THE EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES
OF TITLE 1 TEACHERS IN TULSA
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

> Unfortunately, many Americans live on the
> outskirts of hope--some because of poverty, some
> because of their color, and all too many because
> of both. Our task is to help replace their
> despair with opportunity. (President Lyndon B.
> Johnson, First Inaugural Address, January 8, 1964)

Poverty in America

In 1965, Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary

Education Act(ESEA). This $13-billion-a-year act was first

developed as part of Lyndon B. Johnson's "War on Poverty".

It was developed under the principle of redress, which

established that children from low-income homes required

more educational services than children from affluent homes.

As part of ESEA, Title 1 funding has allocated $1 billion a

year to schools with a high concentration of low-income

children. Thus began Head Start (a preschool program for

the disadvantaged children aiming at equalizing equality of

opportunity based on 'readiness' for the first grade),

Follow-Through (to complement the gains made by children who

participated in the Head Start Program), Bilingual Education

(targeting mainly Spanish-speaking children), and a variety

of guidance and counseling programs.

In recognition of the special educational needs of low-income and the impact that concentrations of low-income families have on the ability of local agencies to support educational programs, the Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families to expand and improve their educational programs by various means which contribute to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children. (Section 201,Elementary Secondary School Act, 1965)

Since its first enactment, the ESEA has been reauthorized every five years. Its most recent revision was the "No Child Left Behind Act" (NCLB). One of the main purposes of the NCLB Act is to improve accountability systems for implementation of Title 1 programs. Another focus is the Eisenhower Professional Development Program. This program provides professional development for educators. This is a critical element in helping teachers to enable students to achieve higher standards. Teacher training must focus upon the best of an array of high performance instructional strategies such as individual and team learning, team teaching, and writing across subject areas.

Applying research on instruction is a key issue for teachers who work in the Title 1 program. Knowledge of the data that is available about poverty students could help guide instruction for these teachers. Training has been

provided for instructional strategies that work with most students (Marzano,2001). However, will this information help them to become more effective teachers?

Professional Development

One special interest of professional development is the concept of continuing professional education (CPE), which simply refers to continuing education for the professions. It is a way of "helping professionals improve performance by . . . adapting skills and attitudes based on what is new and better" (Bennett & Fox, 1993, p. 266).

Individual teachers can have a profound influence on student learning even in schools that are ineffective (Marzano, 2001). The individual classroom teacher is the most important factor affecting student learning (Sanders et al., 1994). The immediate and clear implication of this finding is that seemingly more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than any other single factor (Wright et al., 1997, p 63). Prime topics for professional development are the knowledge of educational philosophies, teaching styles, cultural awareness, and personal learning strategies.

Educational Philosophy

In order to understand education one must comprehend the concept of philosophy. Individual beliefs form systems

which as a whole comprise a life philosophy. It is this

life philosophy that helps adults interpret their world and

their actions within it. However the life history is often

unrecognized and rarely expressed, though it may be

understood implicitly (Galbraith,1998, p. 38). "Only when

we get our philosophy right can we think right about

education" (Hutchins, 1953/1995 p. 10). More precisely,

> Philosophy is a more reflective and systematic
> activity than common sense. Philosophy raises
> questions about what we do and why we do it, and
> goes beyond individual cases and phenomena to
> treat questions of a general nature. When
> considering the inter-relationship of philosophy
> and activity, it is clear that philosophy inspires
> one's activities and gives direction to practice.
> The power of philosophy lies in its ability to
> enable individuals to better understand and
> appreciate the activities of everyday life. (Elias
> & Merriam, 1995, p. 5)

The correlation between theory and practice has been

debated. "There appears to be an emerging consensus that

both are necessary. Theory without practice leads to empty

idealism and action without philosophical reflection leads

to mindless activism" (p. 4). There has not been an

agreement on how much theory affects practice. However

experts in the field of adult education suggest that there

can be no practice without theory and no theory without

practice.

"A study of philosophy of education seems imperative

today, for we are in a critical era of transition" (Ozmon &

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Craver, 1981, p. ix). We have been a nation of change but seldom at the rate of accelerated change that we are experiencing today. This rate of change has been named the "information age". During this age people have either embraced change or resisted and kept their old values. "Educational philosophers, regardless of the particular theory they embrace, suggest that the solutions to our problems can best be achieved through critical and reflective thought" (p. x).

<u>Teaching Styles</u>

"Teaching style refers to the distinct qualities displayed by a teacher that are persistent from situation to situation regardless of the content" (Conti, 1998, pp. 74-75). It includes the implementation of philosophy, contains evidence of beliefs and values related to attitudes toward all the elements of the teaching-learning experience (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 40). Teaching style is illustrated in all aspects of teaching: in thought, feeling approach, and action (p. xii). Consistency in these patterns is important for improvement as a teacher (Conti, 1984, 1998). Teachers must know the impact their beliefs, values and attitudes have on the learning environment.

"Good teaching should be a balance of understanding one's self as a teacher and knowing how to develop learning

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encounters that are meaningful and useful in the promotion of personal and professional growth" (Galbraith, 1998, p.4). It is important for teachers not only to be an expert in the content they teach but also to have good preparation in the instruction process as well. Becoming a more effective teacher includes developing a teaching style combined with meaningful and constructive practice.

<u>Learning Strategies</u>

Learning strategies are those techniques or specialized skills that the learner has developed to use in formal or informal learning situations (McKeachie, 1978). Learning strategies are approaches people use for specific learning situations.

Learning strategies influence the ways that learners initiate learner activity. Identifying learning strategies is a way of looking at individual differences. Learning strategies are the "techniques or skills that an individual elects to use in order to accomplish a learning task" (Fellenz & Conti, 1989, p. 7). Learning strategies are also described as ways in which learners and their resources may be arranged during learning situations (Smith, 1982,).

<u>Cultural Competence and Adult Education</u>

"Culture is the common behavior shared among members of a group" (Carlson, 1997, p. 65). This behavior contains the

customs, values, norms, language, and expected ways of doing things (p. 65). Culture is a set of learned beliefs and behaviors shaping how members view and experience the world (Tapp, 2002, p 3).

Research has revealed there are four distinct groups that exist related to cultural appreciation. "One group sees and is aware of inherent social forces oppressing people in marginalized populations" (Tapp, 2002, p.171). Members of this group look externally to society as a whole. Its members recognize oppressive forces and see them firmly established in society, (P. 172). The other group looks internally to the individual. The members in this group view oppressive forces as influences or actions that one person exercises over another person.

The other two distinct groups separate those who enthusiastically embrace cultural diversity from those who appreciate cultural diversity. What separates the two groups are their commitment to traditional values. Those who enthusiastically embrace cultural diversity view traditional values as limiting multi cultural groups. However, the other group appreciates cultural diversity but believe that multi cultural groups can benefit by integrating some mainstream values into their life style.

Statement of the Problem

Among the 21 most affluent nations, the United States has the highest percentage of poor children. In fact, the child poverty rate is substantially higher--often two to three times higher--than that of most other major western industrialized nations (National Center For Children in Poverty). Millions more Americans live in poverty now than in 1964. Nearly one out of every six children in America is living in poverty (US Census Bureau, 2002). With this increased number of poor children entering public schools, teachers are responsible for educating this population of students.

Since Lyndon B. Johnson's declaration of war on poverty, the federal government has spent hundreds of billions of dollars to help poor families. Money for improving the education of poor children has been spent through the Title 1 programs of the ESEA. Yet, children raised in low-income families score lower than children from more affluent families on assessments of health, cognitive development, school achievement, and emotional well-being (Russell Sage Foundation, 1997, p. 1).

Because of the challenges from the needs of their students and the demands of the current federal legislation, teachers in Title 1 schools will need profession development

to do an effective job at teaching these students. To be effective, this training should be built on the characteristics of the teachers. However, there is no current knowledge about the beliefs of the teachers related to the educational process and the students in the Title 1 program. Students who participate in Title 1 programs live in poverty and need both basic skills and personal development. However, the current educational system is based on behaviorism as described in NCLB. Knowledge of teaching philosophy is needed to address these differences. Since a teacher's style is developed according to a philosophy, identification of teaching style is also important. The majority of children who attend Title 1 schools are poor minority students who lack the cognitive strategies and experiences needed as foundations for learning. Knowledge of learning strategies could help educators become aware of how their students initiate their learning activities and therefore design more effective teaching strategies. Knowledge and appreciation of the many diverse cultures is also needed. This knowledge can assist in designing adequate professional development for teachers of children in poverty and this in turn can contribute to improving these students' academic performance.

<u>Purpose</u>

The purpose of this study was to describe the educational philosophies, teaching styles, learning strategies, and cultural awareness of Tulsa Public School teachers who work in Title 1 schools. This study will determine if a relationship exists among educational philosophy, teaching styles, learning styles, and cultural awareness between teachers who teach the poor children that attend Tulsa Public Schools. The participants in this study are certified teachers who have been hired to teach children of poverty for the Tulsa Public School System.

According to Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), a serious weakness exists in the field of Adult Education because of "its fragmented nature"(p. 27). Because of this, there have been only a few areas where one study was built on another (Merriam, 1987). To overcome this, studies in similar areas must be developed and build on each other. One area where this is emerging is that of teaching style and educational philosophy. Three dissertations have been completed in this area since 1997. These studies have been conducted with different audiences and contexts. Hughes (1997) examined the educational philosophies and teaching styles of faculty at a private college in Idaho. In nationwide studies, Martin (1999) investigated these

concepts for construction management faculty in colleges and universities, and O'Brien (2001) examined them for vocational rehabilitation instructors in college programs. This study will contribute to the line of inquiry already begun and builds on previous research. It will utilize the same instruments used by Hughes, Martin, and O'Brien but will add the concepts of learning strategies and cultural appreciation to this study. In addition, it will examine teachers in a setting other than colleges. In order to be a part of this line of inquiry, the design for this study is patterned after that of O'Brien (2001).

In order for the results of this study to be easily compared to those in the existing line of inquiry related to education philosophy and teaching styles the research questions for this study are similar to those of the latest study which was conducted by O'Brien (2001).

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

Research questions guide the research and assist in data collection (Merriam & Simpson, 1984, pp. 22-23). The research questions for this study addressed the educational philosophies, teaching styles, learning strategy preferences, and cultural appreciations of the Title 1 teachers in the Tulsa Public School System. Before addressing these specific concepts, a general research

question was asked related to the description of the

teachers; this research question was as follows: What is the

profile of the Title 1 teachers in the Tulsa Public School

System? Once this question was answered, the following

research questions were addressed:

1. Using the Adult Education Inventory (PAEI), what are
    the adult educational philosophies of the Title 1
    educators of Tulsa Public Schools?

2. Using the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS),
    what are the teaching styles of Title 1 educators in
    Tulsa Public Schools.

3. Using the Assessing of Learning Strategies of AdultS
    (ATLAS), what are the learning strategy profiles of
    teachers who teach in Tulsa Public Title 1 schools?

4. Using the Cultural Appreciation in Lifelong Learning
    (CALL) what is the cultural appreciation of educators
    who teach in Title 1 Schools in Tulsa Public Schools?

5. What is the relationship of (a) education philosophy,
    teaching style, learning strategies, and cultural
    appreciation and (b) the demographic variables of age,
    gender, race, duties, and faculty credentials?

6. What is the interaction between education philosophy,
    teaching style, learning styles, and cultural
    appreciation of Title 1 educators in Tulsa Public
    Schools?

7. Do clusters exist among the Title 1 educators in Tulsa
    Public Schools based on their educational philosophy,
    teaching style, learning strategies, and cultural
    appreciation?

    The participants were given the PAEI, PALS, ATLAS and

CALL as well as a demographic questionnaire. Frequency

distributions were used to construct the educational

philosophy, teaching styles, learning strategies and

cultural competence profiles for the participants. All teachers who teach in Title 1 schools in Tulsa Public Schools were asked to participate. However, all did not choose to participate. Therefore an analysis of variance was used to examine the relationships between the various demographic variables and (a) educational philosophies, (b) teaching styles, (c) learning strategies, and (d) cultural competence. Discriminant analysis was used to examine the interaction between educational philosophy, teaching style, learning strategies and cultural competence. Finally, cluster analysis was used to uncover the groups that exists within the Title 1 participants of the study field.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

<u>Introduction</u>

Before the Civil War poverty was not widely accepted as a social problem in the United States. The prevailing attitude was that personal adversities were personal affairs, that poverty was an individual problem that neither could nor should be relieved by society (Wilson, 1985). Thus, people unable to make it in the East were advised to go West; the general feeling was that individuals had only themselves to blame if they were mired in poverty.

In a largely rural society provided with plenty of vacant fertile land, this view could be evolved and affirmed. However, the dislocations that accompanied industrial enterprise in the post-Civil War period prompted changes in this attitude (p.231). In the grimace of dense unemployment, poor working conditions, inadequate wages, and inferior housing, pre-industrial conceptions of poverty scoured and efforts to combat these problems evolved into major social reforms. They included the regulation of working hours, working conditions, and the employment of children. Laws were passed pertaining to public health and

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housing, as well. By the turn of the century, social reform was a dominant theme in the fight against poverty (Bremner 1956, Miller 1966).

Many descriptive studies of urban poverty derived from this social reform movement. Most notable were Jacob Riis's (1890) intense description of life in the tenements of New York, and Jane Addams's (1902) and Sophonsiba Breckenridge's (1936) works on poverty and housing in Chicago. These studies detailed the hurtful conditions of urban poverty. Also appearing at roughly the same time as vivid fact-finding social reform reports were a series of ethnographic studies on urban life conducted by sociologists at the University of Chicago. In 1918, W. I. Thomas collaborated with Plorian Znaniecki in publishing the first volume of a classic five-volume work, The Polish Peasant (1918-20). This work plus the research of Robert E. Park (1925) on human behavior in an urban environment helped to establish Chicago as the main center of urban sociological research in the earlier twentieth century. Much of this research focused on urban poverty and related problems (Anderson 1923,1940; Thrasher 1927). Although many of the Chicago studies incorporated data collected by the social reformers, their discussions of urban poverty were informed by sociological insights into the nature and processes of urban life in a changing industrial society (Suttles, 1976).

History seems to suggest that once there was an

interest in poverty a response to it has been government intervention. The stock market crash on October 29, 1929, with resulting widespread unemployment and economic insecurity was an example of a societal condition that warranted governmental intervention (Wilson, 1985). In fact, the welfare system grew out of this economic upheaval. Title IV of the Social Security Act was titled "Grants to States for Aid to Dependent Children"–a federal /state public assistance program that provided cash to the families of eligible children. The original intent of this program was to appropriate federal funds to states in order to furnish financial assistance to needy dependent children under the age of six (Turner, 1993). Allowances for aid to dependent children were based on the number of children being cared for in the home by the applicant.

However, the early interest in urban poverty research was not maintained despite the heightened public awareness of poverty generated by the Depression of the 1930's, and the nationwide discussion and debate concerning the New Deal anti-poverty programs (e.g. Aid to Dependent Children, unemployment compensation, social security, and old age assistance) (Wilson, 1985). By the late 1930's, scholarly research on urban poverty and social disruption was on the decline. Ironically, the Depression had the effect of arresting some of the questions that had given urban ethnography its impetus, (Suttles, 1976). Advanced poverty was indiscreetly social in origin and there was little

mystery that would incline ethnographers to go into our cities as if they were almost foreign lands. Ethnography became mostly something done by anthropologists, and that mostly in genuinely foreign and obscure places" (p. 7). Moreover, in the 1930's urban ethnographic studies began to contend with, and in the 1940's eventually gave way to, studies that employed more sophisticated techniques of data gathering and analysis.

In short, the decline of urban ethnography amounted to a decline in the study of urban poverty (Wilson, 1985). But there were other factors involved in the shift away from poverty studies. The onset of World War II created interest in issues other than poverty; and the generally prosperous decade of the 1950s was hardly a stimulus to social scientists and policymakers to recognize and address the problems of a growing concentration of citizens in our nation's central city slums and ghettos (Wilson, 1985).

The Interest of Poverty Returns

If interest in the fate of the poor declined following World War II, in the late 1950's and early 1960's there was notable political activity in behalf of disadvantaged groups even though the issue of poverty was not explicitly raised. In 1954, The U. S. Supreme Court in Brown vs. Board of Education ruled that segregation of children by race in the public schools was a violation of the 14th Amendment. That ruling gave rise to a national debate about the quality of education being provided to African American children and

eventually led to a broader discussion of the needs of children of all races who came from poor families or who had other disadvantages (Jennings, 2000).

Following the 1954 Supreme Court Decision on school segregation, President Eisenhower sent national guardsmen into Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1957 to force compliance with that decision, and the United States Congress passed the first civic rights law in eighty years. In 1959, the Kerrs-Mills Act increased funds for health care for the aged; in 1961, President John F. Kennedy approved a pilot food stamp program and expanded and liberalized the surplus commodity program; and in 1962 Congress passed the Manpower Development and Training Act and soon broadened its coverage to include the disadvantaged (Plotnick & Skidmore, 1975). By 1963 the issue of poverty began to receive explicit attention in the New Frontier administration of John F. Kennedy with the recognition "that public receptiveness to the issues of poverty amid plenty could provide a rallying point for the coming election of 1964" (p. 2).

After the assassination of President Kennedy in late 1963, the interest in poverty at the Federal level was sustained by Lyndon Baines Johnson. President Johnson took office determined to secure the measures that Kennedy had sought. Immediate priorities were bills to reduce taxes and guarantee civil rights. Using his skills of persuasion Johnson succeeded in gaining passage of the Civil Rights Bill. Introduced by Kennedy, it was the most far-reaching

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piece of civil rights legislation enacted since Reconstruction. Soon Johnson addressed other issues as well. By the spring of 1964, he began to use the name "Great Society" to describe his reform program.

Johnson's 1964 economic report included a detailed statement on poverty in the United States and a number of proposals for attacking poverty. The report was followed by the creation of an independent agency within the House to draft a bill consistent with the ideas expressed in the economic report. In 1964, the "War on Poverty" was officially approved by Congress with emphasis on job-training programs, and community participation and development (Plotnick & Skidmore, 1975).

John Gardner, president of the Carnegie Corporation, headed the Johnson task force concerned with education. With assistance from Francis Keppel, appointed commissioner of education under President Kennedy and Wilbur Cohen, the task force reported to President Lyndon Johnson just after the November 1964 elections (Andrew, 1998). It urged an overhaul of the American educational system to provide greater access for all. Barriers to access, such as impoverished school districts, insufficient special education resources, and individual poverty that blocked education beyond the secondary level, and the educational ills of the nation's urban school districts had to fall (p. 117).

The problem was how the situation could be handled without running into the church-state issue. Wilbur Cohen's

answer was to tie federal aid to students rather than to schools. This approach became known as the "child-benefit theory" and presented a major breakthrough at the federal level (p. 117). With the determination to fashion a bill that would pass Congress, the child-benefit approach led to the legislation of the beginning of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act still in effect today.

Title 1 is the largest educational program of ESEA, signed into law by President Lyndon B. Johnson in 1965 with the goal of providing compensatory education to economically disadvantaged students (Guthrie, 2003, p. 837).

> Title 1 was mandated to "provide financial assistance to... local educational and agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families to expand and improve their educational programs by various means... which contribute particularly to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children" (Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, 79 Stat. 27,27).

The overall goal of Title 1 is to help close the achievement gap separating economically disadvantaged children and their most advantaged peers (Guthrie, 2003, p. 453). Title 1 is a form of compensatory education designed to compensate for these disadvantages by expanding and improving result educational programs offered to children living in poverty.

"The early years of Title 1, during the late 1960's, lead to poor implementation and large-scale violations in the operations of the program" (p. 454). These violations were caused by several factors. The original program mandates were confusing concerning the proper and improper uses of the federal money, and the guidelines and intent of

the law were open to varying interpretations. Some local
school system officials originally thought of Title 1 as a
general aid fund, which was labeled as a program for the
disadvantaged for diplomatic and political reasons only.
Also, in 1965 the educational knowledge for developing
effective compensatory education programs was extremely
limited. Most local administrators and teachers had no
experience developing, implementing, or teaching
compensatory programs (p. 454). In addition, a viable
intergovernmental compliance system was not in place.

The problems with implementation of the Title 1 program
in the 1960's and 1970's caused the regulations to become
tighter. As the 1970's progressed, the services were
delivered to the children targeted by law. The
implementation of the Title 1 program became a cooperative
concern and professional responsibility of local, state, and
federal administrators. Title 1 has inspired greater local
concern for, and attention to, the educational needs of the
children in poverty (Peterson et. al., 1986).

Given its size and pervasiveness Title 1 has long been
the chosen vehicle for the federal government to implement
the twin missions of the Education Department: enforcing
equity and promoting excellence in education. Title 1 has
successfully brought attention to the special needs of
high-poverty schools.

Whether Title 1 has done all that much to promote
excellence is another issue. The program's evaluation has
produced mixed results. There are researchers who claim

that Title 1 helped reduce the achievement gap between poor and rich students, in the 1960's and 1970's. There is little evidence of additional progress since then (Cowan & Manasevit, 2002).

This lack of progress, both in Title 1 and the educational system, led to the No Child Left Behind Act. In 1988 the federal government ruled that ESEA had to be reauthorized every few years. No longer would Title 1 be a mere funding source that pours out money without regard for results. For the first time, the 1988 legislation required states to set standards for the achievement of their Title 1 children, and take action if their Title 1 programs did not produce results (Jennings, 2000). This new legislation granted schools greater freedom in designing and implementing effective programs, but also included new provisions that held them accountable for improved student outcomes and designated a program improvement process for those schools with poor or declining performance. The law encouraged educators to establish more frequent and regular coordination between Title 1 and the regular school program. "All schools serving very high proportions of poor children became eligible to use their Title 1 funds for school-wide projects designed to upgrade the school as a whole" (Guthrie, 2003, p. 455). The policy developers of Title 1 have made efforts to develop laws encouraging and to some mandating, accountability for educational reform and improvement.

The NCLB Act is the most recent reauthorization of

ESEA. In January 2002, as part of the NCLB act, Title 1
received th largest funding increase in its history, pushing
the total annual expenditures to more than $10 billion. The
new Title 1 calls for stronger accountability mandates,
including testing in grades 3-8 and holding schools and
districts responsible for the achievement outcomes of
minority students, low-income students, and English-language
learners. The NCLB Act specifies "scientifically based
research" as the means by which schools must improve
excellence and equality in student outcomes.

Title 1 of the twenty-first century proposes to offer
great promise for upgrading the educational opportunities of
the nation's poor children (Guthrie, 2003). Its emphasis is
on high academic standards with aligned curriculum,
assessment, and professional development. Title 1's focus
is on helping disadvantaged students meet the same high
standards expected of all students. Therefore the central
purpose of the new Title 1 is to close the achievement gap
between children of affluent homes and children in homes of
poverty (Borman, 2002).

NCLB mandates that all students demonstrate annual
yearly progress and therefore serves as the most rigorous
and exacting of standards-based strategies yet enacted for
reforming schools (Albrecht & Joles, 2003). Furthermore,
NCLB dramatically extends the contingencies of high-stakes
assessments by creating strong rewards and punishments based
on students' performance. Under NCLB guidelines, schools
that perform well could receive public recognition and

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financial rewards but those whose students perform poorly could receive sanctions and even be subject to state takeover. The NCLB Act expands the involvement of the federal government "from assisting states in setting standards and improving local performance, to fiscal sanctions and corrective action for both states and schools that fail to meet criteria" (Hardman & Mulder, pp. 5-6).

The primal and overarching theme of NCLB is accountability for positive academic outcomes and related results (Simpson et al, 2004). This idea shapes the foundation of the Act. NCLB holds individual schools, school districts, and states accountable for improvements in student achievement, with an emphasis on closing the achievement gap between high-and low-performing students and children and youth. Some of the keys issues of the NCLB Act are as follows:

1. Testing and Accountability: States are required to implement annual reading and math assessments for grades 3-8.
2. Public School Choice: Schools that do not meet the timetable for raising student achievement will be labeled as "failing". School districts are required to offer public school choice to all students in a failing school, and provide transportation where need. If a school continues to fail after three years students in that school would be eligible to receive approximately $400 to $600 in federal money for after-school tutoring from a private or public institution.
3. Title 1: This cornerstone program aimed at helping disadvantaged students increased $1.6   billion to $10.4 billion in fiscal 2002. Targeted will be the poorest schools,

which will most likely give a significant
boost to urban schools.

4.   Reading first: $900 million has been
authorized to help states and school
districts established scientific research-
based k-3 reading programs. $75 million has
been authorized for an "Early Reading First"
competitive grant initiative to enhance the
reading readiness of children aged 3-5 in
high-poverty areas.

5. $1 billion has been authorized for a single
technology block grant program that
consolidates several existing technology
programs, including the Technology Literacy
Challenge Funds.(Rosenthal, 2002).

In addition Title 1 includes a 12-year goal to make
every student "proficient" in state reading and math tests.
By the 2005-06 school year, each state must administer
annual reading and math tests of its own in grades 3-8 and
once between grades 9-12. The tests must be aligned to
state standards and must include multiple measures of
achievement. State achievement tests must measure both the
performance of a whole school and that of disadvantaged
"subgroups", to ensure that no single group of students is
allowed to consistently underperform (p.2).

A school that displays a lack of "adequate yearly
progress" will be given technical assistance and placed on a
long-term improvement schedule with progressively stronger
corrective measures, culminating in school "restructuring"
or "reconstitution" in the seventh year. A school currently
on a state improvement plan remains on the current
schedule-it cannot "turn back the clock to an earlier
corrective stage. If a school does not make adequately

yearly progress for three consecutive years, the district must offer "supplemental educational services" chosen by parents from a list compiled by the state. These private or "community-based organizations" must demonstrate past performance and comply with civil rights laws–barring them from discriminating against either program -participants or employees(NEA Today, 2002).

