BLACKBOARDS AND BADGES: TEACHING STYLE IN LAW ENFORCMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN OKLAHOMA

By

MARK RANDALL MCCOY

Bachelor of Science
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
1980

Master of Science
National University
San Diego, California
1984

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 2000

BLACKBOARDS AND BADGES: TEACHING STYLE

IN LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION AND

TRAINING IN OKLAHOMA

Thesis Approved:

Gary J. Conta
Thesis Adviser

Robert E. Nolan

Martin Dunlap

James J. Brown

Wayne B. Powell
Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As I finish this research project and my doctoral program, I wish to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to several people who have helped me through the process.

First, I would like to thank my committee members: Dr. Robert Nolan and Dr. Martin Burlingame for their wealth of experience and their support. Dr. James Gregson for facilitating my reflection on my personal philosophy of education and for providing me opportunities for personal growth in the classes he taught. Especially Dr. Gary Conti, my committee chair and my friend; his continual support, tireless efforts, and love for students are an example for all professional educators to follow.

Second, I would like to thank all of my classmates in the doctoral program. Students are the heart of any graduate program and my peers at Oklahoma State University are some of the finest people I have ever met. The support and encouragement of my classmates helped me conquer the challenges of the doctoral program.

Finally, I would like to thank my friend, classmate, and wife Bethany for her loving support and for her keen insights that are present in this work. I would also like to thank my children, Colleen and Kevin, for their understanding and support when I wasn't always available during the completion of my doctoral program. I love you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Like most other fields in society, law enforcement is experiencing rapid transformation and technological change, and law enforcement education and training needs to follow suit. Law enforcement instructor development is necessary to keep pace with technological and societal changes, and more effective law enforcement instructors could be developed through in-service training and education.

The predominant model of law enforcement training is one that emphasizes teacher-directed activities and consists of a curriculum based upon the transmittal of content from teacher to learner. However, there has been much dissatisfaction in law enforcement with instructor development training programs (Amaral, 1989), and a learner-centered and problem-centered approach should be examined for its application to instructor development programs and for law enforcement training. With such an approach, instructors would need to be better trained in the application of adult learning principles, in

instructional methods, and in using strategies that enhance adult learning.

Principles of Adult Learning

A central part of adult learning theory is based on Knowles (1990) theory of andragogy. "Andragogy is a theory which is vastly in contrast to the traditional pedagogical model and it advocates both the self-directed learning concept and the teacher as the facilitator of learning" (p. 57). Knowles identified five basic assumptions about adult learners. They (a) are increasingly self-directed, (b) have a broad range of experiences to learn from and to share with others, (c) are stimulated to learn by immediate life situations, (d) are motivated by internal incentives, and (e) are problem centered (pp. 57-61). The development of the concept of andragogy has had a tremendous impact on how adult educators understand and work with adult learners (Merriam & Bockett, 1997). Indeed, the concept of andragogy has been the single dominant theme in the professionalism of the field of adult education (Courtney, 1989). "This concept is the single most popular idea in the education and training of adults, in part because and for the way in which it grants to educators of adults a sense of their distinct professional identity" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 91).

In order to effectively implement the andragogical principles, the learner becomes involved in setting the goals of the learning activity. The learning activities are problem-centered and experience-centered. The learner feels free to participate in the educational experience and is given feedback about progress in the learning process. Since these factors are critical to the success of the learning activity, all of these factors are taken into account when developing an instructor development program.

Teaching Style

Teaching styles refer to the consistent practices a teacher uses regardless of the situation or the content being taught (Conti, 1989). There are two dominant ways of viewing teaching style in the area of adult education. The teacher-centered approach holds that the teacher is the center of the classroom environment (p. 5). In this approach, the student is assumed to be passive, and 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 (Conti, 1985a). 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. This teacher-centered approach is widely used in law enforcement education and training.

In the learner-centered classroom, it is the learner and the learner's needs that 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, 1989). 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). Evaluation is not as 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 to teaching as the most effective means of teaching adults (Conti, 1985a).

Law Enforcement Education and Training

Over the last decade, many police departments have increasingly embraced the community-oriented policing model (Breci & Erickson, 1998). Community-oriented policing is proactive instead of reactionary. It is "based on the philosophy that the police and the community work together to solve problems" (p.18). "A police department must be proactive, reaching out to a community with whom it will work" (Thayer & Reynolds, 1997, p. 2).

Several principles can be associated with community policing (Breci & Erickson, 1998). Under this approach, officers must be given the discretion and authority to solve problems instead of passing them up the chain of command in the military model. The police department and community organizations establish partnerships recognizing that the police by themselves cannot solve all problems. Officers are relieved of other duties so that they have time to interact with the public and get to know their area. The citizens of the community become willing to participate and be directly involved in solving problems related to crime and its causes. All personnel in the police department, including civilian employees, require education on the philosophy of community policing. There

is a commitment on the part of city leaders and police administration. Finally, there should be a department-wide strategy in place to carry out the community-oriented policing program.

Not only has there been a movement towards the community-policing philosophy, but there has also been a push to transform police departments into learning organizations (Geller, 1997; Ramirez, 1996). Because police departments often do not research new policies but instead "[jump] into a program with both feet, [sink] in the muck, and then [compound] the problem by failing to learn from the experience" (Geller, 1997, p.2).

Much skepticism and distrust of the academic world exists because of police officials who have had negative experiences with researchers. This can be overcome by police departments forming partnerships with universities and research institutions to work together to research and plan new programs and evaluate and learn from ineffective ones (p. 4).

One way to create a learning organization is to change the way training is conducted. The theory of andragogy relates directly to police training (Ramirez, 1996). The five assumptions of adult learners fit nicely with the community policing approach. The andragogical emphasis on

a proactive way of learning as opposed to a reactive way of learning (Knowles, 1990) parallels the move toward the proactive model of community policing in place of the reactive, military model of policing.

Knowles (1990) offers a model of applying proactive learning to human resource development. This learner-centered model contains seven steps:

> The andragogical teacher (facilitator, consultant, change agent) prepares in advance a set of procedures for involving the learners (and other relevant parties) in a process involving these elements: (1) establishing a climate conducive to learning; (2) creating a mechanism for mutual planning; (3) diagnosing the needs for learning; (4) formulating program objectives (which is content) that will satisfy these needs; (5) designing a pattern of learning; (6) conducting these learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials; and (7) evaluating the learning outcomes and rediagnosing learning needs. (p. 209)

Similarly, Geller (1991) identifies five steps that law enforcement training offices should follow to improve training efficiency. To affect change "the department must assess its needs, articulate its objectives, select or develop a training program, deliver the training, and evaluate its effectiveness" (p. 279). These steps parallel the third step through the seventh step in Knowles' model. Geller emphasizes that "it is essential that training be

conducted in such a way as to be as meaningful as possible to adult participants" (p. 281). This is similar to Knowles' second step, which insures the participant has a voice in the material to be learned. Geller does not specify that the participants have a direct voice in the class material, but he does emphasize that the adult learner needs the material to be meaningful. Additionally, Geller supports Knowles' first step that "efforts should be made to provide physical facilities that are as pleasant as possible and to select trainers who are capable of imparting values and skills and creating rapport with trainees" (p. 281).

Nature of the Problem

With the approach of the new millennium law enforcement training theory and methodologies need to evolve in order to meet the needs of an ever-changing workforce. Movement toward the community-oriented policing approach requires that law enforcement personnel become problem solvers and police departments become learning organizations.

A proactive approach to learning that is learner-centered, incorporates meaningful material and includes the learner's experiences is supported by the adult education

literature. Law enforcement instructors should apply adult learning principles in the courses that they teach. Application of these principles will lead to increased learner satisfaction and more effective instruction.

The Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) prepares all the law enforcement instructors in the state. Their 40-hour instructor development course provides for only one hour of instruction on adult learning principles. This course emphasizes stand-up presentation skills and organizational skills rather than on learning concepts and principles.

Little research is available on the application of adult learning principles by law enforcement instructors. Although Oklahoma law enforcement instructors receive brief training in adult learning principles, little is know about their application of these principles.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe the teaching style of the faculty of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) and the degree and method of application of adult learning principles by the CLEET faculty. This study involved two steps. The first step was the administration of the Principles of

Adult Learning Scale (PALS) to all the full-time and part-time faculty of CLEET. The second step involved the use of in-depth interviews to collect data on the methods instructors use to implement the adult learning principles which they reported using on PALS.

Research Questions

1. What is the profile of teaching styles of the CLEET faculty?
2. What is the relationship of teaching style scores as measured by PALS and the demographic variables of age, gender, education, law enforcement experience, teaching experience, and full-time or part-time status?
3. What methods and techniques do CLEET law enforcement instructors say they use in the classroom?
4. What adult learning principles do CLEET law enforcement instructors say they implement in the classroom?

Definition of Terms

Andragogy: The art and science of facilitating adult learning (Knowles, 1990).

Adult Learning: Learning that results "from a transaction among adults in which experiences are interpreted, skills and knowledge acquired and actions taken" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 4).

Collaborative Teaching-Learning Mode: A learner-centered method of instruction in which course content formation is shard by the instructor and the learner (Conti, 1985a).

Community-oriented Policing: A model of policing in which the police and the community work together to solve neighborhood problems (Breci & Erickson, 1998).

Education: A learning situation in which "learners are encouraged to examine the assumptions underlying the acquisition of skills, to consider alternative purposes, and to place skill acquisition in some broader context" (Brookfield, 1986, p.17).

Law Enforcement Instructor: Any person certified by the Oklahoma Council of Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) to teach law enforcement and related courses in the State of Oklahoma.

Teaching Style: A variety of classroom behaviors and methods, supported by a philosophical foundation, in which a teacher can reliably and comfortably operate (Conti, 1989).

Training: A learning situation in which "a set of clearly identified skills are transmitted, and adults are required to assimilate these in the manner prescribed by the trainer, employing agency, or certification body" (Brookfield, 1986, p.17).

Assumptions

The Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) is a professional organization that is dedicated to the training and the professional development of law enforcement officers in Oklahoma. CLEET is involved in the education and certification of law enforcement instructors. It was assumed that CLEET is interested in improving the effectiveness and quality of law enforcement training and education in the state.

It was assumed that even though these instructors are not professional educators and may not be familiar with adult learning terminology, they do reflect on their practice. This reflection on practice allows them to talk about the principles and methods they use in the classroom.

Limitations

The study was limited to the full-time and part-time faculty of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews and synthesizes literature on adult learning principles, teaching style, and law enforcement education and training. The first section covers the characteristics of adult learners, their orientations to learning, the principles of adult learning and the relationship of adult learning principles to Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain. The next section is a discussion of teaching style in adult education. The last section focuses on community-oriented policing and it's impact on law enforcement education and training.

Principles of Adult Learning

Much has been written about adult education and the principles of adult learning. "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). Lindeman (1926)

described adult education as " a continuing process of evaluating experiences, a method of awareness through which we learn to become alert in the discovery of meanings" (p. 85).

Brookfield (1986) described all forms of adult education as having six common factors. First, all the learners have reached the age of adulthood (p. 2). Second, the learners "are engaged in a purposeful exploration of a field of knowledge or set of skills or in a collective reflection upon common experiences" (p. 2). Third, these explorations take place in a group setting (p. 2). Fourth, the learners bring to these group settings an assortment of skills and experiences and a range of knowledge. These skills, experiences, and knowledge can impact how the learner acquires new skills and concepts and how they view the experiences of others (p. 2). Fifth, the learner's prior experiences and learning constitute an important curricular resource for the adult educator (p. 2). Sixth, "the transactions in these groups will be characterized by a respect for individual members that will be manifest in the procedures used" (p. 3). The teaching-learning process can build this climate of respect through the persistent negotiation of methods, aims, and criteria for evaluation (p. 3).

Houle (1961) identified three learning orientations which motivate adults to participate in continuing education activities. One group is the goal-oriented learners; these individuals are engaged in learning activities for specific and clear-cut objectives. These learners seek to gain new knowledge and improve their skills for a specific goal such as promotion on the job or training for a new job (p. 16). Another group are the activity-oriented learners; these individuals participate in learning activities for reasons not related to the content of the activities. For example, many of the activity-oriented learners engage in learning activities purely for the social contact that these activities provide (p. 19). The third group are the learning-oriented learners; these learners seek knowledge for its own sake. "For the learning-oriented, education might almost be called a constant rather than a continuing activity" (p. 24).

Just as there is not a single theory that explains learning in general, there is not a single theory of adult learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, p. 248). Several scholars (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Kidd, 1973) have attempted to identify some generalizable principles of adult learning. Brookfield (1986) provided an excellent

summary of the adult learning principles identified by these scholars:

> Adults learn throughout their lives, with the negotiations of the transitional stages in the life-span being the immediate causes and motives for much of this learning. They exhibit diverse learning styles-strategies for coding information, cognitive procedures, mental sets-and learn in different ways, at different times, for different purposes. As a rule, however, they like their learning activities to be problem centered and to be meaningful to their life situation, and they want the learning outcomes to have some immediacy of application. The past experiences of adults affect their current learning, sometimes as a hindrance. Effective learning is also linked to the adult's subscription to a self-concept of himself or herself as a learner. Finally, adults exhibit a tendency toward self-directedness in their learning. (p. 31)

The best-know theory of adult learning is Knowles theory of andragogy (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, p. 249). Andragogy is based upon five assumptions about adult learners (Knowles, 1990). First, adults have a need to know why they need to learn something (p. 57). Second, as a learner matures the learner moves from being dependent on others for learning to being a self-directed learner (p. 58). Third, adults bring to the learning experience vast amounts to experience that become a resource for learning (p. 59). Fourth, adults have a readiness to learn things that will help them with real-life situations (p. 60). Fifth, adults have a different orientation to learning than

children. Adults want to immediately apply what they have learned, and thus they prefer a curriculum that is problem-centered (p. 61). Knowles theory of andragogy "has given adult educators 'a badage of identity' that distinguishes the field for other areas of education" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, p. 249).

Brookfield (1986) applied these assumptions of andragogy and principles of adult learning to the teaching-learning transaction. He identified six principles of effective practice in facilitating adult learning. First, "participation in learning is voluntary; adults engage in learning as a result of their own volition" (p. 9). The circumstances leading to this voluntary participation may be different for each adult and may fall into one or more of the orientations identified by Houle. Adults voluntary participation in learning activities and their willingness to learn will mean "that they are less likely to resist participator learning techniques such as discussion, role playing, games, small-group work, and collaborative analysis of personal experiences (p. 11).

Second, "effective practice is characterized by a respect among participants for each other's self-worth" (p. 10). Each participant in the learning situation must be treated with respect and dignity.

Third, the facilitation of learning is a collaborative process between facilitator and learner. "This collaboration is seen in the diagnosis of needs in the setting of objectives, in curriculum development, in methodological aspects, and in generating evaluative criteria and indexes" (p. 10).

The fourth key to effective practice is making praxis the center of facilitation (p. 10). Praxis involves the learner and facilitator in a "continual process of activity, reflection upon activity, collaborative analysis of activity, new activity, further reflection and collaborative analysis, and so on" (p. 10). This process of continual reflection and action is central to adult learning (p. 15). This process provides for the examination of new skills and knowledge within the context of the learner's experiences. This helps learners then apply their new knowledge and their new skills to real-life situations (p. 15-16).

Fifth, the learning process must involve critical reflection. "The point is that education is centrally concerned with the development of a critically aware frame of mind, not with the uncritical assimilation of previously defined skills or bodies of knowledge" (p. 17). Even in training activities in which the objectives of the learning

are set by an organization, it is important that learners be encouraged to critically examine current structures and practices (p. 18).

Finally, facilitation should help adults become increasingly more self-directed (p. 11). Self-directedness involves the learner's control over setting educational goals and developing evaluative criteria. The learner can not be self-directed if forced to be evaluated by external criteria or forced to meet the goals and objectives of an outside authority (p. 19).

Brookfield argued that facilitators should not always take the learner's wants and needs as the lone criteria for instructional design and curriculum development. Facilitators are responsible for making learners face and critically reflect on the realities of their work, social structure, and personal lives (p. 97). "The point is that facilitating learning is a transactional encounter in which learner desires and educator priorities will inevitably interact and influence each other" (p. 97-98). These educational priorities will often be reflected in learning objectives.

