
- ◆ Purpose
- ◆ Content
- ◆ Process



*We're fortunate: we have
LATITUDE!*

- ◆ content and scope
- ◆ methods or s
- ◆ instructional

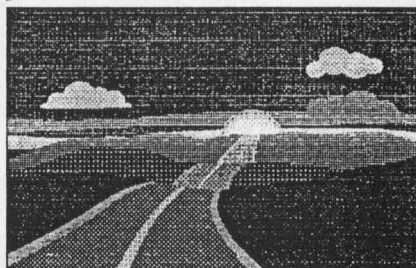


*What a **RESPONSIBILITY!***

- ◆ set learner expectations
- ◆ determine learning activities
- ◆ conduct teaching/learning experiences
- ◆ evaluate



*What determines the choices
we make in **LIFE?***



 Research says:

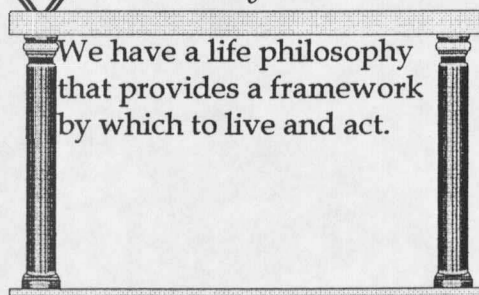
- ◆ There is a **POSITIVE** relationship between an individual's beliefs, values, or attitudes and the decisions and actions that make up one's daily life.

 YES, it's true!--

- ◆ There is a correlation between what we profess to value and our subsequent behavior.



 As Latter-day Saints:

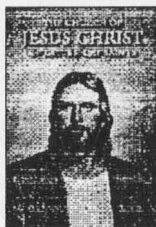


 We have the answers to:

- ◆ Where did we come from?
- ◆ Why are we here?
- ◆ Where are we going?



 We recognize our LIFE PHILOSOPHY, reflect on it, and express it.



 Many people don't. What can happen?

- ◆ Such a person may never verbalize goals.
- ◆ The person's direction is often unclear.
- ◆ Actions are frequently inconsistent with beliefs and values.

 *The same thing can happen to educators:*

◆ Let's see how...

 *When an educator teaches:*

- ◆ Certain beliefs about life in general are applied.
- ◆ These beliefs constitute the basis for a philosophy of education.
- ◆ This philosophy of education is a subset of a person's LIFE philosophy.

 *If an educator's philosophy of education is unrecognized,*

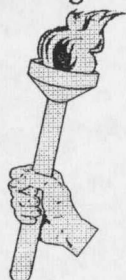
- ◆ It may be only partially formulated.
- ◆ Therefore, that philosophy may be internally inconsistent.



 *However, our beliefs about education provide us a basis for:*

- ◆ selecting instructional content
- ◆ establishing teaching/learning objectives
- ◆ choosing and/or developing instructional materials
- ◆ interacting with learners
- ◆ evaluating educational outcomes

 *"WHY" questions are crucial to our eternal goals.*



 *"WHY" questions are crucial to us as educators, as well.*

- ◆ "Why do we do what we do in the classroom?"
- ◆ This question must precede the "what" and "how."



 *Just as in a LIFE philosophy,*

- ◆ There is a strong relationship between what we believe about the philosophy of education and what we do in the classroom.

 *We MUST ponder on the eternal questions of WHY within our LIFE philosophy.*



 *We MUST also ponder on the questions of WHY within our EDUCATIONAL philosophy.*



 *The ZINN and PALS instruments can help us ponder and reflect about the WHYs of our educational philosophies.*



 *ZINN's purpose:*

- ◆ to clarify our beliefs about our educational philosophies and compare our own to other categories of such philosophies



 *Exploring and clarifying our beliefs can:*

- ◆ assist us as educators to begin a process of philosophical inquiry and reflection with regard to our beliefs and actions
- ◆ lead to improvement in our practices in our educational endeavors

 So, to which educational philosophy do you think you most relate??



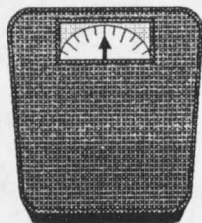
 OK, so if I now have an idea of my educational philosophical leanings, where do I go from here?



 To ACTIONS! Is there a congruence between your beliefs as an educator and your actions in the classroom?



 This is where PALS comes in. It measures teaching style.



 Zinn says teaching style is:

- ◆ "the operational behavior of the teacher's educational philosophy."





Conti says it refers to:

- ◆ "...distinct qualities displayed by a teacher which are persistent from situation to situation regardless of content."



Basic assumptions related to TEACHER STYLE can be divided into two major categories:



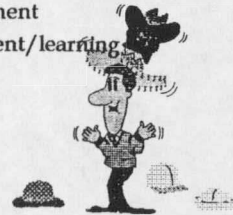
TEACHER CENTERED

- ◆ passive learners
- ◆ environment control
- ◆ teacher driven content/learning activities



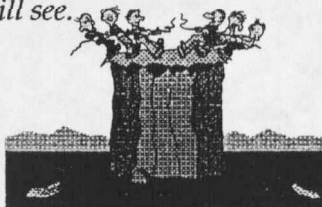
LEARNER CENTERED

- ◆ active learners
- ◆ more open environment
- ◆ student-driven content/learning activities



Teacher-centered and learner-centered teaching styles are at two ends of a continuum.

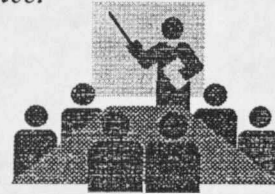
Neither is BETTER, as we will see.



Now let's find out where YOU are on the PALS scale!!



Research indicates that in our teaching it is **CONSISTENCY** that is most effective.



We should strive for this **CONSISTENCY** within our own natural styles which stem from our philosophy of education and of life.



A **KEY** to better effectiveness in the classroom is an integration of doing and believing, between our espoused theory and our theory-in-use.



It is beneficial to become **reflective practitioners**:

- ◆ We need to be able to articulate why we do what we do.
- ◆ Today we have begun the process by identifying our overall educational philosophies and our teaching styles.
- ◆ **AWARENESS** of our beliefs and actions can move us toward consistency—a worthy goal.



Becoming reflective practitioners won't make philosophers out of us but **CAN** help us become better educators!

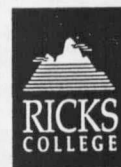


APPENDIX D
RICKS COLLEGE MISSION STATEMENT

Ricks College
Mission Statement

Ricks College is owned and operated by The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.
Its mission is to:

1. Build testimonies of the restored gospel of Jesus Christ and encourage living its principles.
2. Provide a quality education for students of diverse interests and abilities.
3. Prepare students for further education and employment, and for their roles as citizens and parents.
4. Maintain a wholesome academic, cultural, social and spiritual environment.



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