Title 1 includes stronger teacher quality provisions. Beginning with the 2002-03 school year, each district receiving Title 1 funds (to help disadvantaged children gain basic and advanced skills) must ensure that all teachers in the program supported by Title 1 are "highly-qualified" –meaning they have been fully certified or licensed under state law and have demonstrated competence (NEA Today, 2002).

Furthermore, all new teachers entering the profession must take a written test. And every state must develop a plan to ensure that all teachers (not just those supported by Title 1) teaching core academic subjects are highly qualified no later than the end of 2005-06 school year (NEA Today, 2002).

Title 1 also requires stronger provisions for Title 1 para-educators. All Title 1 paras hired after January 8, 2002 must have two years of post secondary education or be a high school graduate who can demonstrate–on a state or local assessment–that the skills needed to assist in teaching reading, or writing, or math (NEA Today, 2002). All existing Title 1 paras must meet one of these requirements

within four years. The paras must work under the direct supervision of a classroom teacher and cannot substitute for a certified teacher.

Flexible grants are available for everything from professional development to school repair. This new NCLB Act combines the previous Eisenhower Professional Development and Class Size Reduction programs into one program that funds a broad range of state and local training and recruitment activities-everything from innovative professional development to recruitment of highly qualified teachers to reduce class size.

Some have cast NCLB as an enlightened scientifically based reform effort that will dramatically improve U.S. schools. In contrast, others have described the law as a misguided enactment whose foundation is unproven change strategies (McKenzie, 2003).

<div align="center">Adult Education</div>

"We have no single answer, no one theory or model of adult learning that explains all that we know about adult learners, the various contexts where learning takes place and the process of learning itself" (Merriam, 2001, p. 3). There is a mosaic of theories, models, sets of principles, and explanations that, combined, compose the knowledge base of adult learning (p.3). "Until mid-twentieth century, adult educators relied on research in psychology and educational psychology for an understanding of adult learning" (p. 4). This type of research was behavioristic by design, and many times perceptive about adult learning was

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taken from research with children (p. 4). "Thus the drive
to professionalize, which included the need to develop a
knowledge base unique to adult education , was the context
in which two field's most important theory-building
efforts–andragogy and self-directed learning–emerged" (p.4).

<u>Andragogy</u>

"In 1968, Malcolm Knowles proposed "a new label and new
technology " of adult learning to distinguish it from pre-
adult schooling" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 351).
According to Knowles:

> The five assumptions underlying andragogy describe
> the adult learner as someone who (1) has an
> independent self-concept and who can direct his or
> her own learning, (2) has accumulated a reservoir
> of life experiences that is a rich resource for
> learning, (3) has learning needs closely related
> to changing social roles, (4) is problem-centered
> and interested in immediate application of
> knowledge, and (5)is motivated to learn by
> internal rather than external factors. From these
> assumptions, Knowles proposed a program -planning
> model for designing, implementing, and evaluating
> educational experiences with adults. For example,
> with regard to the first assumption that as adults
> mature they become more independent and self-
> directing, Knowles suggested that the classroom
> climate should be one of "adultness", both
> physically and psychologically. In an "adult"
> classroom, adults "feel accepted, respected, and
> supported"; further , there exists "a spirit of
> mutuality between teachers and students as joint
> inquirers"(Knowles, 1980, p. 47, Merriam, 2001, p.
> 5).

Andragogy is the art and science of helping adults learn
(Knowles, 1980, p. 43). Malcolm Knowles made this term
popular and is recognized as the father of andragogy
although Alexander Kapp, a German grammar school teacher,
first used the term (Knowles, 1998, p. 59). While some have
argued against Knowles' model of andragogy, his work is the

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foundation of thinking in the field of adult learning during the last decade (Heimstra & Sisco, 1990). "Andragogy is "a term that "belongs" to adult education (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, P. 135).

Self-Directed Learning

Knowles (1975) included in his in his concept of andragogy the importance of self-directed learning. Researchers have defined self-directed learning in several different ways. Allen Tough (1967) identified learning projects as a deliberate act to learn specific knowledge that lasted at least 7 hours. Tough (1967, 1978) found that 70% of all learning projects were self-directed and that 90% of adults planned at least one activity per year. Tough (1978) established that self-directed projects are complicated, contain skill development in at least 5 areas, and average 100 hours per project. In addition, self-directed learning is a process and contains several steps (Knowles, 1975, Tough, 1979). These steps include the learners making distinct decisions about where, how and when the learning will take place.

Self-directed learning usually occurs without the assistance of an educator. However, there are self-directed opportunities in the classroom. Self-directed learning does not have to be an isolated process. It can be done with the cooperation of a teacher and classroom resources. Adult educators can provide self-directed learners assistance by providing information resources (Tough, 1967) and by facilitating the process (Knowles, 1975).

<u>Learning How to Learn</u>

Learning-how-to-learn is another concept difficult to define with precision (Smith, 1976, p. 4). In the last three decades, the originative research on learning-how-to-learn was collected by Robert M. Smith. He developed a theory and repertory of training exercises founded on the idea that it is "as important to teach adults how to learn as it is to specify particular curricular domains for learning" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 64). Initially Smith defined learning-how-to-learn as "a matter of the adult's having (or acquiring) the knowledge and skill essential to function effectively in the various learning situations in which he finds himself" (p. 5). Later Smith (1982) defined learning-how-to-learn as "possessing, or acquiring, the knowledge and skill to learn effectively in whatever learning situation one encounters" (p. 19).

Adult education is a process (Smith, 1976, p. 6). It is important to involve the learner in every phase of the process. Critical to this process is the development of each learners' awareness and capacity for effective self-monitoring and active reflection (Smith, 1991, p. 11). Involving the learner in this process includes participation in planning, conducting, and evaluating learning activities (Smith, 1976, p. 6).

Planning describes how adult learners identify their needs and set goals as they select resources and strategies. Conducting involves adult learners as they learn to negotiate the selected procedures and resources while

learning how to give and receive feedback. Evaluating
illustrates how adult learners measure the extent to which
their goals have been met and how to proceed with follow-up
activities. These sub-processes assume that the learner is
involved to the greatest extent and that "the learner needs
this kind of knowledge and skill function optimally in the
three phases of the process" (p. 6).

<div align="center">Learning Strategies</div>

During their early years, learners utilize traits that
assist them in a variety of learning situations. Learning
style is "the individual's characteristic way of processing
information, feeling, and behaving in certain learning
situations" (Smith, 1982, p. 23). Learning style is one of
the three components of the learning how to learn process
(p. 23). Learning strategies differ from learning styles.
Learning styles are generally established and are steady
throughout the learner's life (Fellenz & Conti, 1989, p. 8).

Learning from everyday situations, opportunities,
dilemmas and experiences is a process all learners confront
countless times during their lives. As a field of study,
Adult Education examines the benefits of learning that is
immediately applicable to adult learners' lives as opposed
to learning that is from a teacher-directed curricula in
formal education. Real-life learning is "relevant to the
living tasks of the individual in contrast to those tasks
considered mor appropriate to formal education" (Fellenz &
Conti, 1989, p. 3).

Learning processes traditionally used in formal

educational settings differ dramatically from the procedures of real-life learning. With real-life learning, more attention is given the living tasks of individual learners rather than tasks proposed by formal education (Fellenz & Conti, 1989). People are generally ill prepared through formal education to learn from everyday life experience (Sternberg, 1990, p. 35).

Learning style is one of the three components of the learning how to learn process (p. 23). Learning strategies in adult education have been conceptualized into five areas of metacognition, metamotivation, memory, critical thinking, and resource management (Fellenz & Conti, 1993). These five main areas are identified in an instrument titled Self-Knowledge Inventory of Lifelong Learning Strategies (SKILLS). SKILLS has proven to be a valid and reliable instrument for measuring learning strategies of adult learners (Conti & Kolody, 1999, pp. 16-20). This instrument uses scenarios from real-life learning situations to discover peoples' learning such as assembling a bicycle or caring for a relative to discover peoples' learning strategies (Fellenz & Conti, 1993).

<u>Metacognition</u>

Metacognition is a cognitive psychology concept introduced in the 1970's by Ann Brown and John Flavell. "Brown defined metacognition as the knowledge and control one has over one's thinking and learning" (Counter & Fellenz, 1993, p.10)   Metacognition is a conscious, reflective endeavor requiring the learner to analyze,

assess, and manage learning activities (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 3). Metacognitive strategies include Planning, Monitoring, and Adjusting (Conti & Fellenz, 1993).

Planning involves an individual determining the best method for accomplishing a learning task. Learners must have an understanding of their own learning requirements, what is required by the learning task, and a general idea of how to plan. Over-viewing the learning task and skimming materials are examples of Planning.

Monitoring requires maintaining an awareness of the strategies, tasks, processes, and goals of the learning task within the context of individual abilities (Counter & Fellenz, 1993). Monitoring involves the evaluation of one's progress through a learning task. Getting feedback is an important aspect of Monitoring.

Adjusting allows the learner to modify the learning process based upon the desired outcome and the learner's evaluation of the process. An Adjustment may be a modification of one's approach to a learning task. Adjustments may also be made to timing and resources.

Metamotivation

Metamotivation is a strategy that deals with the learner's knowing and understanding of how they are motivated or why they are motivated to participate or remain in learning activity (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p.4). The metamotivation area of SKILLS is based on adult education and cognitive psychology theory (Fellenz & Conti, 1993). The learning strategy of areas of Attention, Reward and

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Enjoyment, and Confidence are associated with Metamotivation (Fellenz & Conti, 1993).

Attention refers to the learner's focus on the information to be learned. Attention includes identifying distractions. It also includes avoiding potential distractions.

Reward and Enjoyment strategies involve a recognition by the learner of the value of the learning outcome or the personal fun, satisfaction , or enjoyment to be gained from the learning or the outcome. An example of using the Reward and Enjoyment strategy would be for the learner to see the outcome as personally useful or relevant (Fellenz & Conti, 1993.

Confidence is a critical component of motivation (Ibid, 1993). Confidence is simply believing in one's ability to learn. "Belief that one can complete the learning task successfully is an important factor in the motivation to learn" (p. 16).

Memory

Memory involves the activities which "store, retain, and retrieve knowledge" (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 6). Unlike early memory research that was criticized for being laboratory based, memory research in the 1970's began to focus on memory as people actually use it in their daily lives (Paul & Fellenz, 1993). Memory research has focused on the physiology os memory, how relevance affects memory, and memory strategies (Gallagher, 1998, p. 54). Memory strategies include Organization, Use of External Aids, and

Memory Application (Fellenz & Conti, 1993).

Organization refers to the way in which learners restructure information (Seamon cited I Paul & Fellenz , 1993). Restructuring strategies enable the learner to structure information so it can be stored, retained, or retrieved. Chunking is an organization strategy. Chunking is organizing information into sets to reduce the number of categories to be remembered (p. 23).

Use of External Aids strategies enable learners to use the environment to assist with memory. "External memory techniques rely on interaction of the mental processes of the individual(Paul & Fellenz, 1993). External aids can include lists and calendars or daily planners.

Memory application is important for the novice as well as for the expert in a learning task (Paul & Fellenz, 1993). Memory application strategies are techniques that allow the learner to make use of the knowledge stored in the individual's memory in order to plan, carry out, and evaluate learning. Memory application is used for self-improvement, problem solving, critical thinking, and a variety of other activities (p. 24).

Critical Thinking

Brookfield's 1987 critical thinking components form the basis of SKILLS critical thinking strategies (Conti & Kolody, 1999a). "Brookfield's approach to critical thinking is applied to real-life situations and is composed of (a) identifying and challenging assumptions; (b) challenging the importance of concepts; (c)imagining and exploring

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alternatives; and (d)reflective skepticism (p. 7). Critical thinking involves emotion and intuition as well as the intellect (Gallagher, 1998, p.55). SKILLS critical thinking strategies are based on Testing Assumptions, Generating Alternatives, and Conditional Acceptance.

Testing Assumptions involves identifying examining, and challenging assumptions in the learning process (Fellenz & Conti, 1993). According to Fellenz & Conti (1993), Testing Assumptions also involves a willingness to identify and question assumptions about a learning process that may have previously been take for granted.

Generating Alternatives involves considering and searching for alternative solutions or options through such activities as brainstorming and rank ordering (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, Gallagher, 1998). Brookfield (1987) suggests the arrangement of situations in which individuals or groups of learners can envision alternative futures, develop preferred scenarios, or formulate goals as ideal situations for generating alternatives (Fellenz & Conti, 1993).

Conditional Acceptance involves "advocating skepticism to avoid absolutes over simplifications" (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, p. 8). According to Brookfield considering and imagining alternatives develops a critical mind where universal truth or validity are concerned (Fellenz & Conti, 1993). Brookfield is careful reflective skepticism from cynicism or refusal to commit (p. 33). Examples of Conditional Acceptance strategies are questioning simplistic answers and predicting consequences (Conti & Kolody, 1999a,

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p. 8).

Resource Management

Resource Management is identifying, evaluating, and using resource relevant to the learning project. Resources are sources of information and can include but are not limited to books, magazines, libraries, computers, electronic media, or individuals. With this large quantity of resources, good resource management can be crucial for learners. Resource the managers are challenged by the changes in communication formats, modernization of communication technology, and tendency of learners to continue using past behaviors that were successful but may no longer be optimal (Fellenz & Conti, 1993). SKILLS Resource Management strategies are Identification of resources, Critical Use of Resources, and Use of Human Resources, and Human Resources (Fellenz & Conti, 1993).

SKILLS has been used in several studies related to the learning strategies of adult learners (James, 2000, p. 66). Kolody's (1997) study of adult learners at 2-year colleges in Alberta, Canada "set the standard for many subsequent learning strategy preferences studies" (James, 2000, p. 68). Along with its predecessor study (Conti & Kolody, 1995), this study "provided a basic design for later studies that used discriminant analysis to clarify the relationship between learning strategy preferences and demographic characteristics" (James, 2000, p. 69).

Research using the SKILLS instrument's five learning strategy areas has led to the development of an instrument

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called Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS. ATLAS
was developed to "produce an instrument which was easy to
administer, which could be completed rapidly, and which
could be used immediately by both facilitators and learners"
(Conti & Kolody, 1998, p. 109). Other studies have been
done to help better describe the groups in ATLAS. Many
studies have been done to test the instrument with different
groups. The development of this instrument led to the
identification of three distinct groups of learners. The
groups are referred to as Navigators, Problem Solvers, and
Engagers (Conti & Kolody, 2004).

     Navigators are "focused learners who chart a course for
learning and follow it" (Conti & Kolody, 2004, p. 185).
These learners are high achievers who tend to concentrate on
external learning processes. They rely on strategies such
as planning, attention, identification and use of resources
and testing assumptions. Navigators work well under
organized deadlines, clear-cut goals and definite
clearly-communicated expectations.

     Problem Solvers are most frequently associated with
critical thinking as their learning strategy. Like
Navigators, these learners look externally at available
resources that will best assist their learning procedures.
Problem Solvers "rely on a reflective thinking process which
utilizes higher order thinking skills" (p. 186). They often
test assumptions, generate alternatives, and use conditional
acceptance strategies. Problem-Solvers are best at
adjusting their learning processes and resources to fit

their learning needs (p. 186).

Engagers are internally motivated and must be certain that a learning activity will be meaningful to them before they become involved (p. 187). Engagers are "passionate learners who love to learn, learn with feeling and learn best when they are actively engaged in a meaningful manner" (p. 186). "The teacher needs to have them actively engaged in the learning and must remember that engagers are more interested in the process of learning and the relationships that are built during this process than they are in the academic outcomes of the learning" (p. 187).

ATLAS has been used in over thirty studies to identify learning strategies in adults. Paula Willyard (2000) studied the Learning Styles and Learning Strategies of Adult Learners at OSU-Muskogee community college. Other learning strategy preference studies which used ATLAS include a study of Wichita, Kansas police officers; Internet learners, African American church school participants; Oklahoma Department of Human Services child welfare employees; and Oklahoma GED teachers.

Professional Development

Historically, adult education has served as a necessary function in an ever-changing society (Beder, 1989). Its source in America can be traced back to the early colonial settlements. Immigrants were strongly determined "to create a readiness for learning" (Knowles,1962, p.3). Nonetheless, it was the Carnegie Corporation in 1926 that solidified adult education as a "new agency in American life"

(Stubblefield & Keane, 1989, p. 32). Adult education's role
is to facilitate change in a dynamic society, support and
maintain the good social order, promote productivity and
enhance personal growth (Beder, 1989, p. 39). In reference,

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

Other popular terms like continuing education, and
lifelong learning have been used universally and
interchangeably to describe adult education. Nonetheless,
continuing education has been the widely used synonym and is
a major function of adult education (p. 12). Professional
or staff development are more widely used terms for
continuing education today. Another term noted is
continuing professional development. Continuing Education in
the Professions by Cyril Houle (1996) described adult
education as the process by which men and women seek to
improve themselves or their society by increasing their
skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it is any process by
which individuals, groups or institutions try to help men
and women improve in these ways. This definition is
synonymous to that of professional development.

In the 1980's continuing education in the professions
began to flourish. Many professions instituted programs of
continuing education for their members even as most states
have enacted legislation mandating continuing education for
relicensure of various professionals (Houle, 1980). Consumer

concern and dissatisfaction with incompetent performance and inadequate service resulted in even greater demands upon competence and performance of professionals spurring greater pressures and controls of professionals' continuing education.

Cyril Houle's book, <u>Continuing Learning in the Professions</u>, analyzed the state-of-the-art of continuing learning in the profession based on two assumptions: too few professionals continue to learn in the professionals continue to learn throughout their lives and there are not enough opportunities to aid and encourage professionals to do so. Houle also suggested that our society must move from "professionalism", a static concept which searches for absolute criteria to identify an occupation as a profession-to "professionalization" – a dynamic concept which asks what characteristics seem most significant to the members of a vocation as they seek to elevate its work so that it can become accepted by society as a profession. Only then, he argued, will continuing education become more important to professionals.

The classic justification for continuing professional development is to keep professionals up to date with the latest knowledge in their profession. This perception comes naturally from the image of professionals as those who apply scientific techniques and knowledge to complex problems. Continuing professional development then becomes simply their way of maintaining knowledge and technique. "Scientific knowledge is produced by researchers and the

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foundation is laid in professional school, with the additional building blocks added through 40 years of continuing education" (Cervero, 1994, p. 174).

An incredible amount of resources, both financial and human, are used to support the three to six years of professional's education. Until recently, however little systemic thought was given to what happens for the following years of professional practice (Cervero, 2000). At present most universities sponsor continuing education programs either through its various professional schools or through a university-wide continuing education unit. Through distance-learning students from all over the world are able to enroll in programs and courses that come from a range of sources, including corporations and universities.

Another important issue is the planning of programs for adult education. Educational programs are not developed simply for learning's sake. Organizations that plan these programs have certain traditions, political relationships and special interests as do the individuals within it (Cervero, 1996). Whether an idea emerges out of a brainstorming session and into reality often depends on whose interests are backing it and how valued they and their interests are by the rest of the organization. While continuing education can improve professionals' knowledge and positively impact their work, the learning component is only one of a number of benefits it offers to an organization. The success of a program is judged by the size of the contributions it gains. Continuing education is a

form of revenue generation (Cervero, 2000).

Categorizing the various reasons that adult learners articulate as the rationale for participation in adult learning has been the impetus for numerous research studies during the last several decades. This area of inquiry was initiated with the publication of "The Inquiring Mind" by Cyril Houle in 1961. Houle chose a small, select group of twenty-two adults who were as he described "conspicuously engaged in various forms of learning" (p. 13). Houle then conducted comprehensive interviews with the participants in order to ascertain each subject's history of learning, variables that were contributory to each to be continued learners and personal examination by each participant of their views of themselves as learners.

A review, evaluation, and analysis of the data provided by these interviews revealed that there were three, separate and unique learning orientations for these adults. The results of the study was the basis for the famous typology proposed by Houle, who described the three learning orientations as: goal-oriented, activity- oriented, and learning-oriented. Goal orientated learners are those persons who use education as a means of achievement of another goal. Activity oriented learners participate in adult learning for the sake of the activity and social interaction. The learning orientated participants seek knowledge for its own sake (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). "If adult learners really fall into these three groups, this fact will be useful in understanding and guiding adult

education" (Houle, 1961, p. 30). Cyril Houle is regarded as the person most responsible for bringing the phrase "lifelong learners" into our present day lexicon.

The Florida Teaching Fellows Program provides job embedded Professional development to teachers in high poverty elementary schools across the state. Over the last 15 years, school leaders have come to realize that "for better or worse, we are on the brink of redefining the teaching profession" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000, p. 52) ways to. They have searched for creative ways to influence the careers of teachers to make them more fulfilling, both personally and professionally (Feldman, 1998). As a result, professional development for teachers has expanded beyond the "one shop workshop" to include more teacher planned, needs driven, content focused experiences.

Although surveys indicate a high rate of participation in professional development activities, the time that teachers actually spend in those activities is often less than eight hours-or the equivalent of less than one day of training – per activity (National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 1998.

Trends in Continuing Education

According to Ronald Cervero, five trends have changed the face of continuing professional education. They are as follows:

Trend 1: the amount of continuing education offered at the workplace dwarfs that offered by any other type of provider, and probably all other providers combined. Employers such businesses , hospitals, social services agencies and government

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offer a tremendous amount of education to their
employees.
Trend 2: an increasing number of programs are
being offered in distance education formats by
universities, professional organizations and non-
profit providers. Cervero states that of the five
trends, this one has clearly done the most to re-
shape the face of continuing professional
education. Personal computer usage has directed
the spread of this trend.
Trend 3: there are increasing collaborative
arrangements among providers, especially between
universities and workplaces. Continuing education
is part of the economic development strategy and
so universities and businesses are actively
collaborating in structuring continuing education
programs.
Trend 4: the corporation of continuing education
has increased dramatically. Corporatization of
continuing is in its early stages as for-profit
business are beginning to directly compete on a
large scale with universities and associations.
Trend 5: continuing education is being used more
frequently to regulate professional practice. One
of the major changes over the past 20 years has
been the incorporation of continuing education
into accountability systems for professional
practice. Cervero states that these new
requirements have done little or nothing to
address the underlying issue of competence.

As professional developers, it is important that we

view the teacher of adults as an adult learner and the

professional development activity as adult learning" (King &

Lawler, 2003, p. 15). "Never in the history of the Education

has greater importance been attached to the professional

development of educators. Every proposal for educational

reform and every plan for school improvement emphasizes the

need for high-quality professional development" (Guskey,

2000, p. 3). This emphasis is because our knowledge base in

education is growing rapidly, and so is the knowledge base

in nearly every subject area and academic discipline.

Because of the expansion of these knowledge bases, new

expertise are required of educators at all levels. Like
practitioners in other professional fields, educators must
keep abreast of this emerging knowledge and must be prepared
to use it to continually to refine their conceptual and
craft skills.

Professional development opportunities are presented
whenever social, economic, and political changes manifest
themselves (Tackett, 1996). Professional development is
learning new information and has more value when what is
learned is implemented. Having knowledge and skills has
little value if they are not acted upon or applied.

Researchers tend to agree that to promote the kind of
teacher learning that leads to improvement in teaching,
professional development should concentrate on instruction
and student outcomes in teachers' specific schools; provide
opportunities for collegial inquiry, help, and feedback; and
connect teachers to external expertise while also respecting
teachers' discretion and creativity (Newmann et. al., 2000).
In addition, these experiences should be sustained and
continuous rather than short-term and episodic (Lieberman,
1995). Professional development is described as the means
by which new knowledge is added to the teacher's repertoire
(Joyce & Showers, 2002). It is argued that learning how to
learn is just as important for teacher professional
development as the acquisition of new knowledge and skills.
Professional training should allow people to learn how to be
more effective learners. Training consists of four
components: developing knowledge, through exploring theory

to understand the concepts behind a skill or strategy; the demonstration or modeling of skill, and the practice of skill or peer coaching (Ibid, 2002).

A central feature of North American societies in the twentieth century has been the "professionalization" of their workforces. One estimate is that nearly 25 percent of the American workforce claims membership in a profession (Cervero, 1988). It is important to recognize that these professionals teach our children, manage and account for our money, settle our disputes, diagnose and treat our mental and physical ills, fight our wars, and help mediate our relationships with God (Cervero, 2000). Thus it is essential to keep our eyes on what is truly at risk in continuing education. The bottom line of continuing education is to improve the practice of these teachers, physicians, managers and clergy.

The classic justification for continuing professional development is to keep professionals up to date with the latest knowledge in their profession. This perception comes naturally from the image of professionals as those who apply scientific techniques and knowledge to complex problems. Continuing professional development then becomes simply their way of maintaining knowledge and technique. "Scientific knowledge is produced by researchers and the foundation is laid in professional school, with the additional building blocks added through 40 years of continuing education" (Cervero, 1994, p. 174).

The Coalition of Essential Schools(CES) and the Lucent

foundation have taken a collaborative, inquiry approach to professional development, believing that, as adult learners, teachers are their own best resources. The most effective professional development efforts are intense and designed to engage teachers intellectually, socially, and emotionally (Cocoran, 1995). These activities are sustained over a long period of time and carefully planned to provide teachers with early and ongoing feedback about their direct impact of why they have learned and applied on their work and especially on the children they teach. To embed this type of professional development into a school community requires consistent follow-up, support, and "pressure" (Guskey, 1995; Sparks, 1997).

Therefore, Professional development must become a constructivist activity for participating teachers, be directly related to high standards of student achievement and teacher development and must demonstrate a straightforward connection to improved practice (Sparks,1997).

Optimal professional development is based on continuous improvement at three levels: individual, collegial, and organizational. Effective professional development efforts should be school- or site-based and achieve a balance between being relevant for teachers and meeting organizational needs (Gusky, 1995). Professional development should be "participant driven" and developmentally appropriate for the teacher's career stage (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996). They also recommend

that it be experiential in nature, engaging teachers in the concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection.