Adult learning and Bloom's taxonomy

Benjamin S. Bloom's et al. (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives for the cognitive domain has become a basic reference for educators worldwide. The taxonomy is model used to classify educational objectives. Administrators, curriculum planners, researchers and teachers in all areas of education have used the taxonomy. Bloom (1994) contributes this usage of the taxonomy to the void the taxonomy filed for educational planning and the need to systematically evaluate student learning. The introduction of the taxonomy changed the inordinate amount of time spent by teachers on lower levels of learning to more time being spent on the higher mental processes (p. 1). "With the explosion of knowledge that has taken place during the past forty years, the ability to use higher mental processes has assumed prime importance" (p. 1).

Bloom's (1956) development of the taxonomy began with the classification of intended student behaviors found in educational objectives. These behaviors were initially classified into three general areas in the cognitive domain; knowledge, intellectual skills, and intellectual abilities. This included behaviors such as reasoning, concept formation, and problem solving. The final taxonomy was established by breaking these cognitive objectives down

further into six major classes from the simplest behavior to the most complex (p. 15). From lowest to highest, these major classes are Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation (p. 18).

Knowledge is probably the most common educational objective and in some cases may be the primary or only objective of an educational curriculum (p. 28). Bloom defines knowledge as "those behaviors and test situations which emphasize the remembering, either by recognition or recall, of ideas, material, or phenomena" (p. 62).

Obviously knowledge is a key building block in the learning process. Adult educators in a collaborative effort with adult learners should consider diagnosing learner needs and knowledge levels at the beginning of a learning activity. This process involves the learner in planning the learning activity and provides the opportunity for the adult educator to assess the vast amount of experiences adults bring to the learning process (Knowles, 1990). This mutual assessment can give the adult educator a starting point for designing learning activities that will build on current knowledge and lead to learning at the higher levels of the Taxonomy.

Comprehension is probably the largest class of intellectual skills and abilities emphasized in education

(Bloom et al, 1956). Comprehension includes "those objectives, behaviors, or responses which represent an understanding of the literal message contained in a communication" (p. 89). Learning at the comprehension level of Bloom's taxonomy is also important when facilitating adult learning. This level of learning provides the adult educator an opportunity to help the adult learner recognize the "need to know" (Knowles, 1990). "At the very least, facilitators can make an intellectual case for the value of the learning in improving the effectiveness of the learners' performance or the quality of their lives" (p. 58). Learners may be able to see interrelationships and make generalizations about life situations. Learning at the comprehension level is just another important step toward learning at the higher cognitive levels that adult learners prefer.

Application is the next category in the taxonomy hierarchy. Application requires that learners have the skills and abilities acquired in the knowledge and comprehension categories. In order "to apply something requires 'comprehension' of the method, theory, principle, or abstraction applied" (Bloom et al, 1956, p. 120). It is at the application level where, if possible, most adult learning activities should begin. Adults come to learning

activities with a readiness to learn and want to apply learning to real-life situations (Knowles, 1990, p. 60). Adult learners are also problem centered. Only learning at the application level and above will help the learners solve problems faced on a daily basis. "Furthermore, they learn new knowledge, understanding, skills, values, and attitudes most effectively when they are presented in the context of application to real-life situations" (p. 61). Learning objectives and experiences geared at the application level are essential to the assumptions about adult learning. While learning objectives at the application level are the starting point for planning and facilitating adult learning activities, adults bring to learning situations characteristics that provide for learning opportunities at the highest levels of the taxonomy.

The next level of the taxonomy is analysis. "Analysis emphasizes the breakdown of the material into its constituent parts and detection of the relationships of the parts and of the way they are organized" (Bloom et al, 1956, p. 144). Adult learning activities at the analysis level provide the opportunity for adult educators to help learners become more self-directed. Because learning at this level involves the break down of material into its

component parts and making sense of theses parts, learners can become more confident in pursuing their own learning activities. When material is learned at the analysis level, learners may develop the ability to use the cognitive skills of analysis in their own learning pursuits. Learning situations and experiences at this level help learners make the transition form dependent to self-directing learners.

Bloom et al. (1956) defined synthesis, the next stage in the taxonomy, as the combining of parts and elements to constitute a pattern or structure not previously defined (p. 162). Synthesis involves the learner combining portions of previous experience with new ingredients to form a new well-integrated whole. The synthesis level is where the vast, rich resource of experience that adults bring to learning situations can be seen most. Since adult learners have a great variety of experiences to apply and share in learning situations, learning activities geared to the synthesis level allow the learners to use these experiences in combination with new material. Its is here where the adult educator can use instructional methods such as group discussions, simulation exercises, and problem-solving activities to tap into those experiences and help learners make new meaning.

At the highest level of the taxonomy is evaluation. Evaluation is the end process of cognitive behaviors and a link to affective behaviors.

> Evaluation is defined as the making of judgements about the value, for some purpose, of ideas, works, solutions, methods, material, etc. It involves the use of criteria as well as standard for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical or satisfying (Bloom et al, 1956, p. 185).

Adult learning at the evaluation level may also aid in developing self-directed learners. To some extent, evaluation uses all the other categories found in the taxonomy; however, it man not be the last step in the problem solving process (p. 185). "It is quite possible that the evaluative process will in some cases be the prelude to the acquisition of new knowledge, a new attempt at comprehension or application, or a new analysis or synthesis" (p. 185). In the case of adult learners, evaluation may be one of the first steps in determining if the learning activity will meet their educational needs or be a guide to self-directed learning activities.

Teaching Style

Teaching style refers to the distinctive qualities manifested by a teacher that are enduring from situation to

situation regardless of the class content. Teaching style refers to more than just the particular teaching strategies used by a teacher to realize instructional objectives; teaching style cannot be determined from one isolated behavior of the teacher (Conti, 1990, pp. 80-81). Teaching style can be immediately linked to a teacher's educational philosophy because teaching style is all-inclusive and is the open implementation of the teacher's values and beliefs (p. 81).

"Philosophy is formulated by a through examination of values, beliefs, and attitudes related to the teaching-learning exchange. The addition of behavior completes the picture and represents teaching style" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 40). Teaching style is the implementation of educational philosophy. This implementation process has more to do with structure than content, and more to do with method than results (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 40). Teaching style, supported by philosophy, is the outgrowth of teaching experiences, learning experiences, formal education, and personal preferences. "Teaching style is the way in which you use all these things to consciously conduct a teaching-learning exchange" (p. 40).

Identification, development, and refinement of one's teaching style is extremely important to all educators.

"To identify one's style, the total atmosphere created by the teacher's views on learning and the teacher's approach to teaching must be examined" (Conti, 1990, p. 81). This self-examination through a process of exploration, reflection, and application can lead to personal growth and more consistent practice (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 4).

The first step in this process is exploration. Exploration of teaching behavior embodies multiple activities, including crating, defining, placing, and discovering. In exploration, information is gathered and to some extent interpreted; however no value is placed on the behaviors identified (p. 4).

The next step, reflection entails questioning, comparing, assessing, and considering all the information gathered in the exploration process about behavior and beliefs. "The aim of reflection is to offer the opportunity to compare theory to practice, belief to behavior, understanding to doing" (p. 4).

The final step in this personal growth process is application. In application, inconsistencies can be reconciled between behavior and belief and the teacher can then synthesize new courses of action or beliefs into teaching (p. 4). This on-going process of self-examination will help educators build a personal educational

philosophy, which can provide the foundation for teaching style (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 8).

Brookfield (1995) also describes the process of critical reflection and how it effects teaching. Critical reflection leads to questioning of assumptions about teaching and leads to new perspectives. The practice of teaching becomes the object of systematic inquiry, and there is greater awareness of control and power issues in the classroom. Critical reflection leads to the creation of democratic classrooms and gives teachers the ability to communicate the rationale that underlies their teaching style (p. 39).

"The critically reflective journey invariably produces a deepening appreciation of how all teaching is ideological. We start to realize that our actions, decisions, and choices all reflect ideological perspectives" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 40). Critical reflection leads to conflict with organizational power and priorities; however, these conflicts can lead to more democratic process and revised curriculums. Teachers that critically reflect on practice come to the realization that "good teaching becomes synonymous with a continuous and critical study of our reasoning processes and our pedagogic actions" (p. 42). Finally, critical reflection allows

teachers to talk about their practice in a way that is consistent and authentic. "Speaking authentically means that we are alert to the voices inside us that are not our own, the voices that have been deliberately implanted by outside interests rather than springing from our own experiences" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 45).

It is clear from this discussion that there is no consistent definition of teaching style; teaching style is formed in philosophy and implemented in classroom behaviors. There are many different educational philosophies that serve as a foundation for teaching style, however, "the basic assumptions related to teaching can be divided into two major categories" (Conti, 1990, p. 81). These two types of educational practice can be grouped as either teacher-centered or learner-centered. The teacher-centered approach is the predominant approach found at all educational levels (p. 81).

> This approach to learning assumes that learners are passive and that they become active by reacting to stimuli in the environment. Elements that exist in this environment are viewed as reality. Motivation arises either from basic organic drives and emotions or from a tendency to respond in accordance with prior conditioning. Thus, humans are controlled by their environment, and the schools which are social institutions have the responsibility of determining and reinforcing the fundamental values necessary for the survival of the individual and the society. In this teacher-centered approach, the teacher's

> role is to design an environment which stimulates the desired behavior and discourages those that have been determined to be undesirable. (Conti, 1990, p. 81).

Learning in the teacher-centered approach is measured by clearly defined and measurable behavioral objectives. Evaluation of the learner is accomplished with criterion-referenced tests that determine the learner's competencies (p. 81).

The learner-centered approach, which is supported by the adult education literature, assumes that learners have potential for unlimited personal growth.

> In the classroom, learner-centered education focuses upon the individual learner rather than on a body of information. Subject matter is presented in a manner conducive to students' needs and to help students develop a critical awareness of their feelings and values. The central element in a learner-centered approach is trust; while the teacher is always available to help, the teacher trusts students to take responsibility for their own learning. Learning activities are often designed to stress the acquisition of problem-solving skills, to focus on the enhancement of the self-concept, or to foster the development of interpersonal skills. Since learning is a highly personal act, it is best measured by self-evaluation and constructive feedback from the teacher and other learners. (Conti, 1990, p. 82).

Measurement of Teaching Style

Conti (1978) developed the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) to measure teaching style.

Respondents report how frequently they practice certain teaching behaviors. 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. Scores near the mean indicate teaching behaviors that are both teacher-centered and learner-centered (Conti, 1985a).

Since it inception, PALS has been used in over 60 doctoral dissertations and research studies. In the vast majority of these studies, PALS has been used to describe the teaching style preference of a wide variety of populations. PALS has been used to describe the teaching style preference of registered dietitians (Carr, 1998); accounting professors (Cummings, 1995); correctional educators (Cook, 1994); nursing faculty (Papes, 1998; Viau, 1991), community college faculty (Rees, 1991; Scotney, 1986; Waters, 1992); graduate student instructors (Clancy, 1986; Shedd, 1989); heath care educators (Clauss, 1993; Deming, 1986; Freeland, 1988; Lucas, 1987; Santucci, 1985); business and industry instructors (Elliott, 1996; Taylor, 1990); postsecondary schools (Girondi, 1991); and cooperative extension educators in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Ohio (Eberle, 1993; Morales Oseguenda, 1997; Seevers, 1991). PALS has also been used internationally to describe

the teaching style of adult educators in Singapore (Needham, 1990) and faculty at Ramkhamhaeng University in Thailand (Sornkaew, 1990). In general, these studies focused on the use of the collaborative teaching-learning mode and classroom practices of teachers. Many of these studies also looked at demographic variables such as age, gender, nationality, race, teaching experience, education level, and course taught and their effect on teaching style.

The next largest group of studies using PALS compared student success or achievement as it related to teaching style. Studies in this area included: the performance of nursing students on licensure examinations (McKenzie, 1987); success of students in a community college reading course (Moore, 1996); the development of moral judgement by prison inmates (Gifford, 1992; Wiley, 1986); pre-employment assessment (Shriver, 1993); academic achievement of nontraditional health profession students (McCann, 1988; Welborn, 1985); academic gain of migrant students in Texas (Jones, 1984); and two studies on the relationship of teaching style with the readiness to pursue self-directed learning activities (Hudspeth, 1991; Mancuso, 1988). The results of these studies varied on the significance of teaching style as it related to student success or

achievement. For instance, Moore (1996) found no significant difference in adult students' reading scores between instructors scoring high on PALS and those who scored lower. Conti (1985b) found in a study of GED, adult basic education, and English as a second language courses that "a relationship exists between the teaching style used in the adult education setting and student achievement" (p. 112).

Several studies using PALS have compared the self-reported teaching style of instructors and their students perceptions of their teaching style while others have compared student learning style with teaching style (Brooks, 1988; Clow, 1986; McCollin, 1998; Miglietti, 1994; Mulholland, 1996; Reese, 1993; Spoon, 1996; Wilson, 1994; Woodcock, 1994).

Training and education in adult learning principles and its effect on teaching style has been studied using PALS (Douglass, 1982; Nolte, 1994; Siebrands, W. 1994; Wegge, 1991). Two of these studies found that some form of in-service training or education in adult learning principles led to a greater use of the collaborative teaching-learning mode.

PALS has been used to compare the educational philosophies and teaching styles of adult educators in

various settings. These include: pharmacy school faculty (Robinson, 1998), college faculty (Hughes, 1997), human resource and development professionals (Farney, 1987), and construction management faculty (Martin, 1999). These studies looked for relationships between educational philosophy and teaching style. In a study of college faculty, Hughes (1997) found that faculty members showed a preference for a learner-centered educational philosophy but practiced a teaching style that was teacher-centered. In a similar fashion, studies have used PALS to compare the managerial philosophies of American Society of Training and Development (ASTD) members with teaching style (Franklin, 1988; Pearson, 1980).

Two studies used PALS to compare teaching style with adult participation or retention in college courses (Graham, 1988; Reiseck, 1996). PALS has also been used on two occasions attempting to identify personality characteristics or traits of the student-centered teacher (Morris, 1982; Siebrands, L. 1994).

Finally, a study was conducted to establish the maximized coefficient alpha for PALS and its seven factors. This study found PALS to be a reliable instrument with a maximized alpha level of 0.96 (Premont, 1989). PALS was also used in one instance to help develop an instrument to

measure predicted preference for control of instruction (PFCI) among adult learners in a teaching-learning situation (Droessler, 1991). The volume and diversity of these studies indicate that The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) is a valid and reliable instrument that has proven its worth and flexibility in numerous studies over the last 21 years.

Law Enforcement Education and Training

Since the mid 1980's there has been a paradigm shift in law enforcement from the military policing model to the community-oriented policing model (Breci & Erickson, 1998; Pliant, 1998; Rosenbaum & Yeh, 1994; Thayer & Reynolds, 1997; Varricchio, 1998). In the military model, police react to events in the community (Thayer & Reynolds, 1997). Community problems filter up the chain of command and solutions filter their way back down. Police respond when a crime is committed. There is little contact with the members of the community until the crime has already happened. Therefore, contact with the public tends to be through negative situations such as getting a ticket, having a house searched, or bailing a friend or family member out of jail (Thayer & Reynolds, 1997).

Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) provide a fairly comprehensive description of community policing:

> Community policing is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizen working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay. The philosophy is predicated on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop new relationships with the law-abiding people in the community, allowing them a greater voice in setting local police priorities and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighborhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls to solving community problems. (p. 5)

Community-oriented policing has caused a fundamental change in policing and the role of police officers. Police officers are increasingly expected to not only handle the wide range of problems the community expects police to handle but also to take the initiative to identify and solve community problems (Goldstein, 1987).

While law enforcement education and training programs do a good job of developing technical and procedural skills, police training does little to promote the acquisition of essential non-technical competencies such as problem solving, judgement, and leadership (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 88). This view leads to assumptions about law enforcement practice. First, a community receives the

style of law enforcement service it supports, and this essential support is dependent on a positive police image. Second, the police public image is dependent upon the public's confidence in the integrity and good judgement of individual police officers as well as the officers' interaction and relationship with the public. Third, police behavior is determined by pre-service and in-service training in college classrooms, police academies, and field training. "Simply stated, bad habits and bad attitudes are passed on from one generation of police officers to the next" (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 88). Finally, curricula at the college-level, in criminal justice programs, in police academies, and in field training programs need to focus on communications, human relations, critical thinking, problem solving, and leadership skills essential to success in law enforcement today (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 88).

Ortmeier's (1997) study of essential leadership competencies for law enforcement officers in a community policing environment presented a list of officer skills and competencies which were ranked according to the following order of importance:

1. Demonstration of effective verbal communication skills
2. Demonstrate effective listening skills

3. Demonstrate empathy in multicultural society

4. Identify problems

5. Demonstrate commitment to area of assignment

6. Demonstrate knowledge of different racial and ethnic cultures

7. Understand the reality of police impact on crime

8. Analyze situations

9. Demonstrate persistence and continuity

10. Employ situational strategies and recognize and encourage responsible community leaders

11. Develop cooperative relationships; analyze problem; demonstrate ability to learn from mistakes and unsuccessful activities

12. Understand and be clear about different world views or different ethnic groups; be a self-starter; demonstrate imagination in inventing solutions

13. Identify and evaluate constituent needs; demonstrate ability to mediate/negotiate; express - and act on - confidence in community partners

14. Interpret community demands; demonstrate willingness to take lead in sharing resources and committing to action

15. Be a risk taker; demonstrate understanding of group dynamics (psychology of groups); demonstrate knowledge of and ability to marshal, community resources outside the police department. (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 91)

These competencies indicate support for the creation of a process in which the police and community identify and

develop solutions to problems and take actions to solve those problems (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 93). To accomplish this, law enforcement education and training curricula need to reflect these necessary skills and competencies.

Law enforcement's transition away from a militaristic tradition that presented an "us vs. them" relationship with the community will be a difficult process. A shift in educational philosophy will be required to make this transition. To effectively train today's law enforcement officers, there must be a move away from the Behaviorist philosophy of education in which the teacher feeds knowledge to a dependant learner and then the learner is expected to reproduce the knowledge in some clearly observable behavioral outcome (Ramirez, 1996). To realistically educate all personnel in the organization and to make the transition, the educational philosophy of the department should be compatible with the community policing approach (p. 24).

John Dewey felt that education would flourish in a democracy and that democracy would only develop if there were true education (Elias & Merriam, 1995). Education should be responsible to a democratic society and play a part in shaping and improving democracy. Dewey "saw no inherent conflict between the individual and the state . .

. . Dewey insisted that state and individual are, ideally, in a relation of mutual support" (Noddings, 1995, p.36). "For Dewey, the state does not exist primarily to protect the rights of individuals; neither do individuals exist merely as functional components of the state" (p.36). Law enforcement education and a community-oriented policing approach should promote a balance between the needs of society and the needs of the individual. Community policing and the education of law enforcement officers should promote the growth of the individual officer and help resolve societal problems (Ramirez, 1996).

Law enforcement training and education should also be useful and applicable to the problems facing the learner. This is especially so when the learners are adults and learn more effectively when they see purpose in their learning and see applicability to their lives (Ramirez, 1996). The law enforcement officer's role is becoming increasingly complex. The education and training of police officers must acknowledge that complexity and prepare them for the immediate application of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they learn (Codish, 1996). It is no longer "enough to be big, strong, male and tough. Instead, the job now entails reading, writing, talking, listening, solving problems, being part of the community and caring

about people - from elected leaders to felons" (p. 40). Dewey purposed a combination of liberal education and practical education so that people could be educated for both work and leisure (Elias & Merriam, 1995).

Like other forms of learning, law enforcement education has the potential of promoting lifelong learning and creating learning organizations.

> Perhaps the greatest of all pedagogical fallacies is the notion that a person learns only the particular thing he is studying at the time. Collateral learning in the way of formation of enduring attitudes, of likes and dislikes, may be and often is much more important than the spelling lesson or lesson in geography or history that is learned. The most important attitude that can be formed is that of desire to go on learning. (Dewey, 1938, p. 48)

Education is not restricted to school but includes a continuous growth of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (p. 48). Law enforcement organizations should attempt to promote a learning environment (Ramirez, 1996). The officers and the organization's ability to learn and to apply that learning enables them to meet the demands of a rapidly changing society (p. 24).

In the Progressive and the Humanist philosophy of education, learners are the center of the learning process. Their needs, interests, and experiences must be an integral part of the process. The learner has unlimited potential

for growth, and the goal of the learning process is to help learners reach their potential. The learners are not solely responsible for learning but share that responsibility with the instructor (Dewey, 1938; Elias & Merriam, 1995).

The instructor plays an important role in law enforcement education. The instructor acts as a facilitator or guide in the learning process (Ramirez, 1996). The instructor is also a learner in the education process and provides a setting conducive to learning. There must be a reciprocal relationship between student and instructor.

> By embracing the Humanistic Paradigm, which presents the instructor as a collaborative facilitator who works with the learners in creating objectives, methods and evaluative criteria, law enforcement training can begin to give more validity to the experiences and perspectives that the students bring with them. Facilitators need to encourage students to question and challenge the subject matter being presented. (Ramirez, 1996, p. 24)

The instructor can be flexible and develop methods and activities that are appropriate for the particular group of learners. The instructor stimulates, instigates, and evaluates the learning process (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 125). "The teacher does not simply provide information; it is the teacher's role to create the conditions within which

learning can take place. In order to be a facilitator one must trust students to assume responsibility for their learning" (p. 125).

Law enforcement education can also emphasize experience: not only the past experiences of the learners but with the use of experiential learning activities. This reinforces Knowles' andragogical assumption that adults bring a vast amount of experiences to the learning process. Adults bring a wide range of individual differences and experiences to the learning process. They are a rich resource for learning (Knowles, 1990).

> Hence, the greater emphasis in adult education on experiential techniques - techniques that tap into the experience of the learners, such as group discussion, simulation exercises, problem-solving activities, case method, and laboratory methods - over transmittal techniques. Hence, also, the greater emphasis on peer-helping activities. (p. 59)

The education and training of law enforcement personnel can be made as experiential, interactive, and participatory. For example, every aspect of law enforcement education could include simulation exercises and problem-solving activities that help develop communication and language skills (Codish, 1996). Faculty and staff could be used as actors to construct domestic

violence and bias crime situations. Learners are then required to bring to bear their experience, powers of observation and communication skills to solve the problem. Situations are designed for learners to use previous knowledge and to connect theory and practice (Codish, 1996). "Obviously, role plays and improvisations are not new adult learning techniques, but in police training they are too often relegated to one or two hastily conceived practical skills sessions that are poorly performed, monitored and evaluated" (p. 43). Properly designed and prepared activities lead to increased retention. Officers are more likely to remember and understand legal concepts and may be able to better empathize with citizens they encounter on the street because of their classroom experiences (p. 43).

The law enforcement curriculum could include the needs, interests, and desires of the learner. This is a very important factor to consider when developing curriculum for adults. The curriculum may include "life skills" and have relevancy and be contextualized to the learner (Codish, 1996).

> Dewey did not recommend abandoning the traditional subjects of the curriculum, but wanted them to be taught in a way that makes them genuine subject matter. They should be presented so that students can use them in purposefully

> working through some problematic situation. (Noddings, 1995, p.37)

The community policing philosophy is not taught as a single course in the curriculum. Instead, it's principles of collaboration, inclusion, respect, and partnership may be stressed by every instructor and infused into every lesson plan (Codish, 1996). Yet, the traditional elements of the law enforcement curriculum cannot be abandoned. Courses in firearms, self-defense, criminal law, search and seizure, and arrest techniques still need to be taught. However, the methods should reflect progressive/humanist philosophy (Ramirez, 1996). In a community-oriented policing curriculum, courses such as Race and Gender in Policing, Community Organizing, Public Speaking, Alternative Dispute Resolution, Problem Solving, and Analytical Thinking, Theories of Violence Prevention, The Politics of Policing, and Communities Affected by Bias and Hate may be added (Codish, 1996). Finally, since the community oriented policing approach stresses partnerships between police and the community, the curriculum can include not only the desires of the learner, but it may also include what is important to society. Partnerships can be established with universities and with racial, domestic violence, and public health organizations. The community

could be involved in the development of curriculum so that society will also benefit (Codish, 1996).

The instructional process itself can be flexible and provide the learner with options. Offering the learners options allows them to take responsibility for the learning process and guide their own learning (Knowles, 1990, p. 57). This may be difficult to accomplish in a law enforcement context since federal and state law mandates much of what the curriculum contains. However, choices can be offered in a law enforcement curriculum that emphasizes original research, critical thinking, and community involvement (Codish, 1996).

Oklahoma Law Enforcement Education and Training

Oklahoma's Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) was formed by the passage of Enrolled House Bill No. 757 (1963). The mission of CLEET is to:

> Enhance public safety by providing education and training which promotes professionalism and enhances competency within the ranks of Oklahoma law enforcement; manage and regulate the licensing and training of private security. (Oklahoma CLEET, 2000)

CLEET is the state agency that certifies all law enforcement officers in the state of Oklahoma. This agency establishes and conducts the 324-hour basic academies for

all full-time peace officers in Oklahoma employed by city, county, or state agencies. The Oklahoma City Police Department and the Tulsa Police Department conduct their own basic academies. CLEET also conducts continuing education programs for all certified peace officers in the state of Oklahoma. Oklahoma law enforcement officers are required by state statute to have at least 16 hours of continuing education annually.

CLEET plans and develops the curriculum and delivers the training for the 8-week basic law enforcement course attended by all new police officers. They also ensure that the Oklahoma City and Tulsa academies meet the minimum standards set by state statute and the Council. CLEET also provides for basic reserve officer certification for the state by setting the minimum standards, providing the curriculum, and by providing administrative oversight (Oklahoma CLEET, 2000).

CLEET certifies and trains all law enforcement instructors in the state of Oklahoma. CLEET and its employing agencies use these instructors to teach continuing education training for other law enforcement personnel and use these instructors to supplement their full-time instructors during the basic academy classes and continuing education classes. All education and training

must be approved by and conducted by CLEET-certified instructors in order to count toward continuing education credit for Oklahoma law enforcement officers.

In order to become a CLEET-certified instructor, each officer must attend a 40-hour certification course. This course includes 1-hour sections on civil liability for training, impromptu speaking, writing lesson plans, the fundamentals of instruction, instructional strategies, adult learning principles, and the use of audio and visual aids. Sections ranging from 2 to 4 hours cover the areas of public speaking, learning goals and objectives, and writing performance objectives. Each student is also required to deliver an 8-minute impromptu speech and a final 20-minute presentation. Successful completion of the course leads to CLEET certification.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Design

This study utilized a descriptive design. Descriptive studies take place within a specific context with the purpose of describing behaviors in a particular setting (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). "Descriptive research involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. A descriptive study determines and reports the way things are" (Gay, 1996, p. 249). This particular study described the profile of the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty, their teaching styles, and their application of adult learning principles.

Data in this study were collected with both quantitative and qualitative methods. The Principle of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was used to collect quantitative data because of its ability to measure teaching style in adult education settings. Additional data was collected using the qualitative method of in-depth

interviews. This qualitative data collection method provided rich, detailed description of the behavior being studied and was a natural extension of the quantitative instrument. The combination of these data sources provided in-depth, rich descriptions of the current knowledge and application of adult learning principles by Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty.

Population

"The population is the group of interest to the researcher, the group to which she or he would like the results of the study to be generalizable" (Gay, 1996, p. 112). The target population for this study was the faculty of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET). The CLEET faculty consists of 28 instructors that identified themselves as full-time instructors and of 142 part-time instructors. Thirteen of the full-time instructors are employed by CLEET. Faculty members teach a wide variety of law enforcement subjects in continuing education classes and at the Oklahoma basic police academy. The basic academy is an 8-week academy that provides the initial training and certification for Oklahoma law enforcement officers. Full-time instructors

are CLEET employees or are contracted by CLEET whose primary function is law enforcement education. Part-time instructors are from law enforcement agencies throughout Oklahoma and supplement the full-time instructors. Part-time instructors are CLEET-certified instructors that teach at the basic academy or teach continuing education classes on a regular basis. CLEET offers the basic police academy in Broken Arrow, which is a suburb of Tulsa, and in Oklahoma City. CLEET continuing education classes are offered regionally throughout Oklahoma.

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

Teaching style was measured with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). PALS is self-administered, has 44 items, and can be completed in about 10 to 15 minutes (Conti, 1990). Respondents report how frequently they practice the behaviors in each of the 44 items by choosing 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, 1990). Scores range from 0 to 220 with scores with a mean for the instrument of 146 and a standard deviation of 20. 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. Scores near the mean indicate teaching behaviors that are both teacher-centered and learner-centered (Conti, 1985a).

"Whether you are testing hypotheses or seeking answers to questions, you must have a valid, reliable instrument for collecting your data" (Gay, 1996, p. 133). Validity is the degree to which an instrument or test measures what it is supposed to measure and is broken down into construct, content, and criterion-related validity. "Construct validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct" (Gay, 1996, p. 140). A national jury of adult education professors confirmed PALS construct validity (Conti, 1982). "Content validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended content area" (Gay, 1996, p.139). Content validity for PALS was established through field tests in full-time public school programs (Conti, 1982). Criterion-related validity "is determined by relating performance on a test to performance on another criterion" (Gay, 1996, p. 139). "Criterion-related

validity was confirmed by identifying the initiating and responsive actions in the items in PALS and then comparing scores on PALS to score on the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories" (Conti, 1982, p. 145).

"Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it measures. The more reliable a test is, the more confidence we can have that the scores obtained from the administration of the test are essentially the same scores that would be obtained if the test were readministered" (Gay, 1996, p. 145). PALS reliability was established by the means of test-retest and has a reliability coefficient of .92 (Conti, 1985b, p. 222). Since it inception, PALS has been used in over 60 research studies and doctoral dissertations.

In-depth Interviews

Interviewing is probably the most common form of collecting qualitative data for research and in some cases is the only method used (Merriam, 1998, p. 70). "A typical qualitative interview is a one-on-one session in which the researcher asks a series of open-ended, probing questions" (Gay, 1996, p. 223). Interviews are unique in that they can be used to acquire data that is not observable by the

researcher (i.e., past events) and can provide insights on the mental processes of the participants (Gay, 1996, p. 223). Interviewing is key when it is not possible to observe behavior, feelings, or how people interpret their environment (Merriam, 1998, p. 72).

Interviews can vary along a continuum in the amount of structure or formality used by the researcher (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Gay, 1996; Merriam, 1998). At one end of the continuum is the factual or structured interview. In the structured interview, the order and wording of questions is predetermined, and the interview amounts to an oral survey (Merriam, 1998, p. 74). A problem with structured interviews is that strictly adhering to an ordered set of predetermined questions does not allow the researcher to access the participants' perspectives or understanding of a particular issue. Instead, the participant must react to the researchers biases and worldview. The primary use of a highly structured interview is to gather demographic data from the participants or have them define certain terms or concepts (Merriam, 1998, p. 74).

At the other end of the continuum is the unstructured interview. The unstructured interview has open-ended questions and is exploratory, flexible, and more like a conversation (Merriam, 1998, p. 75). The unstructured

interview contains questions about values, opinions, and feelings (Gay, 1996, p. 224). In the unstructured interview, the researcher does not have a set of predetermined questions. This type of interview is "particularly useful when the researcher does not know enough about a phenomenon to ask relevant questions" (Merriam, 1998, p. 74). A goal of the unstructured interview is for the researcher to learn more about a subject so that questions can be formulated for subsequent interviews (p. 75). The use of completely unstructured interviews is difficult because it takes a flexible and skilled researcher to not get lost in divergent viewpoints and unconnected pieces of information found in these types of interviews (Merriam, 1998, p. 75). "Totally unstructured interviewing is rarely used as the sole means of collecting data in qualitative research" (p.75).

In the middle of the continuum is the semi-structured interview. This approach involves the use of both structured and unstructured questions (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Gay, 1996; Merriam, 1998). This type of interview usually contains a highly structured section to obtain specific information from the participants and a section of open-ended questions.

> But the largest part of the interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, and neither the exact wording nor the order of the questions is determined ahead of time. This format allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic. (Merriam, 1998, p. 74)

In most studies a combination of all three types of these interviews are used. A small portion of the interview may be highly unstructured so new ideas and insights may come to the surface. The remaining portion of the interview is guided with structured questions to collect demographic data and semi-structured or open-ended questions (Merriam, 1998, p. 75).