Professional development should not be viewed as separate from what a teacher does in the classroom, as though learning can be separated from regular work (Fullan, 1995). The job-embedded nature of professional development is most evident, for example. In action research and in peer review of practice. The final and perhaps the most important contextual element is reflection, follow-up, and "adequate time" for regular, follow-up, and administrative support; not necessarily more time, but certainly more efficient use of the time available (Freestone & Costa, 1998).

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hours-or the equivalent of less than one day of training –
per activity (National Statistics Center for Education,
1999).

<center>Educational Philosophy</center>

A philosophy influences educators in the decisions they
make about their practice. It is the infrastructure to a
set of beliefs that guide practice and action. Most humans
have a philosophy in the sense of beliefs and values that
influence other actions and decisions which can be referred
to as a philosophy of life. "It is interesting to note that
many major philosophies have written about education.
Probably this occurs because education is such an integral
part of life that it is difficult to think about not having
it" (Ozmon & Craver, 1986, p. x). There are five basic
philosophical schools in Western thought: Idealism, Realism,
Pragmatism, Existentialism, and Reconstructionism. These
philosophies serve as justification for practice or analysis
of practice (Lawson, 1991).

Idealism is primarily concerned with preserving
cultural traditions. For this reason it is considered a
conservative philosophy of education (Ozmon & Craver, 1986,
p. 21). The idealists regard the search for truth as
essential to their beliefs. The curriculum relies heavily
on books and does not attend to the affective or physical
part of individuals (p. 23). This school of thought was
heavily influenced by the work of Plato. Idealists stress
that it is important to teach students to think. Ideas can

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change lives. The most important part of one's being is one's mind. Plato and his followers believed "by examining his own ideas and testing their consistency, man can achieve truth" (Butler, 1957, p. 171).

Realists place enormous emphasis upon critical reason aided by observation and experimentation (Ozmon & Craver, 1990, p. 61). Teachers focus on the fundamental facts of the universe. "There are several varieties of realism including classical religious, scientific and others. Aristotle is the key figure in this school of thought. Although Aristotle was a student of Plato for 20 years and was greatly influenced by him, there is much in his philosophy that is a reaction to Plato (Butler, 1957, p. 291).

Pragmatists accept the methods of science for understanding the human person and solving problems (Elias & Merriam, 1995, pp. 47-48). Pragmatists have a theory of reality and are greatly devoted to the study of values (Butler, 1957, p. 445). Since Pragmatists believe in teaching people how to solve problems, they feel that real-life situations encourage problem-solving. In some respects the method of learning is as important to pragmatists as what is learned. If one knows how to go about problem-solving then one is equipped to handle more remote things with which school may not be able to deal with since the school does not know what kinds of life problems a person will face in the future (Ozmon & Craver, 1990, pp. 143-144). Existentialism is a theory of individual meaning. It asks

man to ponder his existence.

> Existentialism is a contemporary expression of humanic thought that has had great influence on a number of adult educators. This philosophical movement is deeply concerned with the freedom and integrity of the individual in the face of bureaucratization in society and its institutions as well as the gamut of human relations. Existentialists stress awareness, consciousness, perception and the total meaning-structure of the individual, his vision and death, his word choices and other aspects of his relating life" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 111).

Reconstructionism is a social and philosophical theory stressing the need for continuous critical examination of cultural and educational institutions and their reconstructions into forms that would allow the maximum possible realization of the great masses of people (Chambliss, 1996, p. 539). The two major premises of this philosophy are that society is in need of constant reconstruction or change, and that social change involves both reconstruction of education and the use of education in reconstructing society (Ozmon & Craver, 1990, p. 162). Educators become involved in affairs outside their classrooms and become social activists. This school of thought is very concerned with the broad social and cultural world in which we exist. One might consider reconstructionism as almost purely a social philosophy (p. 166).

Elias & Merriam (1995) believed that adult education has advanced to the point where a more systematic investigation of philosophies of Adult Education is both possible and necessary. In addition, all philosophies of

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adult education grapple with the important problems of the relationship between theory and practice. Elias explored this relationship and reduced the list of possible philosophies of adult education to Liberal Adult Education, Progressive Adult Education, Behaviorist Adult Education, Humanist Adult Education, Radical Adult Education, and Analytic Adult Education. Since the label of "Radical" can be confusing for the name of the Radical Adult Education group, the traditional title of "Reconstructionist" as used by Ozmon and Craver (1981) will be used in this study.

Liberal adult education is credited to the early Greek philosophers and supported by contemporary educators such Adler, Hutchins, and Van Doren. The emphasis is on learning, organized knowledge, and developing the "intellectual powers of the mind" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 9). Liberal educators focus on content mastery, and the educator is the expert.

The progressive school "may have had a greater impact on adult education movement than any other single school of thought" (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p. 45). Progressive adult educators include Lindeman, Dewey, and Bergevin (p. 52). Its focus is experience-centered education, community involvement, scientific inquiry, vocational education, utilitarian training, and democratic education (p. 5).

Behavior adult education is attributed to Thorndike, Watson, and Skinner. In this approach, the emphasis is on learning through behavioral techniques such as behavior

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modification, control, outcomes-based education, and
management by objectives (p. 10). Behavioral educators
believe that the environment shapes the learner, and they
have systematic approaches to instruction. The teacher is a
contingency manager, an environmental controller or
behavioral engineer" (p. 51), while the learner is an active
participant whose behavior "is emitted" (p. 51).
Accountability of he learner is central.

Humanistic adult education comes from psychological and
educational roots (p. 10). Maslow, Rogers, and Alport
contributed from the psychological side, and Rousseau,
Knowles, and Rough are examples of those contributing from
the educational side. Humanism emphasizes freedom,
autonomy, and self-directed learning. The Humanist educator
believes that human nature is inherently positive. In this
approach, the learner is central, and "the act of learning
is a highly personal endeavor"(p. 126). Humanistic adult
educators stress personal growth and self-direction.

Reconstructionist adult educators view education as a
tool for radical social change (pp. 10-11). It requires
political, social, and economic understanding of the
students served. Reconstructionist educators emphasize
social change and the removal of oppression through
education. "Radical thought is a good antidote to
complacency" (p. 171). Its main contributors include Kozol,
Holt, and Friere.

Finally, Analytic adult education seeks to clarify
concepts, arguments, and policy statements in education (p.

11). Analytic philosophers have attempted to build a "solid philosophical foundation through careful analysis and argumentation" (p. 175). This philosophy is critical of some of the careless language used in the writings of adult educators (p. 199). This school argues that a neutral approach to social issues should be taken, but it does not offer a clear methodology for the educator. Primary contributors include Scheffler, Peters, and Green.

Regardless of the particular school of thought that one supports, philosophy has a close relationship to education. It can provide a rationale for current practice, reflect earlier philosophical traditions, or stimulate new thought. Impetus for change in adult education has come from a variety of philosophical schools (Elias & Merriam, 1995).

<center>Teaching Style</center>

There are two approaches to looking at teaching style (Heimlich and Norland, 1994). One way is to look at behaviors. "The more closely one's values, beliefs and attitudes are aligned to behavior the more congruent the style and thus the better the teacher" (p. 9). Another way is looking at philosophy. "Philosophy is formulated by a thorough examination of values, beliefs and attitudes to the teaching-learning exchange". The addition of behavior completes the picture and represents teaching (p. 40).

Teaching style is not the same as teaching method. It could be best described as "the range of behaviors in which a teacher can operate comfortably according to a certain value system" (Conti, 1989, p. 4). "Our beliefs and values

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are directly related to our styles as teachers" (Apps, 1989, p. 17). Teachers who work in Title 1 schools could become more effective teachers by "simply knowing the beliefs and values that undergird their beliefs and actions" (p. 17). An examination of their beliefs could help these teachers develop a sensitivity to what they are doing and why they are doing it. Conclusively, "the things that teachers do in the classroom make a difference in how their students learn" (Conti, 1989, p.15).

"Educators can become the best they can be by understanding how their beliefs and behaviors relate to teaching and learning" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 3). Teachers improve by making specific choices after studying themselves. Developing a teaching style is a process that includes three major steps; (a) Exploration, (b) reflection and (c) application (pp. 3-4).

During the exploration stage information is gathered concerning one's beliefs about the role of a teacher in the educational process. Activities are designed to gather information that is interpreted. Through reflection the information that is gathered about both beliefs and behaviors is examined. "The aim of reflection is to offer opportunity to compare theory to practice, belief to behavior, understanding to doing" (p. 4) Reflection can provide the "bridge" from an educator's technical knowledge to professional competence (Schon, 1987). It is the reflection stage that helps educators become "congruent". "Congruence happens when a teacher's behavior matches their

beliefs" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 3) The final stage, application, proposes that any inconsistences have been settled and that either the belief or the behavior has been changed or matched.

"All teachers should recognize that a good style is essential to their rising above the veriest of mediocrities, that its acquisition is a whole lifetime process, and that though style may manifest itself in skills and techniques, the development of style involves much more than these" (Eble, 1980, p. 1). Developing a teaching style "is an ongoing and never-ending process of exploration, reflection, and application that includes much more than what we can merely observe during the teaching-learning exchange" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 177).

An instrument has been developed which measures teaching style. It is called the Principles of Adult Learning Scales (PALS). "The PALS was devised by Conti (1978, 1979, 1983, 1985) to measure the extent to which practitioners supported the collaborative mode of teaching-learning that is usually cited by writers in the field as exemplification of good practice" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 34). Since its inception, PALS has been used in more than 60 doctoral dissertations and research studies (McCoy, 2000, p. 16). PALS has been used to describe teaching style, compare student success and achievement, to compare teaching style with student learning styles, and to compare educational philosophies with teaching style (17-18).

Cultural Competence and Adult Education

"In a country such as the United States, which is composed of so many groups and which is constantly evolving, those providing humans services need to prepared to deal with a variety of cultures" (Tapp, 2002, p. 3.) Because the majority of the children who attend Title 1 schools are of diverse minority populations their teachers will need to develop their cultural awareness. Many minority children live in poverty and bring to the classroom their world views and behaviors that are often misunderstood by their teachers.

Cultural competence is a set of academic and interpersonal skills that allow people to increase their understanding and appreciation of cultural differences and similarities within, among, and between groups (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1994, chapt. 1). It is a needed skill by teachers, as human services providers, because willingness and ability to draw on community-based values, traditions and customs and to work with knowledgeable individuals of and from the community in developing targeted interventions, communications, and other supports is essential to providing quality human services.

Teacher education authorities such as Bennett (1995) and Gay (2000) espouse that to be effective, classroom teachers must be multicultural and possess the skills to provide a classroom environment that adequately addresses student needs, validates diverse cultures, and advocat4es equitable access to educational opportunity for all.

However, Banks (2001), and others have found that many
preservice teachers enter and exit stand-alone cultural
diversity courses unchanged, often reinforcing their
stereotypical perceptions of self and others in the process.

The Cultural Appreciation of Lifelong Learning was
designed "in and effort to have an instrument which would
rapidly , easily, and accurately assess cultural
appreciation groups in adults" (Tapp, 2002, p. 175). The
instrument was not designed to label an individual as
appreciative or bigoted but to assess where an individual
fell within a spectrum of cultural appreciation groups. The
CALL instrument has been used in a study that described and
assessed the appreciation perspectives of early childhood
faculty. "CALL is the only instrument found that was able
to assess cultural appreciation in a quick easy format"
(Nichols, 2004, p. 137).

The design of CALL was patterned by that used to
construct the Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS
(ATLAS). Both ATLAS and CALL use a "flow-chart design with
a limited number of questions. The accuracy of these
instruments rest in the validity of each, very precise
question which is based upon the results of powerful
multivariate statistics" (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 16).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

<u>Design</u>

This study was of a descriptive research design. A descriptive study gathers data to report the way things are (Gay & Airsian, 2000). This research method relates to "collecting data in order to answer questions about current status of the subject or topic of study" (p. 11). Descriptive research is "concerned with hypothesis formulation and testing, the analysis of the relationships between non-manipulated variables, and the development of generalizations" (Best, 1981, p.24).

There are different kinds of descriptive studies. "A high percentage of research studies rely on surveys for data and, as a result, are descriptive in nature" (Gay & Airasian, 2003, p. 277). The survey method is useful for investigating various educational problems (p. 277). Survey research is one of the widely used research type in educational studies. It "encompasses a wide variety of research studies: all the way from ex post facto studies that focus on relationships...to status surveys designed to

determine the status quo of some phenomenon" (Wiersma, 1995, p. 14).

This study used the Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI), the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), the Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS (ATLAS) and the Cultural Appreciation in Lifelong Learning (CALL). These four instruments were used to examine the educational philosophies, teaching styles, learning strategies, and cultural awareness of teachers who teach in Title 1 schools in Tulsa Public Schools. These instruments were originally developed for use in instrumented learning situations; consequently, their properties of validity and reliability reflect use in field-based situations rather than in clinical settings.

<u>Sample</u>

A population is a group that has a similar set of characteristics and the group to which the researcher would like the results of the study to be generalized (Gay, 1987, pp. 102-103). Populations can cover any geographic area an may be of any size (Gay, 1996, pp. 112-113).   The target population for this study was the teachers who teach children living in poverty and attend Tulsa Public Schools. There are 28 Title 1 schools in Tulsa with an average of 30 teachers per school. Thus, there were approximately 800 to

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850 teachers in the population.

"Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that they represent the larger group from which they are selected" (Gay & Airasian, 2000, p. 121). "A good sample is one that is representative of the population from which it was selected" (p. 123). For this study, a survey and a demographic questionnaire were sent to all of the Title 1 teachers in the Tulsa Public School System who had an e-mail address generated by the administration, and these teachers were asked to voluntarily participate in the study. In theory, this included all of the teachers assigned to the Title 1 program. In practice, this list also included some teachers who were no longer in the program or with the school district. All of those on the list were sent an e-mail requesting their participation in the study. Some of the e-mail messages were rejected by the server because they were not valid. Nevertheless, responses were received from 193 of the teachers. Consequently, the sample represented approximately one-fourth of the population.

<div align="center">PAEI</div>

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory(PAEI) was developed as a tool to help practitioners identify a personal philosophy of education and compare it with

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prevailing philosophies (Zinn, 2004, p. 52). The PAEI measures educational philosophical schools as described by Elias and Merriam (1995). This instrument includes five of the primary adult educational philosophies: Liberal, Progressive, Behaviorist, Humanist, and Reconstructionist. The test includes 15 incomplete sentences. Each item is succeeded by five possible options that could complete the sentence. Each option is a representation of one of the philosophies of adult education. The PAEI "is designed to help you, as and adult educator, to begin a process of philosophical inquiry and reflection on your beliefs and actions" (Zinn, 2004, p. 52).

Validity

Validity is one of the most important components of measurement. Validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure (Best, 1989, p. 169). What is important in validity if that we make sure that our test is measuring what we intend it to measure for the particular people in a particular context and that the interpretation we make on the bases of the test scores are correct (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 140). Three kinds of validity are construct, content, and criterion (Leedy, 1997).

"Construct validity refers to the extent to which a

higher-order construct such as help seeking, teacher stress, or dyslexia is accurately represented in the particular study the construct is actually measured" (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 247). Constructs are non-observable traits that are inferred by observable phenomena such as test scores, skin responses, pulse rates, or aggressive acts (pp. 6-8). Construct validity involves both logical and empirical analysis. Construct validity is the degree to which the construct is actually measured.

Factor analysis is a statistical procedure that analyzes the relationship among items to determine whether a test is unidimensional (i.e., all of the items measure a single construct) or multidimensional (i.e., different sets of items tap different constructs or different components of a broader construct)" (p. 144). A factor analysis procedure was used to statistically test the construct validity of the PAEI (Zinn, 1983, p. 148). The common factor variance of (>. 50) indicates that items on the test are both valid and reliable measures for the inventory. These data prove that the PAEI is a valid way to identify a personal educational philosophy (p. 150).

"Content validity refers to the degree to which the test actually measures, or is specifically related to, the traits for which it was designed" (Best, 1989, p. 171).

"Content validity required both item validity and sampling validity" (Gay, 1992, p. 136). Item validity is concerned with whether the test items measure the intended content area. Sampling validity is concerned with how well the test samples the content validity. Content validity of the PAEI was demonstrated by the jury of experts who were considered knowledgeable in adult education philosophy (Zinn, 1983, pp. 145-146). An analysis of their responses was completed. It statistically reflected high content validity for the PAEI through separate item analysis (p. 146).

Criterion-related validity is expressed as the coefficient of correlation between test scores and some measure of future performance or between test cores and scores on another test or measure of known validity (Best, 1989, p. 172). There are two types of criterion-related validity: a)Predictive validity which refers to the usefulness of a test in predicting some future performance and b) concurrent validity which refers to the usefulness of a test in closely relating to other measures (pp. 171-172). In criterion-related validity it is important to have a reliable criterion. Criterion validity was not referred to regarding the PAEI.

Reliability

Reliability reflects both consistency and accuracy. It

refers to the consistency with which a measuring instrument performs (Leedy, 1997, p. 34). "Reliability is the degree to which an instrument will give similar results for the same individuals at different times" (Wiersma, 1995, p. 309). As reliability increases, confidence in the use of the scores obtained from the instrument increase. Reliability is particularly important to educational research (Best, 1981; Leedy, 1997; Weirsma, 1995).

The PAEI is a reliable instrument (Zinn, 1983, p. 151). Reliability was established through the use of test-retest procedures. The process used 194 respondents in various areas of adult education, including administrators, teachers, consultants, program coordinators, and graduate student.

Participants take the PAEI online following directions that lead the participant to discover their educational philosophy and be able to identify the characteristics of the educational philosophy selected by the participant.

PALS

The Principals of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was developed to measure the extent to which practitioners support a learner-centered approach to teaching or a teacher-centered approach (Conti,1978, 1979, 1983, 1985). The mode is determined by the quantity of the score. A high

score indicates a learner-centered style, and a low score indicates a teacher-centered style. A middle score is indicative of an eclectic approach to teaching.

PALS can quickly assess an educator's teaching style. The scale can be completed in approximately 10-15 minutes. This instrument contains 44 items and measures the frequency with which one practices teaching-learning principles that are described in the adult education literature (Conti, 1998, pp. 76-77).

PALS is a valid and reliable instrument (Conti, 1982, p. 145). Two juries of adult educators established the construct validity of the items (Conti, 1992, p. 139).

Content validity for PALS was established by using Pearson correlations. "For PALS content validity was determined by Pearson correlations which measured the relationship between individual items from the instrument and the total score from each participant" (Conti, 1982, p. 140).

The results of the criterion-related validity confirmed that PALS consistently measures initiating and responsive constructs and that PALS is capable of consistently differentiating among those who have divergent reviews (Conti, 1982, p. 142).

Reliability for PALS was established using the test-

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retest method. PALS was established as a standard for measuring the degree of an adult educator's support for the collaborative mode. This measure of stability of an examinee's performance on the instrument was conducted with the final form of the instrument with a group of 23 basic education practitioners. The Pearson correlation for the 23 practitioners in the sample group yielded a reliability coefficient of .92 (Conti, 1982, p.142).

Participants took the PALS online and self-score instrument allowing them to identify characteristics of their individual teaching style they identified.

<div align="center">ATLAS</div>

ATLAS is a relatively new instrument that is designed to quickly identify learning strategy profiles of adults (Conti & Kolody, 1998a, p. 109). This instrument is usually printed in color-coded paper and bound in a pamphlet format. Atlas has a flow-chart design. Sentence stems lead to options in other boxes which complete the stem. Connecting arrows direct the respondent to the options.

ATLAS is a valid instrument for measuring the learning strategies of adults in real-life learning situations (Conti & Kolody, 1998). The ATLAS instrument was based on the research findings of the Self-Knowledge Inventory of Lifelong Learning Strategies (SKILLS) and carries with it

the validity of the SKILLS instrument (Conti & Fellenz, 1991).

Construct validity for ATLAS was established by reviewing the literature of studies actually using SKILLS in field-based research and by consolidating the similar data from many of these studies (Conti & Kolody, 1999a, p. 18).

"Content validity was established by using discriminant analysis to determine the exact pattern of learning strategies used by each group when it was compared to the other groups" (p. 19). "Criterion-related validity for ATLAS was established by comparing ATLAS scores to actual group placement using SKILLS (p. 19).

<p style="text-align:center">CALL</p>

The Cultural Appreciation of Lifelong learners (CALL)is designed to assess an individual's perspective of cultural appreciation (Tapp, 2002). CALL uses a flow-chart pattern. The instrument identifies four groups. Two groups (Chris and Alex)are defined as having a world view perspective, and two groups (Lee and Lynn are defined as having an individualistic perspective. The first choice in the chart divides the group into an individual or group approach to diversity. Those who make the group choice will have a second choice between the impact of oppression or acceptance that middle class values can make some difference(Chris or

Alex). In the other group the choices are divided by those who have limited knowledge of cultures and those who are opposed to cultural differences (Lee or Lynn).

Construct validity for CALL was established in correlation to the Multi-cultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale and the Quick Discrimination Index. These instruments have their validity reported in published documents. "Since the items from the two instruments have established construct validity and since the instruments are useful with the Department of Human Services group, the pool of items for CALL have construct validity" (Tapp. 2002, p. 132).

Content validity was established using discriminant analysis. "In this study, discriminant analysis was used to investigate what separates the four groups that emerged from the cluster analysis" (p. 136). Each item in CALL was written based upon the results of a discriminate analysis.

Criterion-related validity for CALL was established by having vocational rehabilitation workers complete CALL and comparing their responses on items used to form CALL. Based on the finding that vocational rehabilitation scores were found to be consistent with the standard provided by the Department of Human Services scores, CALL was judged to have criterion-related validity.

CALL is a reliable instrument for measuring cultural appreciation (Tapp, 2002, p. 169). For a finding of reliability, a correlation of at least .7 must be obtained for acceptability. The correlation coefficient for those taking CALL was .86. Thus, CALL was judged to be a reliable instrument to measure cultural appreciation.

<u>Procedures</u>

Teachers who work in Title 1 program in Tulsa Public Schools participated in this study. The PAEI, PALS, ATLAS, and CALL were administered and a demographic survey was imbedded in an online questionnaire. An announcement explained and was sent to all participants that work in the Title 1 program in Tulsa Public Schools. The instruments were placed on a web-site accessible to the participants on their classroom computers. The data was gathered electronically. After the participants completed the instruments and demographic questionnaire, the information was stored and analyzed.

The data for this descriptive study was gathered from the Title 1 teachers in Tulsa, Oklahoma, using the LISTSERV for Tulsa Public Schools. A request to participate in this study was e-mailed to the Listserv members which totaled over 1,000 Title 1 teachers. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), the Philosophy of Adult Education

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Inventory (PAEI), the Assessing of The Learning Strategies
of AdultS (ATLAS), and the Cultural Appreciation in Lifelong
Learning (CALL) were used to obtain the data. Demographic
data were collected related to experience level, race, age,
and certification. The data which were collected with the
PALS, PAEI, ATLAS, CALL and demographics were organized to
facilitate statistical analysis. The statistical analysis
included frequency distributions, chi-square analysis, one-
way analysis of variance, cluster analysis, and discriminant
analysis.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

<u>Demographic Profile of Participants</u>

Before exploring the specific research questions that
related to the data collected with the instruments, the
general research question concerning the profile of the
participants was addressed. Responses were derived from 193
Tulsa Title 1 teachers (see Table 1). The group was
overwhelmingly female. Of the 193 teachers, nine-tenths were
females, and one-tenth were males. This profile of
respondents closely represents the number reported by the
Tulsa Public schools Title 1 office and the Oklahoma State
Title 1 Office. The TPS Title 1 Office reports that female
Title 1 teachers account for 92% of their membership while
males account for 8% of the Tulsa Title 1 teachers.

Table 1: Distribution of Demographic Variables

Variable	Number	Percent
Gender		
Female	174	90.63
Male	18	9.38
Age		
23-34	47	25.13
35-44	51	27.27
45-51	45	24.07
52-64	44	23.53
Race		
African American	20	10.36
Asian	1	0.52
Hispanic	3	1.55
Native American	19	9.84
White	146	75.65
Other	4	2.07
Degree		
BA	118	61.46
MA	73	38.02
Doctorate	1	0.52
Certification		
Elementary	138	73.40
Secondary	50	26.60
Teaching Level		
Elementary	136	71.58
Secondary	54	28.42
Teaching Experience		
1-5	50	26.46
6-10	49	25.92
11-15	38	20.11
16-38	52	27.51

Several pieces of demographic data were obtained from the survey that helped to describe the Title 1 teachers who participated in this study. Study group members were predominantly females who represented nine-tenths (90.63) of the group. Over three-fourths (75.63) of the educators were white.

The teachers varied greatly in age ranging from those who were just beginning their career to those who were retirement age. The age range was from 23 years to 64 years. The participants averaged 47.25 years total teaching experience. The members were grouped into quartiles to see how they spread in age among the group. Over half (61.46) of the educators held a bachelor's degree while one-fourth (38.02) held a master's degree. The majority of the total members were elementary certified.

TPS Title 1 teachers work in schools with students who are mostly minority and live in poverty. At least 80% of the children are on free or reduced lunches. The majority of these students are academically low-performers who lack the experiences needed to succeed in school. Even though approximately three-fourths of the Title 1 teachers are white, and most of the Title 1 students are minority, only 10% of the Title 1 teachers are African Americans and 10% Native American. This compares to the state average of 12%

minority and 88% white. Although three-fourths of the Title 1 teachers are white this number is less than the state average.

TPS Title 1 educators usually attend more than the average amount of professional development training yearly to help them to find ways to improve student achievement.

<u>Teaching Style Profile</u>

The total score for PALS "indicates the overall teaching style and the strength of the teacher's support for this style" (Conti, 2004, p. 79). The 44-items in PALS can range from 0 to 220. The mean for PALS is 146 with a standard deviation of 20 (p. 79). For the 193 participants who completed PALS, the mean score was 130.16 with a standard deviation of 15.08; the median score was 128. Their scores ranged from 86 to 181. The group's mean was .79 standard deviations below the mean for PALS. The scores were distributed over a wide range with many scores having only one respondent and a few scores having a maximum of nine respondents (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Distribution of PALS Scores for Title 1 Teachers
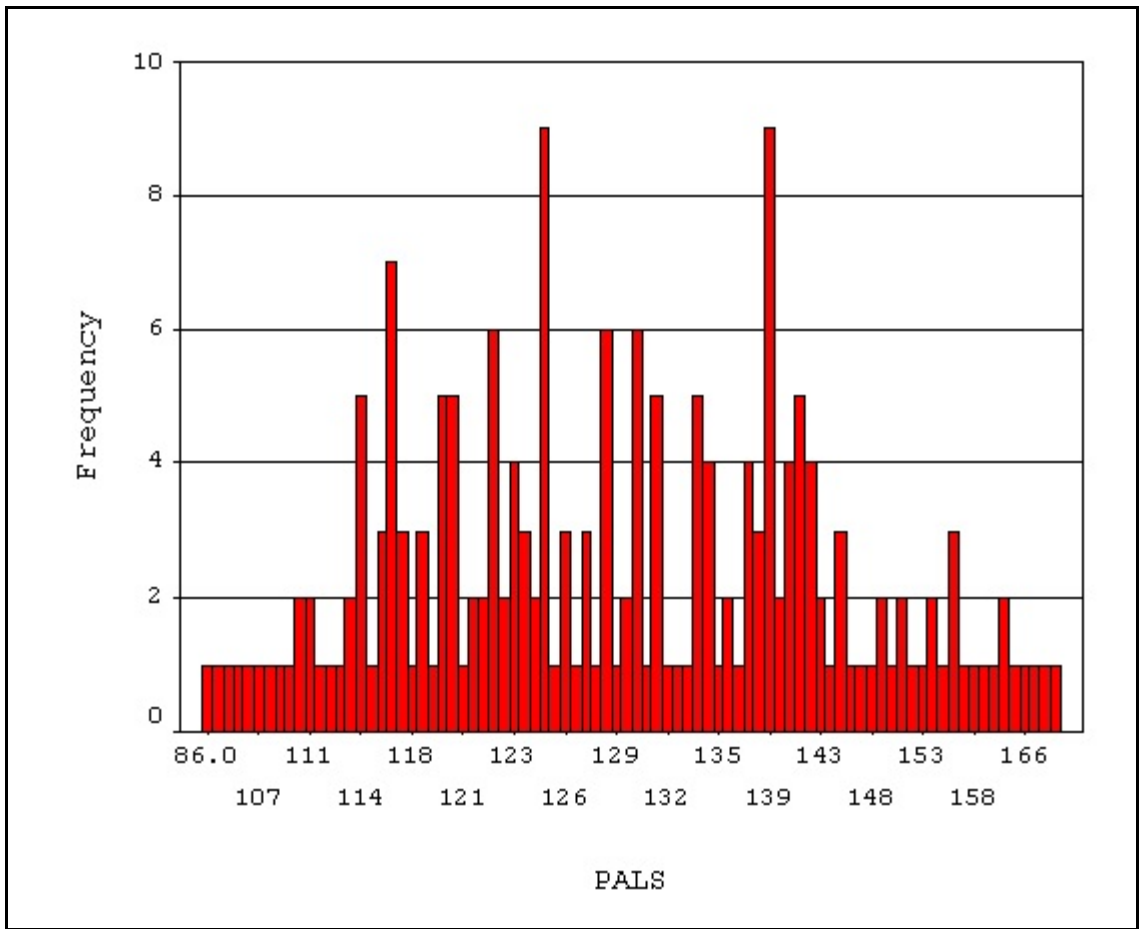
The overall total score for PALS can be divided into seven factors that identify the specific classroom behaviors that make up the teacher's style (Conti, 2004, p. 80). The factors are made up of similar items, and the names of the factors reflect support of the collaborative mode with high scores representing the learner-centered approach and low scores representing the teacher-centered approach (p. 80). Factor 1 is Learner-Centered Activities. "These items relate to evaluation by formal tests and to a comparison of students to outside standards" (p. 80). The 12 items in Factor 1 can range from 0 to 60. The mean for Factor 1 is 38 with a standard deviation of 8.3 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 30.11 with a standard deviation of 5.8; the median score was 29. Their scores ranged from 14 to 52. The group's mean was 7.89 below the norm which was .95 standard deviations below the mean for the factor (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Distribution of Factor 1: Learner-Centered
Activities Scores for Title 1 Teachers
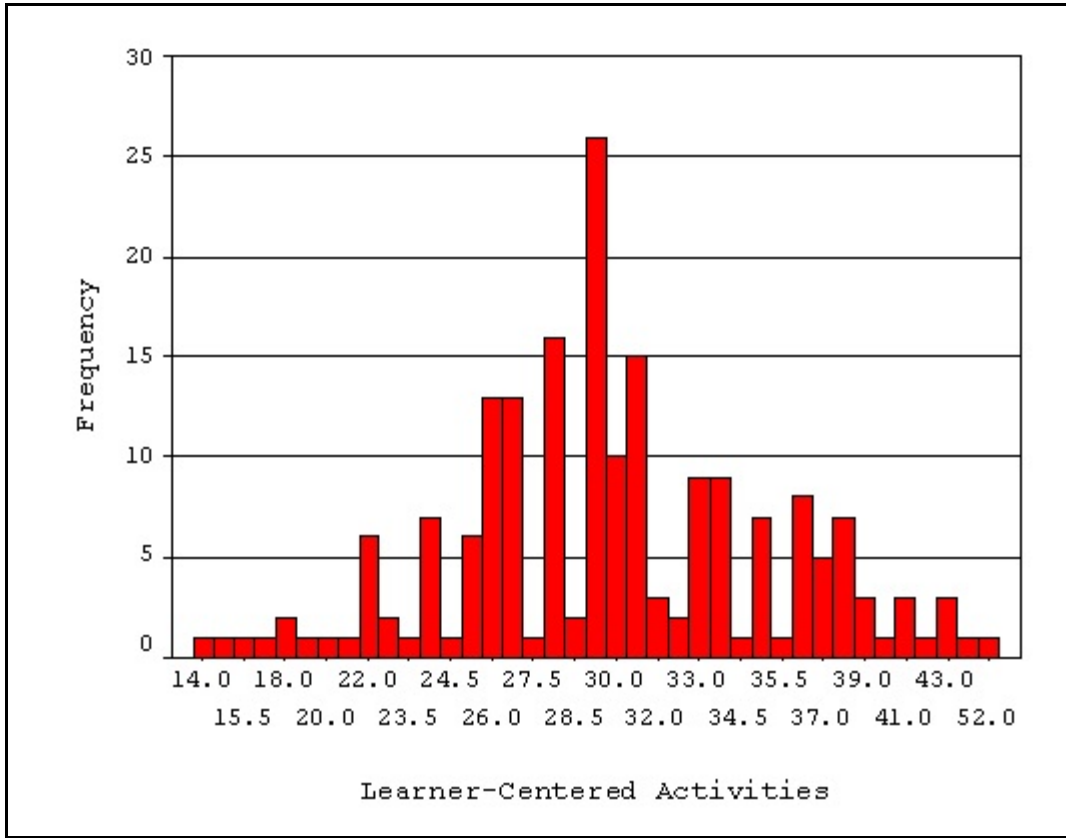
Factor 2 is Personalizing Instruction. This factor deals with "a variety of things that personalize learning to meet the unique needs of each student" (Conti, 2004, p. 80). The six items in Factor 2 can range from 0 to 30. The mean for Factor 2 is 31 with a standard deviation of 6.8 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 27.67 with a standard deviation of 4.45; the median score was 28. Their scores ranged from 14 to 41. The group's mean was 3.33 below the norm which was .49 standard deviations below the mean for the factor.

Figure 3: Distribution of Factor 2: Personalizing
Instruction Scores for Title 1 Teachers
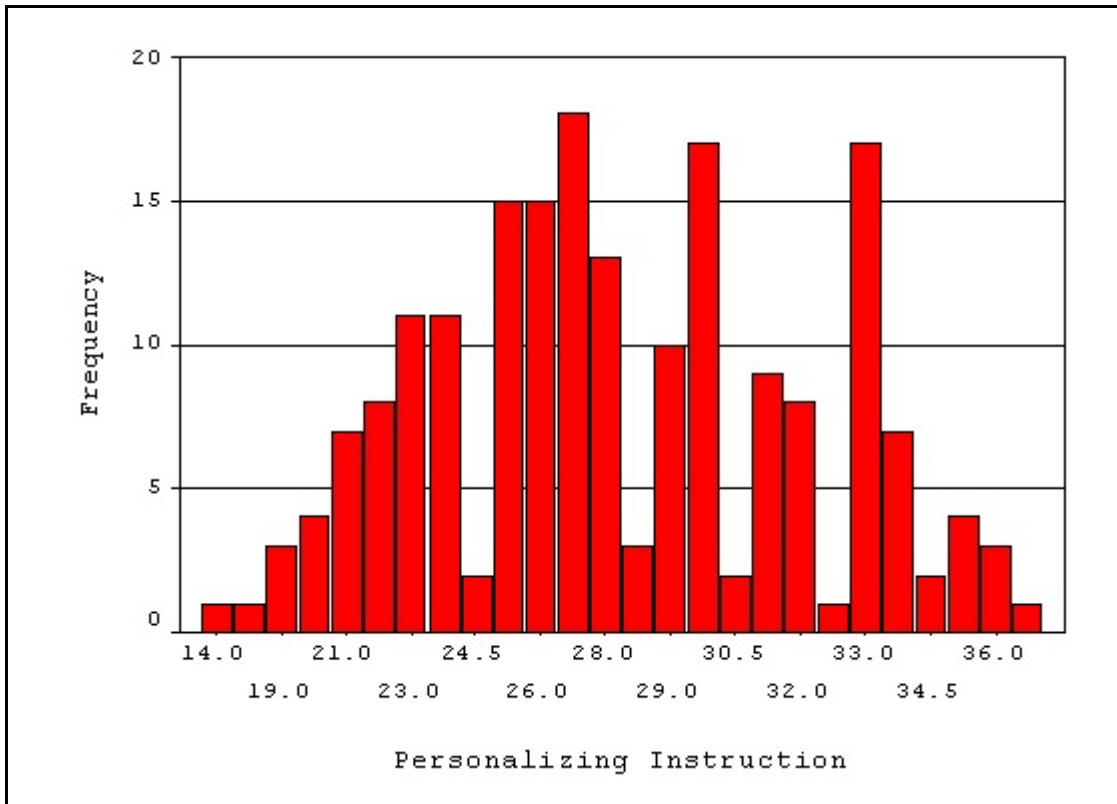
Factor 3 is Relating to Experience. This factor deals with planning learning activities that take into account the student's prior experiences and encourage students to relate their new learning experiences (Conti, 2004, p. 81). The six items in Factor 3 can range from 0 to 30. The mean for Factor 3 is 21 with a standard deviation of 4.9 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 21.03 with a standard deviation of 3.70; the median score was 21. Their scores ranged from 14 to 41. Thus, the group's mean was nearly the same as the mean for the factor (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Distribution of Factor 3: Relating to Experience
          Scores for Title 1 Teachers
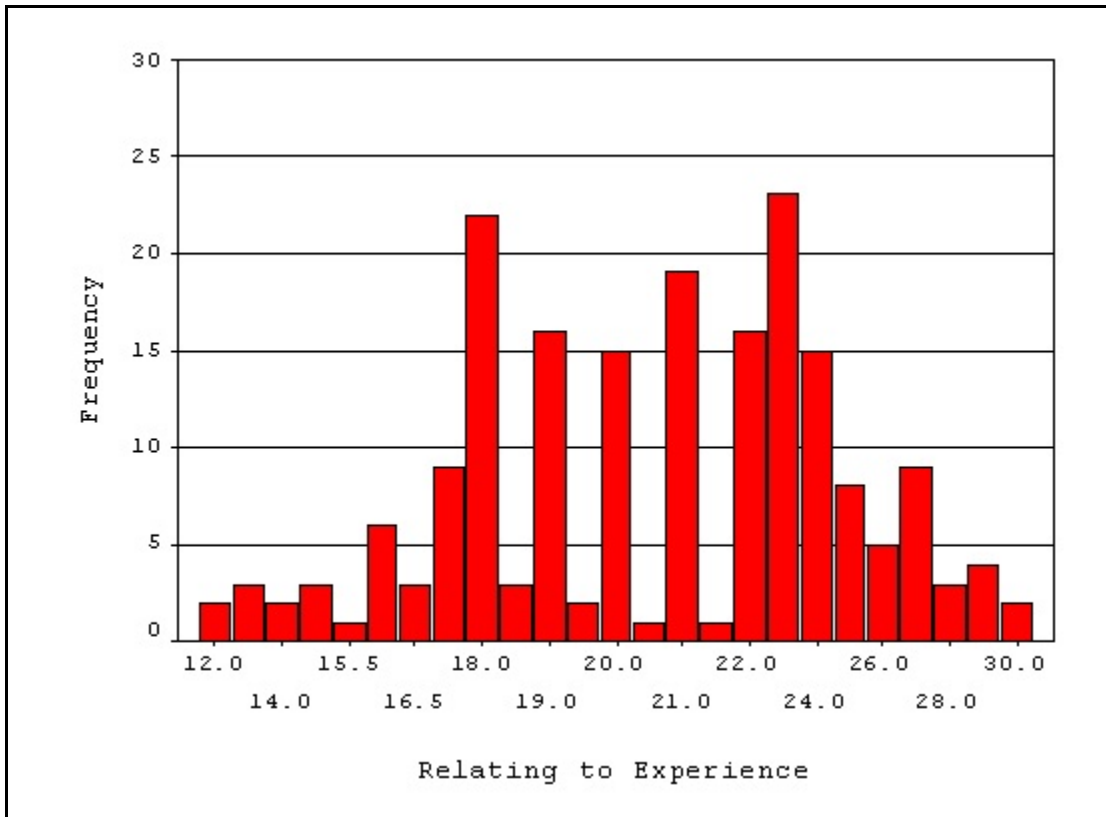
Factor 4 is related to Assessing Student Needs. This factor deals with "treating a student as an adult by finding out what each student wants and needs to know" (Conti, 2004, p. 81). The four items in Factor 4 can range from 0 to 20. The mean for Factor 4 is 14 with a standard deviation of 3.6 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 13.8 with a standard deviation of 3.06; the median score was 14. Their scores ranged from 5 to 20. Thus, the group's mean was nearly the same as the mean for the factor (see Figure 5).

Figure 5: Distribution of Factor 4: Assessing Student Needs
Scores for Title 1 Teachers
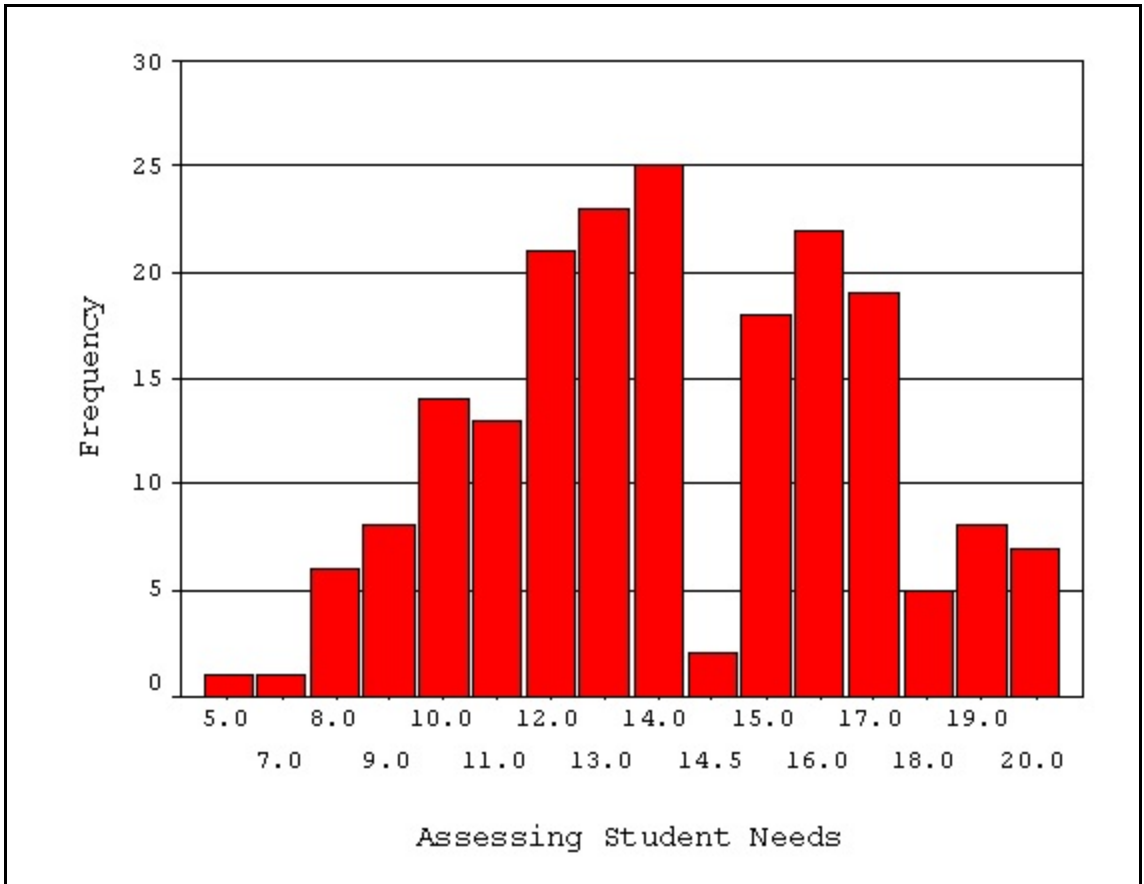
Factor 5 is related to Climate Building. This factor deals "with setting a friendly and informal climate as an initial step in the learning process"(Conti, 2004, p. 81). Students are encouraged to dialogue and interact with each other (p. 81). The four items in Factor 5 can range from 0 to 20. The mean for Factor 5 is 16 with a standard deviation of 3.0 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 14.9 with a standard deviation of 2.38; the median score was 15. Their scores ranged from 5 to 20. The group's mean was 1.1 below the norm which was .37 standard deviations below the mean for the factor.

Figure 6: Distribution of Factor 5: Climate Building Scores
            for Title 1 Teachers
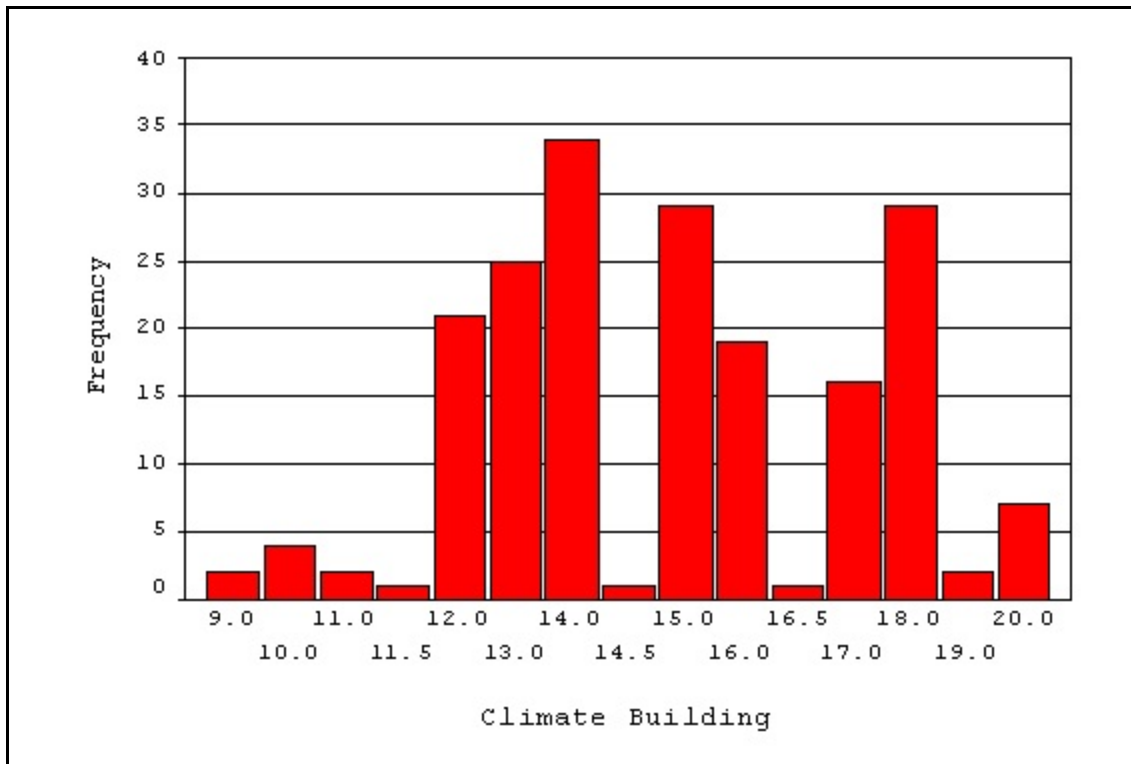
Factor 6 is related to Participation in the Learning Process (Conti, 2004, p. 81). This factor "specifically addresses the amount of involvement of the student in determining the nature and evaluation of the content material" (p. 81). The four items in Factor 6 can range from 0 to 20. The mean for Factor 6 is 13 with a standard deviation of 3.5 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 12 with a standard deviation of 2.39; the median score was 12. Their scores ranged from 5 to 20. The group's mean was 1 below the norm which was .29 standard deviations below the mean for the factor (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: Distribution of Factor 6: Participation in the
Learning Process Scores for Title 1 Teachers
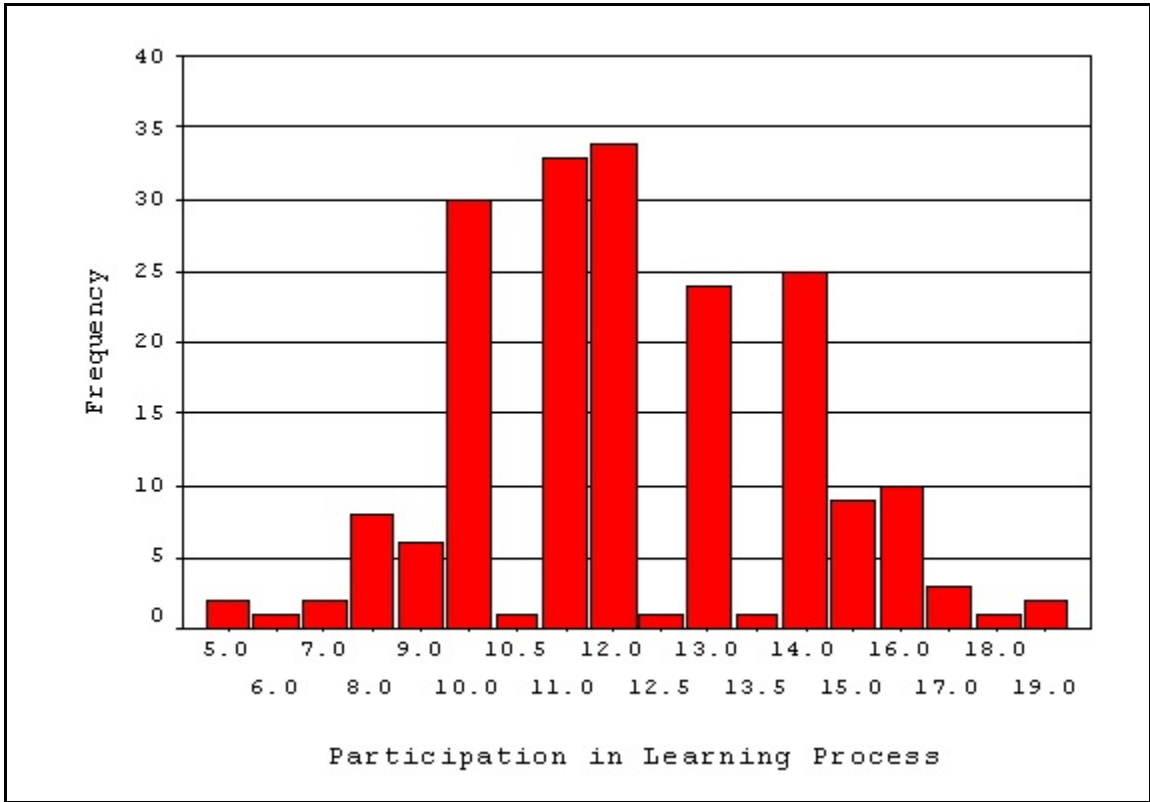
Factor 7 is related to Flexibility for Personal Development (Conti, 2004, p. 82). This factor deals with whether teachers view their role as a provider of knowledge or as a facilitator. The five items in Factor 7 can range from 0 to 25. The mean for Factor 7 is 13 with a standard deviation of 3.9 (p. 91). The mean score for the participants was 10.52 with a standard deviation of 2.86; the median score was 11. Their scores ranged from 5 to 19. The group's mean was 2.48 below the norm which was .64 standard deviations below the mean for the factor (see Figure 8).