Good qualitative interviews are those in which the participants are at ease and talk openly about their views. Good interviews are rich with data and contain detailed examples of the participants' perspectives (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 95). Only by asking good questions and probing for information can the researcher obtain good data.

Asking several different types of questions can stimulate responses from the participants (Merriam, 1998, p. 76). Hypothetical questions that ask the participant to speculate on how something might be or how someone might respond are helpful in drawing out descriptions of the

participant's own experiences (Merriam, 1998, p. 77). Devil's advocate questions that depersonalize sensitive issues are useful when the content under investigation is controversial. These types of questions allow the participant to respond freely and avoid embarrassment. They also prevent animosity between the interviewer and participant during the discussion of sensitive an issue (p.77). Questions about perfect or ideal situations are useful in any type of study. These types of questions extract both positive and negative information and opinion about the area under investigation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Merriam, 1998). Questions that require only "yes" or "no" responses should be avoided (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Gay, 1996; Merriam, 1998). Asking good open-ended and probing questions is very important, but the key to a good interview is a skilled researcher.

The researcher in this study designed a semi-structured interview guide to elicit participants' reflections on the instructional methods and techniques they use in the classroom. The interview guide contained 13 open-ended questions to elicit participants' perceptions and attitudes regarding law enforcement instruction. Participants were interviewed in-depth regarding their responses to each question.

The researcher is the instrument through which data is collected and analyzed in qualitative interviews and as such must possess certain skills and personality characteristics necessary for this type of data collection (Merriam, 1998; Nievaard, 1996). The researcher uses a range of personal feelings, insights, ideas, and experiences to interpret information from participants (Nievaard, 1996). The researcher must be highly intuitive, patient, sensitive to context, physical setting and nonverbal behavior (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Merriam, 1998). The researcher must also establish rapport, ask good questions, be a good listener, and be a good communicator. A good communicator is not only good with oral skills but is also a good writer (Merriam, 1998; Nievaard, 1996).

The researcher in this study has been a criminal investigator for 15 years, is a state certified law enforcement instructor, and has been involved in law enforcement training for 13 years. Though the process of interviewing thousands of people as an investigator, this researchers interview skills have been developed and refined. His contextual awareness of law enforcement training, and his intimate knowledge of the law enforcement sub-culture, has prepared the researcher well for the

development of rapport with the participants and the conducting of the in-depth interviews.

Procedures

All 170 members of the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty were involved in the study. Each instructor was mailed a packet consisting of a cover letter, the PALS instrument, demographic questionnaire, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. The cover letter described the nature of the study and contained a statement indicating the endorsement of the study by Dr. Jeanie Nelson, the director of CLEET. The cover letter encouraged participation and assured the participants of confidentiality. The questionnaire booklets, which contained PALS and the demographic questions, were numbered to allow for tracking and identifying participants for in-depth interviews. Two weeks after the 170 packets were mailed, 85 had responded, and 3 packets had been returned as undeliverable. Therefore, 50% of the total population is represented in this study.

There were 11 females and 74 males within the study group with an average age of 42.8 years. The study group

contained 17 participants that identified themselves as full-time instructors and 68 participants that identified themselves as part-time instructors. These participants had an average of 16.8 years of law enforcement experience and 10.8 years of law enforcement teaching experience. The study group education levels were distributed as follows: high school diploma, 2.4%; college but no degree, 23.5%; associate degree, 7.1%; bachelors degree, 35.3%; masters degree, 17.6%; college hours past a masters degree, 8.2%; and doctorate, 5.9%. The group consisted of 70 participants that reported having had courses in adult learning principles and 15 participants that had not. The average numbers of hours of adult learning principles training for the participants was 61.7.

Participants reported teaching a wide variety of law enforcement courses. Participants taught course in criminal law, interviews and interrogation, domestic violence, effective communication, creative problem solving, leadership development, investigations, firearms, self-defense, auto theft, narcotics investigation, explosives safety, fingerprints, photography, officer survival, first aid, sex crimes, report writing, collision investigation, custody and control, blood stain pattern analysis, civil rights, civil liabilities, constitutional

procedures, criminal law, ethics, child abuse, emergency vehicle operation, courtroom testimony, polygraph, CPR, defensive tactics, mental health, case preparation, dispatcher training, patrol tactics, and victimology. This spectrum of courses covers a large portion of the CLEET curriculum.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This descriptive study examined the teaching style and the degree and method of application of adult learning principles by the faculty of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET). Teaching style was measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) and the degree and method of application of adult learning principles was examined by the use of in-depth interviews. The variable of teaching style was examined in relationship to the variables of gender, age, education level, full-time or part-time status, years in law enforcement, years of law enforcement teaching experience, participation in adult education courses, and the number of hours of adult education.

Teaching Style

PALS

The teaching style of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty was

measured with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). PALS scores can be examined by relating them to the mean score for the instrument. The indication of a person's overall teaching style and the strength of commitment to that style can be determined by comparing the score to 146. Most scores will be within one standard deviation either side of the mean and therefore will be between 126 and 166. Movement toward these scores indicates an increased commitment to a specific teaching style (Conti, 1990, p. 83).

PALS scores that are in the second standard deviation, 20 to 40 points from the mean, indicate a very strong and dependable support of an explicit teaching style. PALS scores that are in the third standard deviation, 40 or more points from the mean, indicate an extreme commitment to a teaching style. The total PALS score is indicative of teaching style and the level of the instructor's support for that particular style. The overall score furnishes a general classification for characterizing teaching style (Conti, 1990, p. 83).

Participants within the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty study group had a mean score of 128.6 which is 17.4 points below the established mean for PALS (see Table 1). This score is very indicative of a

strong teacher-centered mode of instruction. Only 18% of the study group had scores of 146 or above with the highest score being 181. Those in this 18% have a more learner-centered approach to teaching with one participant indicating very strong support for the learner-centered mode. For those below the mean, 38% of the study had scores between 126 and 146, which were within the first standard deviation established for PALS. Of those remaining, 39% had scores that were greater than one standard deviation below the mean, and 5% had scores that were greater than two standard deviations below the mean.

PALS Factors

Overall, PALS scores are indicative of an instructor's support for a teaching style; PALS scores can also be divided into seven different factors (Conti, 1990). Each of these factors contains a similar group of items from the PALS instrument that forms the major component of teaching style. The factor titles are indicative of support of the collaborative teaching mode found in the adult education literature. High scores in each of these factors indicate support of the learner-centered concept implied by the factor title. Low scores indicate support for the teacher-

centered concept. Factor scores are calculated by adding up the responses for each instrument item for the factor (Conti, 1990, p. 84).

The primary factor for PALS is Learner-Centered Activities with 12 negative instrument items. These items relate to evaluation by formal tests and to comparison of students to external standards. A high score on Learner-Centered Activities indicated a learner-centered style. A low score indicated a teacher-centered approach to teaching (p. 84).

The participants in the study had a mean of 40.1 for Learner-Centered Activities. The established mean for Learner-Centered Activities is 38, with a standard deviation of 8.3 (see Table 1). Therefore, the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty within the study are .25 standard deviations above the established mean indicating a learner-centered approach to teaching.

The second factor in PALS is Personalizing Instruction with six positive items and three negative items on the PALS instrument. The established mean for Personalizing Instruction is 31, with a standard deviation of 6.8. A high score on this factor indicates that the instructor uses a variety of techniques to personalize instruction for

the learner. The learner has input into the instructional methods, and training is self-paced. A low score indicates a teacher-centered teaching style (Conti, 1990, p. 84).

CLEET faculty had a mean score of 21.1 which falls well below the established mean of 31 for this factor (see Table 1). In fact, participant's scores were 1.48 standard deviations below the established mean indicating a predilection for a very teacher-centered style of teaching. Only 4% of the participants scored at or above the established mean for Personalizing Instruction. Therefore, not many participants allow the personalizing of instruction, and lecturing is generally the method used to present subject matter.

The third factor is Relating to Experience and consist of six positive items. The established mean for this factor is 21, with a standard deviation of 4.9. A high score on Relating to Experience shows that the instructor organizes learning experiences that reflect problems faced by learners in their daily lives and the instructor incorporates the experiences of the learners in these (p. 84).

The CLEET faculty participating in this study had a mean score of 19.3 on Relating to Experience (see Table 1). This score is .34 standard deviations below the established

mean of 21 for this factor. These scores indicate that these instructors do not include problems faced by learners in their instruction, do not incorporate the learner's prior experiences into learning activities, and do not raise questions that foster critical thinking in learners. Those scoring at or above the established mean indicated recognition of learners' previous experiences and incorporation problem-centered learning activities.

The fourth factor is Assessing Student Needs and is constructed of four positive items on the PALS instrument that relate to assessing student needs. The established mean for this factor is 14 with a standard deviation of 3.6. High scores on this factor suggest that the instructor treats learners as adults and determine their instructional needs prior to the learning activity (Conti, 1990, p. 85).

The mean score for Assessing Student Needs for the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty that participated in this study was 10.9 (see Table 1). This score is .86 standard deviations below the established mean for this factor of 14. The 31% of the study group above the established mean; support diagnosing the existing gaps between learner's goals and current performance levels and helping learner's develop short and long range goals.

The 69% of the study group that scored below the established mean have a tendency to treat learners less like adults and experience little one on one counseling with learners.

The fifth factor is Climate Building and is made up of four positive items. The established mean for this factor is 16 with a standard deviation of 3.0. High scores on Climate Building indicate preference for an informal, friendly learning climate in which the instructor attempts to eliminate barriers to learning. Low scores indicate failure to encourage interaction and dialogue between learners and a tendency to discourage risk-taking (Conti, 1990, p. 85).

For Climate Building, the study participants had a mean score of 15.7 (see Table 1). This score is only .10 standard deviations below the established mean of 16. For 60% of the study group, this indicates that participants provide more formal instruction, have less dialogue with learners, and do not allow for practice of problem-solving skills. The 40% of the CLEET instructors above the mean tend to favor a friendly and informal setting, allow for experimentation and the development of interpersonal skills.

The sixth factor is Participation in the Learning Process and contains four positive items. The established mean for this factor is 13 with a standard deviation of 3.5. A high score indicates the instructors allow learners to participate in making decisions about course content and allow them to evaluate their own learning (Conti, 1990, p. 85).

The Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty in the study group had a mean score of 9.5 on Participation in the Learning Process (see Table 1). This score is one full standard deviation below the established mean for this factor. Thus, 89% of the study group would likely not allow learners to identify problems they wish to solve and would not encourage them to be involved in determining course content. There were 11% of the instructors who have a preference for establishing adult-to-adult relationships between instructor and learner.

The seventh factor is Flexibility for Personal Development and contains five negative items from the PALS instrument. The established mean score for this factor is 13 with a standard deviation of 3.9. A high score on this factor shows a preference for a learner-centered atmosphere. Low scores indicate an instructor that prefers a rigid, teacher-centered style (pp. 85-86).

The Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training law enforcement instructors that were part of the study group had a mean score of 11.8 on Flexibility for Personal Development (see Table 1). This score is .30 standard deviations below the established mean for this factor. There were 69% of the CLEET faculty that fell below the established mean, indicating these faculty see themselves as a provider of knowledge and establish a disciplined learning environment where little or no flexibility is offered to learners. The other 31% of the faculty have a greater tendency to allow the discussion of controversial topics and view personal fulfillment as a primary aim of education. They maintain a flexible curriculum and a flexible classroom atmosphere.

Table 1.

PALS and PALS Factors Scores

Variable	PALS Norm	PALS SD	Study Mean	Study SD
PALS	146	20	128.6	15.4
Learner-Centered Activities	38	8.3	40.1	7.4
Personalized Instruction	31	6.8	21.1	5.0
Relating to Experience	21	4.9	19.3	5.1
Assessing Student Needs	14	3.6	10.9	4.5
Climate Building	16	3.0	15.7	2.5

Participation in Learning Process	13	3.5	9.5	3.4
Flexibility for Personal Development	13	3.9	11.8	3.5

Teaching Style and Demographic Variables

The Principle of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was used to measure teaching style of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty in the study group. Demographic data were collected from the 85 CLEET faculty within the study group related to gender, age, full-time or part-time status, years in law enforcement, years of law enforcement teaching experience, participation in adult education classes, and the number of hours of adult education.

The relationship between these variables and teaching style was examined utilizing a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). A one-way analysis of variance is an inferential statistical procedure that "is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between two or more means at a selected probability level" (Gay, 1996, p. 479).

The theory underlying ANOVA is that variances in scores can be attributed to either a variance between groups or a variance within groups. A one-way ANOVA is

distinguished by having one independent variable, one dependent variable, and samples that are independent. Samples are grouped on the dependent variable. "The dependent variable corresponds to the characteristic of the subjects that is measured, with the data within each group summarized using means and standard deviations" (Huck & Cormier, 1996, p. 300). In order to conduct the analysis, the variance in the comparison groups must be independent. Independence means "that (1) the subjects who provide the scores in any given group are different from the subjects who provide data in any other comparison group and (2) subjects are not "connected" across comparison groups . . . ." (Huck & Cormier, 1996, p. 300).

Education Level

Participants were asked to provide their level of formal education. All reported this information and three groups were formed. The first group contained 28 participants, all of which had education levels below a bachelors degree. The second group contained 30 participants, all with a bachelors degree and the third group contained 27 participants, all with education levels above a bachelors degree. Eight separate analyses were

conducted for the total PALS score and each of the seven factors. A significant difference was found for the PALS total score and Flexibility for Personal Development (see Table 2). No significant difference was found for the other factors.

Table 2.

ANOVA of PALS by Education Level

Variable	df	SS	MS	F	P
PALS					
Between	2	2012.06	1006.03	4.55	.01
Within	82	18122.84	221.01		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	2	82.58	41.29	3.47	.03
Within	82	975.60	11.89		
Relating to Experience					
Between	2	76.20	38.10	1.42	.24
Within	82	2184.99	26.64		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	2	67.81	33.90	1.33	.26
Within	82	2080.64	25.37		
Participation in the Learning Process					
Between	2	23.64	11.82	.99	.37
Within	82	978.81	11.93		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	2	35.71	17.85	.84	.43
Within	82	1722.98	21.01		

Learner-Centered Activities					
Within	2	92.23	46.11	.83	.43
Between	82	4531.08	55.25		
Climate Building					
Within	2	11.23	5.61	.83	.43
Between	82	553.07	6.74		

For PALS total score, the post hoc analysis using the Tukey procedure indicated that the differences were between those with formal education beyond a bachelors degree and the other groups. Those with college hours beyond a bachelors degree, including those with a masters degrees or a doctorate, had a mean PALS score of 135.77 while the other two groups had means of 125.28 for those with education levels below a bachelors degree and 125.36 for those with a bachelors degree.

Overall PALS score indicates a preference for teaching style. The established mean score for the PALS instrument is 146. While all three groups were below this mean, those having a bachelors degree or less formal education were more that one standard deviation below the mean, indicating a strong preference for a teacher-centered approach to teaching. While they are also below the mean, those with education beyond a bachelors degree favor a slightly more learner-centered style.

For Flexibility for Personal Development, the post hoc analysis using the Tukey procedure indicated that the differences were between those with formal education beyond a bachelors degree and the those with less than a bachelors degree. Those with education beyond a bachelors degree had a mean score on this factor of 13.25 and those that did not have a bachelors degree had a mean of 10.89.

Flexibility for Personal Development involves allowing learners to openly discuss controversial issues, allowing learners to determine learning objectives and maintaining a flexible and relaxed learning environment. The mean score for this factor is 13 with a standard deviation of 3.9. Those in the study group with less than a bachelors degree scored .56 standard deviations below the mean, indicating a preference for a highly disciplined, inflexible learning environment in which they are the provider of knowledge. Those in the study group with education beyond a bachelors degree scored at the mean and are more likely to view personal growth as a central aim of education.

Full-time and Part-time Status

Participants were asked to report if they provided law enforcement instruction on a full-time or part-time basis.

Of those in the study group, 17 reported full-time instructor status, and 68 reported part-time status. No differences were found between these two groups on the overall PALS score and most of the factors (see Table 3). However, significant difference was found for Learner-Centered Activities. Those reporting full-time instructor status had a mean score on Learner-Centered Activities of 35.3 and those reporting part-time instructor status had a mean score of 41.3.