Figure 8: Distribution of Factor 7: Flexibility for Personal
Development Scores for Title 1 Teachers
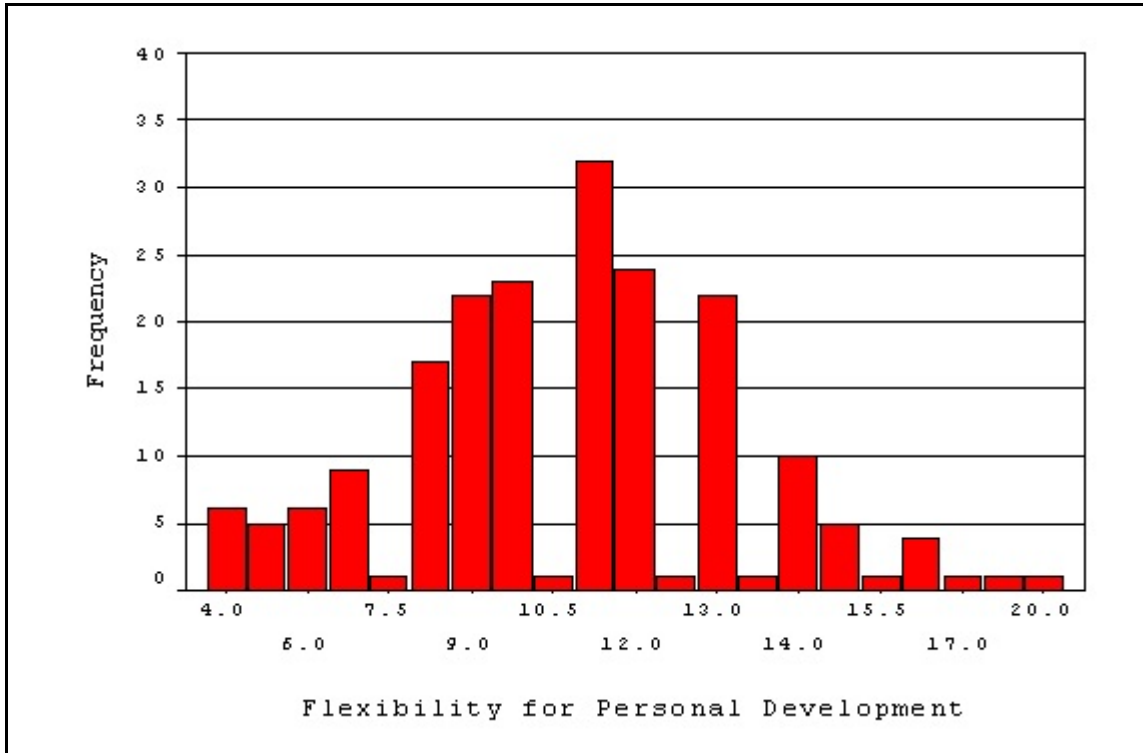
<u>Educational Philosophies Profile</u>

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) is an instrument that classifies respondents into five philosophical schools of thought related to adult education. Those five philosophical orientations are Liberal, Progressive, Behaviorist, Humanistic, and Reconstructionist. The PAEI was used to examine the adult education philosophies of Title 1 teachers.

In order to score the PAEI, a score is calculated for each of the five philosophical classifications. The respondent's highest score of the five indicates the philosophy nearest to the respondent's beliefs, and their lowest score indicates which philosophical orientation the respondent least prefers. A score of 95 to 105 is indicative of a strong preference for a philosophy; a score of 15 to 25 indicates a strong disagreement with a given philosophy; a score of 55 to 65 indicates neither strong agreement nor disagreement with a particular philosophy (Zinn, 2004, p. 74).

The Title 1 teachers were not equally distributed among all five of the five educational philosophies (see Figure 9). Almost half (42.0%) of the teachers were in the Progressive school. Somewhat less than one-third (29.5%) of the participants were in the Behaviorist school. The

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Humanistic school was the third largest group with a
membership of over one-tenth (11.9%) of the teachers. The
remaining schools had a small membership with the Liberal
having a number of 6 (3.2%) participants; the
Reconstructionists had 4 (2.2%) participants; and the Mixed
had 15 members (7.8%).

Figure 9: Distribution of PAEI Scores for Title 1 Teachers
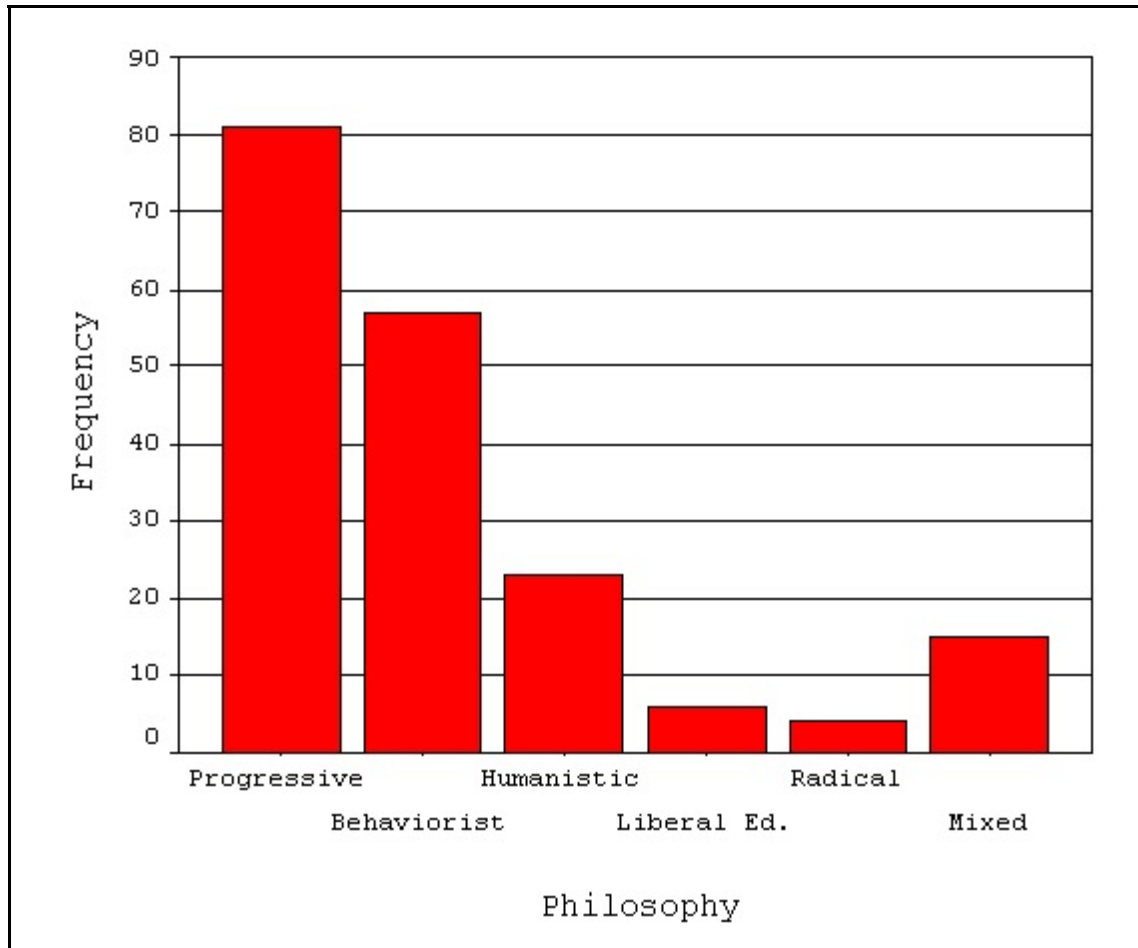
<u>Learning Strategies Profile</u>

The learning strategies of Title 1 Teachers of Tulsa Public Schools were measured by using Assessing the Learning Strategies of AdultS. The instrument puts participants in three categories of Navigator, Problem Solver, and Engager. The results of ATLAS indicated that of the 177 respondents who completed ATLAS, 36 (20.34%) were Navigators, 95 (53.67%) were Problem Solvers, and 46 (25.99%) were Engagers. The expected norms for the general population for ATLAS are Navigators-36.5%, Problem Solvers-31.7%, and Engagers--31.8% (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 18).

The responses of the participants were analyzed using chi-square. This was done in order to determine if meaningful differences existed in the categorical placement of ATLAS. "A chi-square test compares proportions actually observed in a study with proportions expected, to see if they are significantly different, to compare group frequencies, that is, to see if an event occurs more frequently in one group than another" (Gay, 2003, p. 443). Using a criterion level of .05, the chi square results indicated a significant difference between the observed and expected learning strategies of the participant (χ^2 = 41.5, <u>df</u> = 2, <u>p</u> < .0001). As a group, (a) Navigators were under-represented with 20.34% of the total, (b) Problem Solvers

were almost over-represented with 53.67% of the total, and (c) Engagers were somewhat under-represented by representing 25.99% of the 177 respondents (see Table 2).

Table 2: Distribution of Expected and Observed ATLAS Groupings

Group	Observed		Expected		Difference	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Navigator	36	20.34	64.61	36.50	-28.61	-44.28
Prob Solver	95	53.67	56.11	31.70	38.89	+69.31
Engager	46	25.99	56.29	31.80	-10.29	-18.28
Total	177					

<u>Cultural Appreciation Profile</u>

The Cultural Appreciation of Lifelong Learners (CALL) is devised to assess an individual's perspective of cultural appreciation. Two groups (Chris and Alex) are defined as having a world-view perspective, and the other two groups (Lee and Lynn) are defined as having an individualistic perspective. CALL was completed by 169 Title 1 teachers. There were 24 teachers who did not complete CALL.

The Chris group is one of the world-view groups that is described as enthusiastically accepting of culturally diverse groups and believe that racial discrimination is deeply rooted within American society. The Alex group also appreciates cultural diversity and understands the role society has played in repressing minorities; however, they

also believe that diverse cultural groups may benefit from some traditional mainstream values (Tapp, 2002).

The Lee group is one of the individualistic perspective groups that believes all individuals are responsible for their life situation and are unaware of any barriers which restrict minority groups. Their knowledge of culturally diverse groups is limited, but they acknowledge that minority groups face more challenges than whites. The Lynn group advocates individualism and believe that each individual controls their own situation. They feel that racism and oppression are not inherent in society and that issues of diversity are receiving too much attention (Tapp, 2002).

Nearly two-thirds (62.8%) of the teachers support an individualist perspective (see Figure 10). There were 32.6% of the Title 1 teachers that scored from the world-view perspective. Of the 63 teachers who scored in this perspective, 13.6% were in the Chris, and 23.7% were in the Alex group. In the individualistic perspective, the majority of the teachers scored in the Lee group representing 37.9%. There were 24.9% of the Title 1 teachers that scored in the Lynn group.

Figure 10: Distribution of CALL Scores for Title 1 Teachers
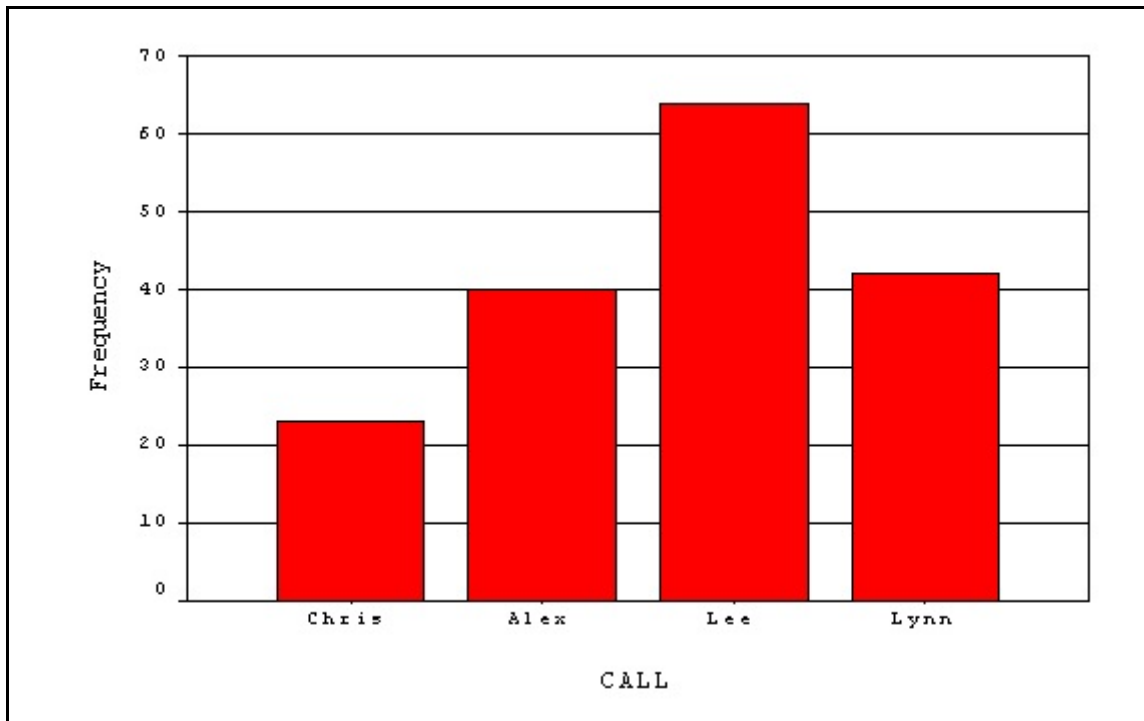
<u>Relationships with Demographic Variables</u>

The fifth research question addressed the relationships of the instruments to the demographic variables. Two different types of instruments were used. PALS has a continuous data while the other instruments, PAEI, ATLAS, and CALL have categorical data. An analysis of variance was used for the instrument that had a continuous measurement, and chi-square was used for the instruments that had a categorical measurement.

<u>Chi-Square</u>

A single sample chi-square was utilized to determine if there was a significant difference from the expected norms and the observed norms in the participants between PAEI, ATLAS and CALL. A single sample "chi-square test compares proportions actually observed in a study with proportions expected, to see if they are significantly different" (Gay, 1992, p. 443). "A chi-square test may also be used for two or more independent samples. A researcher might be interested in determining whether or not the observations are significantly different from what might be expected by chance" (Huck et al., 1974, pp. 218-219). This type of independent chi-square is frequently referred to as being based on a contingency table and can be used for a large number of rows and columns (p. 219). Separate sets of

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contingency tables were run for each of the instruments of
ATLAS, PAEI, and CALL and the demographic variables. The
various demographic variables used were gender, age, race,
degree, teaching level, and experience.

Learning Strategies

A single sample chi-square analysis was used to
investigate the relationships between the demographic
variables and ATLAS. Using the .05 criterion level, no
differences were found between the observed (see Table 3)
and expected distributions for gender (χ^2 = .847, df = 2, p
= .655), race (χ^2 = .365, df = 2, p = .833), age (χ^2 =
5.507, df = 6, p = .481), teaching level (χ^2 = 2.350= 2, p =
.309), and years of experience (χ^2 = 5.613, df = 6, p =
.468). However, there was a significant difference in the
distribution for degree level (χ^2 = 5.956, df = 2, p =
.051). The majority (65%) of the participants who held
graduate degrees were Problem Solvers while the Navigators
made up only 14.9% of the total number of teachers with
graduate degrees and the Engagers made up only 19.4%.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables by ATLAS Groups

Variable	Navigator	Prob. Sol.	Engager	Total
Gender				
Male	3	8	6	17
Female	33	87	40	160
Race				
White	29	72	36	137
Non-White	7	23	10	40
Age				
23-29	9	12	5	26
30-39	7	22	6	35
40-49	11	32	18	61
50-64	9	26	14	49
Degree				
Bachelors	25	51	33	109
Graduate	10	44	13	67
Teaching Level				
Elementary	28	69	30	127
Secondary	7	24	16	47
Experience				
1-5	13	23	9	45
6-10	7	25	14	46
11-15	9	17	10	36
16-38	6	28	12	46

Educational Philosophy

 The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) was used
to examine the adult educational philosophies of the Title 1
Teachers of Tulsa Public Schools. The PAEI instrument
classified the respondents into five philosophical schools
of thought. Those five philosophical orientations are
Liberal, Progressive, Behaviorist, Humanist, and
Reconstructionists. The teachers who had mixed scores with

ties for two or more highest areas were not included. Chi

square was used to investigate the relationships between the

demographic variables with the PAEI. Using the .05

criterion level, no differences were found between the

observed (see Table 4) and expected distributions for gender

(χ^2 = 7.243, df = 4, p = .124), age (χ^2 = 13.220, df = 12, p

= .353), degree level (χ^2 = 7.623, df = 4, p = .106),

teaching level (χ^2 = 5.551, df = 4, p = .235), and years of

experience (χ^2 = 10.452, df = 12, p = .576). Although there

was a significant difference in the distribution for race

(χ^2 = 11.868, df = 4, p = .018), this difference was not

meaningful because it was the result of only having four

participants in the Reconstructionist group. Three were

white, and one was not. When the Reconstructionist group

was removed from the analysis, the results were not

statistically significant.

Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables by
          PAEI Groups

Variable	Lib.	Beh.	Prog.	Con.	Recon.	Total
Gender						
Male	2	5	8	0	0	15
Female	4	52	73	23	4	156
Race						
White	3	45	64	21	1	134
Non-White	3	12	17	2	3	37
Age						
23-29	2	7	10	4	1	24
30-39	0	11	14	8	1	34
40-49	2	25	25	5	2	59
50-64	2	12	29	6	0	49
Degree						
Bachelors	5	35	43	17	4	104
Graduate	1	21	38	6	0	66
Teaching Level						
Elementary	4	41	51	19	4	119
Secondary	2	14	29	4	0	49
Experience						
1-5	3	9	23	8	1	44
6-10	1	16	20	5	1	43
11-15	0	14	15	4	2	35
16-38	1	17	22	6	0	46

Cultural Appreciation

     The Cultural Appreciation of Lifelong Learners (CALL)
was used to measure the cultural appreciation of the Title 1
Teachers. Chi square was used to determine the relationship
between the demographic variables and CALL. Using the .05
criterion level, no differences were found between the
observed (see Table 5) and expected distributions for gender
(χ^2 = 2.723, $\underline{df}$ = 3, $\underline{p}$ = .436), age (χ^2 = 4.829, $\underline{df}$ = 9, $\underline{p}$ =

.849), degree level (χ^2 = 2.653, <u>df</u> = 3, <u>p</u> = .440), teaching

level (χ^2 = 5.796, <u>df</u> = 3, <u>p</u> = .122), and years of

experience (χ^2 = 8.506, <u>df</u> = 9, <u>p</u> = .484). However, there

was a significant difference in the distribution for race

(χ^2 = 9.620, <u>df</u> = 3, <u>p</u> = .022). For this analysis, the

participants were grouped into two groups: Whites and Non-

Whites. This difference was due to Whites being over-

represented in the Lynn group while Non-Whites were over-

represented in the Chris group.

Table 5:   Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables by
           CALL Groups

Variable	Chris	Alex	Lee	Lynn	Total
Gender					
Male	4	3	4	4	15
Female	19	37	60	38	154
Race					
White	12	31	50	36	129
Non-White	11	9	14	6	40
Age					
23-29	2	7	9	7	25
30-39	4	9	12	8	33
40-49	11	9	23	15	58
50-64	5	13	19	11	48
Degree					
Bachelors	14	20	41	27	102
Graduate	9	20	22	15	66
Teaching Level					
Elementary	12	33	43	30	118
Secondary	10	7	20	11	48
Experience					
1-5	8	12	17	8	45
6-10	7	8	18	8	41

| 11-15 | 3 | 7 | 10 | 14 | 34 |
| 16-38 | 5 | 12 | 17 | 11 | 45 |

Analysis of Variance

     An analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure that has the general purpose of comparing groups in terms of mean scores. ANOVA is "used to determine whether there is a significant difference between two or more means at a selected probability level" (Gay, 1987, p. 392). An ANOVA is "used to compare two or more groups to see whether differences between group means are large enough to assume that the corresponding population means are different (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974, p. 49). Although an ANOVA has only one dependent variable, there can be more than one independent variable involved in the analysis (Huck, 2000, p. 326). When only one independent variable is used, the analysis is referred to as a one-way ANOVA (p. 326). When significant differences are found, post hoc comparisons are used to find out where the significant differences are; "the post hoc analysis helps researchers in their efforts to understand the true pattern of the population means" (p. 356). For the analysis of the relationship of teaching style to demographic variables, PALS scores were used as the dependent variable and the participants were grouped on the demographic variables of gender, race, age, degree held, and years of teaching experience. A separate one-way ANOVA was

conducted for each of the independent demographic variables and were tested at the .05 criterion level.

<u>Teaching Style</u>

An analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between the scores on PALS and the participants grouped by gender. There were significant differences on the total score and on Factor 2 (Learner-Centered Activities), Factor 3 (Personalizing Instruction), Factor 4 (Assessing Needs), Factor 5 Climate Building), and Factor 6 (Participation in Learning Process) (see Table 6). The means for the two groups on these factors are as follows: Factor 2-men (24.02) and women (28.03) Factor 3-men (18.97) and women (21.24), Factor 4-men (12.3) and women (14.01), Factor 5-men (12.61) and women (15.2), Factor 6-men (10.88) and women (12.12). On all the factors the women scored higher than the men. However, both women and men scored on the teacher-centered side when compared to the norms for PALS. For the total score, the women scored .73 standard deviations below the mean for the total score while the men scored 1.42 standard deviations below the mean. On the other factors the women tended to score close to the norm, and the men tended to be a half to a standard deviation below the mean for the norm.

Table 6: ANOVA of Teaching Style by Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
PALS					
Between	3113.80	1	3113.80	14.63	0.000
Within	40441.11	190	212.85		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	33.67	1	33.67	1.01	0.315
Within	6313.30	190	33.23		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	262.25	1	262.25	14.10	0.000
Within	3534.24	190	18.60		
Relating to Experience					
Between	83.99	1	83.99	6.27	0.013
Within	2545.60	190	13.40		
Assessing Needs					
Between	47.63	1	47.63	5.18	0.024
Within	1747.78	190	9.20		
Climate Building					
Between	108.70	1	108.70	21.02	0.000
Within	982.58	190	5.17		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	24.87	1	24.87	4.42	0.037
Within	1068.87	190	5.63		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	5.41	1	5.41	0.66	0.417
Within	1551.87	190	8.17		

An ANOVA was conducted to investigate the relationship between the scores on PALS and race. For race the participants were divided into two groups, white and non-white. The majority of the participants were white while the rest of the participants were members of several different minority groups. Thus the participants were divided into "White" and "Non-White". There were significant differences between the two groups for Factor 1

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(Learner-Centered Activities), Factor 6 (Participation in the Learning Process), and Factor 7(Flexibility for Personal Development) (see Table 7). The means for the two groups on these factors were as follows: Factor 1 (Learner-Centered Activities) –white (30.58) and non-white (28.65), Factor 6 (Participation in Learning Process)–white (11.80) and non-white (12.67), and Factor 7 (Flexibility for Personal Development)–white (10.81) and non-white (9.64). The whites had the highest mean on Factor 1 and Factor 7, and the non-whites had the highest mean on Factor 6. All of the differences in the means were approximately one-fourth of a standard deviation for the norms for the factors: Factor 1–23.25%, Factor 6–24.85%, and Factor 7–30%. Thus, while differences were found on these three factors, those differences separated the groups only by a small portion of a standard deviation when compared to the norms for the factors.

Table 7: ANOVA of Teaching Style by Race

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
PALS					
Between	66.29	1	66.29	0.29	0.591
Within	43606.73	191	228.31		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	132.41	1	132.41	3.99	0.047
Within	6333.80	191	33.16		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	0.08	1	0.08	0.00	0.950
Within	3801.86	191	19.91		
Relating to Experience					
Between	6.69	1	6.69	0.49	0.486
Within	2623.85	191	13.74		
Assessing Needs					
Between	12.77	1	12.77	1.37	0.244
Within	1786.07	191	9.35		
Climate Building					
Between	0.43	1	0.43	0.08	0.783
Within	1091.94	191	5.72		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	26.42	1	26.42	4.71	0.031
Within	1071.27	191	5.61		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	48.95	1	48.95	6.11	0.014
Within	1528.92	191	8.00		

An analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between scores on PALS and the participants grouped by age. There was a wide range of ages, 23-64, among the participants. Thus the sample was divided into four groups: ages 23-34, ages 35-44, ages 45-51, and ages 52- 64. There were no significant differences due to age (See Table 8).

Table 8: ANOVA of Teaching Style by Age

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
PALS					
Between	388.15	3	129.38	0.55	0.647
Within	42823.53	183	234.01		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	67.15	3	22.38	0.65	0.585
Within	6311.71	183	34.49		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	55.88	3	18.63	0.93	0.428
Within	3671.42	183	20.06		
Relating to Experience					
Between	1.00	3	0.33	0.02	0.995
Within	2591.48	183	14.16		
Assessing Needs					
Between	19.91	3	6.64	0.70	0.554
Within	1740.77	183	9.51		
Climate Building					
Between	2.55	3	0.85	0.15	0.931
Within	1053.81	183	5.76		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	9.64	3	3.21	0.55	0.650
Within	1073.10	183	5.86		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	10.17	3	3.39	0.41	0.744
Within	1503.33	183	8.21		

The group of participants were divided into two groups for degrees held, graduate and non-graduate. There was a difference in the mean for the graduates (12.53) and the mean for the non-graduates (11.7) (see Table 9). Thus the difference was only .87. This represents about one quarter (.23) of a standard deviation. There was only a difference in the two groups on Factor 6. The mean scores were (11.71) for non-graduates and (12.53) for the graduates. The

graduates tend to be higher in the Participation of the Learning Process than the non-graduates.

Table 9: ANOVA of Teaching Style by Degree Held

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
PALS					
Between	186.42	1	186.42	0.82	0.367
Within	43240.06	190	227.58		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	12.57	1	12.57	0.37	0.544
Within	6453.64	190	33.97		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	8.14	1	8.14	0.41	0.523
Within	3780.23	190	19.90		
Relating to Experience					
Between	5.65	1	5.65	0.41	0.523
Within	2618.43	190	13.78		
Assessing Needs					
Between	1.05	1	1.05	0.11	0.739
Within	1789.65	190	9.42		
Climate Building					
Between	1.12	1	1.12	0.20	0.655
Within	1066.56	190	5.61		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	30.72	1	30.72	5.49	0.020
Within	1062.87	190	5.59		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	0.39	1	0.39	0.05	0.828
Within	1577.25	190	8.30		

An ANOVA was conducted to investigate the relationship between PALS and experience. There was no significant difference found on the mean score and on six of the seven factors (see Table 10). There was a significant difference found in Factor 6. Because of the significant difference found for Factor 6, a Scheffe post hoc was run to determine

the difference.

> The Scheffe test is the most flexible of the
> multiple-comparisons procedures available to the
> researcher–it fits a great variety of situations
> and has received widespread use. Unfortunately,
> it is not at all uncommon to follow a significant
> test of the overall null hypothesis with the
> Scheffe procedure and find that the Scheffe does
> not detect any significant differences. (Roscoe,
> 1975, p. 315)

As a conservative procedure, the Scheffe only finds a
difference when the two means are far apart (Huck, Cormier,
& Bounds, 1974, p. 69). Thus, although the ANOVA found a
significant difference among the groups, the post hoc
analysis indicated these differences were not great enough
for the Scheffe procedure to find the difference
significant.

Table 10:   ANOVA of Teaching Style by Teaching Experience

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
PALS					
Between	448.58	3	149.53	0.65	0.583
Within	42497.16	185	229.71		
Learner-Centered Activities					
Between	64.72	3	21.57	0.64	0.590
Within	6228.89	185	33.67		
Personalizing Instruction					
Between	69.66	3	23.22	1.16	0.326
Within	3701.53	185	20.01		
Relating to Experience					
Between	15.36	3	5.12	0.37	0.778
Within	2589.95	185	14.00		
Assessing Needs					
Between	23.04	3	7.68	0.81	0.489
Within	1751.42	185	9.47		
Climate Building					
Between	6.79	3	2.26	0.40	0.754
Within	1049.96	185	5.68		
Participation in Learning Process					
Between	54.56	3	18.19	3.29	0.022
Within	1023.18	185	5.53		
Flexibility for Personal Development					
Between	18.45	3	6.15	0.75	0.523
Within	1516.29	185	8.20		

Interaction of Philosophy and Style

Research question five investigated the interaction of teaching style and educational philosophy. Two statistical procedures were used to answer this research question. These were discriminant analysis and regression.

Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis is a method of placing and "examining the differences between two or more groups of

objects with respect to several variables simultaneously"
(Klecka, 1980, p. 5). With discriminant analysis the
researcher uses inductive reasoning "to make meaningful
decisions about the data and to impose sense upon it"
(Conti, 1993, p. 90).

Discriminant analysis is a process that allows for
greater interpretation of many real-life variables at one
time rather isolating them one at a time. For discriminant
analysis to take place "at least two groups must exist which
differ on several variables and these variables must be
capable of being measured at an interval level or ratio
level" (Conti, 1993, p. 91). After being measured at an
interval level, the "means and variances can be calculated
so that they can be legitimately employed in mathematical
equations" (Klecka, 1980, p. 9). Thus, discriminant
analysis examines the differences between selected groups
and selected variables.

The key components of discriminant analysis are the
criterion variables and the predictor variables (Kachigan,
1991). It is the interrelationship of these predictor or
discriminating variables "that provides for an explanation
of a person's placement in a particular group" (Conti, 1993,
p. 91). The criterion variable is a qualitative particular
group (Kachigan, 1991, p. 218). The predictor variable is a

quantitative variable that discriminates or distinguishes

criterion groups (p. 216). Two criteria should be met in

order to judge the usefulness of the outcome of the

analysis. The first criteria must be "that the discriminant

function produced by the analysis is describable using the

structure coefficients of the analysis" (Conti, 1993, p.

93). Here a value of .3 or greater is often used as a

benchmark for determining if the variables will be used.

The second criteria to be met is one where the "discriminant

function correctly classifies a certain percentage of the

cases in the sample" (p. 93).

A discriminant analysis was run to determine the

interaction of the Title 1 teachers' educational philosophy

and teaching style. PALS was used to divide the teachers

into two groups of teaching styles. The mean for PALS was

established at 146 (Conti, 2004, p. 79). Those scoring

above 146 are on the learner-centered side of the scale and

those below 146 are on the teacher-centered side.

Therefore, 146 was used as the dividing point for group

information. Those below 146 formed one group and those who

scored 146 or above were in the other group. Because the

learner-centered group was the smallest, scores of 146 were

included in this group. There were 166 Title 1 teachers who

scored below 146 and 27 Title 1 teachers who scored 146 or

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above.

The discriminating variables were the 75 items of the PAEI. Of the 27 teachers who scored 146 or above, all 27 teachers were correctly identified. The structure matrix revealed what separated the two groups. Eight items had a correlation of .2 or above with the discriminant function (see Table 11). These items deal with the learner's feelings about their learning and their views concerning self-directed learning. Thus the process that separates the two groups is the teachers' view of the person as a self-directed learner. The learner-centered teacher tends to view the learner as self-directed while the teacher-centered teacher tends to direct most of the learning.

The discriminant function produced by the analysis was useful because it was both accurate and could be interpreted by the structure matrix. The teachers were classified with 96.4% accuracy. Of the 166 teachers that scored below 146, 160 were correctly identified.

Table 11: Highest Items in Structure Matrix for Interaction
on Teaching Style and Educational Philosophy

Corr.	Item
.239	9d. The learners' feelings during the learning process are used by the skillful adult educator to accomplish the learning objective(s).
.235	14e. My primary role as a teacher of adults is to facilitate, but not to direct, learning activities.
.222	9a. The learners' feelings during the learning process must be brought to the surface in order for learners to become truly involved in their learning.
.220	10d. The teaching methods I use involve learners in dialogue and critical examination of controversial issues.
.219	8e. In planning an educational activity, I try to create a supportive climate that facilitates self-discovery and interaction.
.216	13c. Evaluation of learning outcomes is best done by the learners themselves, for their own purposes.
.212	1d. In planning an educational activity, I am most likely to assess learners' needs and develop valid learning activities based on those needs.
.208	2c. People learn best through dialogue with other learners and a group coordinator.

Regression

Regression analysis is a statistical procedure that

describes the nature of the relationship between two or more

variables (Kachigan, 1991, p. 160). "In the case of multiple

regression we are interested in predicting an object's value

on a criterion variable when given its value on each of

several predictor variables" (p. 161). The overall

objectives of this statistical procedure are to determine if

a relationship exists, to describe the nature of this

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relationship, to assess the accuracy of the prediction formula produced by the analysis, and to assess the relative importance of the various predictor variables in the analysis (p. 161).

To investigate the relationship between teaching style and educational philosophy with a regression analysis, teaching style as measured by the PALS score was used as the criterion variable. The percentage scores for six educational philosophies identified by the PAEI were used as the predictor scores. The stepwise analysis yielded two possible models to explain this relationship. The first model explained 18.7% (R = .432) of the variance in the interaction. It contained only one predictor variable, and this was Liberal Education. The second model explained 21.7% (R = .465) by adding Humanism to the equation. The equation for the first model was:

PALS Score = 199.3 - 3.6 (Liberal Education).

The equation for the second model was:

PALS Score = 147.8 - 2.6 (Liberal Education) + 1.6 (Humanism).

Although the second model explained 3% more variance, the first model was selected for two reasons. First, the 3% gain is minimal. Second and most importantly, the first model echos the finding of O'Brien (2001). In his earlier study in this line of inquiry related to educational

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philosophy and teaching style, O'Brien found the interaction
between philosophy and teaching style to be based on the
Liberal Education score. Using a discriminant analysis, he
found the Liberal Education score to be perfectly correlated
with the discriminant function which was used to predict
placement in teaching style groups. This function was named
the Role of the Teacher because Liberal Education "suggest
that the teacher is the expert, the vessel of knowledge, and
as such has the role of dispensing knowledge to the learner"
(p. 172). Thus, because this regression analysis supports
O'Brien's findings, it too can be described as the Role of
the Teacher.

<div align="center">Distinct Groups</div>

Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was used discover groups among the
Title 1 Teaches. Cluster analysis is a powerful
multivariate procedure that allows researchers "to identify
groups which inherently exist in the data" (Conti, 1996, p.
71). Cluster analysis is a multivarite analysis that
"involves the interaction of many variables" (p. 70). It
is a statistical analysis that divides a given set of
objects into subsets which display reliable non-random
differences (Kachigan, 1991 , p. 261). In this multivariate
procedure, "unlike univariate techniques which investigate a

single variable in isolation, cluster analysis examines the person as a whole; all variables are kept together for the individual and analyzed in relationship to each other" (Conti, 1996, p. 68).

Cluster analysis is used in adult education to interpret findings and to make better meaning of their results. Researchers use inductive reasoning to "tease sense out of the data" with the "goal to have meaning and understanding emanate from the data itself" (Conti, 1996, p. 67).

Cluster analysis has four principle purposes: "(1) develop a typology or classification, (2) investigation of useful conceptual schemes for grouping entities, (3) hypothesis generation through data exploration, and (4) hypothesis testing" (Alexander & Blashfield, 1984, p. 9). Of these four, it is used most often for the creation of classifications (p. 9). The formation of clusters is important to researchers thus "clustering is a good technique to use in exploratory analysis when you suspect the sample is not homogenous" (SPSS, 1999, p. 293).

"A commonly used method for forming clusters is hierachical cluster analysis" (Norusis, 1988, p. B-73). In this process, "clusters are formed by grouping cases into bigger and bigger clusters until all cases are a member of a

single cluster" (p. B-73). At the first level, all cases in the analysis represent separate clusters, and "there are as many clusters as there are cases" (p. B-73). At the second step, two cases are joined to form a cluster. Once a case has joined a cluster, it cannot be separated (p. B-73). At each of the following steps, either another single case or a cluster that has already been formed is joined with either another case or another cluster. This process continues until all cases have been joined into one cluster that is made up of the total group. Thus, there are as many steps in the analysis as there are cases in the sample.

There are several methods for combining groups in cluster analysis. These different methods can "result in different cluster solutions for the same clustering method" (Norusis, 1988, p. B-83). One clustering method that "has been widely used in many of the social sciences" (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984, p. 43) is the Ward's method. The Ward's method "is designed to optimize the minimum variance within clusters" (p. 43) and "tends to find (or create) clusters of relatively equal sizes and shapes" (p. 43).

A cluster analysis was computed using all the 44 items from PALS and all the 75 items from PAEI. The items from these two instruments were used in the analysis to discover

the teacher-learning ideas that grouped the teachers
together. In the trial runs of the cluster analysis, extreme
cases were identified and eliminated. The elimination of
these cases left 177 Title One teachers whose scores were
included in the analysis. A 3-cluster solution was selected
as the best for the data. The three groups consisted of one
group of 72, one group of 56, and one group of 49.

Discriminant Analysis

Although the cluster analysis technique is a powerful
multivariate tool for identifying groups, further
statistical analysis can be used to prove additional insight
into the meaning of the groups (Conti, 1996, p. 70).
Discriminant analysis is a data analysis technique that can
be used to assist with group interpretation (p. 71). It
"focuses upon the groups that exist and the set if
discriminating variables that may explain the differences
between the groups" (Conti, 1993, p. 91). Discriminant
analysis can be used to determine which variables contribute
the most to the formation of clusters (Kachigan, 1991, p.
269) and the structure matrix from this analysis can be used
to name the process that separates the clusters (Conti,
1996, p. 71).

A series of discriminant analysis were run to see how
the groups differed. For these analyses, the groups were

the three groups from the cluster analysis and the discriminating variables were the 75 items of the PAEI instrument. The first discriminant analysis was computed to identify the process that separated the 177 Title One teachers at the 2-cluster level. At the 2-cluster level the 3 groups formed two clusters. The group of 72 and the group of 56 combined to form one group of 128 and the group of 49 formed the second group. At the 2-cluster level the teachers were correctly identified with 98.9% accuracy. In the cluster of 128, 126 of the teachers were correctly identified. In the cluster if 49 teachers, all 49 were correctly identified. The structure matrix was examined to see what separated the two clusters. Using a structure-coefficient of (.26) 6 items, items 14d (.366), 6d (.296), 3b (.290), 5c (.270), 8a (.265), and 9b (.265) (see Table 11), discriminate between the two clusters. Items 14d, 6d, 3b, and 5c are all items that address social and political issues. Items 8a and 9b both address real-world problems and questions. Of these six items the first four are from the Reconstuctionist scale and the last two are from the Progressive scale. It is the interaction of these 6 items that separated the two cluster of teachers. The average scores on the items for the cluster of 128 teachers were lower than the average scores of the cluster of 49 teachers

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on these items. The mean scores for the group of 128 were

(4.55) for item 14d, (4.36)for item 6d ,(4.46) for item 3b,

(4.45) for item 5c, (4.95) for item 8a, and (5.29) on item

9b. The mean scores of the items of the group of 49 teachers

were (6.27) for item 14d, (5.76) for item 6d, (5.90) for

item 3b, (5.59) for item 5c, (6.22) for item 8a, and (6.33)

for item 9b. Thus, at the 2-cluster level, the cluster of

49 teachers felt strongly about learning that relates to

social and political issues that people face in the real

world. The group of 128 teachers felt neutral toward these

issues.

The second discriminant analysis was computed to

further discriminate between those in the cluster of 128

teachers who felt neutral about supporting learning that

addressed social and political issues of the real world.

This group of 128 teachers was made up of the cluster of 72

and the cluster of 56 from the 3-cluster solution. In this

analysis, the discriminant function correctly placed the

teachers in their cluster with 98.4% accuracy. In the

cluster of 72 teachers, 71 of them were correctly

classified. In the cluster if 56 teachers, 55 teachers were

correctly identified. The structure matrix was examined to

see what separated the two clusters. Using a minimum

structure-coefficient of .2, items 13e (.305), 12c (.274),

9b (.244), 11e (.210), 4d (.204), 14e (.203), and 9c (.200) discriminated between the two clusters. Items 13e, 12c, and 9b all address issues from the Progressive scale and the last four items 11e, 12c, 14e, and 9c are all from the Humanist scale. The cluster of 72 teachers scored higher on the items than the cluster of 56 teachers. The mean scores of the items for the cluster of 72 teachers were (5.90) for item 13e, (6.01) for 12c, (5.69) for 9b, (5.97) for item 11e, (5.61) for item 4d, (5.19) for item 14e, and (6.21) for item 9c. The mean scores of the items for the cluster of 56 teachers were (4.53) for item 13e, (4.82) for item 12c, (4.77) for item 9b, (4.79) for item 11e, (4.5) for item 4d, (3.93) for 14e, (5.45) for item 9c. Attitudes toward taking personal ownership of one's learning and relating learning to real-life problems is what separated the two groups. The group of 72 teachers strongly agree that one should take personal ownership of one's learning. However, the cluster of 56 felt neutral about this approach and was neutral about relating learning to real world situations, about relating learning to the student's experiences, and relating to the student's feelings.

Thus, the cluster analysis revealed three naturally-occurring groups among the teachers (see Figure 11). Discriminant analyses indicated that these groups could be

named (a) Social Activists (49), (b) Facilitators (72), and (c) School-Based Instructors (56).

Figure 11: Three Naturally Occurring Groups Among Title 1
            Teachers
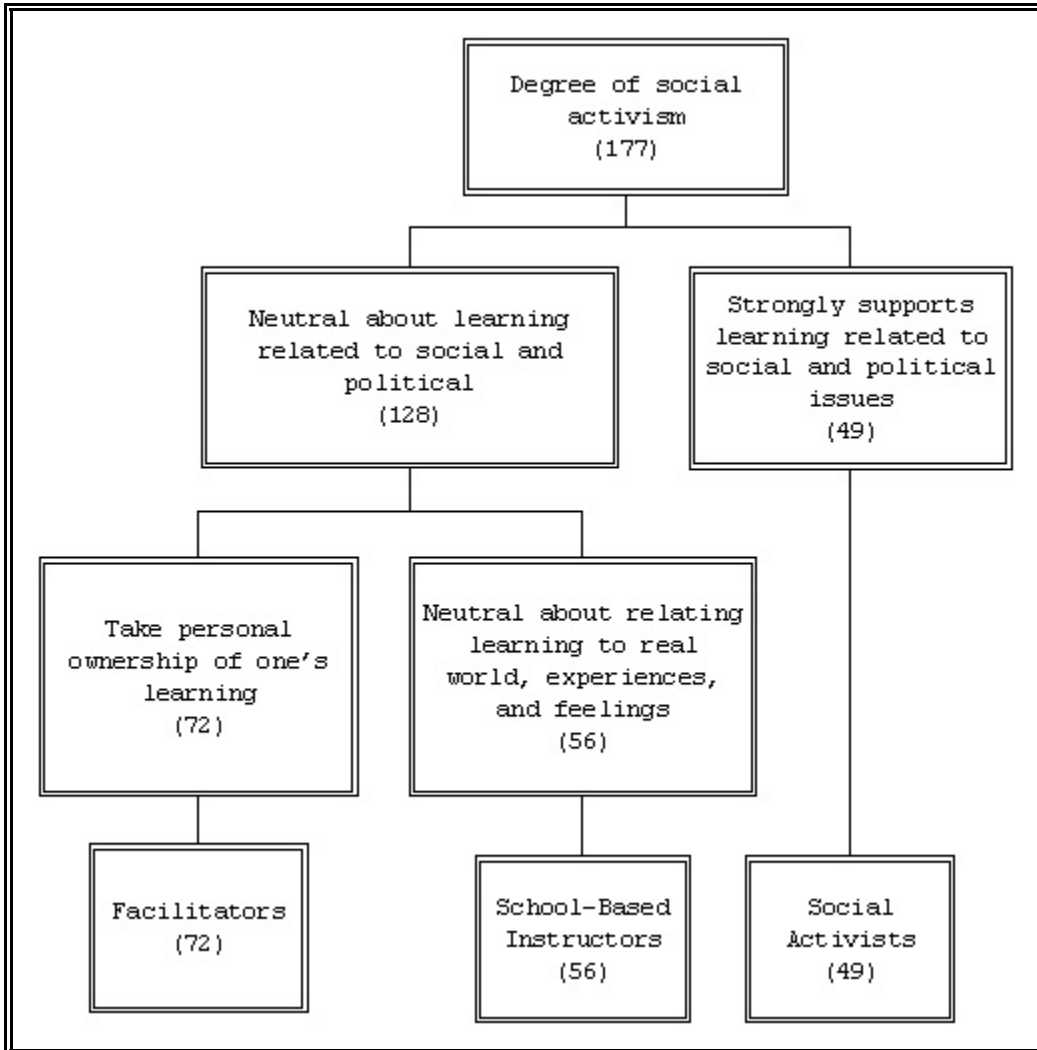
A chi-square analysis was conducted to investigate if the groups differed in support of the various philosophical schools. Because of the small size of the Liberal Education, Reconstructionist, and Mixed groups, only the three major philosophies of Behaviorism, Progressivism, and Humanism were included in the analysis. This analysis (χ^2 = 10.2, df = 4, p = .037) revealed a significant difference among the groups in the distribution of their philosophical orientations (see Table 12). The School-Based Instructors had a larger than expected number of Behaviorist, and the Facilitators had a larger than expected number of Humanists.

Table 12: Distribution of Groups of Title 1 Teachers by Educational Philosophies

Groups	Facilitator	Social Activist	School-Based	Total
Behaviorist	15	16	24	55
Progressive	36	24	19	79
Humanistic	13	4	5	22
Total	64	44	48	156

A chi-square analysis was also conducted to investigate if the groups differed in their learning strategy preferences and in their cultural appreciation. No significant differences were found for either learning strategy preference (χ^2 = 1.26, df = 4, p = .869) or cultural appreciation (χ^2 = 10.87, df = 6, p = .092).

A series of one-way analysis of variances were

conducted to investigate if the groups differed in teaching style on the overall PALS score or any of the seven factors. Significant differences were found for the overall score (F = 9.55, df = 2/174, p = .000), Factor 2: Personalizing Instruction (F = 2.61, df = 2/174, p = .001), Factor 3: Relating to Experience (F = 16.06, df = 2/174, p = .000), Factor 4: Assessing Student Needs (F = 15.76, df = 2/174, p = .000), and Factor 6: Participation in the Learning Process (F = 7.55, df = 2/174, p = .001). The post hoc analyses for these consistently showed that School-Based Instructors differed from the Social Activists with the School-Based Instructors having a lower score than the Social Activists. The Facilitators combined with the Social Activists to form the higher group on the overall score, but the Facilitators joined the School-based Instructors on Factor 4: Assessing Student Needs to form the lower group. For Factor 3: Relating to Experience, the Facilitators formed a separate group between the other two groups. For Factor 2: Personalizing Instruction and Factor 6: Participation in the Learning Process, the Facilitators did not differ from either of the other two groups. The means for each of these post hoc analyses were as follows: Overall Score: School-Based Instructors (123.6) vs Facilitators (131.9) and Social Activists (135.6), Factor 2: School-Based Instructors (25.9)

vs Social Activists (29.3), Factor 3: School-Based Instructors (19.3) vs Facilitators (21.23) vs Social Activists (23.1), Factor 4: School-Based Instructors (12.5) and Facilitators (13.7) vs Social Activists (15.6), and Factor 6: School-Based Instructors (11.2) vs Social Activists (12.9).

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

<u>Summary of Study</u>

Although America is among the most affluent countries worldwide, it continues to have a high percentage of low-income families. Many governmental programs have been established to support poor families in America. Title 1 is part of Elementary Secondary Education Act (ESEA) developed as part of Lyndon B. Johnson's "War on Poverty". The ESEA was designed to improve the academic achievement of poor children who attend public schools in the United States. Government officials recognize that children of low-income families have special educational needs. Title 1 was developed to provide financial assistance to schools servicing high concentrations of poor students to expand and improve their educational programs.

The ESEA has been revised several times over the past 40 years. Its most recent revision is titled "No Child Left Behind" (NCLB), which was designed to improve accountability systems for the implementation of Title 1 programs. NCLB and other programs are critical elements in helping teachers

to improve the academic performance of poor students. The law requires that teacher training focus on best practices that will enable students to achieve higher standards.

Professional development helps teachers to continue their professional education. Continuing education helps teachers to improve their skills and attitudes based on what is new and better. Teachers who work with poor students need professional development training that will help them to apply research on instruction. They need to have knowledge of the data available concerning poor students. This knowledge can help them to guide their instructional strategies. Training through professional development can provide teachers with instructional strategies that work with most students. Hopefully these strategies can help teachers to become more effective with poor students. The influence of the individual classroom teacher has the most effect on student learning. Improving the effectiveness of teachers through professional development is a key way to improve education. Topics for training should include knowledge of educational philosophies, teaching styles, cultural appreciation, and personal learning strategies.

Thus, the purpose of ths study was to describe the educational philosophies, teaching styles, learning strategies, and the cultural awareness of Title 1 teachers.

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Participants in this study were educators who teach in Title

1 schools in the Tulsa Public Schools System. The study

identified educational philosophies of the Title 1 teachers

using the Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI),

their teaching styles by using the Principles of Adult

Learning Scale (PALS), their learning strategies by using

Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS

(ATLAS), and their cultural appreciation using the Cultural

Appreciation of Lifelong Learners (CALL). The PAEI, PALS,

ATLAS, and CALL were administered online along with a

demographic survey. The instruments and the demographic

survey were placed on a web-site accessible to the

participants on their classroom computers. When the

participants completed the instruments and questionnaire,

they were submitted electronically. There were 193 Title 1

teachers who responded to the study.

Summary of Findings

The findings in this study were in the following areas.

First, profiles were constructed for the demographic

variables , educational philosophies, teaching styles,

learning strategies, and cultural appreciation. Second, the

relationships of (a)philosophy, (b)teaching style

demographic (c)the relationship of learning strategies, and

(d)the relationship of cultural appreciation to demographic

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variables were explored. Third, the interaction of teaching style and educational philosophy was examined. Finally, a cluster analysis was conducted to uncover natural groupings among the teachers.

Demographic data revealed that the participants were predominantly females (90.63%). Over three-fourths (75.63%) of the teachers were white. Males made up only 9% of the study group. The participants ranged in age from 23 to 64 years of age with the highest percentage in the 35-44 range. More than half (61.46%) of the teachers held a bachelor's degree while over one-third (38.02) held a master's degree. Most of the participants were elementary certified.

The educational philosophies of each Title 1 teacher was measured by the Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI). A philosophical profile was developed for the group. Most (42%)of the Title 1 teachers supported the Progressive philosophical point of view. The next largest group (29.5%) of teachers scored in the Behaviorist school of thought.   The remaining schools were distributed with 11.9% in the Humanistic school, 3.2% in the Liberal Education school, 2.2% in the Reconstructionist school, and 7.8% in the Mixed group with equally high scores in more than one school.

The Title 1 teachers who completed the Principles of

Adult Learning Scale (PALS) had a mean score of 130.16 with a standard deviation of 15.08. The median score was 128. The norm for PALS is 146 with a standard deviation of 20. Thus, the Title 1 teachers represented a commitment to the teacher-centered style.

The learning strategies of the Title 1 teachers were measured by using Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS. The three learning strategy preference groups were distributed as follows: Problem Solvers (53.67%), Engagers (25.99) and Navigators (20.34%). The expected norms for the general population for ATLAS are 36.50% Navigators, 31.70% Problem Solvers, and 31.80% Engagers. Chi-square results study indicated that there was a higher percentage of Problem Solvers and a lower percentage of Engagers and Navigators than expected.   The Title 1 teachers' perspective on cultural appreciation was measured by using the Cultural Appreciation of Lifelong Learning (CALL). Of the 169 teachers who completed CALL, 32.6% scored from the world view perspective and are described as enthusiastically accepting of culturally diverse groups. About 14% scored in the Chris group, and about 24% scored in the Alex group. About 63% of the teachers scored in the individualistic perspective. They believe that all individuals are responsible for their life situation and are unaware of any

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barriers which restrict minority groups. There were 37.9%
who scored in the Lee group and 24.9% who scored in the Lynn
group.