Learner-Centered Activities is the primary factor in PALS. High scores on this factor indicate support for the collaborative mode of teaching and a rejection of a teacher-centered style. The established mean for this factor is 38 with a standard deviation of 8.3. Part-time instructors scored .39 standard deviations above the mean on this factor and are more likely to use informal evaluation of learners and encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning. The full-time instructors scored .32 standard deviations below the mean for this factor. This score indicates an instructor that prefers to exercise control over the classroom and have a heavy reliance on standardized tests (Conti, 1990, p. 84).

Table 3.

ANOVA of PALS by Full-time/Part-time Status

Variable	df	SS	MS	F	P
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	1	488.40	488.40	9.80	.00
Within	83	4134.92	49.81		
PALS					
Between	1	464.72	464.72	1.96	.16
Within	83	19670.18	236.99		
Climate Building					
Between	1	7.95	7.95	1.18	.27
Within	83	556.35	6.70		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	1	7.50	7.50	.29	.59
Within	83	2140.95	25.79		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	1	4.70	4.70	.22	.63
Within	83	1754.00	21.13		
Participation in the Learning Process					
Between	1	1.42	1.42	.11	.73
Within	83	1001.02	12.06		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Within	1	.75	.75	.05	.80
Between	83	1057.44	12.74		
Relating to Experience					
Within	1	.12	.12	.00	.94
Between	83	2261.06	27.24		

Participation in Adult Education Courses

Participants were asked to report weather or not they had participated in any course on how to teach adults. Of those in the study group, 70 indicated they had attended adult education classes and 15 indicated they had not. Two groups were formed: those who had attended classes on adult learning and those who had not. The ANOVA between teaching style measured with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale and participation in adult learning courses found no difference due to overall PALS score for most of the factors (see Table 4). However, a significant difference existed for Personalized Instruction.

Those in the study group that reported attending courses on how to teach adults had a mean of 21.7 for Personalized Instruction and those that had not attended these type courses had a mean of 18.1. Both of these scores are more than one standard deviation below the established mean for Personalized Instruction of 31 with a standard deviation of 6.8. Although both groups scored low on this factor, the group that had attended courses on how to teach adults are more likely to personalize instruction and are less likely to use lecture as the primary method of presenting material.

Table 4.

ANOVA of PALS by Participation in Adult Education Courses

Variable	df	SS	MS	F	P
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	1	162.85	162.85	6.80	.01
Within	83	1985.59	23.92		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	1	73.42	73.42	3.61	.06
Within	83	1685.27	20.30		
PALS					
Between	1	658.71	658.71	2.80	.09
Within	83	19476.19	234.65		
Climate Building					
Between	1	11.88	11.88	1.78	.18
Within	83	552.41	6.65		
Relating to Experience					
Between	1	14.68	14.68	.54	.46
Within	83	2246.50	2245.50		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	1	6.51	6.51	.51	.47
Within	83	1051.67	12.67		
Participation in the Learning Process					
Within	1	3.26	3.26	.27	.60
Between	83	999.18	12.03		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Within	1	.12	.12	.00	.96
Between	83	4623.19	55.70		

Gender and Age

Gender and age data was collected for all participants in the study group. An ANOVA was performed to examine the relationship between gender and teaching style. No significant relationship was found between gender and the scores on the Principles of Adult Learning Scale and any of its factors (see Table 5). Participants were grouped into four age groups: 28-35, 36-44, 45-48, and 49 and over. Each of these groups represented approximately one-quarter of the respondents. An ANOVA was performed to examine the relationship between age and teaching style. As with gender, no significant relationship was found between age and the Principle of Adult Learning Scale and any of its factors (see Table 5).

Table 5.

ANOVA of PALS by Gender & Age

Variable	df	SS	MS	F	P
		Gender			
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	1	190.44	190.44	3.56	.06
Within	83	4432.87	53.40		
PALS					
Between	1	788.23	788.23	3.38	.06
Within	83	19346.67	233.09		

Personalizing Instruction					
Between	1	32.49	32.49	1.27	.26
Within	83	2115.95	25.49		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	1	10.95	10.95	.91	.34
Within	83	991.50	11.94		
Relating to Experience					
Between	1	18.50	18.50	.68	.41
Within	83	2242.69	27.02		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	1	3.14	3.14	.24	.62
Within	83	1055.04	12.71		
Assessing Student Needs					
Within	1	2.99	2.99	.14	.70
Between	83	1755.71	21.15		
Climate Building					
Within	1	.84	.84	.12	.72
Between	83	563.30	6.78		

Age

Relating to Experience					
Between	3	192.49	64.16	2.51	.06
Within	81	2068.70	25.53		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	3	114.81	38.27	1.88	.13
Within	81	1643.89	20.29		
PALS					
Between	3	1273.55	424.51	1.82	.14
Within	81	18861.35	232.85		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	3	122.51	40.83	1.63	.18
Within	81	2025.93	25.01		

Participation in the Learning Process					
Between	3	28.91	9.63	.80	.49
Within	81	973.53	12.01		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	3	28.26	9.42	.74	.53
Within	81	1029.93	12.71		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Within	3	86.62	28.87	.51	.67
Between	81	4536.70	56.00		
Climate Building					
Within	3	7.73	2.57	.37	.77
Between	81	556.56	6.87		

Experience

The total number of years employed in law enforcement was collected from all participants. Participants were grouped into three groups indicating years of experience, 0-10, 11-20, and 21-31. Each group represented approximately one-third of the total study group and represented law enforcement officer at the beginning, middle and end of their careers. An ANOVA was performed to examine the relationship between years of law enforcement experience and teaching style. No significant relationship was found between years of law enforcement experience and

the Principles of Adult Learning Scale and any of its factors (see Table 6).

Data were collected from participants concerning their total years of teaching experience. Participants were grouped into four groups by years of teaching experience, 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, and 17-28. Each group represented about one-quarter of the total study group and represented different levels of teaching experience. As with years of law enforcement experience, no significant relationship was found between years of teaching experience and the Principle of Adult Learning Scale and any of its factors (see Table 6).

Each participant was asked to provide data indicating the number of hours each had attended instruction in teaching adults. The respondents were divided into four groups according to the number of hours they attended: 0-10, 16-40, 48-96, and 120-300. Each group represented approximately one-quarter of the total participants. No significant relationship was found between hours of adult education and the Principle of Adult Learning Scale and any of its factors (see Table 6).

Table 6.

ANOVA of PALS by Years in Law Enforcement, Years Teaching and Adult Education Hours

Variable	df	SS	MS	F	P
		Years in Law Enforcement			
Participation in the Learning Process					
Between	2	61.25	30.62	2.66	.07
Within	82	941.20	11.47		
PALS					
Between	2	1032.39	516.19	2.21	.11
Within	82	19102.91	232.95		
Personalizing Instructions					
Between	2	104.48	52.24	2.09	.12
Within	82	2043.97	24.92		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	2	56.63	28.31	1.36	.26
Within	82	1702.07	20.75		
Relating to Experience					
Between	2	66.13	33.06	1.23	.29
Within	82	2195.05	26.76		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	2	28.72	14.36	1.14	.32
Within	82	1029.47	12.55		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Within	2	51.99	25.99	.46	.62
Between	82	4571.33	55.74		

Climate Building					
Within	2	.36	.18	.02	.97
Between	82	563.94	6.87		

Years of Teaching Experience

Relating to Experience					
Between	3	84.85	28.28	1.05	.37
Within	81	2176.33	26.86		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	3	24.14	8.04	.63	.59
Within	81	1034.04	12.76		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	3	38.53	12.84	.49	.68
Within	81	2109.91	26.04		
PALS					
Between	3	268.08	89.36	.36	.77
Within	81	19866.82	245.269		
Climate Building					
Between	3	5.58	1.86	.27	.84
Within	81	558.71	6.89		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	3	40.41	13.47	.23	.86
Within	81	4582.90	56.57		
Assessing Student Needs					
Within	3	9.91	3.30	.15	.92
Between	81	1748.79	21.59		
Participation in the Learning Process					
Within	3	3.34	1.11	.09	.96
Between	81	999.10	12.33		

Adult Education Hours

Climate Building					
Between	3	26.07	8.69	1.30	.27
Within	81	538.23	6.64		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	3	98.94	32.98	1.30	.27
Within	81	2049.50	25.30		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	3	41.04	13.68	1.08	.35
Within	81	1017.14	12.55		
Assessing Student Needs					
Between	3	58.34	19.44	.92	.43
Within	81	1700.36	20.99		
Relating to Experience					
Between	3	74.50	24.83	.92	.43
Within	81	2186.68	26.99		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	3	104.01	34.67	.62	.60
Within	81	4519.30	55.79		
Participating in the Learning Process					
Within	3	13.32	4.44	.36	.77
Between	81	989.12	12.21		
PALS					
Within	3	111.32	37.10	.15	.92
Between	81	20023.58	247.20		

Instructional Methods and Adult Learning Principles

In-depth interviews were used to collect data on the instructional methods and the adult learning principles Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) instructors report using in the classroom. Twenty-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants in the study. A purposeful sample based on overall PALS scores was used to select participants for in-depth interviews. "Purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (Merriam, 1998, p. 61).

A purposeful sample was used in this study to capture a range of PALS scores and demographic characteristics. PALS score was used to divide participants into three separate groups. Each group represented approximately one-third of the entire study group. Seven interviews were conducted with participants in the study with PALS scores ranging from 102.0 to 121.0. A total of 28 participants were in this group and their PALS scores indicate an exceptionally strong support for a teacher-centered style. Seven interviews were conducted with participants in the study with PALS scores ranging from 122.0 to 133.0. A total of 31 participants were in this group and their PALS

scores also indicate a strong support for a teacher-centered teaching style. Seven interviews were conducted with participants with PALS scores ranging from 134.0 to 181.0. A total of 26 participants were in this group and their PALS scores indicate a preference for a more learner-centered teaching style. This last range of scores was larger than the others due to the small number of participants that fell into this range.

Collected data was analyzed and themes were mined from the data. Data collection continued until these categories were saturated. The general concepts and themes that developed from the data were consistent across all three groups of PALS scores.

We Lecture, But We Don't Like It!

Data collected in the in-depth interviews on the methods and techniques used by Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty revealed lecture as the primary method of instruction. Participants in the study also indicated a preference for "hands-on" types of activities such as role-playing, simulations, and demonstrations.

Lecture is the dominant instructional method used by CLEET faculty. Lecture is, in most cases, a one-way

transmittal of information from the teacher to the student (Farrah, 1998, p. 143). Lecture is used to identify concepts and present content in an organized way in a short period of time (Farrah, 1998, p. 144). The advantages of the lecture technique include being able to be used with large groups and being efficient in both energy and expenditure of time (Farrah, 1998, p. 146). However, lecture is not an appropriate method to modify attitudes or teach motor skills (p. 144). Lecture is also a well-known and acceptable method with which most adults and law enforcement instructors are familiar and comfortable. One female participant with 12 years of law enforcement experience and a PALS score of 148 summed it up this way, "I'm not sure which instructional methods work best. I've always been trained by lecture . . . . I guess it works."

Law enforcement instructors and students are trained in a militaristic environment in which the instructor is seen as the expert and the instructor provides information to a passive student. The participants in this study have been lectured too and have been taught by lecture; when they are asked about teaching, they talked about lecture. Although most participants reported that they use lecture as their primary instructional method and although this is supported by the teacher-centered teaching style of the

group, many indicated that they felt lecture was not the most effective method of teaching law enforcement officers.

> To stand there and lecture, I can't stand that. To me that's not teaching, just giving them facts and either they memorize them or they don't. I want to see them do it. I want to tell them about it, show them how to do it, and get them to do it as well. It seems to work better. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--158)

> We did some lecture, and a lot of that is not just straight lecture. It was facilitative. Lots of questioning: "What do you think is the mission of law enforcement?" for example, and I kind of draw it out of the students, rather than just sit there and give it rote from the book. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

> I think just the standard lecture, that just lays out this, this and this, with no interesting application doesn't work. They just don't respond to that type of instruction. (Female, 43, 9 years law enforcement, PALS--113)

> I don't want to use just lecture, it bores people and puts them to sleep. I want to use visual aids and discussion. I always try to get group participation. Sometimes it takes awhile, but I always get it going. (Male, 32, 10 years law enforcement, PALS--131)

A common theme among the CLEET faculty was the perception that the very nature of the curriculum, the legal requirements, and the time allotted for instruction limited the instructional methods that could be used. These instructors felt the system's emphasis on covering required content was restrictive on the teaching-learning transaction.

> Primarily I lecture; I don't do much else. The CLEET outlines and the time constraints don't lend themselves to any other type of instruction. (Male, 59, 36 years law enforcement, PALS--120)

> When I answered the questions in your survey, I think I had a bias. CLEET courses, by their nature and structure, limit the methods that can be used. I try to vary the methods, but civil liability is also a consideration. If I don't cover the content required by CLEET, then I leave myself, CLEET, and the officer open to civil liability. (Male, 33, 14 years law enforcement, PALS--153)

The CLEET instructors interviewed sensed that even though they used lecture as the chief method of providing course content this method was not working with law enforcement students. Participants said students fell asleep, were bored, and were not actively engaged in the learning process when they lectured. There was a conflict between the methods they wanted to use and what the CLEET system was forcing them to use.

> The outline I was given to work from was very limited, and there wasn't a whole lot I could do to make it interactive or make it interesting to the students. I won't teach it again just because I felt like that outline was very limiting and so was the time involved. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

Another theme, that developed during the in-depth interviews of the CLEET faculty participants and which may also explain the reliance on lecture, concerned the quality of the preparation they received to be law enforcement

instructors. The Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) performs the preparation and certification of law enforcement instructors in Oklahoma. Law enforcement officers attend a 40-hour course and then are certified to teach CLEET approved law enforcement subjects through out the state. Participants interviewed in this study expressed concern for the quality of the instructor preparation course. Much of this course is geared toward platform skills and not toward developing a teaching style or developing an inventory of instructional methods. Many of the participants felt the quality of instructors teaching law enforcement in Oklahoma was low. Not only was the instructor quality low, but also the way CLEET prepared instructors is in need of revision.

> I think there is a lot of people in law enforcement teach courses because they want too or because their department wants them too, or because CLEET wants them to. These instructors maybe don't have all the abilities that should be there. I think that law enforcement training would be better served having a high quality pool of individuals to draw from. To improve law enforcement in general, I think you need to have an extremely high standard for instructors. I think that besides the fact the material has to be there, the presentation has to be there. If the presentation is not there, the students are not going to get anything from it. I think that rather than begging and pleading for people to be instructors for material they don't want to teach, you ought to have it based on the instructor's ability rather than just we need to

> teach this and somebody needs to do it. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

> We need to concentrate on educational methods and select quality people to be instructors. All CLEET instructor development does now is provide a 20 year cop with a high school education an opportunity to teach at the vo-tech after they retire without any other qualifications . . . . It's sad. (Male, 33, 14 years law enforcement, PALS--153)

> When you make a decision to put someone in front of a class to present law enforcement, life-and-death, decision-making material, that should be a serious decision of who goes up there. That shouldn't be a decision based on who is available. There should be over site by at least a committee as to who those individuals are. I think over the years decisions were made because we had a warm body, and they were willing. But they may not have had the experience or the education. It takes both in law enforcement. (Male, 46, 24 years law enforcement, PALS--138)

The instructor development course includes just one clock hour of instruction on adult learning theory. Participants expressed a need for more training on how to apply adult learning principles and the application of various instructional methods in a law enforcement context.

> It [CLEET instructor development] wasn't that good for what I wanted to teach. It was more lecture than anything. It reminded me of the "Toastmasters Approach" . . . . helping people get over the fear of public speaking. (Male, 53, 12 years law enforcement, PALS--148)

> Generally it's [CLEET instructor development] adequate. It doesn't go much beyond that. Some of the people that have gone to the course and

> have graduated. You see them teach and you say "OH BOY! how did they make it through the course?" They need to have higher standards for certification of instructors. (Male, 32, 10 years law enforcement, PALS--131)
>
> The CLEET basic course is only designed to get people over the fear of public speaking, otherwise it didn't offer much. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--153)
>
> I didn't receive enough preparation as an instructor. I needed someone to show me how to use various methods of instruction in class. (Male, 35, 16 years law enforcement, PALS--145)

Whether it is because of the CLEET instructor's perceived system constraints, their preference and familiarity of a teacher-centered teaching style, or their preparation to be an instructor, lecture is the standard method of delivering content in law enforcement instruction. Despite this, there is dissatisfaction with this method. For many, the natural reaction is to use interactive techniques. However, they do not know how make learning interactive and do not feel the instructor development course has prepared them to use various instructional methods.

How We Get Students Involved

Although lecture was the prevalent method of instruction, participants indicated a preference both as a

student and as an instructor for "hands on" activities. They expressed frustration and confusion about instructional methods, and used general phrases such as "hands on" to describe their preference for an active learning environment.

> "Hands on" is most effective with law enforcement. Cops are very grounded in their positions and only through experiences can you cause change or learning. (Male, 33, 14 years law enforcement, PALS--153)
>
> I think law enforcement officers respond well to "hands on" learning activities. Many sleep during lectures. (Male, 35, 16 years law enforcement, PALS--145)
>
> Demonstration and practical . . . . "hands on" instruction is most effective with police officers. (Male, 47, 5 years law enforcement, PALS--104)
>
> Most successful law enforcement instructors use hands on instruction. We need more examples of how to incorporate "hands on" learning into instruction. (Male, 57, 23 years law enforcement, PALS--138)

This statement of preference for "hands on" methods was indicative of the CLEET instructor's lack of familiarity with adult education terminology and their limited repertoire of teaching methods. Adults are problem centered and are stimulated to learn by immediate life situations (Knowles, 1990, pp. 57-61). The learners must be actively involved in the educational experience and have

immediate application of their learning (pp. 57-61). The majority of CLEET instructors had difficulty applying this need for active involvement in the learning process to a law enforcement education and training context.

The expression of their fondness for "hands on" methods indicates that CLEET instructors desire learning at the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy. The desire for "hands on" learning activities indicates that the instructors sense the value in the application of what is learned, for the analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of content. If law enforcement officers are unable to effectively apply what they have learned, the consequences may be increased civil liability or the loss of life. The synthesis and evaluation of the content from learning activities develop law enforcement officers who are lifelong learners. This higher level learning can also create learning organizations. Learning at the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy can be achieved through the use of demonstrations, simulations, active student participation, and the incorporation of the learner's experiences. These are the type of learning experiences that CLEET instructor's felt have been the most valuable to them and have been most effective when they teach.

Although lecture was talked about most often, CLEET instructors described the use of simulations and demonstrations in law enforcement education and training. Demonstrations were mentioned as an effective method of showing students how something worked, and they can be used to supplement lecture. The use of demonstrations helps "translate descriptive material into actual practice" (Gilley, 1998, p. 234). A CLEET self-defense and officer safety instructor described why demonstration is such an effective method with police officers.

> I'm a big visual aid type person, you know, weather its demonstrating techniques or weather its handouts or something on the board. Something they have to focus their brain on and not just sit there and daydream while I talk or recite facts and figures. I think visual aids and actual physical involvement work best. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--158)

Simulation was the most often mentioned "hands on" method used by CLEET law enforcement instructors. "Simulation is a technique which enables adult learners to obtain skill, competencies, knowledge, or behaviors by becoming involved in situations that are similar to those in real life" (Gilley, 1998, p. 244). The most common forms of simulation are role-playing, critical incident activities, and case studies (p. 244). Simulations are effective for preparing law enforcement officers to apply

what they have learned in the classroom to real-life situations.

CLEET instructors described various types of simulations. A major use of simulation involves officers responding to domestic disturbance calls. Officers were placed in situations in which they are required to properly control and resolve domestic situations in which emotions run high. Law enforcement officers routinely encounter these types of situations, and if not handled correctly, they can result in serious injury or death to the officers. Simulations involving courtroom testimony, felony traffic stops and building searches were also examples of law enforcement students being provided "hands on" learning activities.

> One stands out most in my mine. They were talking about domestic abuse, but I think it can be used in vicitimology. They had someone sit in a chair in the middle of the classroom; this person represented a domestic abuse victim. Each one in the class had to go up and say something to her that would really be said to her if she were actually a domestic abuse victim. For example, "You should just leave your husband", or "You can go out and get a job". You say whatever came to your mind that would be said to a domestic abuse victim concerning why they stay in these abusive relationships. After we walked up and said what we were going to say, we had to stand in place. By the time the entire class was through, there was 40 or 50 people surrounding the chair. The person sitting in the chair then got up and told the class what she felt like and how it impacted her to feel so surrounded and all

> the accusations and judgments made about her. She said it made a huge impression on her, that what she felt was the weight that victims carry. I think you could use something like that not for just domestic abuse but for any situation. (Female, 43, 9 years law enforcement, PALS--113)

> Some of them were scripted, and some were spur of the moment. For example, I'd have some scripts of a burglary in progress call. I would have two copies. I'd give one to the student, and I'd have one. The student would role-play a caller, and the person that wasn't aware of it was designated as the dispatcher. We would go through it and try and get as much information as we could from the caller. Then when it was all over, we would read the script and see what information the dispatcher didn't get. Letting them make mistakes in the classroom before they are actually on the radio. Learning when its not quite so critical that they do things exactly right. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

> Initially, to get it started I would give them a scenario in writing; we would start that way. Then all of them being affiliated with law enforcement, I said, "Okay, now you write your own." So we did both. Some I came up with and some they developed on their own. (Male, 46, 24 years law enforcement, PALS--138)

Those interviewed acknowledged the need for adult learners to immediately apply what they have learned, the importance of the learner's experience, and the notion that adults need to be an active participant in the teacher-learner transaction. All of these concepts are supported by the Adult Education literature.

The largest category of support for adult learning principles by CLEET instructors came in the area of the adults' orientation to learning. Participants interviewed in this study recognized that adults were problem-centered and that law enforcement students need to be able to apply what they have learned to real-life situations.

Adults "are motivated to devote energy to learn something to the extent that they perceive that it will help them perform tasks or deal with problems that they confront in their life situations" (Knowles, 1990, p. 61). Law enforcement officers need to know that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they are learning will help them when they are "on the street". CLEET law enforcement instructors see the need to make their instruction problem-centered.

> Make it make sense to them. You know, if you don't do this, this is want is going to happen; here is an example. This has happened to other officers; see why it is important that you pay attention and get it right. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--158)

> What I teach is basically from a police perspective. It's a self-defense class for students. I feel a lot of those go well because we try to touch on current events. I try to touch on things that directly effect them from even using things from the newspaper like a recent assault where a girl was walking across campus and attacked from behind. Those things seem to really trigger their involvement because it is things that happened or could happen to

them. (Male, 35, 16 years law enforcement, PALS--145)

> What I feel works best with the dispatchers and to some extent the officer is a combination of techniques that allows them to hear it, see it, and let them actually do it. Once they have actually gone through the motions of whatever it is we're trying to teach them, weather it is a felony traffic stop or a 911 call or whatever it is, it seems to cement it a little better. They like the role-play. They like the learning by doing style. That seems to work the best for most of them. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

Adults "learn new knowledge, understandings, skills, values, and attitudes most effectively when they are presented in the context of application to real-life situations" (Knowles, 1990, p. 61). Law enforcement officers must be able to apply current law to arrest situations and apply defensive tactics for personal self-defense. Participants in this study recognized the need for law enforcement officers to apply their learning. However, most instructors talked in general terms and were unable in many instances to describe how this type of learning could be incorporated in police training.

> Be yourself, you know, be relaxed. Relate to them on the level that in your career you would want to be related to on and try to make it as real to them as you can. (Female, 43, 9 years law enforcement, PALS--113)

> I like to put students in "real life" situations and have them perform the tasks I'm teaching. (Male, 57, 23 years law enforcement, PALS--138)
>
> I personally like practical exercises that I can apply to my job. (Male, 47, 27 years law enforcement, PALS--103)
>
> I lecture a little, but I mostly like to get the students involved. The students use the equipment I am instructing with. For example, they'll take photographs or use the surveillance equipment to conduct actual surveillance's. (Male, 52, 28 years law enforcement, PALS--107.5)

Adults come into learning activities with a vast array of experience from which to draw. Both the experiences of the teacher and the learner are important (Brookfield, 1986, p. 10). "Facilitators and learners are engaged in a cooperative enterprise in which, at different times and for different purposes, leadership and facilitation roles will be assumed by different group members" (p. 10). CLEET instructors teach students with a variety of different law enforcement experience. CLEET instructors teach courses at the basic academy and in continuing education classes for veteran officers. Participants interviewed in this study recognized that these students provide a rich resource for learning and attempt to use this resource in the classes they teach. Participants also realize that they and their experiences are a resource for the students.

A lot of times I start off by not asking questions. I start off by asking for expertise. In other words, we're taking about a subject area; we are all in law enforcement; has anybody had experience with this subject area. I start off with this philosophy a lot of times, allowing them to expound on something they know and allowing others to learn from their experiences. (Male, 46, 24 years law enforcement, PALS--138)

I use an adult learning model. I don't hold myself up as the sole authority and use the experiences of the students. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--153)

I tell the class that my husband was a law enforcement officer killed in the line of duty, and they really focus in then. They respond to what we are talking about after that point because they know that I've been through it. I use myself as an example . . . . This is what a victim looks like; this is the people you will be dealing with. Just by relating my actual experience, it helps them because I am a widow of a law enforcement officer. You can see the class; you can actually see them kind of sit up. Their eyes open up and they are really tuned in. (Female, 43, 9 years law enforcement, PALS--113)

It depends on the experience level of the officers I'm teaching. With new officers I use more lecture; with experienced officers I use experiential learning. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--153)

When I start a class, I always go around and find out a little bit about the students and their backgrounds. I find that is an incredibly valuable tool for me. If I feel that if someone is bored because they have more experience than the rest of my students, I will start to draw more on their experiences in the class and allow them to help teach it, more so than the people that have no experience. On the other hand, the people that don't have any experience I might draw from their personal lives things that they have told in the introduction. Just to allow

> everybody to interact, I think that is the most important. (Female, 33, 13 years law enforcement, PALS--132)

Keys to the effective practice of teaching adults are respect for the learners and the learner's participation in the setting of objectives and development of the curriculum (Brookfield, 1986, p. 10). CLEET instructors also felt it was necessary for students to participate in the learning process. Adults need to be treated with respect and be involved in the design and choice of learning activities. Although state and federal law limits changing the content of the courses they teach, CLEET instructors recognize the need for students to have ownership of the learning situation.

> Just from my perspective again, I think the students are the most important. I want them to walk away feeling it was worth it, that they've learned something weather it was look both ways before you cross the street or how to kill somebody if you have too. I want to talk about all those things. I want everybody to have fun and enjoy themselves. I learn from them as well; that's the main thing too. I don't want to be up there thinking I'm the expert; I'm going to try and learn something every time too. Minimize the instructor's ego and being open; balance is the key to life. I'm a people person. You can sense when they're involved, that they like it or that they like me. Whether that's good or not, I don't know. That's something that's important to me. I want them to feel like they're having a good time and learning something. Not just... oh geez, the mind will absorb what the ass will endure. They have to sit there and tolerate

this. (Male, 47, 17 years law enforcement, PALS--158)

Participants interviewed in this study felt that student participation in the learning process was important. However, one participated noted a barrier to this type of participation that may be unique to law enforcement instruction. Others echoed this sentiment.

> I have a philosophy in the class that says you have some rights. You have the right to sit there and not say a thing, and you have the right to participate. If you do decide to say something, you will be heard. If you are going to be heard, you will not be criticized personally for your opinion. So there are some individuals that ultimately participate, and I try to cultivate that. A lot of times that will draw other individuals out; a lot of times it doesn't. So I don't try to badger anyone into participating. I just try to make it interesting enough that they will want to at least expound on their expertise. The older folks are not used to participating; they have been taught to shut up and listen. Lecture is very effective; they listen. With the younger folks, you're going to have to be creative, and group activities are very good. I've had great success with younger recruit classes. Now when I talk about younger and older, I'm talking about new officers verses experienced officers. (Male, 46, 24 years law enforcement, PALS--138)

This participant makes the argument that veteran officers may be less open to participative types of classroom activities. This may be due to the way these officers have been trained since entering the field. This

issues was raised by many of the participants interviewed and may be a part of the police culture that may inhibit implementation of some adult learning principles and alternate instructional methods.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Purpose and Design

Law enforcement education is a field dominated by a militaristic and behaviorist approach to teaching (Ramirez, 1996). While this approach to law enforcement education does a good job of developing technical and procedural skills, this type of instruction does little to promote the acquisition of essential non-technical competencies such as problem solving, judgement, and leadership (Ortmeier, 1997, p. 88).

Rapid societal change and the move toward a community-oriented approach to policing dictates a shift in focus to a more learner-centered and problem solving based approach to law enforcement education. Law enforcements move to a community oriented approach to policing requires police officers to develop solutions to the causes of crime in cooperation with members of the community. "Community policing requires officers who have been steeped in

'traditional' policing (crime fighting) to abandon this way of thinking for a more open, problem solving approach to the police role" (Dantzker, 1997, p. 97). The application of adult learning principles and a learner-centered approach to law enforcement instruction can help prepare law enforcement officers for their role in community-oriented policing (Ramirez, 1996). Law enforcement instructors should consider applying the principles of adult learning and moving to the collaborative-learning mode. Instructors may need to be better prepared in the application of adult learning principles and methods. They may also need to focus on planning strategies that enhance adult learning, incorporate the experiences of the learner, and involve the learner in the curriculum development process.

The nature of the system in which law enforcement instructors work, the law enforcement curriculum, and the instructor's preparation for teaching are all factors that impact on law enforcement instructor's classroom behaviors. The measurement of the teaching styles of law enforcement instructors and identification of their instructional methods could be useful in improving law enforcement education. These improvements can be meaningful for adult

educators, law enforcement students, and law enforcement instructors.

The purpose of this study was to describe the teaching style of the faculty of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) and the degree and method of application of adult learning principles by the CLEET faculty. The Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training is responsible for the basic training and continuing education of law enforcement officers in the state and for the preparation of law enforcement instructors.

The Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty is made up of 28 instructors that identified themselves as full-time and of 142 part-time instructors. A packet containing the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) and a demographic questionnaire was sent to all CLEET faculty members. Responses were received from 85 of the 170 CLEET instructors for a 50% response rate. Of these, there were 17 full-time and 68 part-time instructors.

Data were collected related to teaching style from those who voluntarily participated in the study. Demographic data were also collected related to gender, age, education level, full or part-time status, years in

law enforcement, years of law enforcement teaching experience, participation in adult education courses, and the number of hours of adult education training.

The individual teaching styles of each of the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty was measured with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). A total score and seven factor scores were calculated. A teaching style profile was developed for the group, and analysis of variance was used to investigate the relationship of teaching style and the associated factors to various demographic variables.

In-depth interviews were conducted with 21 participants to collect data on instructional methods and the application of adult learning principles. A purposeful sample, based on overall PALS scores, was used to select participants for the interviews. The participants were divided into three groups each representing one-third of the total study group. Seven interviews were conducted with participants in the study with PALS scores ranging from 102.0 to 121.0. Seven interviews were conducted with participants in the study with PALS scores ranging from 122.0 to 133.0. Seven interviews were conducted with participants with PALS scores ranging from 134.0 to 181.0. A total of 26 participants were in this group and their

PALS scores indicate a preference for a more learner-centered teaching style. This last range of scores was larger than the others due to the small number of participants that fell into this range. Collected data was analyzed and themes were extracted from the data.

Summary of Findings

The demographic data collected indicated that the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty within the study had an average of 16.8 years of law enforcement experience and 10.8 years of law enforcement teaching experience. There were 11 females and 74 males within the study, and the mean age for the participants was 42.8 years with a range from 28 to 59. The group's education levels were distributed as follows: high school diploma--2.4%; college but no degree--23.5%; associate degree--7.1%; bachelors degree--35.3%; masters degree--17.6%; college hours past a masters degree--8.2%; and doctorate--5.9%. The group consisted of 70 participants that reported having had courses in adult learning principles and 15 participants that had not. The average numbers of hours of adult learning principles training for the participants was 61.7.

The Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty had a mean score of 128.6 on PALS with a standard deviation of 15.4. This mean score is indicative of a very teacher-centered approach to teaching. The norm for PALS is 146 with a standard deviation of 20. Most scores fall within one standard deviation above (166) or below (126) that mean. 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 definite teaching style (Conti, 1990, p. 83). CLEET law enforcement faculty had a very strong support for a teacher-centered approach to teaching.

When PALS scores were grouped by demographic variables, some of these variables were discovered to have a relationship to teaching style. While still below the established mean for PALS, CLEET faculty with formal education beyond a bachelor's degree were more learner-centered and provided students more flexibility for personal development. Part-time instructors were more likely to use learner-centered activities and encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning. Those in the study group that reported attending course on how to teach adults were more likely to tailor instruction

to meet the needs of the learners and were less likely to use lecture as their primary instructional method.

Data collected in the in-depth interviews on the instructional methods and techniques used by Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) faculty revealed lecture as the principal method of instruction. Participants did not necessarily believe lecture was an effective method of instruction, but they felt compelled to lecture due to system constraints and lack of sufficient teacher preparation. Participants in the study also indicated a fondness for "hands-on" types of activities such as role-playing, simulations and demonstrations.

Conclusions

CLEET law enforcement instructors have a teacher-centered teaching style that is reflective of their tradition, training, and the system in which they work.

A contradiction exists between what CLEET instructors believe they are doing in the classroom and what they are actually doing in the classroom.

A contradiction exists between CLEET instructor's commitment to a teacher-centered teaching style and the teaching style they believe is most effective in the classroom.

Law enforcement has a long history of using a militaristic and a high stress approach to education. Students are placed in a subservient position to the instructor. Law enforcement students are expected to sit passively and receive knowledge from an expert in the content area. Officers are then tested by some formal means, usually multiple-choice tests, to evaluate their learning. Emphasis is placed on curriculum content since much of it involves life-and-death issues. Content knowledge is essential because officers face civil liabilities if they fail to act or act inappropriately while doing their job.

The Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) instructors in this study have been deeply ingrained in the traditional law enforcement education system. Their strong support for a teacher-centered style of teaching reflects their exposure to this militaristic and behavioral-based approach to education. They are keenly aware of the liability issues they face if they do not cover the required content in the allotted time. Lecture is the instructional method they know best and the most common method used to meet content and time constraints.

CLEET law enforcement instructors need to know what their teaching style is and critically reflect on their practice. The PALS instrument can be a useful tool in assessing teaching style and identifying any inconsistencies within the teaching style of those who teach adults (Conti, 1989, p. 15). CLEET instructors who participated in this study scored low on all seven of PALS factors except learner-centered activities.

CLEET faculty members have a strong preference for a teacher-centered style of teaching as indicated by their overall PALS score. However, they scored just above the established mean score for learner-centered activities, which is contradictory to their teaching style. This contradiction became more evident during the in-depth interviews of participants. Even though they indicated this preference in PALS, the law enforcement instructors in this study do not have a strong commitment to a teacher-centered teaching style. The constraints placed on them by the curriculum and the time allotted for instruction were perceived as restricting the types of instructional methods that could be used in class. One participant explained it this way: "I answered the survey according to how I teach for CLEET, not how I would normally teach, or how I would like to teach if I had the opportunity or the time"

(Female, 43 years old, 9 years law enforcement experience, PALS—113).

> CLEET instructors can sense that the traditional lecture method does not work in law enforcement training.
>
> CLEET instructors have an inherent sense that active student participation is necessary in the classroom.
>
> Due to their lack of pedagogical training, CLEET instructors do not have the insights necessary to incorporate various instructional methods in the classroom.

CLEET law enforcement instructors sense that the one way transmission of knowledge from teacher to student is not effective. They reflected on their own experiences as students and recalled how effectively they learned course content when they actively participated in the teacher-learner transaction.

> Educators who ignore the use of participatory techniques will find (unless they are stunningly charismatic performers) that their learners are physically absent in increasing numbers or are mentally absent in the sense of not being actively engaged with the ideas, skill, and knowledge being presented. (Brookfield, 1986, p. 12)

CLEET law enforcement officers interviewed in this study had a keen awareness of what Brookfield describes.

Lecture was seen as boring and made students fall asleep in class. They talked about the effectiveness and the responsiveness of students to "hands-on" learning activities. This preference for "hands-on" activities by CLEET instructors expresses their desire to have students learn at the higher levels of Blooms taxonomy. CLEET instructors recognize the value of law enforcement officers being able to apply, analyze, and evaluate what they learn. So the question that is raised is why do they continue to use lecture as their primary instructional method?

Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty are primarily law enforcement practitioners and not educators. They are experts in their content area, but are ill prepared to teach. Instructors are sent to a one-week instructor's course and then are asked to do the extremely difficult job of preparing police officers to face life-and-death situations. CLEET instructors have little exposure to adult learning theory or the array of instructional methods that could be use with adult learners. They have an intuitive sense of what works with adult students but do not have the necessary tools to apply adult learning theory to law enforcement education.

Higher levels of formal education allow CLEET instructors to see the importance of personal growth in all forms of education.

Fewer system constraints allow part-time instructors to incorporate learner-centered activities.

Training in adult education theory raises the awareness of the importance of assessing student's needs.

The teaching style of Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty is related to several demographic variables. The related variables are educational level, full-time or part-time status, and attendance of adult education courses. A teacher-centered teaching style was dominant even for those participants that reported attending adult education classes. The variables of educational level and status reflected some movement in these groups to a learner-centered teaching style.

Critical reflection and the questioning of values, beliefs, and professional practice were keys to effective facilitation (Brookfield, 1986, p. 10). Education beyond a bachelor's degree develops within the instructor a greater appreciation for the diversity of beliefs and theories. The students of theses instructors are exposed to a greater acceptance of diversity and are allowed to critically

question professional practice. Personal growth is valued as much as professional development. "In an effective teaching-learning transaction all participants learn, no one member is regarded as having a monopoly on insight, and dissension and criticism are regarded as inevitable and desirable elements of the process" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 24).

System constraints in law enforcement are perceived by instructors to limit the instructional methods that can be used in the classroom. This perception is less apparent in part-time instructors, and they are more adept at incorporating learner-centered activities in the classroom. Lecture is replaced by role-playing and simulation exercises that engage students. Part-time instructors are active law enforcement officers and may be better able to apply course content to real-life situations faced by law enforcement.

> The use of a qualitative data collection method provides for insights and description that would not be available if only quantitative data were collected.
>
> The use of a probability level of .10 with the ANOVA may have enhanced the exploratory nature of the study and helped trigger questions for the in-depth interviews.

The quantitative data collected in this study provided useful information about the teaching style of the Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training faculty. The PALS data identified some relationships between the demographic variables and PALS scores and pointed out some contradictions between the CLEET instructors overall teaching style and their reported use of learner-centered activities. These contradictions would have been difficult to examine further without the use of the in-depth interviews.

"Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world" (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). The collection of qualitative data can help explain contradictions in quantitative data and provide a clear and comprehensive description of the area of study. Although the collection and analysis of qualitative data expends additional time and resources, the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods can provide insights not available with a single collection method.

The use of a probability level of .10 in the comparison of demographic variables to PALS scores and PALS Factor scores may have highlighted some relationships that

could have been explored further in the in-depth interviews. For example, the higher probability level would have shown significance in the area of assessing student needs and overall PALS scores between those that had attended courses in how to teach adults and those that had not. Females would have been found to be significantly more learner-centered as measured by overall PALS scores than males and would have been found to use more learner-centered activities than males. Participants in the study that ranged in age from 36 to 44 would have been found to value the experiences of the learners more than others and instructors with 11 to 20 years of law enforcement experience would have been found to allow more participation by students in the learning process.

These findings would have raised questions as to why these differences between groups existed. The researcher may have then asked questions during the in-depth interviews that may have helped clarify and explain these differences. The use of the higher probability level may have been appropriate due to the exploratory nature of the study (Gay, 1996, p. 471). The use of this level of significance and the questions it would have generated, may have led to a fuller description of the teaching style of CLEET faculty.

Recommendations

Adult learning theory has much to offer to improve learning and the facilitation of learning in law enforcement education. The trend in law enforcement toward the community-policing model dictates that the law enforcement profession develops a different type of officer. The modern police officer needs to be a problem solver, be self-directed, have respect for diversity, and be an effective communicator. The law enforcement profession currently trains officers to respond in a uniform way to every situation in every segment of the community. Implementing a learner-centered approach to law enforcement education is better suited to modeling and developing the necessary skills in today's officers.

Law enforcement education needs to incorporate critical thinking into the curriculum. Allowing learners to question past practice and look for alternate solutions to problems is essential for community policing. "The point is that education is centrally concerned with the development of a critically aware frame of mind, not with the uncritical assimilation of previously defined skills or bodies of knowledge" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 17).

The instructor in law enforcement training must assume the role of facilitator of learning. The role of the instructor should be that of guide or co-learner. Learners need to be empowered to be self-directed and be responsible for their own learning and not controlled by the instructor. Learners should be encouraged to create their own learning experiences and be given opportunities for personal growth.

Law enforcement training must include experiential learning activities and real world application. Not only should experiential activities be incorporated into the classroom, but also the experiences of the learners should be used as a resource for learning.

Like many other professions, law enforcement instructors are held accountable for what they teach and are held responsible for the student learning. The profession is required to document student learning and be ready to justify curriculum content. Even with this being the case, it is still possible to develop measurable learning objectives that are compatible with the way adults learn best. Adults learn best when facilitation is geared to the higher cognitive levels of Bloom's taxonomy.

The majority of learning objectives in law enforcement education should be at the application, analysis,

synthesis, and evaluation levels. "The fact that most of what we learn is intended for application to problem situations in real life is indicative of the importance of application objectives in the general curriculum" (Bloom et al., 1956, p.122). This applies to law enforcement in particular. If law enforcement officers are unable to effectively apply what they have learned, the consequences can be devastating. Examples of objectives at the application level include:

- The officer will be able to apply the proper criminal law statutes in actual arrest situations.
- The officer will be able to apply the proper self-defense or use of force techniques when necessary.

"Analysis emphasizes the breakdown of the material into its constituent parts and detection of the relationships of the parts and of the way they are organized" (Bloom et al., 1956, p. 144). Using the skill of analysis, learners are able to identify conclusions and supporting statements, distinguish pertinent from irrelevant material, discriminate dominant from subordinate ideas, and to differentiate fact from conjecture (p. 144).

The ability to analyze can be tested by the use of written scenarios or field situations. The learner must be able to break down the situation into its elements, determine relationships, and structure (p. 146-148). Examples of objectives at the analysis level include:

- The officer will be able to identify and extract elements of a crime from a witness statement.
- In field situations requiring interaction with members of a minority, the officer will be able to recognize cultural biases that are involved.

Educational objectives at the synthesis and evaluation level are important for developing law enforcement personnel that are lifelong learners and for creating learning organizations. Synthesis objectives emphasize personal expression, independent thought, and active participation (Bloom et al., 1956, p. 166). "They emphasize real problems that face democratic countries here and now, and point out that we cannot expect to progress nor even to survive unless we develop and draw upon the creative potentialities of the entire population" (p. 166). Evaluation objectives help the learner make judgments, using either internal or external criteria, about different types of material or phenomena (p. 186). A primary purpose

of law enforcement education should be to broaden and strengthen the learner's foundation for making these evaluations. Examples of learning objectives at the synthesis and evaluation levels include:

- The officer will have the ability to integrate information collected about a community problem into an effective plan or solution to solve the problem.
- The officer will be able to judge the value of an investigative report.

A proactive approach to learning that is learner-centered, incorporates meaningful material and includes the learner's experiences is supported by the adult education literature. Law enforcement instructors should apply adult learning principles in the courses that they teach and develop learning objectives that reflect behaviors at the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy. Application of adult leaning principles and educational objectives targeted at the higher levels of the cognitive domain can lead to increased learner satisfaction, more effective instruction, and overall better law enforcement education.

Awareness of teaching style and reflection on practice is important for law enforcement educators. A tool for measuring teaching style is available and it can be self-

scored. Using this tool allows instructors to identify and explore their teaching style. The valuable information obtained from this reflection and analysis can lead to more effective practice.

Professional expertise consists in the application of techniques and theories resulting from research to the solution of problems of the practice (Schon, 1987, p. 33). Reflection of law enforcement instructors on their educational philosophy and reflection on this philosophy as it applies to teaching style can lead to consistent, and effective practice.

> 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. (Ellias & Merriam, 1995, p. 9)

Law enforcement instructors are highly skilled and extremely competent in their content area. However, this content expertise does not prepare them to teach effectively. Instructor development courses provide a good starting place for skilled content area experts to get an overview of teaching and develop a level of comfort in front of a class. However, these courses do not provide

enough of the adult learning theory, principles, or the tools for effective adult education. The focus of these instructor development programs should be on adult learning and the application of instructional method to law enforcement education. Most law enforcement agencies require officers to attend professional development activities after basic training. Law enforcement instructors should be required to participate in professional development activities that are focused on adult learning and new instructional methods. Appreciation of alternative ways of teaching can improve future instructional activities and develop an appreciation for facilitating learning.

Summary

The key to effective law enforcement education and the implementation of a community-oriented policing approach is rooted in operating from a consistent teaching-style and in training law enforcement instructors in adult learning theory. For community-oriented policing to work, educational philosophy of the law enforcement organizations must be compatible with community-oriented policing, and the teaching style should be learner-centered.

Adult education theory provides for principles of educational practice that are very compatible with the community-oriented approach to policing. A learner-centered teaching style provides students opportunities to learn at the higher cognitive levels, provides for personal growth, and has learners take more responsibility for their learning. Instruction that incorporates the learner's experiences and can be immediately applied to real life situations can be beneficial to the learner and to the law enforcement profession. The learner-centered approach can develop police officers that are problem solvers, self-directed, and lifelong learners.

A learner-centered approach can only be effective if law enforcement instructors understand adult learning theory and are trained to use a variety of instructional methods. Law enforcement instructors need to be content area experts that have a desire to learn about teaching adults and continually reflect on their practice. The training and development of instructors can be accomplished in instructor-development courses and updated regularly in continuing education seminars.

REFERENCES

Amaral, M. E. (1989). Today's field training programs: A critical analysis. Law and Order,37, 82-84.

Bloom, B. S. (1994). Reflections on the development and use of the taxonomy. In L. W. Anderson and L. A. Sosniak (Ed.), Bloom's taxonomy: A forty-year retrospective (pp. 1-8). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Bloom, B. S. et. al. (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives, Handbook 1: Cognitive domain. New York: David McKay Company, Inc..

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Needham Heights, MA : Allyn and Bacon.

Breci, M.G., & Erickson, T. E. (1998, June). Community policing: The process of transitional change. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 16 - 21.

Brooks, P. M. (1988). Perceptions of instructional behaviors among college faculty members and students in a liberal arts college setting. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). Understanding and facilitating adult learning. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Brookfield, S. D. (1992). Why can't I get this right? Myths and realities in facilitating adult learning. Adult Learning, 3 (6), p.12-15.

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). Becoming a critically reflective teacher. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Carr, C. M. (1998). Assessing teaching style preference and factors that influence teaching style preference of registered dietitians (Adult patient education). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ball State University.

Clancy, C. A. (1986). An investigation of the use of the collaborative teaching-learning mode by graduate social work field instructors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Clauss, B. A. (1993). Certified family life educators' practice of the collaborative approach to teaching-learning (Family life education). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University.

Clow, T. L. (1986). Difference between teacher professed collaborative teaching mode and adult student perception of collaborative teaching mode. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri - Columbia.

Codish, K. D. (1996, Nov). Putting a sacred cow out to pasture. The Police Chief,63, 40-44.

Conti, G. J. (1978). Principles of Adult Learning Scale: An instrument for measuring teacher behavior related to the collaborative teaching-learning mode. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois Universtiy.

Conti, G. J. (1982). The Principles of Adult Learning Scale. Adult literacy and Basic Education,6(3), 135-150.

Conti, G. J. (1985a). Assessing teaching style in adult education: How and why. Lifelong learning,8(8), 7-11,28.

Conti, G. J. (1985b). The relationship between teaching style and adult student learning. Adult Education Quarterly, 35(4), 220-228.