The relationships of the demographic variables and the
concepts of philosophy, teaching style, learning strategy
preferences and cultural appreciation were addressed. A
simple chi-square test was used to determine if there was a
significant difference from the expected norms in the
participants with and learning preference. No differences
were found between the observed and expected distributions
for gender, race, age, teaching level, and years of
experience. However, the majority of participants who held
graduate degrees were Problem Solvers.

Chi-square was used to investigate the relationship of
demographic variables with the educational philosophy. No
differences were found between the observed and expected
distributions for gender, age, degree level, teaching level,
and years of experience. A significant difference was found
in the distribution for race. However it was not meaningful
because the Reconstructionist group was so small. When this
group was removed from the analysis, the results were not
statistically different.

Chi-square was used to determine the relationship
between the demographic variables and cultural appreciation.

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The analysis found that there were no differences found between the observed and expected distributions for gender, age, degree level, teaching level, and years of experience. There was a significant difference in the distribution for race. The participants were grouped into two groups titled Whites and Non-Whites. The difference revealed that the Whites were over-represented in the Lynn group and the Non-Whites were over-represented in the Chris group.

One-way ANOVA's were conducted for the analysis of the relationship of teaching style to each of the demographic variables. The scores of PALS were used as the dependent variable, and the participants were grouped on the demographic variables of gender, race, age, degree held, and years of experience. No significant differences were found. For gender, significant differences were noted for Factor 2--Learner-Centered Activities, Factor 3--Personalizing Instruction, Factor 4--Assessing Needs, Factor 5--Climate Building, and Factor 6--Participation in the Learning Process. The means for men and women for these factors were below the mean for each of the factors. Although both groups scored on the teacher-centered side when compared to the norms for PALS, the women scored higher than the men. On all the factors, the women tended to score closer to the norm than men.

For race, significant differences were noted between the White and Non-White groups for Factors 1--Learner-Center Activities, Factor 6--Participation in the Learning Process, and Factor 7--Flexibility for Personal Development. The two groups scored nearly one-fourth of a standard deviation from the norms for PALS. The Whites scored the highest on Learner-centered Activities and Flexibility for Personal Development while the Non-whites scored highest on Participation in the Learning Process. When an ANOVA was conducted for age there were no significant differences noted.

For degree held, there was a difference among the groups on Factor 6, Participation in the Learning Process. The Graduates scored higher on Factor 6 than the Non-Graduates.

When the relationship between PALS and experience was investigated, there were no significant differences for six of the seven factors. Although a difference was found on Factor 6--Participation in the Learning Process, the post hoc analysis found that this was so small that the groups did not actually differ.

A discriminant analysis was used to investigate the interaction of philosophy and teaching style. This process produced a discriminant function that classified the Title 1

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teachers with 96.4% accuracy. The process that separated the learner-centered from the teacher-centered instructors is the teachers' view of the person as a self-directed learner. The learner-centered teacher tends to view the learner as self-directed while the teacher-centered teacher directs the learning.

Three distinct groups of Title 1 teachers were discovered through a cluster analysis. The groups differed in their views toward political and social issues that people face in the real world. Attitudes toward taking personal ownership of one's learning and relating learning to real-life problems are other issues that defined the groups. The groups were defined as the (a) Social Activists, (b) Facilitators, and (c) School-Based. The participants in the Social Activists group support involvement in political and social issues that people face in the real world. Facilitators support taking personal ownership of one's learning and relating to real-life problems while the School-based group remained neutral on both these issues.

Conclusions

Demographics

> There is a disparity between the ethnic make-up of
> the Title 1 teachers and the composition of their
> students.

The Johnson administration formed the Title 1 legislation with the goal of improving education for poor students. These "poor students" are mostly minority students of low-income families. They qualify for the free lunch program in the schools. It is the free lunch program that defines the Title 1 schools.

The majority of the Title 1 teachers in Tulsa are white females. The literature shows that the highest drop-out rate in schools is among African-American males (Leake & Leake, 1992). While public school students have grown much more diverse, school districts still rely overwhelmingly on white women to teach them. The lack of male and minority role models may be increasing the achievement gap, and a smaller number of black and Hispanic students are succeeding than their white peers. The sad reality is the African-American male could go through his entire education without ever having a teacher who looks like him.

More than any other time in history, black students are being educated by people that are not of their race or cultural background. There are approximately 35,000 educational faculty in the United States (Farkas et al, 2000). Eighty-eight percent of the full-time education faculty are white, and 81% are between the ages of 45 and 50 (Ladson-Billings, 2001). The majority of the Title 1

students in Tulsa are African American and Hispanic. Many

new teachers are given assignments in Title 1 schools. This

is despite the fact that:

> New teacher turnover occurs because beginning
> teachers are given the most challenging
> assignments, with little or no professional
> support. New teachers are often placed in schools
> serving the poorest students and those who have
> failed to benefit from schooling, so the students
> with the greatest educational needs find
> themselves being taught by the teachers least
> prepared to teach them.(p.17)

Records show that there are more white teachers in the Title

1 schools in Tulsa, than minorities. After 1 year, African

American students scored about 3 percentile points higher on

the mathematics portion of the Stanford Achievement test if

they had a teacher of the same racial background (Dee,

2004). Reading scores were raised about half as much.

Similar gains were observed for white students if they share

their teacher's cultural background. These results are

consistent with frequent recommendations that school

districts with large minority enrollments should

aggressively recruit minority teachers. The lack of

minority Title 1 teachers in Tulsa suggests that along with

all school districts with Title 1 schools, Tulsa should be

more sensitive to the needs of minority students when it

comes to hiring teachers of cultural backgrounds that match

the students they serve.

Philosophy

> The prevailing educational philosophy of the Title
> 1 teachers in Tulsa is not congruent with the
> overall mission of the Title legislation of
> focusing in the needs of the learner.

The Progressive adult education movement evolved at
the turn of the new century. It was developed at a time
when the United States was undergoing great social,
economic, and political change (Elias & Merriam, 1995, p.
47). The major goal of Progressive educators is to educate
for democracy. Progressive educators believe that education
could solve the problems of society and increase the
specific skills of the individual (p. 47). Thus the founder
of primary advocate of Progressive thought, John Dewey, put
education at the center of social reform (p. 49).
Progressive adult educators look at the importance of the
individual and society together.

Slightly over two-fifths (43.5%) of The Title 1
teachers of Tulsa Public Schools support the philosophical
orientation from the Progressive school of thought. While
this is a learner-centered approach, it does not reflect the
expectations of the Title 1 legislation that originated with
the ESEA of the 1960's. The purpose of this act is to
provide extra help for children who are at the poverty level
so that their chances for success could be enhanced. It

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encourages a holistic approach to education. Educators are
to be concerned with a student's social-emotional growth as
well as academic achievement. The focus of instruction in
on the individual. In order to help improve the academic
achievement of poor students, teachers must also help
students improve their ability to become resilient, develop
pro-social behaviors, and develop a healthy sense of self
which means having autonomy and a sense of purpose. This
type of approach to education comes from the Humanist and
the Reconstructionist philosophical orientations. Only
12.49% of the Title 1 teachers in Tulsa Public Schools were
Humanists.

Unlike the Progressives who focus on the individual and
society together, Humanists are concerned with empowering
individuals so that they can improve their lives. Humanism
grew from both psychological and educational roots. Maslow,
Rogers, and Alport contributed from the psychological side
and Rousseau, Knowles, Rough, and Horton from the
educational side.

The aim of education for Humanists is the facilitation
of learning. The motivation of a learner's self-initiated,
significant learning does not rely on the teaching skills of
the leader. The facilitation of significant learning rests
upon certain attitudinal qualities that exist in the

personal relationship between the facilitator and the learner (Rogers, 1994).

The second largest philosophical school of thought among the Title 1 teachers was Behaviorism; nearly one-third (30.6%) support this philosophy. John B. Watson believed that psychology was a science of behavior instead of a study of the mind (Elias & Merriam, 1995). B. F. Skinner believed that "humans are controlled by their environment, the conditions of which can be studied, specified, and manipulated" (p. 83). Behaviorists believe that a person's behavior is based on prior conditioning and is determined by external forces in the environment over which a person has little or no control. Behaviorists are coupled with the teacher-centered approach (p. 89).

There is a need for Title 1 teachers to move beyond being a "behavioral engineer who plans in detail the conditions necessary to bring about desired behavior" (Elias & Merriam, 1980, p. 88) and beyond the view that "survival is the fundamental value for individuals and societies" (p. 96) if they are to be successful in educating poor children. There is a strong need for a focus on the needs of the individual when teaching poor minority children. The stressors of poverty cause these students to have poor social skills, low self-esteem, and a lack of experiences

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needed for success at learning in school.

In order for poor students to achieve academically, their teachers will need to focus on their individual needs. This learner-centered approach is closely associated with the writings of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers who believed that people are naturally good and that the potential for individual growth is unlimited (Conti, 2004). Studies have shown that teachers who have high expectations for their students have a positive effect on their achievement. An example of such a program is A Pocket Full of Hope whose participants come from "generational poverty", broken homes, and homes with limited education (Shaw, 2004) and who have all the social issues that qualify them for participation in the Title 1 program. These young people need special attention before they can fit into society.

A Pocket Full of Hope is a program that was founded by Dr. Lester Shaw. The program is based on the principles of learner-centered concepts (Shaw, 2004). Shaw developed his program to be non-threatening, participatory, and inclusive. His program focuses on allowing "people who are poor and disadvantaged to share their ideas, talents and resources" (pp. 84-85). Programs like A Pocket Full of Hope have been effective in empowering poor children to improve their lives by enhancing their self-esteem and fostering the development

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of their interpersonal skills.

Teaching Style

>   The teaching style of the Title 1 teachers is not
>   compatible with the mission and goals of the
>   original Title 1 legislation.

Beliefs, current values, attitudes, and behaviors in

combination present the whole picture of who we are as

teachers; "these features define our teaching style"

(Heimlich & Norland, 1994).

>   All teachers should recognize that good teachers
>   recognize that good style is essential to their
>   rising above mediocrities, that its acquisition is
>   a whole and lifetime process, and that, though
>   style may manifest itself in skills and
>   techniques, the development of style involves much
>   more than these. (Eble, 1980, p. 1)

Developing a personal teaching style is important to

all educators. "It is an ongoing and never-ending process

of exploration, reflection, and application that includes

much more that what we can merely observe during the

teaching-learning exchange" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p.

177). One's teaching style is an expression in which one

consciously conducts the teaching-learning exchange.

"Because teaching style is comprehensive and is the overt

implementation of the teacher's beliefs about teaching, it

is directly linked to the teacher's educational philosophy"

(Conti, 1998, p. 75). It is the teacher's personal style

and philosophy that creates the learning environment, and

"the behavior of the teacher probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor" (Knowles, 1970, p. 41).

The teaching style scores of the Title 1 teachers were overwhelmingly teacher-centered. In the teacher-centered approach, the focus of the learning in on the teacher rather than on the learner (Conti, 2004). The vision and mission of the Title 1 program is to focus on the needs of the learner.   To accomplish this goal the Title 1 teachers will have to shift their focus from the teacher to the learner.

When the specific seven factors were considered that make up teaching style as conceptualized by PALS, the Title 1 teachers do support relating to experience and assessing student needs. However the Title 1 teachers are not likely to indicate a preference for climate building , encouraging a process of facilitation, and having flexibility and sensitivity for the students' needs. These are very much learner-centered beliefs.

Adult learning principles are learner-centered (Conti, 2004) and can apply to poor children. Because of their life situations, poor children have special experiences and responsibilities that they are undertaking that are adult like (Shaw, 2004). Regardless of race or ethnicity, poor children are much more likely to suffer developmental delay

and damage, to drop out of high school, and to give birth during the teen years (Miranda, 1991). "These young people are going through this transition in life as if they are trapped in a moving vessel and cannot get out" (Shaw, 2004, p. 24). These poor children are trapped in poverty without protectors who are willing to learn about the challenges they face and find ways to help them. This implies that teachers who teach poor children need to focus on the learners and their special needs in order to be effective in the classroom.

Shaw (2004) studied the learning preferences of the youth in transition to adulthood in a program founded on learner-centered concepts. He found that the youth in transition have learning strategy preferences characteristics similar to those of adult learners. Thus, Title 1 can look to adult learning principles for ways to personalize the instruction for individual learners, provide for a collaborative mode of teaching, exhibit strong support for relating to the experience of the learners, and encourage a process of facilitation.

Cultural Appreciation

The predominant cultural appreciation of Tulsa's Title 1 teachers is the individualistic view which is not compatible with the purpose and mission of the original Title 1 legislation.

Most of the participants who completed CALL have an

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individualistic view of cultural appreciation. They believe that all individuals are responsible for their life situations and are unaware of any barriers which restrict minority groups. They have a limited knowledge of culturally diverse groups and the challenges they face. The teachers who scored in the Lee group (37.9%) have an individualistic view to cultural appreciation with little awareness of culture. The Lynn group (24.9%) has the individualistic view that rejects the idea of cultural diversity. These results imply that the Title 1 teachers do not feel that cultural diversity is important in education. The majority of children who attend Title 1 schools are poor children of diverse minority groups. Two-thirds of the Title 1 teachers in Tulsa Public Schools share the Lynn and Lee individualistic view to cultural diversity. Teachers who share these views about culture are either uncomfortable with or insensitive to culture or reject the necessity for cultural diversity. This is counter to the Title 1 legislation. The Title 1 program has teachers who feel uncomfortable with the concept of culture. They feel that culture is not a necessity when teaching diverse groups of students. These are significant reasons why the Title 1 program has not been successful in Tulsa and most likely other districts. Rejecting culture as an important element

in learning ignores the valuable resources for learning that poor students bring to the classroom. "As people grow and develop they accumulate an increasing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasingly rich resource for learning" (Knowles, 1980, p. 1980). Shaw (2004) used the Highlander model, which was developed by Myles Horton and which stresses the importance of learners analyzing and building on their experiences (Moyers, 1990, p. 2), to help empower youth in transition to adulthood to take charge of their lives. The model focuses on defining problems and discussing positive and negative experiences which provide valuable insight for learners and facilitators.

Each cultural group represented in the Title 1 schools in Tulsa is unique. There are many similarities between African Americans, Latino and American Indian cultures (Applewhite, 1995; Perez-Stable, 1997; Tsotigh, 1996). These include the importance of spirituality, family, and community (McIntosh, 2005, p. 4). "Culture is not just about differences. The similarities in color can provide some understanding of similar cultural values, history, and communication" (p. 4-5). Minority cultures show importance of community, and this is a world view approach to culture. This indicates that the views on culture among the Title 1 teachers and their students are incompatible.

The differences of the cultural views of the teachers
and their students is considered an individualistic view
verses a world view toward culture. It is called
collectivist in contrast to individualistic. Collectivism
refers to a world view where people are integrated into
strong, cohesive groups, and relationships with others and
loyalty to one's group are of paramount importance.
Individualism pertains to belief systems in which ties
between individuals are loose and everyone is expected to
look after themselves and their nuclear family (Hofstede,
1980; Inkeles & Smith,1974; Parson, 1951; Triandis,1994).
Title 1 teachers will need to become aware of and appreciate
the culture that their students bring to the table. Title 1
teachers will need to become aware of cultural diversity.
Teachers will need the opportunity to reflect on the purpose
of the Title 1 program and themselves. The Title 1 teachers
need to become reflective practitioners:

> Both ordinary people and professional
> practitioners often think about what they are
> doing, sometimes even while they are doing it.
> Stimulated by surprise, they turn thought back on
> action and on the knowing which is implicit in
> action...Usually reflection on knowing-in-action
> goes together with the stuff at hand. (Schon,
> 1983, p. 50).

Teachers as reflective practitioners reflect on where they
are, where they are coming from, what they believe, and what
is the purpose of the program. It is the process of

thinking, reflecting, and taking some kind of action.
Teachers as reflective practitioners could think about how
they fit in the Title 1 program so they can make decisions
on the direction they should take in order to fulfill the
goals of the program.

A study was done at Antioch University Seattle in
efforts to develop a culturally congruent teacher education
program. The research was led by Linda Campbell, who
administers and serves as faculty in the K-12 teacher
certification programs at Antioch University in Seattle. In
1990 the university began offering a graduate level teacher
certification program. After 3 years Campbell and her
constituents realized that 90% of their students were white.
As the case with many education departments, the university
wanted to attract more minority students. Therefore that
the university's first attempts at "multiculturalizing"
their certification program included enhancing mainstream
faculty member diversity awareness, hired minority faculty
and 3- included minority authors and perspectives in
courses. While these efforts made a difference, the
department realized that they were far from a culturally
congruent program. To proceed they first had to articulate
the diverse cultural differences they encountered. Before
moving toward a truly culturally congruent teacher education

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program, the members of the department were forced to look
at the contrasting value systems of collectivist and
individualistic orientations.

"In confronting the differences in collectivism and
individualism, we realized that our certification model,
even with its alternative, progressive philosophy, strongly
adhered to mainstream" (Campbell, 1997). Campbell and her
staff realized that they needed to shift their focus. "Our
program needed to promote positive interdependence through
broader and deeper relationships...To shift our focus from
the individual student to students in relation, we first, as
a faculty had to reflect on our own beliefs" (p. 7).

> It is only when Americans realize that what they
> believe in is cultural, then they can recognize
> what African Americans or Native Americans are
> experiencing is also cultural. However, when
> Americans feel that their standard or their view
> is not cultural and is universal, and that is the
> Japanese Americans or Native Americans who are
> clinging to culture, then...there is a problem of
> discourse (Greenfield, 1994, p. 23).

It was not until Dr. Campbell and her staff realized the
disparity between their beliefs and those of minorities that
they were able to design a more cultural congruent program.
Some of the changes included (a)placing a greater emphasis
upon community and collaboration; (b)conducting fundraising
projects that provide scholarships and workshops that
strengthen math and writing skills; and (c)becoming better

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educated in the history, values, and current challenges of diverse cultural groups and as a result often make significant changes in their classes.

Why is it that the Title 1 program has failed the children it was designed to help? As one reviews the findings of this study there are many variables. The predominant number of Title 1 teachers are white females who reject culture as important to learning, and ignore the experiences poor students bring with them. These are teachers who deny every reason that the legislation was developed in the first place. Could this be a case of blaming the victim? Has the system sabotaged the success of its own program? We have poured billions of dollars into these Title 1 schools and still these poor children aren't learning. Who one can reach them?

Learning Preferences

> The Title 1 programs tend to draw teachers who are Problem Solvers who are good at generating alternatives.

In the general population, participants would be expected to be distributed "relatively equally as Navigators--36.5%, Problem Solvers--36.7%, and Engagers--31.8%" (Conti & Kolody, 1999, p. 18). However, among the Title 1 teachers, there were 69% more Problem Solvers than expected. There were fewer Engagers than expected. The

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number of Navigators was significantly low.

A teacher will need to develop special skills in order to work with children in poverty. Teaching in a Title 1 school then could be compared to working in an alternative education program. Problem Solvers enjoy generating alternatives to working out problems and therefore they are attracted to working in Title 1 schools.

Since the majority of teachers are Problem Solvers who are best at generating alternative solutions, there are implications for training for the Title 1 teachers. To help training become more exciting and dynamic for teachers a problem solving approach would be most helpful. The teachers could be presented with different scenarios of situations that they face concerning the students and their families. The teachers would begin developing ideas on how to design solutions to the problems they face on a daily basis. Navigators and Engagers do not naturally generate alternatives in learning situations. Therefore they will have to learn to appreciate and develop problem solving skills and conditional acceptance so they also will find ways to improve the academic achievement of their students.

This type of training has proven to be successful in other trainings such as "A Framework for Understanding" (Payne, 2005). Payne has her participants study case

scenarios of poor families. She then asks the teachers to do what she considers a "resource analysis" based on the conditions presented in the case studies (pp. 9-23). This type of training works well with the Tulsa teachers based on the feedback evaluations given by the participants. Thus, there is an advantage to knowing the learning preference of the teachers. The revised version of the Elementary Secondary Education Act, No Child Left Behind, has offered one type of solution to the failure of the Title 1 program. The terms are accountability, standards, and assessments. Although the NCLB act is supposed to "leave no child left behind", many teachers and critics say at least one part of the remedy has been largely neglected- better training of white, middle-class teachers to recognize and overcome challenges inherent in serving mostly minority students.

Interaction of Philosophy and Style

>   There is a relationship between educational
>   philosophy and teaching style.

 A discriminant and a regression analyses were conducted to determine if there is a correlation between educational philosophy and teaching style. The relationship can be seen from two different sides. The discriminant analysis points out the learner-centered side. The discriminant function that separated the groups in the discriminant analysis was the view of the learner as self-

directed. The regression analysis points out the teacher-centered side. The discriminant function that separated the groups was the Role of the Teacher. This is identical to what O'Brien found. O'Brien used a discriminant analysis to determine the relationship between philosophy and teaching style. Since the Role of the Teacher was identical to what O'Brien found the discriminant function here will also be named the Role of the Teacher. The discriminant function of the discriminant analysis was the view of the learner as self-directed. This function is a learner-centered approach. The discriminant function of the regression analysis was the Role of the Teacher, the teacher-centered approach. Teachers are seeing themselves as helping self-directed learners or they are seeing themselves as content directors. These show a shared concept: educators will, for whatever reasons, tend over time to perform to their strengths. The means of identifying those strengths include clustering, contrasting, and trait identification (Hiemlich & Norland, 1994, p. 46). The results of this study confirm Conti's belief that there is a link between philosophy and style (Conti, 1990). A teacher's educational philosophy does have an effect on how they behave in the classroom.

<u>Recommendations</u>

Billions of dollars have been devoted to improving the

education of children of low-income families in America through the Title 1 education program. In spite of the enormous financial contributions to education through the U.S. government, there continues to be an achievement gap between the middle class children and those who live in poverty. Poverty is an oppressive, stressful situation for poor children. Education is an important entity for these children. Education could be their only ticket out of generational poverty. "Generational poverty is defined as having been in poverty for at least two generations; however, the patterns begin to surface much sooner than two generations if the family lives with others who are from generational poverty" (Payne, 2005, p. 47). Title 1 teachers have a big responsibility to the students they serve. Teachers need to understand what these students need and to provide them alternatives that will help them to succeed not only academically but socially.

This study revealed that the educational philosophy of the teachers was mainly from the Progressive orientation and that this orientation is not comprehensive enough to fulfill the purpose and mission of the Title 1 legislation. Teachers who come from a Progressive approach to education are not as concerned with the affective domain and they take on a more learner-centered approach. Title 1 teachers need

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to come from the progressive and the Humanist orientation of educational philosophy which is a more learner-centered approach to education. Students who attend Title 1 schools are children of minority groups who are poor, who often are from one-parent homes, and who could have limited English proficiency. They are considered at-risk because they are more likely to be among the lowest achievement groups. Humanism focuses on empowering the individual to take charge of their lives. Teachers who teach Title 1 children need to believe that the children they serve have the power within themselves to improve their lives and that it is their job to help them achieve this goal.

     The second largest group of Title 1 teachers in Tulsa are from the Behaviorist school of thought. This is the B. F. Skinner approach. The Skinnerian position is that society is more important than the individual. In this approach teachers become behavioral engineers and not much attention is given to the affective domain or to other personal needs of the individual. The Title 1 teachers in Tulsa need to identify their teaching style to determine if their attitudes beliefs match the goals and mission of the Title 1 Program.   The findings in the study that the Title 1 teachers' educational philosophy, teaching style, and cultural appreciation are not compatible with the original

mission of the Elementary Secondary Education Act of the 1960's, has implications for both pre-service and in-service education of teachers. First the training at the university level should be examined and possibly improved to fit the more current needs of the teacher. Because poverty continues to grow in the United States, the number of Title 1 schools will increase. More teachers will need to be identified as compatible with the mission and goals of the Title 1 legislation. Universities will need to provide training that will challenge prospective teachers to think about what they believe about education and their world view.

School districts need to provide a pre-service for those who are about to begin teaching in Title 1 schools and an in-service for those who are already teaching in the Title 1 schools. The instruments used in this study could be administered as part of the hiring process. Teachers could be screened with the instruments and then interviewed to see if their professional beliefs and personal beliefs are compatible with those of the Title 1 program. Instrumented learning should be used in this process. In the instrumented learning process, self-report instruments ask questions and provide feedback with interpretation (Ayers, n. d.). Individuals interpret their self-

description or feedback to a theory of behavior which makes sense of it (Blake & Mouton, 1972a, 114). The Title 1 program should give the instruments included in this study to gather information about the teachers who want to enter the program. This process would help administrators to hire teachers whose beliefs and attitudes fit the goals of the Title 1 program.

Title 1 teachers need professional development that will assist them in discovering their educational philosophy and their teaching style and world view. Because Title 1 draws teachers who Problem are Solvers who are knowledgeable at generating alternatives, the training should include a problem-based approach where the teachers are presented with scenarios with questions that would cause them to generate multiple solutions.

<u>Recommendations for Future Studies</u>

The results of this study suggests that several other studies might be conducted to further its findings. A similar study could be conducted with other governmental programs such as Title III English Language Learners program. Using the same instruments to identify the ELL teachers' educational philosophy, teaching Style, learning preferences, and cultural awareness a study could be done to see if the teachers match the mission and goals if the Title

III program.

A future study could be done to link the demographic variables used in this study to academic achievement. The study could be done to see if there is a relationship between students and their learning preferences and academic achievement.

A study in reference to parents and what they expect from the schools would be helpful. The research questions could investigate: (a) the kind of educational philosophy parents think the teachers should have and (b) if parents want the teachers of their children to have a collectivist view or an individualistic view.