Conti, G. J. (1989). Teaching styles and the adult basic educator. In M. C. Taylor & J. A. Draper (Eds.), Adult literary perspectives (pp. 311-317). Toronto, Ontario: Culture Concepts Inc.

Conti, G. J. (1990). Identifying your teaching style. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), Adult learning methods (pp. 79-96). Malabar, FL: Krieger Publishing.

Cook, S. C. (1994). A descriptive analysis of the degree of adherence to the collaborative teaching-learning mode among correctional educators in South Carolina. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina.

Cummings, R. G. (1995). An investigation of teacher-centered or learner-centered teaching style of accounting professors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Darkenwald, G. G., & Merriam, S. B. (1982). Adult education: Foundations of practice. New York, NY: Harper & Row, Publishers Inc.

Dantzker, M. L. (1997, October). Job satisfaction and community policing: A preview of future research? The police chief, (97-98).

Deming, M. L. (1986). The use of the collaborative teaching-learning mode in hospital-based community health education programs. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Toledo.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Douglass, J. F. (1982). An analysis of the relationship between professional training in adult education and orientation to the collaborative teaching-learning mode in Washington State hospitals and the Washington state cooperative extension service. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Droessler, B. M. (1991). Preference for control of instruction among adult learners. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Wisconsin - Madison.

Eberle, J. H. (1993). Perceptions of the use of the collaborative teaching-learning mode by county agents of the Kansas State University cooperative extension service. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Elias, J.L. & Merriam, S.B. (1995). Philosophical foundations of adult education (2nd ed.). Malabar, FL.: Krieger Publishing Company.

Elliott, D. L. (1996). The teaching styles of adult educators at the Buckeye Leadership Workshop as measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University.

Farney, H. F. (1987). An analysis of the relationship between adult education training and the orientation to an andragogical philosophy of education in HRD professionals. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Connecticut.

Farrah, S. J. (1998). Lecture. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), Adult learning methods (pp. 143-168). Malabar, FL: Krieger Publishing Company.

Feeland, D. K. (1988). The collaborative teaching-learning mode: Health education professors and adult learning principles. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas Woman's University.

Franklin, J. E. (1988). The collaborative teaching-learning mode: Adult learning principles and managers of training and development in business. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas Woman's University.

Gay, L. R. (1996). Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application (5th ed.). Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Geller, W. A. (Ed.). (1991). Local government police management. Washington, DC: International City Management Association.

Geller, W. A. (1997, December). Suppose we were really serious about police departments becoming "learning organizations"? National Institute of Justice Journal, 2 - 8.

Gifford, N. K. (1992). The relationship of moral reasoning level of instructors to their teaching style and adult student perception of the learning environment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska -- Lincoln.

Gilley, J. W. (1998). Demonstration and simulation. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), Adult learning methods (pp. 143-168). Malabar, FL: Krieger Publishing Company.

Girondi, R. A. (1991). Teaching styles of instructors in selected postsecondary proprietary schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Goldstein, H. (1987). Toward community oriented policing: Potential, basic requirements, and threshold questions. Crime and Delinquency,33 (1), p. 6-30.

Graham, S. L. (1988). The collaborative mode, selected community college instructor characteristics, and student retention. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Heimlich, J. E., & Norland, E. (1994). Developing teaching style in adult education. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Inc.

Houle, C. O. (1961). The inquiring mind. Madison, WI: The University of Wisconsin Press.

Huck, S. W., & Cormier, W. H. (1996). Reading statistics and research. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.

Hudspeth, J. H. (1991). Student outcomes: The relationship of teaching style to readiness for self-directed learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Montana State University.

Hughes, C. L. (1997). Adult education philosophies and teaching styles of faculty at Ricks college. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Montana State University.

Jones, M. J. (1984). The effects of teaching modes on the academic gain of central stream secondary migrant students of Texas. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Kidd, J. R. (1973). How adults learn. New York, Cambridge Books.

Knowles, M. S. (1990). The adult learner: A neglected species (4th ed.). Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Lindeman, E. C. (1926). The meaning of adult education. New York, NY: New Republic Inc.

Lucas, M. M. (1987). Collaborative adult learning principles in baccalaureate community health education curricula. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Mancuso, S. K. (1988). Self-directedness, age, and nontraditional higher education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Washington.

McCann, R. T. (1988). Academic achievement as a function of instructor teaching orientation among nontraditional university students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Southern Mississippi.

McCollin, E. D. (1998). Faculty and student perceptions of teaching styles: Do teaching styles differ for traditional and nontraditional students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Southern Mississippi.

McKenzie, P. M. (1987). Associate degree nursing programs in Texas: A survey of the instructors' teaching style and the schools' licensure examination results. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Merriam, S. B., & Brockett, R. (1997). The profession and practice of adult education: An introduction. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1991). Learning in adulthood. San Francisco,: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miglietti, C. L. (1994). The relationship of teaching styles, expectations of classroom environments, and learning styles of adult students at a two-year college. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University.

Moore, J. A. (1996). Competency of community college developmental reading instructors in the principles of adult learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida.

Morales Oseguenda, S. G. (1997). An assessment of teaching/training style preferences among Oklahoma cooperative extension field staff. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University.

Morgan, D. L. (1997). Focus groups as qualitative research (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA : Sage Publications, Inc..

Morris, L. V. (1982). A study of perceived teaching effectiveness in the North Carolina elderhostel program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Mulholland, D. A. (1996). Characteristics of adult learning and the environment in teaching: A comparative study of faculty and students in residential and extension theological study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Trinity Evangelical Divinity School.

Needham, M. K. (1990). Pre-service teacher training of adult educators in Singapore--A follow-up study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta.

Nievaard, A. C. (1996). A four-step model for the qualitative interview. In I. Maso & F. Wester (Eds.), The deliberate dialogue (pp. 41-62). Brussels: VUB University Press.

Noddings, N. (1995). Philosophy of education. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

Nolte, J. L. (1994). Effects of inservice training on part-time continuing education faculty. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training. (2000). [On-line]. Available: http://www.dps.state.ok.us/cleet/about.htm

Oklahoma House of Representatives Bill 757, 1963. Oklahoma Statutes, Title 70. (1963).

Ortmeier, P. J. (1997, Oct.). Leadership for community policing: A study to identify essential officer competencies. The Police Chief, 88-95.

Papes, K. A. (1998). The relationships among nursing program attributes, nurse faculties' personal attributes and preferences for learner-centered instruction. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida Atlantic University.

Pearson, T. G. (1980). Managerial philosophy and adult learning principles: Training and development professional as managers of collaborative learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Pilant, L. (1998, January). Training delivery methods. The Police Chief, 29-36.

Premont, S. B. (1989). The Principles of Adult Learning Scale: Maximized coefficient alpha and confirmatory factor analysis using lisrel. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri-Columbia.

Ramirez, S. M. (1996, Nov). The need for a new learning culture in law enforcement. The Police Chief,63, 24-26.

Rees, C. V. (1991). Faculty perceptions of teaching: A comparison between courses designed for adults and courses designed for traditional age students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri - Saint Louis.

Reese, T. H. (1993). Adult learning research and effective college teaching: Perceptions and practice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Denver.

Reiseck, C. J. (1996). A case study of a small private college's mental models of the adult student. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Robinson, E. T. (1998). Evaluating the impact of a pedagogical institute on faculty members' instructional and philosophical orientations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Auburn University.

Rosenbaum, D. P., & Yeh, S. (1994). Impact of community policing on police personnel: A quasi-experimental test. Crime and Delinquency,40 (3), 331-354.

Santucci, M. A. (1985). Collaborative teaching in degree completion baccalaureate programs for registered nurses. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Schon, D. A. (1987). Educating the reflective practitioner. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Scotney, D. W. (1986). An analysis of the relationship between the level of knowledge and understanding of the collaborative teaching-learning mode and teaching practices in the classroom. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon.

Seevers, B. S. (1991). Factors related to teaching style preference of Ohio cooperative extension faculty and program staff. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University.

Shedd, P. E. (1989). The use of the Principles of Adult Learning Scale to assess instructional development needs in a community college. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri - Columbia.

Shriver, K. A. . (1993). A study of pre-employment assessment process used to select part-time faculty for an allied health degree completion program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Siebrands, L. D. (1994). Defining the personality characteristics of an andragogically inclined instructor. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Siebrands, W. L. (1994). The influence of educational experience on instructional stance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Sornkaew, S. (1990). Assessing teaching styles of the faculty of Ramkhamhaeng University (Thailand). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri--Columbia.

Spoon, J. C. (1996). Impact of student learning style and instructor teaching style on achievement of adult basic skills students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia.

Taylor, D. A. (1990). A study of the extent to which collaborative methods are employed by instructors in business and industry. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Thayer, R.E., & Reynolds, K. M. (1997). Community oriented policing. Journal of Planning Literature,12(1), 93-104.

Trojanowicz, R., & Bucqueroux, B. (1990). Community policing: A contemporary perspective. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Co.

Varricchio, D. (1998, April). Continuing education: Expanding opportunities for officers. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 10-14.

Viau, P. A. (1991). Adult educational principles and strategies employed by nursing staff development educators within the hospital milieu: An exploratory study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Connecticut.

Waters, D. H. (1992). Community college faculty's use of adult learning principles as measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (Faculty). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Southern Mississippi.

Wegge, N. B. (1991). The effect of an inservice training program on the educational orientation of part-time adult continuing education instructors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri - Saint Louis.

Welborn, R. A. (1985). The relationship of learning and teaching styles to achievement among nontraditional health professional students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Wiley, L. J. (1986). The effect of teaching style on the development of moral judgment in prison inmates (Texas). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Wilson, N. L. (1994). A study of the extent to which the instructional practices of teachers of adult differ from the instructional preferences of adult learners enrolled in postsecondary credit course. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Drake University.

Woodcock, J. F. (1994). The relationship of student satisfaction with instructors' and students' scores on the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER

Dear CLEET Instructor,

My name is Mark McCoy; I am a Special Agent with the Oklahoma State Bureau of Investigation and a doctoral student at Oklahoma State University. I have been involved with law enforcement education and training for the past twelve years. Assisted by Dr. Jeanie Nelson and the staff of the Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training (CLEET) I am conducting a study of the application of adult learning principles by law enforcement instructors. As a fellow CLEET instructor, I'd appreciate your cooperation in completing the enclosed survey.

Enclosed you will find a demographic questionnaire, the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) instrument and a postage paid return envelope. PALS is self-administered, has 44 items, and is used to measure teaching style. It takes approximately fifteen minutes to complete both the questionnaire and the PALS instrument. Please return the questionnaire/PALS answer sheet in the enclosed envelope by _____. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and all information that you provide will be kept in the strictest confidence. No individual will be identified by name or employing agency. Returning the enclosed questionnaire implies consent to use your data in the study.

The purpose of this study is to describe the degree and method of application of adult learning principles by law enforcement instructors and may help us improve our teaching efforts. **As a member of the CLEET full or part-time faculty, your participation in this effort is extremely important and greatly appreciated.** Should you have any questions please do not hesitate to call me at (405) 742-8329.

Sincerely,

Mark R. McCoy

Enclosures:
(1) Demographic Questionnaire /Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS)
(2) Return Envelope

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE AND PALS INSTRUMENT

Thank you for agreeing to help with our study which is investigating the application of adult learning principles in law enforcement education and training. Please complete the two sections of this booklet: Demographic Questionnaire and Principles of Adult Learning Scale. All responses should be marked in this booklet, and the booklet may be returned in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Demographic Questionnaire

1. SEX: Male _____ Female _____

2. Age: _____

3. Level of formal education:

   _____High School
   _____College, but no degree
   _____Associate Degree
   _____BA or BS Degree
   _____MA or MS Degree
   _____Master's plus
   _____Doctorate

4. Instructor status: Full-time or Part-time

5. Total years of law enforcement experience _____

6. Total years of law enforcement teaching experience ____

7. What is your area of teaching/training specialty?

8. Have you attended any courses on how to teach adult?

   Yes_____ No_____

   If "Yes" how many hours of instruction have you attended?

   _____

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

	Always——Never
1. I allow students to participate in developing the criteria for evaluating their performance in class.	0 1 2 3 4 5
2. I use disciplinary action when it is needed.	0 1 2 3 4 5
3. I allow older students more time to complete assignments when they need it.	0 1 2 3 4 5
4. I encourage students to adopt middle-class values.	0 1 2 3 4 5
5. I help students diagnose the gaps between their goals and their present level of performance.	0 1 2 3 4 5
6. I provide knowledge rather than serve as a resource person.	0 1 2 3 4 5
7. I stick to the instructional objectives that I write at the beginning of a program.	0 1 2 3 4 5
8. I participate in the informal counseling of students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
9. I use lecturing as the best method for presenting my subject material to adult students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
10. I arrange the classroom so that it is easy for students to interact.	0 1 2 3 4 5
11. I determine the educational objectives for each of my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
12. I plan units which differ as widely as possible from my students' socio-economic backgrounds.	0 1 2 3 4 5

	Always——Never
13. I get a student to motivate himself/herself by confronting him/her in the presence of classmates during group discussions.	0 1 2 3 4 5
14. I plan learning episodes to take into account my students' prior experiences.	0 1 2 3 4 5
15. I allow students to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class.	0 1 2 3 4 5
16. I use one basic teaching method because I have found that most adults have a similar style of learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
17. I use different techniques depending on the students being taught.	0 1 2 3 4 5
18. I encourage dialogue among my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
19. I use written tests to assess the degree of academic growth in learning rather than to indicate new directions for learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
20. I utilize the many competencies that most adults already possess to achieve educational objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
21. I use what history has proven that adults need to learn as my chief criteria for planning learning episodes.	0 1 2 3 4 5
22. I accept errors as a natural part of the learning process.	0 1 2 3 4 5
23. I have individual conferences to help students identify their educational needs.	0 1 2 3 4 5
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.	0 1 2 3 4 5
25. I help my students develop short-range as well as long-range objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
26. I maintain a well-disciplined classroom to reduce interferences to learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
27. I avoid discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgements.	0 1 2 3 4 5
28. I allow my students to take periodic breaks during the class.	0 1 2 3 4 5
29. I use methods that foster quiet, productive, deskwork.	0 1 2 3 4 5
30. I use tests as my chief method of evaluating students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
31. I plan activities that will encourage each student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.	0 1 2 3 4 5

	Always——Never
32. I gear my instructional objectives to match the individual abilities and needs of the students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
33. I avoid issues that relate to the student's concept of himself/herself.	0 1 2 3 4 5
34. I encourage my students to ask questions about the nature of their society.	0 1 2 3 4 5
35. I allow a student's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
36. I have my students identify their own problems that need to be solved.	0 1 2 3 4 5
37. I give all students in my class the same assignment on a given topic.	0 1 2 3 4 5
38. I use materials that were originally designed for students in elementary and secondary schools.	0 1 2 3 4 5
39. I organize adult learning episodes according to the problems that my students encounter in everyday life.	0 1 2 3 4 5
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.	0 1 2 3 4 5
41. I encourage competition among my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
42. I use different materials with different students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
43. I help students relate new learning to their prior experiences.	0 1 2 3 4 5
44. I teach units about problems of everyday living.	0 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)

APPROVAL FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Date: July 23, 1999 IRB #: ED-00-141

Proposal Title: "APPLICATION OF ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES IN LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING"

Principal Investigator(s): Gary Conti
Mark McCoy

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Signature:

Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

July 23, 1999
Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modification to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

VITA

Mark R. McCoy

Doctor of Education

Thesis: BLACKBOARDS AND BADGES: TEACHING STYLE IN LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Education: Graduated from Fraser High School, Fraser, Michigan in June 1976; received Bachelor of Science degree in Public Administration with a minor in Criminal Justice from Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan in April 1980; received Master of Science degree in Forensic Science from National University, San Diego, California in February 1984. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 2000.

Experience: Special Agent for the Oklahoma State Bureau of Investigation (1985-present); Adjunct faculty member in Sociology and Criminal Justice at the University of Central Oklahoma (1999-present); Special Agent (Major) Air Force Office of Special Investigation, U.S. Air Force Reserve (1990-present); Police Officer for the Tulsa Police Department, Tulsa, Oklahoma (1984-1985); United States Marine Corps Officer (1980-1984).

Professional Memberships: KAPPA DELTA PI, International Association of Computer Investigative Specialists