Since administrators are the ones who hire teachers, a future study, using the same instruments, could identify their educational philosophy, cultural awareness, and learning preferences. As they become more familiar with their own attitudes and beliefs about education maybe they could better understand the type of teacher that is needed in certain governmental specialty programs such as Title 1.

<u>Personal Reflection</u>

In 2001, I had the opportunity to hear Dr. Ruby Payne, author of "A Framework for Understanding Poverty", speak on the issue of teaching children who live in poverty. My job at the time was teacher trainer who was responsible for

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training teachers on best practices that improve student achievement. Although I had always been concerned about the lack of academic achievement among African-Americans, especially African American males, I had not heard anyone speak about poverty. Payne described poverty in a way that kept the dignity and respect of the poor in tact.

The majority of the people who live in poverty are children (Payne, 1996). The public schools systems are expected to educate these children. Teachers are expected to raise their level of achievement to that of their middle-class peers. The job of educating poor children is a great challenge. It is this challenge that encouraged Dr. Payne to share her knowledge with the world. Since 1995 "A Framework for Understanding Poverty" has helped many of educators and other professionals through the barriers faced by all classes, especially the poor.

What makes Payne's research so powerful is it offers both theory and practice for working with poor families. She has also developed learning strategies that help teachers in the classroom. Additional efforts of placing teachers in Title 1 schools with a philosophy, teaching style, and cultural appreciation that match the goals of the law will certainly improve the academic achievement of poor children. It is my hope that the results of this study will

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support Payne's efforts in improving the education of all
poor children.

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APPENDIX

PHILOSOPHY OF ADULT EDUCATION INVENTORY

Each of the 15 items on the Inventory begins with an incomplete sentence, followed by five different options that might complete the sentence. Find the corresponding number and letter on the answer sheet and indicate your response by circling a number from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). **Please rate ALL the possible responses**. There are no "right" or "wrong" ratings.

1. In planning an educational activity, I am most likely to:
    (a) identify, in conjunction with learners, significant social and political issues and plan learning activities around them.
    (b) clearly identify the results I want and construct a program that will almost run itself.
    (c) begin with a lesson plan that organizes what I plan to teach, when and how.
    (d) assess learners' needs and develop valid learning activities based on those needs.
    (e) consider the areas of greatest interest to the learners and plan to deal with them regardless of what they may be.

2. People learn best:
    (a) when the new knowledge is presented from a problem-solving approach.
    (b) when the learning activity provides for practice and repetition.
    (c) through dialogue with other learners and a group coordinator.
    (d) when they are free to explore, without the constraints of a "system."
    (e) from an "expert" who knows what he or she is talking about.

3. The primary purpose of Adult Education is:
    (a) to facilitate personal development on the part of the learner.
    (b) to increase learners' awareness of the need for social change and to enable them to effect such change.
    (c) to develop conceptual and theoretical understanding.
    (d) to establish the learners' capacity to solve individual and societal problems.
    (e) to develop the learners' competency and mastery of specific skills.

4. Most of what people know:
    (a) is a result of consciously pursuing goals, solving problems as they go.
    (b) they have learned through critical thinking focused on important social and political issues.
    (c) they have learned through a trial-and-feedback process.
    (d) they have gained through self-discovery rather than some "teaching" process.
    (e) they have acquired through a systematic educational process.

5. Decisions about what to include in an educational activity:
    (a) should be made mostly by the learner in consultation with a facilitator.
    (b) should be based on what learners know and what the teacher believes they should know at the end of the activity.
    (c) should be based on a consideration of key social and cultural situations.
    (d) should be based on a consideration of the learner's needs, interests and problems.

(e) should be based on careful analysis by the teacher of the material to be covered and the concepts to be taught.

6. Good adult educators start planning instruction:
    (a) by considering the end behaviors they are looking for and the most efficient way of producing them in learners.
    (b) by identifying problems that can be solved as a result of the instruction.
    (c) by clarifying the concepts or theoretical principals to be taught.
    (d) by clarifying key social and political issues that affect the lives of the learners.
    (e) by asking learners to identify what they want to learn and how they want to learn it.

7. As an adult educator, I am most successful in situations:
    (a) that are unstructured and flexible enough to follow learners' interests.
    (b) that are fairly structured, with clear learning objective and built-in feedback to the learners.
    (c) where I can focus on practical skills and knowledge that can be put to use in solving problems.
    (d) where the scope of the new material is fairly clear and the subject matter is logically organized.
    (e) where the learners have some awareness of social and political issues and are willing to explore the impact of such issues on their daily lives.

8. In planning an educational activity, I try to create:
    (a) the real world--problems and all--and to develop learners' capacities for dealing with it.
    (b) a setting in which learners are encouraged to examine their beliefs and values and to raise critical questions.
    (c) a controlled environment that attracts and holds learners, moving them systematically towards the objective(s).
    (d) a clear outline of the content and the concepts to be taught.
    (e) a supportive climate that facilitates self-discovery and interaction.

9. The learners' feelings during the learning process:
    (a) must be brought to the surface in order for learners to become truly involved in their learning.
    (b) provide energy that can be focused on problems or questions.
    (c) will probably have a great deal to do with the way they approach their learning.
    (d) are used by the skillful adult educator to accomplish the learning objective(s).
    (e) may get in the way of teaching by diverting the learners' attention.

10. The teaching methods I use:
    (a) focus on problem-solving and present real challenges to the learner.
    (b) emphasize practice and feedback to the learner.
    (c) are mostly non-directive, encouraging the learner to take responsibility for his/her own learning.
    (d) involve learners in dialogue and critical examination of controversial issues.

(e) are determined primarily by the subject or content to be covered.

11. When learners are uninterested in a subject, it is because:
    (a) they do not realize how serious the consequences of not understanding or learning the subject may be.
    (b) they do not see any benefit for their daily lives.
    (c) the teacher does not know enough about the subject or is unable to make it interesting to the learner.
    (d) they are not getting adequate feedback during the learning process.
    (e) they are not ready to learn it or it is not a high priority for them personally.

12. Differences among adult learners:
    (a) are relatively unimportant as long as the learners gain a common base of understanding through the learning experience.
    (b) enable them to learn best on their own time and in their own way.
    (c) are primarily due to differences in their life experiences and will usually lead them to make different applications of new knowledge and skills to their own situations.
    (d) arise from their particular cultural and social situations and can be minimized as they recognize common needs and problems.
    (e) will not interfere with their learning if each learner is given adequate opportunity for practice and reinforcement.

13. Evaluation of learning outcomes:
    (a) is not of great importance and may not be possible, because the impact of learning may not be evident until much later.
    (b) should be built into the system, so that learners will continually receive feedback and can adjust their performance accordingly.
    (c) is best done by the learners themselves, for their own purposes.
    (d) lets me know how much learners have increased their conceptual understanding of new material.
    (e) is best accomplished when the learner encounters a problem, either in the learning setting or the real world, and successfully resolves it.

14. My primary role as a teacher of adults is to:
    (a) guide learners through learning activities with well-directed feedback.
    (b) systematically lead learners step by step in acquiring new information and understanding underlying theories and concepts.
    (c) help learners identify and learn to solve problems.
    (d) increase learners' awareness of environmental and social issues and help them to have an impact on these situations.
    (e) facilitate, but not to direct, learning activities.

15. In the end, if learners have not learned what was taught:
    (a) the teacher has not actually taught.
    (b) they need to repeat the experience, or a portion of it.
    (c) they may have learned something else which they consider just as interesting or

useful.
(d) they do not recognize how learning will enable them to significantly influence society.
(e) it is probably because they are unable to make practical application of new knowledge to problems in their daily lives.

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

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

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

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

22. I accept errors as a natural part of the learning process.
23. I have individual conferences to help students identify their educational needs.
24. I let each student work at his/her own rate regardless of the amount of time it takes him/her to learn a new concept.
25. I help my students develop short-range as well as long-range objectives.
26. I maintain a well-disciplined classroom to reduce interferences to learning.
27. I avoid discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgments.
28. I allow my students to take periodic breaks during the class.
29. I use methods that foster quiet, productive, deskwork.
30. I use tests as my chief method of evaluating students.
31. I plan activities that will encourage each student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.
32. I gear my instructional objectives to match the individual abilities and needs of the students.
33. I avoid issues that relate to the student's concept of himself/herself.
34. I encourage my students to ask questions about the nature of their society.
35. I allow a student's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.
36. I have my students identify their own problems that need to be solved.
37. I give all students in my class the same assignment on a given topic.
38. I use materials that were originally designed for students in elementary and secondary schools.
39. I organize adult learning episodes according to the problems that my students encounter in everyday life.
40. I measure a student's long-term educational growth by comparing his/her total achievement in class to his/her expected performance as measured by national norms from standardized tests.
41. I encourage competition among my students.
42. I use different materials with different students.
43. I help students relate new learning to their prior experiences.
44. I teach units about problems of everyday living.

ATLAS™

Assessing The Learning Strategies of AdultS

ATLAS
(*A*ssessing *T*he *L*earning Strategies of *A*dult*S*)

Directions: The following colored cards have statements on them related to learning in real-life situations in which you control the learning situation. These are situations that are **not** in a formal school. For each one, select the response that best fits you, and follow the arrows to the next colored card that you should use. Only read the cards to which you are sent. Continue this process until you come to the Groups of Learners sheet. Along the way, you will learn about the group in which you belong. Follow the arrow to start.

When considering a new learning activity such as learning a new craft, hobby, or skill for use in my personal life,

I like to identify the best possible resources such as manuals, books, modern information sources, or experts for the learning project.

I usually will not begin the learning activity until I am convinced that I will enjoy it enough to successfully finish it.

Go to Red Card

Go to Gray Card

Printed on BLUE card stock
Page 1

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                                       │
│                     It is important for me to:                        │
│                                                                       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                │                                        │
                ▼                                        ▼
┌──────────────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────────────┐
│   Focus on the end result │            │                          │
│  and then set up a plan with│          │  Think of a variety of ways│
│  such things as schedules │            │   of learning the material.│
│  and deadlines for learning│           │                          │
│            it.            │            │                          │
└──────────────────────────┘            └──────────────────────────┘
                │                                        │
                ▼                                        ▼
┌──────────────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────────────┐
│     Go to Yellow Card     │            │      Go to Green Card     │
└──────────────────────────┘            └──────────────────────────┘
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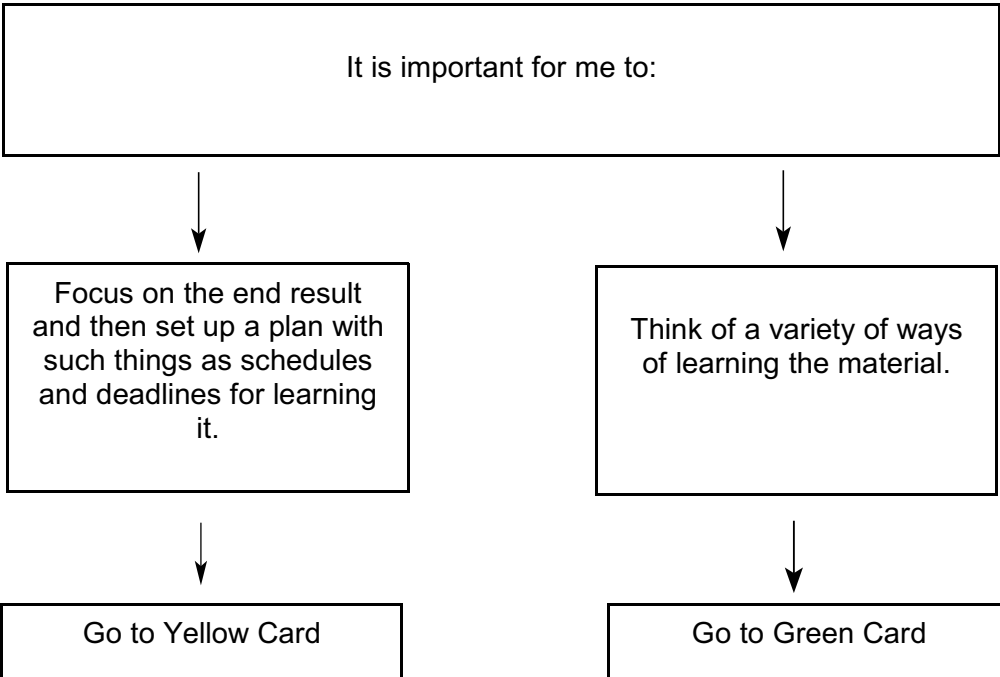
Printed on Red card stock
Page 2

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                        I like to:                            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
              │                                  │
              ▼                                  ▼
┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ Involve other people │          │ Structure the information│
│ who know about the   │          │ to be learned to help    │
│ topic in my learning │          │ remind me that I can     │
│ activity.            │          │ successfully complete    │
│                      │          │ the learning             │
└──────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
              │                                  │
              ▼                                  ▼
┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ You are a **Navigator**:│       │ You are a **Navigator**:  │
│ Subgroup 1           │          │ Subgroup 2               │
└──────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
              │                                  │
              ▼                                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Go to **Groups of Learners** Card              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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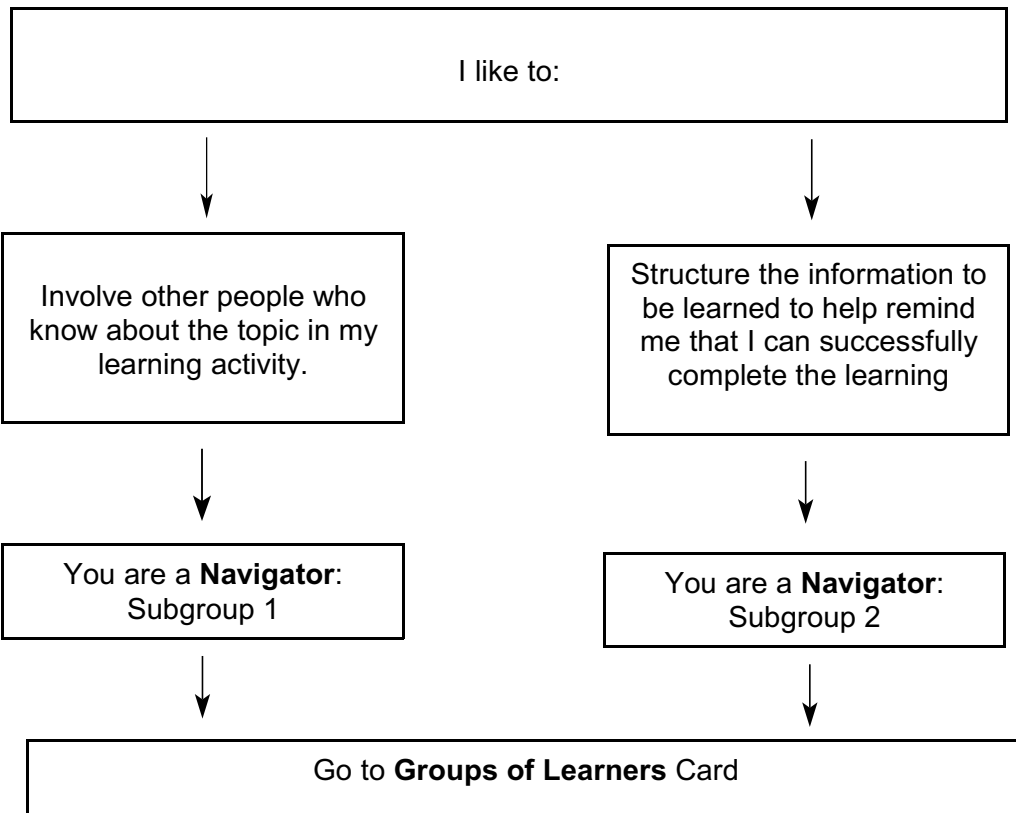
Printed on YELLOW card stock
Page 3

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                              I like to:                                   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
              │                                          │
              ▼                                          ▼
┌───────────────────────────┐          ┌───────────────────────────┐
│                           │          │   Check out the resources  │
│  Set up a plan for the best│          │   that I am going to use to │
│  way to proceed with a    │          │  make sure that they are the│
│  specific learning task.  │          │  best ones for the learning │
│                           │          │                           │
└───────────────────────────┘          └───────────────────────────┘
              │                                          │
              ▼                                          ▼
┌───────────────────────────┐          ┌───────────────────────────┐
│   You are a **Problem     │          │   You are a **Problem     │
│   Solver**: Subgroup 1    │          │   Solver**: Subgroup 2    │
└───────────────────────────┘          └───────────────────────────┘
              │                                          │
              ▼                                          ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  Go to **Groups of Learners** Card                        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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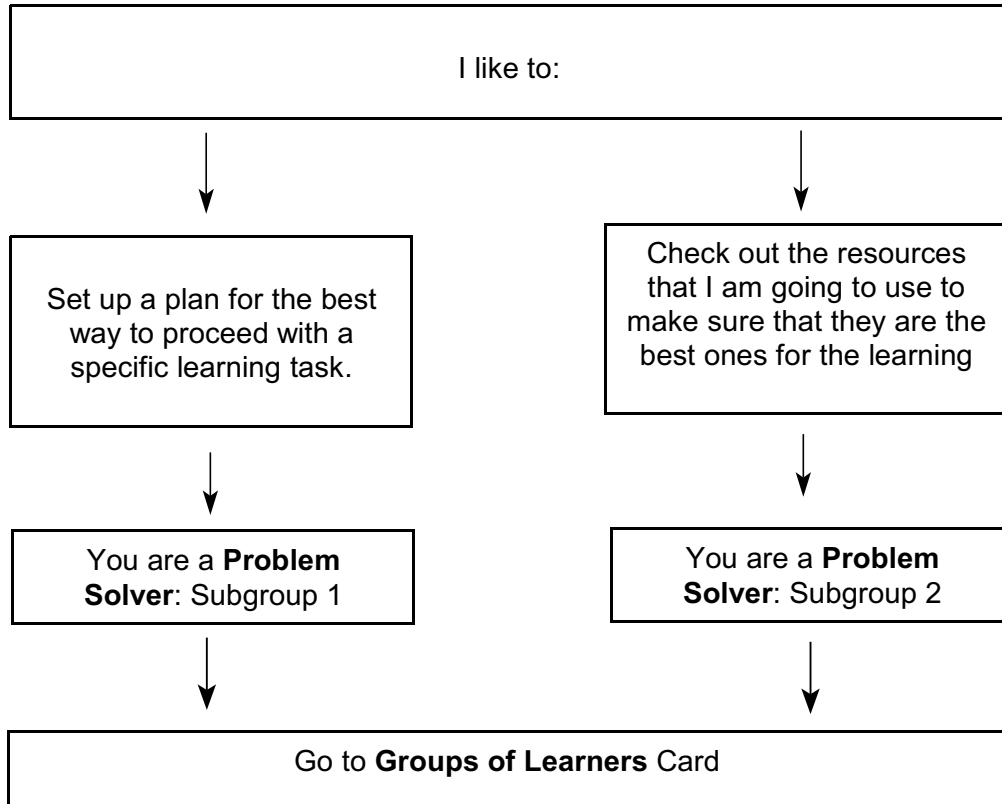
Printed on GREEN card stock
Page 4

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                           I like to:                         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                    │
            ▼                                    ▼
┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│                      │          │ Determine the best way to│
│ Involve other people │          │ proceed with a learning  │
│ who know about the   │          │ task by evaluating the   │
│ topic in my          │          │ results that I have      │
│ learning activity.   │          │ already obtained during  │
│                      │          │ the learning task.       │
└──────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
            │                                    │
            ▼                                    ▼
┌──────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ You are an Engager:  │          │ You are an Engager:      │
│ Subgroup 1           │          │ Subgroup 2               │
└──────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
            │                                    │
            ▼                                    ▼
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│            Go to Groups of Learners Card                     │
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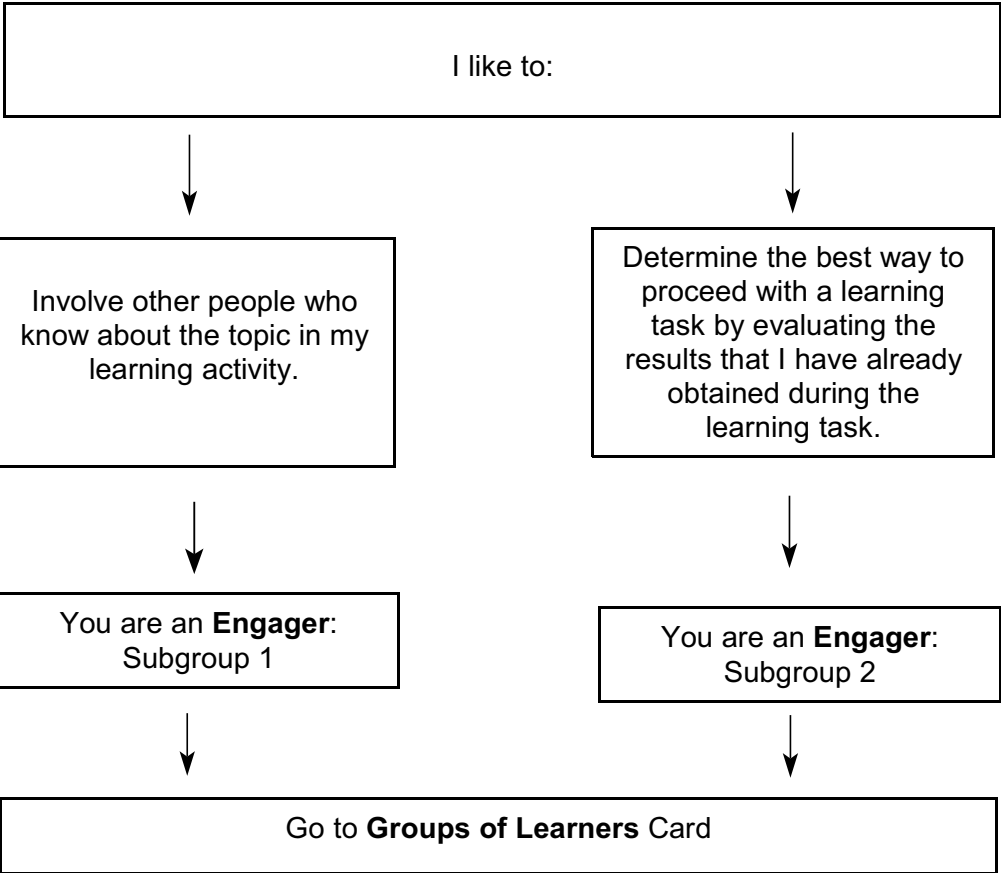
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Page 5

Navigators

Description: Focused learners who chart a course for learning and follow it. Subgroup 1 likes to use human resources while Subgroup 2 is more concerned with the organization of the material into meaningful patterns.

Characteristics: Focus on the learning process that is external to them by relying heavily on planning and monitoring the learning task, on identifying resources, and on the critical use of resources.

Instructor: Schedules and deadlines helpful. Outlining objectives and expectations, summarizing main points, giving prompt feedback, and preparing instructional situation for subsequent lessons.

Problem Solvers

Description: Learners who rely heavily on all the strategies in the area of critical thinking. Subgroup 1 likes to plan for the best way to proceed with the learning task while Subgroup 2 is more concerned with assuring that they use the most appropriate resources for the learning task.

Characteristics: Test assumptions, generate alternatives, practice conditional acceptance, as well as adjusting their learning process, use many external aids, and identify many of resources. Like to use human resources and usually do not do well on multiple-choice tests.

Instructor: Provide an environment of practical experimentation, give examples from personal experience, and assess learning with open-ended questions and problem-solving activities.

Engagers

Description: Passionate learners who love to learn, learn with feeling, and learn best when actively engaged in a meaningful manner. Subgroup 1 likes to use human resources while Subgroup 2 favors reflecting upon the results of the learning and planning for the best way to learn.

Characteristics: Must have an internal sense of the importance of the learning to them personally before getting involved in the learning. Once confident of the value of the learning, likes to maintain a focus on the material to be learned. Operates out of the Affective Domain related to learning.

Instructor: Provide an atmosphere that creates a relationship between the learner, the task, and the teacher. Focus on learning rather than evaluation and encourage personal exploration for learning. Group work also helps to create a positive environment.

Groups of Learners

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 5/2/2005

Date: Monday, May 03, 2004   IRB Application No   ED04109

Proposal Title: The Teaching-Learning Beliefs of Title 1 Teachers in Tulsa, Oklahoma

Principal
Investigator(s):

Janice Watkins   Gary J Conti
7609 E 116th St. N.   206 Willard
Collinsville, OK 74021   Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and
Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of
the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of
individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be
conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol
   must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar
   year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are
   unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the
authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions
about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact me in 415 Whitehurst
(phone: 405-744-5700, colson@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

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VITA

Janice Beatrice Watkins

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Dissertation: THE EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES OF TITLE
    1 TEACHERS IN TULSA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Education: Graduated from St. Johns High School, McAlester,
    Oklahoma May 1965; received Bachelor of Education
    degree in Elementary Education from East Central State
    University in May 1968; received a Master of Education
    degree in Guidance and Counseling from Northeastern
    State University in Tahlequah, Oklahoma in 1977,
    Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education
    degree with a major in Human Resources and Adult
    Education at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater,
    Oklahoma in May, 2006.

Experience: Teacher Trainer at Tulsa Public Schools, 1997 to
    present. Counselor at Tulsa Public Schools, 1995-1997,
    Psychotherapist for Children's Medical Center,
    1990-1995, Counselor and Classroom Teacher, Tulsa
    Public Schools, 1979-1994.

Professional Memberships/Certifications: Oklahoma Standard
    Teaching Certificate - Elementary Education, Guidance
    and Counseling, Spanish K-8,, Sociology K-12. Member
    of National Education, Oklahoma Education Association,
    Tulsa Classroom Teachers' Association, Association for
    Supervision and Curriculum Development, and American
    Council for Staff Development.